High-quality schooling

ourplace
education is the key to the door

Table of contents

Introduction

This paper synthesises the evidence base on high-quality schooling, what it looks like, why it is important, what the barriers and challenges are to implementing it and what good practice in high-quality schooling looks like.

The report covers five critical aspects of high-quality schooling:

- Chapter 1: Effective teaching and learning.

- Chapter 2: Social and emotional learning and support.

- Chapter 3: Support for school attendance and engagement.

- Chapter 4: Parent engagement in learning.

- Chapter 5: School leadership.

1

Effective teaching and learning

Education is key to breaking cycles of disadvantage and for setting children up for success. Education enables upward socioeconomic mobility and is a key to escaping poverty and reducing social and economic inequalities (United Nation, n.d; Gonski et al., 2018; Burger 2010). However, the quality of children's education and the learning environments they have access to are a key determinant of whether education helps break cycles of disadvantage or further entrenches them. There is a consistent evidence base about the importance of quality, evidence-based teaching and the core skills and knowledge that are critical for young people to develop (AITSL, 2021).

Quality teaching significantly impacts student outcomes: Teaching quality is the single most important in-school factor influencing student achievement (Hattie, 2009,Marzano 2000, Hanushek, E. A., & S. G. Rivkin. (2010).). An excellent teacher, with strong professional

skills, can account for up to 30 per cent of the difference in achievement between students (Hattie, 2003). Quality teaching is related to positive developmental outcomes in children (Egert, Fukkink & Eckhardt, 2018), and has also been shown to mitigate the impact of socioeconomic status of achievement, and close the 'achievement gap' (Akiba, LeTendre & Scribner, 2007).

> **"**
>
> **What goes on in the classroom and the impact of the teacher and teaching, has been identified in numerous studies as the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes. The way teachers teach is of critical concern in any reform designed to improve quality."**
>
> **UNESCO, 2004, p.152**

Evidence-based, differentiated teaching strategies and formative assessment to target learning are critical: Central to effective teaching is knowledge and use of a variety of evidence-based teaching strategies (Hornby & Greaves, 2022). Ongoing rigorous assessment is essential to provide evidence on what students know and what they are ready to learn. Differentiated teaching strategies and high expectation for all students, enable students to progress to higher levels of achievement (Gonski et al., 2018; Hornby & Greaves, 2022).

Key foundational skills are essential building blocks for children and young people to become successful learners, confident and creative individuals, and active and informed citizens: It is crucial to explicitly teach foundation skills, which will enable students to build more complex skills and knowledge and succeed as they take more responsibility in their learning journey over time. The importance of literacy and numeracy skills in particular is well established (CESE, 2016). These skills have a significant impact on both individuals and society as literacy and numeracy underpin educational attainment, workforce participation, productivity and the broader economy, and can also impact social and health outcomes (CESE, 2016; AIHW, 2022). Without these skills students are at risk of not being able to participate in the workforce or engage fully in social and civic life (CESE, 2016). Many factors in childhood can affect children's development of literacy and numeracy skills, including if books are available at home or if parents read aloud to their children meaning that students experiencing disadvantage can start school already behind on foundational skills (AIHW, 2022).

General capabilities or cross curricular competencies are an integrated and interconnected set of knowledge, skills, behaviours, and dispositions that apply across learning areas (see for example the Australian Curriculum, ACARA, n.d; PISA frameworks, especially the concept of cross curricular competencies; OECD, 2000).

These skills serve as an essential foundation for further learning and development (Gonski et al., 2018). General capabilities enable individuals to collaborate, actively participate in their own learning, translate knowledge into meaningful analysis and understanding, to participate in society and are useful for future employment (Gonski et al., 2018).

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING REQUIRES STRUCTURAL SUPPORT, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND COLLABORATION

While there is a consensus that effective teaching and learning contributes significantly to children and young people's learning and development, there is contested evidence on what frameworks are best to embed teaching practices and inconsistency with how they are applied in practice (AERO, 2021)

Challenges such as the lack of structural support, resources, and professional development and complex, diverse student populations and social inequity also make 'good' harder to define and achieve.

Improving teaching and learning requires structural support. The literature shows that policies and programs intended to improve teaching and learning need to focus on schools and teachers, supported by strong supervision, flexible policies, efficient administration, and community involvement (Leu, 2005). A World Bank report includes a school systems focus on what children need to know and be able to do, and a school level focus on instructional improvement to drive consistency in practice. (World Bank, 2013). A UNESCO report highlighted five key areas critical to teacher quality including recruitment into teaching, quality and consistency of initial teacher education, ongoing professional development, teacher deployment, and conditions of employment (UNESCO, 2004).

This highlights the complex structural nature of improving teacher quality beyond what is going on in the classroom.

Professional learning is required to increase the quality of teaching and learning. Teaching is complex and demanding work that requires highly specialised skills and knowledge to impact significantly on student learning. As outlined already quality teaching is a key factor that influences student achievement (Ferguson & Ladd 1996; Wenglinsky 2000; Darling-Hammond 2000). The research also affirms that engaging teachers in high-quality professional learning is a way to improve teacher effectiveness (Greenwald, Hedges & Laine 1995; Guskey & Huberman 1995; Elmore & Burney 1997; Hawley & Valli 1999; Elmore 2002).

On average, Australian teachers spend less time on professional learning and collaboration than teachers across OECD countries, which means across the board teachers are not able to maximise a key lever to improve their practice and deliver effective teaching and learning (OECD, 2013). The OECD survey revealed that only around one third of Australian lower-secondary teachers had

recently participated in professional learning aimed at cross-disciplinary capabilities like problem-solving, and only one in 10 participated in training to help children develop transferable skills for future work or study. Australian teachers spend considerably less time on professional learning than teachers in the world's best performing school system, and more face-to-face teaching, placing pressure on their time and giving them less time for other teaching work, making it challenging to improve their practice (Jensen, 2012).

Collaborative practice is an essential ingredient in quality teaching, but challenging in practice. When teachers work together to improve their practice, students learn more. Collaboration builds collective responsibility for constantly improving teaching practice and striving for high-quality education, and helps build collective teacher efficacy – the perceptions and judgements of a group of educators regarding their ability to positive influence student outcomes (Donohoo, 2017). In Hattie's recent synthesis of meta-analyses, collective teacher efficacy has the highest effect size of all teaching strategies (Donohoo, Hattie & Eells, 2018). However, is very challenging to achieve in practice. Many contextual factors effect teachers' ability to build collective efficacy including trust, sense of belonging, opportunities for teacher leadership, social relationships and school culture (Donohoo, 2017). It can also be a challenge to develop a shared understanding of what excellent practice looks like, combined with a lack of resources, time and limited time for professional learning (Donohoo, 2017). Although there has been a significant increase in the quantity of research into teacher efficacy, there is still much to be learned to understand how to effectively implement it (Donohoo, 2017).

Social inequity and diverse student populations, provide challenges in implementing best practice. Significant differences remain in the preparedness of Australian children when transitioning from early education and care settings into full-time school, with nearly a quarter of children starting school developmentally vulnerable (AEDC, 2015). Disparities in school readiness can have long-term effects on the learning outcomes of school-age children (Gonski et al., 2018). Developmentally vulnerable children are more likely to face difficulties settling into school (Gonski et al., 2018). This provides an extra challenge to implementing effective teaching and learning, as teachers need to focus on specific interventions to target developmental vulnerability and disadvantage. This includes multi-tiered interventions to support children with additional learning needs (AERO, n.d). Unless they receive additional support early, this impedes a child's long-term ability to learn and to achieve strong educational outcomes (Masters, 2016).

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING RELIES ON QUALITY TEACHING, LAYING FOUNDATIONS EARLY, SUPPORTING EXPERT EDUCATORS AND SCHOOL LEADERS, AND STRIVING FOR CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT

Given teaching quality is the single most important in-school factor influencing student achievement a crucial aspect of effective teaching and learning is adopting evidence-based teaching practices (Hattie, 2009). An example of this is outlined in Box 1 'High-Impact Teaching Strategies' published by the Victorian Department of Education based on the meta-analysis of John Hattie and Robert Marzano into how teaching strategies contribute to student learning. The success of these practices is dependent on adoption of a clear and consistent model of learning and teaching across a school. The Gonski 2.0 Review identified key priorities for creating the conditions for students to succeed and for achieving educational excellence (Gonski et al., 2018; CESE, 2016):

Create, support, and value expert educators. Quality teaching is the key to accelerating student learning growth and helping all students reach their potential. A high-quality teaching profession is essential, and we need to support our educators with appropriate induction, training, tools, resources, and practices. These include:

- Create conditions and culture to enable and encourage more professional collaboration, observation, feedback and mentoring amongst teachers.

- Provide teachers sufficient time to access high-quality professional learning.

- Implement effective induction practices for early career teachers, including models of extended placement to build practice.

- Create meaningful career pathways which value and utilise teaching expertise and keep excellent teachers teaching.

Empower and support school leaders. School leaders are instrumental in raising achievement through continuous improvement. For principals to maximise their contribution to school and system improvement, we need to:

- Prioritise leadership of learning and include accountability for individual student growth.
- Ensure principals have the autonomy required to lead their school on the improvement journey most relevant to their starting point.
- Create and implement structured career pathways for school leaders.
- Provide school leaders with high-quality professional learning.

Raise and achieve aspirations through innovation and continuous improvement. The best education systems encourage innovation and improvement in schools over the long term. To build a continuously improving education school model with high expectations, ongoing innovation, it is crucial we:

- Enhance school and system internal self-review and external quality assurance processes for the purposes of monitoring and reviewing student learning gain.
- Leverage independent institutions that coordinate, source and generate the development of national research and evidence base that can be easily accessed and implemented to improve student outcomes.

Box 1:

HIGH-IMPACT TEACHING STRATEGIES, VICTORIAN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ten instructional practices that reliably increase student learning wherever they are applied. John Hattie and Robert Marzano synthesised studies and ranked teaching strategies by the contribution they make to student learning (effect size) (Hattie, 2009; Hornby & Greaves, 2022).

- **Setting goals, which looks like lessons that have clear learning intentions with goals that clarify what success looks like.**

- **Structuring lessons, which involves when lesson structures map the teaching and learning that happens in the class, reinforce routines, optimise time on task and use smooth transitions.**

- **Explicit teaching is when teachers clearly show students what to do and how to do it, often demonstrating by modelling and making learning goals and success criteria transparent.**

- **Worked examples demonstrate the steps required to complete a task or problem and scaffold the learning to support skill acquisition and reduce a learner's cognitive load.**

- **Collaborative learning occurs when students work in small groups and everyone participates in a learning task.**

- **Multiple exposures provide students with multiple opportunities to encounter, engage with, and elaborate on new knowledge and skills.**

- **Questioning engages students, stimulates interest and curiosity in the learning and makes links to students' lives. Questioning opens opportunities for students to discuss, argue, and express opinions and alternative points of view. Questioning also yields immediate feedback on student understanding.**

- **Feedback informs a student and/or teacher about the student's performance relative to learning goals, and can redirect and refocus teacher and student action to align effort with learning goals.**

- **Metacognitive strategies teach students to think about their own thinking. Metacognition extends to self-regulation, planning how to approach learning tasks, managing motivation, evaluating progress and monitoring comprehension.**

- **Differentiated teaching are methods teachers use to extend the knowledge and skills of every student in every class, regardless of their starting point or learning needs.**

2 Social and emotional learning and support

Social and emotional learning (SEL) is the process by which children and young people develop and learn a broad range of social emotional and behavioural skills (Durlak, Domitrovich, Weissberg, & Gullotti, 2015). Social and emotional capabilities include skills across a range of domains, including:

- Cognitive – including basic cognitive skills required to direct behaviour toward the attainment of a goal (e.g., attention control, inhibition control, self-regulation).

- Emotion – includes skills that help to recognise, express and control emotions as well as understand and empathise with others (e.g., emotion expression, emotion regulation, perspective-taking).

- Social – includes skills that help to accurately interpret other people's behaviour, effectively navigate social situations and interact positively with others (e.g., working collaboratively, conflict resolution, prosocial behaviour).

- Values – includes the skills, traits and habits that support you to be a prosocial and productive community member (e.g., ethics, civic values).

- Perspectives – is how you view and approach the world (e.g., how you see yourself, how you interpret and approach challenges).

- Identity – encompasses how you understand and perceive yourself (e.g. self-knowledge, purpose, self-efficacy, self-esteem) (Harvard, n.d.; Wigelsworth et al., 2021; Clarke & Waddell, 2018).

Studies show that social and emotional learning leads to beneficial outcomes for students including academic achievement, wellbeing, and broader life outcomes (Goldberg et al., 2018; Goodman et al., 2015). There is also clear evidence that these skills and capabilities can be taught and learned, and that schools play an important role in the development of social and emotional skills for children and young people (Wigelsworth et al., 2021; Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Pearce et al., 2019; Emerson, et al., 2012; MacCann et al., 2020; Durlak et al., 2011).). Evidence is clear that social and emotional skills can be effectively and explicitly taught in classroom and school settings (Goldberg et al., 2018; Robson et al., 2020; Sklad et al., 2012; Taylor et al., 2017).

In general, the evidence for social and emotional learning in schools is strong. However, there is considerable diversity of terminology in the social and emotional learning space, and many different programs, models and interventions ranging from the teaching of capabilities to trauma informed frameworks and approaches to learning. Researchers caution that this can result in an over-generalisation about social and emotional skills and can make comparing the effectiveness of different social and emotional learning interventions difficult (Wigelsworth et al., 2021; EEF, 2021; Goldberg et al., 2018; Sklad et al., 2012; Robson et al., 2020).

SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL SKILLS ARE LINKED TO ACHIEVEMENT, MENTAL HEALTH AND FUTURE OUTCOMES

Social and emotional skills play a crucial role in children and young people's development (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Corcoran, 2018). There is extensive evidence which suggests that improving social and emotional learning equips students to connect with others, build strong relationships with their peers and teachers, and persist in the face of challenges. This supports them to experience belonging and engagement at school, helps them learn more effectively, and increases their chances of success both in school and later life (Corcoran, 2018; Clarke et al., 2015; Weare & Nind, 2011; Yoshikawa et al., 2015). Social and

emotional learning is closely tied to positive outcomes for children and young people's educational attainment and achievement, health and wellbeing, including mental health and their future outcomes (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; OECD, 2015; Taylor et al., 2017).

The most recent synthesis of meta-analyses of school-based social and emotional learning programs found evidence of program effectiveness for students in every grade level, across a range of demographic variables (gender, race, income), and outcomes that are sustained over time (Greenberg, 2023). It found medium to large effect sizes demonstrating that:

- SEL programs taught by classroom teachers promote the development of social and emotional competencies.

- Fostering these competencies facilitates positive, prosocial behaviours and positive relationships with others.

- SEL programs reduce disruptive behaviour problems and emotional distress.

- Fostering these competencies increases students' engagement in learning and subsequently improves students' cognitive and academic performance (Greenberg, 2023).

These findings are consistent with the evidence base on school-based social and emotional learning initiatives.

There is a strong connection between social and emotional skills and educational attainment and achievement. Social and emotional learning provides the building blocks for students to engage in further learning. (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Buchanan et al., 2009; Corcoran et al., 2018). Highlighting the importance of building foundational social and emotional skills in primary school, longitudinal research in the UK found that low levels of social and emotional development among 11–14-year-olds is associated with a lower likelihood of passing their GSCE at age 16 (Smith et al., 2019). Effective implementation of social and emotional learning programs into the broader school curriculum can have a positive effect on academic achievement, including on long-term academic performance (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; MacCann et al., 2020; Emerson, et al., 2012; Corcoran et al., 2018). Results from a landmark meta-analysis of 213 studies found that social and emotional learning interventions increased students' academic performance by 11 percentile points, compared with students who didn't participate (Durlak et al., 2011).

Social and emotional learning has been shown to improve students' mental health. Social and emotional learning interventions when implemented effectively can positively impact children and young people's mental health outcomes. A recent 2021 systematic review found that universal social and emotional learning interventions enhance young people's social and emotional skills and reduce symptoms of depression and anxiety (Clarke et al., 2021). A meta-analysis which examined the impact of social and emotional learning interventions across 32 secondary schools found social and emotional learning interventions had a significant effect size for reducing symptoms of depression, anxiety, aggression and a small-to-medium effect on reducing substance use (van de Sande et al., 2019). Another meta-analysis of 75 school-based universal social and emotional learning programs across primary and secondary school found that programs had an immediate effect on positive self-image, prosocial behaviour, and improvement in mental disorders and substance abuse (Sklad et al., 2012). Early development of social and emotional competency has been found to be a protective factor against the emergence of mental ill-health later in life and is linked to a reduction in future substance abuse (Greenberg, Domitrovich, & Bumbarger, 2001; Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Durlak et al., 2011).

Social and emotional learning improves children and young people's future outcomes. Developing social and emotional skills early is a foundation for healthy development and builds the foundation for continued skill development in later schooling and adult life (Wigelsworth et al., 2021; Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Corcoran et al., 2018; OECD, 2015; Taylor et al., 2017; Clarke et al., 2021). These outcomes include success in personal, social, and health-related outcomes both in the short and long-term including improved social and emotional skills, attitudes about self, school and others, and increased prosocial behaviour and a reduction in problem behaviours including aggression (Wigelsworth et al., 2021; Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Murano, Sawyer & Lipnevich, 2020; Taylor et al., 2017; Corcoran et al., 2018). A 2015 US study found statistically significant associations between measured social-emotional skills in kindergarten and key young adult outcomes across multiple domains of education, employment, criminal activity, substance abuse and mental health (Jones et al., 2015). A meta-analysis of 82 school-based universal social and emotional learning interventions for kindergarten to high school students found that there was a strong correlation between strong emotional competency (measured at the end of intervention) and higher levels of well-being up to 18 years later (Taylor et al., 2017). The results of a 2020 meta-analysis spanning 150 studies explored the impact of self-regulation from preschool to adulthood, across 25 discrete outcomes including academic achievement, depression, externalising problems, cigarette smoking and physical illness (Robson, et al., 2020) This study provides evidence that self-regulation in childhood can predict achievement, interpersonal behaviours, mental health and healthy living in adult life (Robson, et al., 2020).

Social and emotional learning programs have the potential to narrow the equity gap for socioeconomically disadvantage and improve their academic attainment, mental health, and future outcomes. One of the reasons social and emotional learning is so important is because there are equity gaps around the development of social and emotional skills for children and young people who experience disadvantage (Letourneau et al., 2011). Poverty, disadvantage and traumatic and stressful life experiences have negative effects on the wellbeing and development of children and adolescents, and often compromise their opportunities to develop (Letourneau et al., 2011). Disadvantaged cohorts of students are more likely to have experienced financial stress, trauma, unstable home environments, lack of safety, poor health or mental health which may result in a variety of internalising and externalising symptoms (Stokes et al., 2019; Letourneau et al., 2011). And, in addition, there is less likelihood that these students and their families have support to deal with these stresses. As a result, students who experience socioeconomically disadvantage demonstrate less social and emotional competence, lower executive functioning skills and increased behavioural issues (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2008; Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Yang et al., 2018). These inequalities in the development of social and emotional skills can be seen from the age of three and a lack of social and emotional competence can adversely affect student wellbeing and overall academic achievement (Emerson, et al., 2012; Clarke & Waddell, 2018). Multiple meta-analyses found that the benefits of social and emotional learning interventions were similar regardless of student's race, socioeconomic background or school location (Taylor et al., 2017; Corcoran et al., 2018).

EFFECTIVE SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING CAN BE CHALLENGING TO IMPLEMENT

Children, especially those from low SES backgrounds, need quality social and emotional learning support, yet teachers are also not adequately equipped to integrate social and emotional learning in the classroom (Buchanan et al., 2009, Merle et al., 2022). While many teachers believe in the importance of social and emotional learning many lack the necessary training, professional development and resources to effectively implement social and emotional learning in their classrooms (Buchanan et al., 2009, Merle et al., 2022). Evidence shows that implementation of effective social and emotional learning requires comprehensive support, time, resources and constructive feedback (Buchanan et al., 2009, Merle et al., 2022) – particularly because implementation fidelity is a key determinant of whether social and emotional learning programs are effective (Greenwood, 2023).

Schools are faced with challenges providing quality support and social and emotional learning, especially to support students with complex learning, wellbeing and behaviour needs (Pearce et al., 2019). Key challenges reported by teachers and schools include:

- Misalignment between policies or incentives / accountabilities that focus on academic achievement over social and emotional wellbeing.

- Lack of time and space in the curriculum to prioritise social and emotional learning.

- Skill and knowledge gaps for teachers, including access to evidence-based, contextually appropriate curriculum materials and social and emotional learning programs, good sources of evidence-based information, and ongoing coaching to support practice change.

- Lack of clarity about roles and responsibilities for supporting social and emotional learning

- Access to specialist support for students with significant behaviour and wellbeing challenges or more complex needs.

EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION REQUIRES A MULTI-TIERED, WHOLE-OF-SCHOOL APPROACH

Successful approaches for promoting social and emotional skills in schools include:

- Whole-school approaches underpinned by a whole school philosophy

- Universal classroom-based interventions.

- Targeted interventions (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Goldberg et al., 2019).

The evidence to date concludes that for optimal impact, all three of these approaches need to be aligned, integrated and implemented consistently across the school (Clarke & Waddell, 2018).

Whole-school approaches define the entire school community as the unit of change, and involve all students, staff, parents, community, and outside agencies (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; WHO, 1998). A whole-school approach involves co-ordinated action between curriculum teaching and learning, the school ethos and environment and family and community partnerships integrating learning, wellbeing and mental health support and intervention (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Pearce et al., 2019). An example of a whole-school approach is School Wide Positive Behaviour Support. Aspects of an effective whole-school approach include:

- Reinforcing social and emotional skills through whole-of-school policies.

- Embedding social and emotional skills in daily routines designed to promote a positive school and classroom climate.

- Strong leadership that fosters a positive school environment and models good social and emotional skills.

- A tiered approach to support, including universal and targeted supports that align with student needs.

- Meaningful family and community partnerships, including working cooperatively with outside agencies and specialist support.

Universal classroom-based interventions teach a range of skills through a developmentally appropriate curriculum. Identified characteristics of effective interventions include:

- Strong ties to theory and evidence (e.g., evidence-based programs and practices).

- A focus on developing practical teaching skills (e.g., classrooms and routine structure to support learning, emotional identification and regulation, effective communication, problem-solving, conflict resolution and coping skills).

- Use of interactive teaching methods (e.g., questioning, student-centred learning, collaborative activities).

- Starting early and continuing through the school (e.g., beginning in early childhood and extending right through to the end of high school).

- Quality professional development that focuses on developing teachers' skills and confidence and building a consistent approach across the school (Clarke & Waddell, 2018; Murano, Sawyer & Lipnevich, 2020; Clarke et al., 2021).

Targeted interventions are designed for students with additional or complex needs, for example, children and young people who have experienced trauma, have mental-ill health, from specific cultural groups, are chronically absent from school, students with, or at risk of, persistent emotional or behavioural problems during adolescence to reduce vulnerabilities and enhance protective factors (Clarke, et al., 2021). These often work to:

- Reinforce and supplement classroom-based instruction for students who need early intervention or more intensive support.

- Include teacher training and parental involvement to enhance coping and cognitive skill training which aim to help pupils reshape their thinking.

- Target students considered at risk of developing mental health or behavioural difficulties, or with symptoms of poor mental health or aggressive behaviour, but below clinical thresholds.

- Specifically target a reduction in violent or aggressive behaviour including aggression, bullying, sexual violence, conduct and school discipline problems.

- Bring in additional support from specialists, including psychologists (Clarke & Waddell, 2018: Stokes et al., 2019; Rollnick & Miller, 1995).

The Berry Street Education Model (Box 2) is an example of a social and emotional learning program that includes a whole-of-school approach, combined with classroom-based interventions and practices, and a focus on meeting the needs of students with complex needs.

Box 2:

BERRY STREET EDUCATION MODEL (BSEM)

BSEM is an approach to integrating trauma-informed practice with strengths-based elements of positive education (Stokes et al., 2019). BSEM provides strategies that enable teachers to increase engagement of students with complex, unmet learning needs and to successfully improve these students' self-regulation, relationships, wellbeing, growth and academic achievement. BSEM includes strategies which incorporate trauma-informed teaching, positive education, and wellbeing practices. BSEM includes five domains of teacher practice, which correspond with child-development capacities that each student must grow in order to be 'ready to learn' and focus on building self-regulatory ability, relational capacity and then nuture wellbeing and willingness to engage in learning: The five domains include:

- **Body** – increasing students' capacity for physical and emotional regulation of the stress response, de-escalation, and focus.

- **Relationship** – nurturing and on-taking learning through relational classroom management strategies.

- **Stamina** – creating a culture of academic persistence by nurturing resilience, emotional intelligence, and a growth mindset.

- **Engagement** – motivating students with strategies that increase their willingness to learn.

- **Character** – harnessing a values and character strengths approach for learning and future pathways.

The BSEM also includes specific strategies to support these five domains including brainbreaks, focus/safety plans, de-escalation and de-escalation charts, character strengths, resilience, fixed and growth mindsets, mindfulness, 'present, centred, grounded' and 'ready to learn'.

The BSEM was evaluated in 2019 by Melbourne Graduate School of Education, evaluating the program's effectiveness and the impact of the BSEM on teaching, learning, wellbeing and behaviour across three schools from 2016 to 2018. In this evaluation 911 students were surveyed and asked to reflect on their understanding and use of BSEM strategies, and students were able to qualitatively describe in detail how they applied them in regulating and managing their behaviour (Stokes et al., 2019). University of Melbourne research suggested that BSEM has contributed to more than two years learning in one academic year in relation to reading, writing and numeracy

(Stokes & Turnbull, 2016)

Underpinning these approaches, there is a core set of enablers that are critical for equipping teachers and schools to support students' social and emotional development. In a comprehensive review, the Telethon Kids Institute identified a range of core principles required to support social and emotional learning for students:

- Meaningful engagement between schools, families and support services.

- Shared community responsibility fosters a positive school culture.

- Student behaviour is integrated within a strategic whole-school approach to learning, wellbeing and mental health intervention and support.

- Evidence-informed programs, practices and processes used to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate school change and improvement.

- Proactive prevention focused, relationship-based and restorative practices are balanced with appropriate discipline practices.

- A student-centred strengths-based approach is adopted to ensure developmentally appropriate and relevant content for students.

- School leaders, teachers and specialist staff are supported through capacity building and wellbeing practices.

- Social and emotional skills and behaviour expectations are explicitly taught to students.

- Opportunities for developmental skill building and authentic praise.

- Quality implementation of effective interventions including a staged approach with meaningful planning, capacity building, sufficient time and resources.

- School contextual, cultural strengths and needs are considered.

- Assessed and monitored through collective data systems that support evidence-based decision-making processes (Pearce et al., 2019).

These findings are echoed in Greenberg's (2023) meta-analysis, which also identifies structural and systemic supports for teachers, the critical role of leaders and a shared language for teachers, support for evidence-based scope and sequencing of instruction, and a whole of community approach as critical.

3

Support for school attendance and engagement

Education is one of the most important levers for improving child outcomes and addressing inequity. However, students need to attend and engage in school to benefit from what schools have to offer (Hancock et al., 2013) The literature shows that:

Attendance is an important contributor to student achievement. Non-attendance and higher absence rates are linked to poorer academic achievement (CESE, 2022; Gottfried, 2014; Hancock et al., 2013), with every day of missed schooling contributing to further declines in achievement (Hancock et al., 2013). This relationship is persistent across all years of schooling (London et al., 2016) and affects future years of schooling (Hancock et al., 2013). Hancock et al. argue that there is no 'safe threshold' for absences (Hancock et al., 2013). It should be noted that an emergent body of research examines the possibility of combining learning at home and physical attendance to support learning outcomes for some students, drawing on evidence from school closures during COVID-19 (Azevedo J. P., Hasan A., Goldemberg D., Iqbal S. A., Geven K., 2020).

When not addressed, attendance gaps will accumulate over time and widen the achievement gap between high- and low-achieving students. Using NAPLAN results, the Telethon Institute for Child Health Research and the University of Western Australia found that WA children with an accumulated unauthorised absence rate of 10 per cent in each of their first three years of schooling are roughly two thirds of a year behind peers with no unauthorised absences by the time they reach Year 3 (Hancock et al., 2013). This study also found that attendance gaps can be identified by at least Year 1, and these gaps remain constant throughout primary school, and then become wider as students enter high school (Hancock et al., 2013). The reverse is also true. The Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation (2022) found that NSW students who report positive attendance behaviours in Year 7 are on average three months ahead in their learning by Year 9, compared to students who have poor attendance behaviours.

Children from cohorts experiencing disadvantage are more likely to miss school and are also more impacted by non-attendance than students with more advantage. For one example, for Indigenous students, there is a notable attendance gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. In 2021, the attendance rate for Indigenous students was 12.2 per cent lower than non-Indigenous students. Between 2019 and 2021 this gap continued to increase twice as fast as it did in the period 2014-19 (ACARA, 2023), although this could be due to the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic (ACARA, 2023). For another example, there is also a gap in attendance rates between students living in major cities (91.8 per cent) and remote areas (84.1 per cent). Attendance rates are the lowest in very remote areas (68.2 per cent) (ACARA, 2023). When students in disadvantaged cohorts miss school, they fall further behind than others. Hancock et al., (2013) found that students experiencing disadvantage are more likely to fall below the minimum standard across NAPLAN domains with a smaller number of absences, compared to students experiencing less disadvantage. Conversely, for students from disadvantaged cohorts to do well, their attendance record typically needs to be higher than students with more advantage. Hancock et al. (2013) found that for Indigenous students, only those with regular attendance records (>90 per cent attendance) scored above the national minimum standard on the numeracy domain. This contrasts with non-Indigenous students, who are likely to achieve the national minimum standards for numeracy with a 60-70 per cent attendance rate (Hancock et al., 2013).

School attendance is also important for other developmental and social outcomes. Absenteeism can be driven by and result in disengagement, social isolation and alienation from the school community and peers (Carroll,

2013; Gottfried, 2014). This can increase the likelihood of dropping out of school, reducing students' chances of graduating, and transitioning into post-school pathways (Keppens & Spruyt, 2017; London, 2016). This can have flow on future effects of increased difficulty finding employment, potential dependence on welfare, which increases the chance of experiencing poverty and homelessness (Spencer, 2009).

Non-attendance can also often be associated with challenging behaviours, rebellion against authority and even delinquent activity ranging from vandalism to criminal violence (Gottfried, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2014). This can also lead to children and young people becoming involved in crime and the justice system, and being more likely to abuse drugs and alcohol (Spencer, 2009). These outcomes disproportionately affect students from disadvantaged backgrounds (Gottfried, 2014).

Given attendance is a key contributor to academic achievement, this can amplify differences in educational outcomes and inequity when not addressed, and is associated with a range of other developmental and social outcomes, supporting school attendance is crucially important to improving outcomes and increasing social equity. Consideration should also be given to the emergent evidence base on how home learning can combine with physical attendance to improve outcomes for some students.

BARRIERS TO STUDENT ATTENDANCE ARE MULTIFACETED, WHILE SOME RELATE TO THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT AND ARE POTENTIALLY EASIER OR MORE VISIBLE TO ADDRESS, OTHERS RELATE TO INDIVIDUAL AND FAMILY FACTORS

Research has demonstrated that improving student attendance is especially challenging for educationally vulnerable groups of students, largely due to the many complex and interrelated factors that affect student attendance (AITSL, 2019; Demir & Karabeyoglu, 2016). Some of these factors are school-related while others relate to individual and family contexts (AITSL, 2019; Kearney, 2021). The three key factors that impact attendance are:

Individual factors: Individual factors that may cause students to not attend school may include lack of motivation or goals, boredom, or experiencing bullying (AITSL, 2019). If students doubt their own abilities or have low self-concept or self-esteem, they may also choose not to attend school (AITSL, 2019). If students experience poor physical or mental health, such as chronic physical conditions, depression, or

anxiety, this is a significant contributing factor to reduced school attendance (McConnell & Kubina, 2014). Poor attendance is likely to compound the challenge, as students who have missed class time and work develop learning gaps they find difficult to fill, making it more likely that they will continue to not attend school.

Family factors: Students' home environment also effects attendance, and instability and conflict at home are also predictors of non-attendance (Demir & Karabeyoglu, 2016; London et al., 2016; Thornton et al., 2013). Disadvantage, poverty, geographic isolation, difficulty accessing affordable transport and limited schooling options are all strongly linked to absenteeism, particularly in isolated communities (Dreise et al., 2016; Ehrlich et al., 2014; Hancock et al., 2013; Zubrick, 2014). Parent or family attitudes towards education and attendance significantly affect students' attitudes towards education. For example, if parents do not value education children may adopt similar attitudes which may inform their decisions about whether to attend school (Demir & Karabeyoglu, 2016; Thornton et al., 2013). Family engagement with school is also predictive of student attendance rate, and a lack of family involvement can have negative effect on student attendance (McConnell & Kubina, 2014; Thornton et al., 2013).

School-related factors: The school environment and climate are strong factors that impact student attendance. For example, in the institutional environment if students and families feel a lack of connectedness or belonging to the school community or have negative attitudes or relationships towards teachers or peers this may impact their school attendance (McConnell & Kubina, 2014). The social climate of the school, for example having conflict with peers or being ostracised from peer groups,

are also factors linked to non-attendance (Demir & Karabeyoglu, 2016; London et al., 2016). If these or other factors contribute to students not feeling safe at school or becoming the victim of bullying, this may also decrease their attendance rate (Demir & Karabeyoglu, 2016; London et al., 2016; Thornton et al., 2013). In addition, how schools handle non-attendance – through negative consequences for absence or failure to complete work – can further exacerbate the problem, through students feeling inadequate or fearing 'punishment'.

Lack of engagement in school programs, and curriculum planning that is not differentiated to meet student needs, provide feedback and extend student learning can also contribute to disengagement.

All these factors are exacerbated for students experiencing disadvantage which means addressing barriers to attendance requires addressing root causes of disadvantage.

Hancock et al.'s (2013) WA study found unequivocally that all these factors that affect student attendance were exacerbated in students who experienced disadvantage. Students with lower socio-economic status, Aboriginal students, students who were highly mobile or moved schools often, or had parents with lower levels of education, lower paying jobs, and jobs requiring less qualification (Hancock et al., 2013; Fantuzzo, Frim & Hazan, 2005; Reid, 1984). Disparities caused by attendance are evident from the very beginning of formal schooling (Hancock, et al. 2013). Attendance gaps are established by at least Year 1 and influenced by factors and events prior to school entry (Hancock et al., 2013). Hancock et al. (2013) found that these gaps remain constant throughout primary school and widen when students enter high school, and that these patterns were observed repeatedly, across all indicators of disadvantage and using both cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis.

> "**Declines in achievement due to absence are steeper and arguably more consequential, for disadvantaged students"**
> Zubrick, 2014

EFFECTIVE APPROACHES TO IMPROVING ATTENDANCE INCLUDE EARLY INTERVENTION STRATEGIES, FAMILY INVOLVEMENT, TARGETED INTERVENTIONS FOR STUDENTS MOST AT RISK AND A SCHOOL-WIDE APPROACH

While there have been many strategies adopted to address barriers to attendance, the evidence on what works is still limited. A meta-analysis of 72 studies completed by the Education Endowment Foundation found that there is large variation in the strategies researched with the aim of improving student attendance, that the overall evidence supporting these strategies is weak, and that more research into student attendance interventions is required. The large variation in interventions aimed at improving attendance means that many approaches do not have sufficient evidence to reach a conclusion on effectiveness (Education Endowment Foundation, 2022).

However, where the research is a little more conclusive, it highlights the importance of a multi-faceted approach to supporting student attendance that aligns with the drivers of non-attendance (Hancock et al., 2013). Successful strategies include a combination of early intervention, parental engagement, collaboration, and shared responsibility with the community including students, parents, schools and the wider community and targeted approaches that take into account students individual needs and context (Hancock et al., 2013; Education Endowment Foundation, 2022).

We know that attendance gaps accumulate and widen achievement gaps, therefore early intervention is important. Initiatives aimed at improving attendance need to start early (Hancock et al., 2013). Research highlights the importance of setting positive attendance habits early in a child's schooling (Warren & Haisken-DeNew, 2013).

> ❝
> **The major opportunity for preventing poor attendance is at the point of entry to preschool, pre-primary and Year 1...setting the expectation and pattern about attendance early may offer the best long-term sustainable approach to addressing poor attendance...Beyond this, individual treatment and targeting will need to be tailored to circumstances"**
>
> Zubrick, 2014

School attendance should be prioritised in the formative years during the development of student's foundational experiences of school expectations (AITSL, 2019).

We know barriers to attendance are multi-faceted but that many occur at the individual and family level, therefore interventions that target parental engagement are crucial. Parental engagement interventions include parents supporting and encouraging their children to attend school (Education Endowment Foundation, 2022). The meta-analysis from the Education Endowment Foundation (2022) found across the 72 studies that the average impact was higher for targeted parental approaches (Education Endowment Foundation, 2022). They specifically called out two distinct types of parental engagement approaches: parental communication, and targeted parental engagement interventions (Robinson, 2018; Shoppe, 2019).

- Parental communication interventions aim to increase awareness of the consequences of absenteeism or target parental misbeliefs around undervaluing the importance of regular attendance (Robinson, 2018; McConnell & Kubina, 2014; Education Endowment Foundation, 2022).

- Targeted parental engagement interventions are responsive and include approaches that involve staff having discussions with parents to gain information about the reasons for low attendance and collaboratively planning the support students and families need to overcome attendance barriers (Shoppe, 2019; Education Endowment Foundation, 2022). These interventions are usually more intensive with families having access to multiple services e.g. counselling, mentoring, resources and family activities and are tailored to the needs of the student and their family (Education Endowment Foundation, 2022).
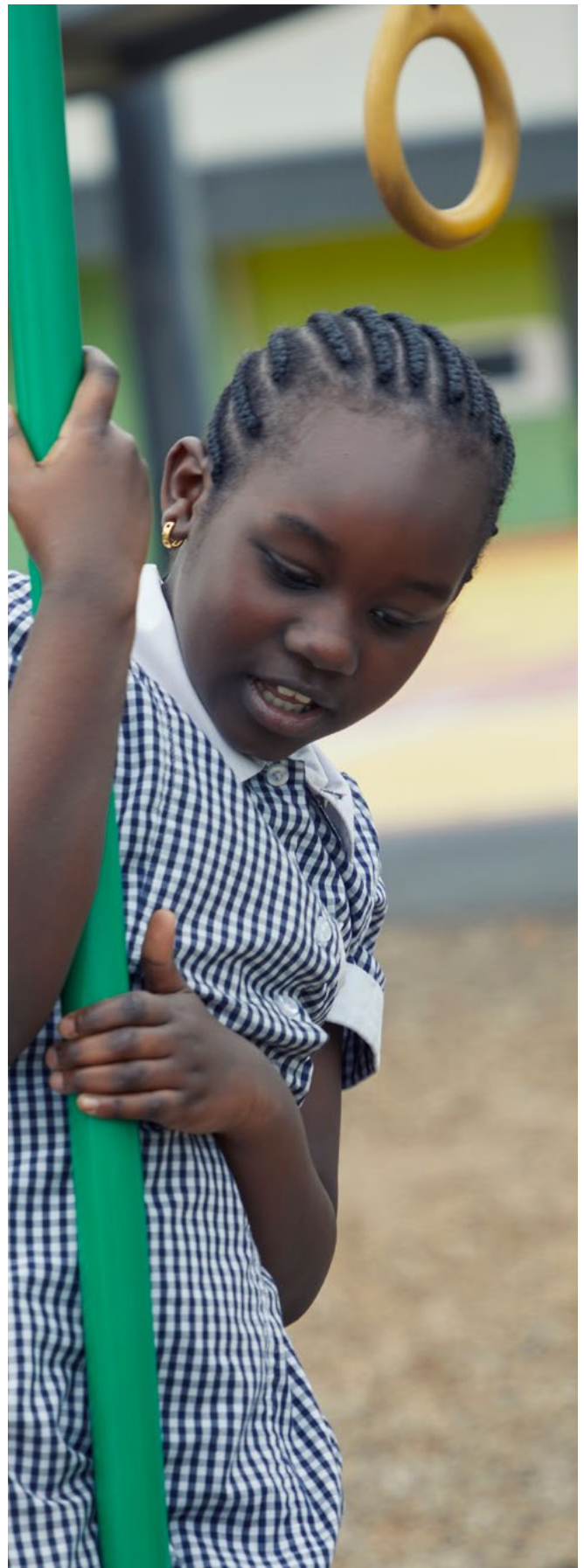
We know that students experiencing disadvantage are much more negatively impacted from lower attendance, therefore we need targeted approaches that support at-risk students. The Education Endowment Foundation highlighted the promising evidence base behind responsive interventions that target the individual causes of low attendance. Responsive interventions in which a member of staff or team use multiple interventions and target approaches specifically to the needs of individual students was found to be effective (Education Endowment Foundation, 2022). It's important to identify 'at risk' students and intervene early with targeted, individualised support to improve their attendance (The Smith Family, 2018). For schools to locate and act early to address each student's attendance, it is vital they track individual students over time to monitor their attendance and collect information on the reasons absences are occurring, and this is a key characteristic of responsive and targeted approaches to attendance (Hancock et al., 2018; The Smith Family, 2018). Targeted approaches often aim to be responses to the reasons for low attendance for an individual student and may be delivered by a variety of staff including social workers, wellbeing staff or teachers (Education Endowment Foundation, 2022).

Some students are more adversely affected by absence than others (Hancock et al., 2013). More advantaged children have relatively high levels of achievement irrespective of their level of attendance at school compared with their more disadvantaged peers (Hancock et al., 2013). This pattern suggests that more advantaged children may have alternative and effective resources that help them achieve learning outcomes and counteract the negative effects of absence (Hancock et al., 2013). Therefore, attendance strategies that focus on disadvantage students would yield the largest benefits to achievement (Hancock et al., 2013).

Given the range of barriers, the additional effect of existing disadvantage and the need to engage parents, families and the community a holistic school-wide approach is needed. Policies and responses at the school level are most effective when they simultaneously target the school culture and environment as well as targeting factors at the community and family level (Dreise et al., 2016). The Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation (2022) describes a school-based approach to improving school attendance should be based on a tiered model of support including prevention and intervention strategies (CESE, 2022; Kearney, 2021). A tiered model of support takes a multi-faceted approach, which combines some of the approaches mentioned above, including prevention and intervention strategies and recognises the complexity of

attendance and the need to tailor interventions to context (Kearney, 2021). A multi-tiered system of support should include:

- **Universal strategies** to promote positive culture around attendance, including fostering a culture of safety and inclusiveness, setting high expectations for attendance, promoting positive relationships, connectedness and belonging (CESE, 2022).

- **Early intervention** to address emerging attendance problems, matched to students' needs and the root cause of non-attendance, for example improving transport and meal programs (CESE, 2022, Kearney et al., 2019).

- **Intensive individual intervention** for individual students with severe chronic attendance problems, again focussing on specific student need and context, often involving a multifaceted program and a coordinated effort across multiple service providers and partnerships with student's family members (CESE, 2022; Kearney et al., 2019).

Improving attendance in schools relies on adequate resources and system supports (CESE, 2022). Key enablers for successful implementation of attendance improvement strategies in schools includes leadership, actionable data, community engagement and shared accountability (CESE, 2022; Dreise et al., 2016). Successful attendance interventions require this set integrated set of conditions required for sustainable implementation, rather than a set of isolated factors as well as adequate resourcing and capability building to ensure successful implementation (CESE, 2022).

4 Parent engagement in learning

Parent engagement in learning encompasses a broad range of activities, including parent support for children's learning at home, at school and in community contexts and includes parent learning in situ, while recognising the cultural and social diversity of families and communities. Approaches for engagement and involvement might share information about the education system and the important role parents can play in supporting children's learning, including how parents can support their children to read or do mathematics. Broader approaches may include programs focused on parents and their skills, to improve literacy or language skills, with more intensive programs for families in crisis. See Box 3 for a broad typology of engagement developed by Epstein (2010).

While some studies use the terms interchangeably, there is significant research evidence distinguishing between 'parent engagement' and 'parent involvement':

- Parent engagement includes activities at home or at school that support a child's learning such as reading, maths, doing homework and collaborating with teachers on how children are learning, developing, and achieving, which might involve parent teacher interviews or school class parent meetings.

- Parent involvement may include attending events, volunteering in class or other activities such as excursions, or serving on school councils and parent committees.

Parent engagement in learning has been shown to have a greater impact on student academic outcomes compared to parent involvement activities (O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014; Emerson et al., 2012). However, both play an important role in child and community outcomes, extending beyond academic outcomes, particularly in diverse communities experiencing disadvantage with challenges for social inclusion and cohesion, and where parents may need more support for social and economic participation.

Box 3:

SIX TYPES OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN

Type 1: Parenting – helping all families understand child and adolescent development and establishing home environments that support children as students.

Type 2: Communicating – designing and conducting effective forms of two-way communications about school programs and children's progress.

Type 3: Volunteering – recruiting and organising help and support at school, home, or in other locations to support the school and students' activities.

Type 4: Learning at home – providing information and ideas to families about how to help students with homework and curriculum-related activities and decisions.

Type 5: Decision making – having parents from all backgrounds serve as representatives and leaders on school committees obtaining input from all parents on school decisions.

Type 6: Collaborating with the community – identifying and integrating resources and services from the community to strengthen and support schools, students, and their families, and organising activities to benefit the community and increase students' learning opportunities.

(Epstein, 2010, p.46–47, presented in O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014, p.32)

> **Parental engagement in learning underpins children and young people's cognitive and social and emotional development, shapes family practices and behaviours and can impact the nature of the school community and the experience of schooling"**
>
> Emerson, Fear, Fox & Sanders, 2012, p.34

PARENT ENGAGEMENT INFLUENCES STUDENT OUTCOMES FROM ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT TO FUTURE ASPIRATIONS

Parents play an essential role as the first educators of children. This is most significant in the early years, however, positive impacts of parent engagement in learning have been found across all age groups and ethnicities and regardless of student backgrounds (Melbourne Graduate School of Education, 2016).

Parent engagement in learning influences academic achievement. Family engagement in children's learning at all ages influences their academic achievement – with impacts that are sustained through to adolescence and school graduation (Emerson et al., 2012; Jeynes 2012; OECD 2012). Engagement is associated with improvements in early literacy, school adjustment and student attendance, motivation, self-regulatory behaviour, social skills, retention, school completion, graduation rates and enrolment in further education (Family-School & Community Partnerships Bureau 2017; ARACY, 2016; Hill & Tyson, 2009; Jeynes, 2007; OECD, 2012; Redding et al., 2004; Shute et al., 2011). A meta-analysis of 448 independent studies including 480,830 families found positive associations between parental engagement and their child's academic achievement (Barger et al., 2019). The research by Hattie over 800 studies to synthesise prior findings of factors effecting student achievement, found that parent engagement has an effective size of 0.51, indicating the significant positive effects of parent engagement on student achievement (Hattie, 2009). It is well established that parent engagement in learning supports child cognitive development and can have significant impacts for language, literacy and reading acquisition. Children who

participated in parent-led, home-based literacy activities daily showed an even greater increased performance on verbal and cognitive measures (Melbourne Graduate School of Education, 2016).

Parent engagement supports behavioural, social and emotional development. Studies show a link between levels of parent engagement in learning and child behavioural, social and emotional outcomes. Positive effects have been reported on student attitudes and behaviour in school, ability to adapt and transition to school, social skills, self-esteem and sense of personal competence, and mental wellbeing (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Pomerantz et al., 2007; Shute et al., 2011; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014).

Parent engagement is important to strengthen belief in the importance of education and increase aspirations for children. A literature review by Watkins and Howard (2015) showed that parent expectations was the strongest predictor of student achievement. Parent's expectations shape children's own beliefs about their potential, sense of academic competence, the value they place on learning, and aspirations to complete school and continue into further education (ARACY, 2016; Watkins & Howard, 2015). Parental aspirations and expectations for their children's education also have a strong relationship to academic outcomes (Emerson et al., 2012).

Parent engagement is important to increase the quality of at-home learning. Parental engagement impacts quality of home learning, for example, providing practical strategies with tips, support, and resources to assist learning at home may be more beneficial to student outcomes (ARACY, 2016). A key finding of the Australian Research Alliance for Children and Youth's 2016 review into parent engagement found the impactful parent engagement practices are family-led or home-based. Research indicates that most value comes from parents fostering an atmosphere of learning, and a supportive, motivating environment for children to undertake learning activities (ARACY, 2016). This includes communicating educational expectations, demonstrating the value of learning, linking work to current news and events, and providing a simulating home environment (Emerson et al., 2012; Hill & Tyson, 2009).

Importance of parent involvement in schools to build strong school-family partnerships. School-family partnership frameworks have been developed and implemented across Australia and internationally for well over a decade. These are further supported by a range of guidelines and toolkits towards better practice, informed by evidence, which recognise the importance of supporting both teachers and parents to work together more effectively and provide evidence-based practice guidance (see for example Barker, B., & Harris, D. 2020; and AERO, 2022). Approaches that recognise and use the strengths, skills and cultural and social diversity of families and communities, working in true partnership, are most effectual. These empower and enable parents and mean schools can draw on and benefit from the world views, knowledge, capacities, and diversity of families.

> **"**
> With frequent interactions between schools, families and communities, more students are more likely to receive common messages from various people about the importance of school, working hard, of thinking creatively, of helping one another, and of staying in school"
>
> Epstein, 1995, p.702

Families also gain vital information, and when parents have both a better understanding of schooling and a greater capacity to lead children in literacy and numeracy activities, they are more able to provide intellectually stimulating home environments and model educational values and aspirations, which have 'a significant and positive effect on achievement and adjustment even after all other factors shaping attainment have been taken out of the equation (Desforges & Abouchar, 2003, p.4).

While not as impactful on student school success as home-based parent engagement in learning, school-based parent involvement is still important, most especially in communities experiencing disadvantage. Involvement of parents in school activities helps create good relationships between schools and families and can help facilitate positive interactions for the child at school. The research shows that engagement strategies are most effective when there are 'consistent, positive relationships' between parents and schools, and when there are clear understandings of roles of teachers and parents in learning (Emerson et al., 2012). Positive home-school relations have been found to be a characteristic of schools with high academic standards, regardless of student background variables (Masters, 2015).

THERE ARE MANY BARRIERS THAT LIMIT PARENT ENGAGEMENT IN LEARNING

Some of the barriers to engagement are experienced by parents and families. For example:

- External barriers put pressure on parents: There are known barriers to parent engagement and involvement in schooling which include lack of flexible work options or shift work hours, poor physical or mental health and disability, low levels of parent literacy, non-English speaking backgrounds, and parents with younger children and no access to childcare. Some parents see the school environment as intimidating or have had negative experiences of school themselves which create personal barriers to engagement (O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014).

- Parent self-efficacy impacts parents' confidence to engage in their child's learning: A parent's sense of efficacy and belief in their ability to help their children is central to whether they perceive themselves as contributing meaningfully to their children's education and the level to which they become involved in their children's schooling (Fan & Chen, 2001; Gutman & Akerman, 2008; Emerson et al., 2012). Parental self-efficacy is also important not just because it affects parents' decisions about whether and how to become engaged, but also because it is linked to academic achievement (Emerson et al., 2012).

- Poor teacher-parent relationships can make parent engagement challenging: Teacher attitudes and their lack of understanding of disadvantage can also isolate parents who feel judged, misunderstood or incapable. Teachers can see these parents as simply 'disinterested' or 'lazy' or teachers see parent engagement as extra work for already stretched teaching resources (O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014). Many parents did not have positive experiences of schools themselves, and may find schools intimidating or traumatic spaces.

- Strong relationships with school leadership are important for parents: Minority groups and those from lower education backgrounds are more likely to look to the school for leadership and direction, seeing them as the authority, over getting involved themselves or developing more collaborative partnerships (O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014). These parents need outreach and connection to draw them in and help them appreciate what important contributions they can make through participation. Schools need to actively work at positive relationships given contact to these families is more often about problems or difficulties students are having at school (O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014; and Fischer et al., 2014).

Schools also experience barriers to engaging effectively with families, including time and capacity to prioritise family engagement and relationship-building and teachers' confidence and skills to build empathetic and effective relationships with parents, especially parents from diverse backgrounds or parents who have experienced trauma (OECD, 2016). ARACY highlights a series of barriers experienced by schools, including:

- Mindsets: shifting from doing to and for families to co-creating with them, embedding a belief that children's learning is a shared responsibility, and challenging negative perceptions that families struggling with socioeconomic disadvantage are less engaged and invested than middle-class families in their children's learning.

- Organisational conditions: creating the organisational conditions that enable engagement, including time and capacity to build relational trust, a willingness to genuinely share decision-making power, and accountability for teachers and school leaders.

- Skills for engagement: investing in building the knowledge and skills of parents, teachers and school leaders (Barker and Harris, 2020).

IMPACTFUL PARENT ENGAGEMENT SHOULD INCLUDE FAMILY-LED LEARNING AND STRONG FAMILY-SCHOOL PARTNERSHIPS

A review of parent engagement by the ARACY and the ACT Government established a distinction between home-based and school-based engagement identifying family-led learning and family-school partnerships as two core domains, as well as outlining the specific key practices involved in each.

Family-led learning focused on high aspirations for children, shared reading, a positive environment for homework, parent-child conversation, a cognitively stimulating home environment and support for social and emotional wellbeing (ARACY, 2016). Importantly, there is no evidence to support parents assisting children with homework (Axford et al., 2019). Research particularly highlights the importance of parents and carers modelling educational values and aspirations, which has 'a significant and positive effect on achievement and adjustment even after all other factors shaping attainment have been taken out of the equation' (Desforges & Abouchar, 2003, p.4). Schools can play a significant role in equipping parents and carers to support children's learning.

Family-school partnerships that encourage positive-parent-teacher relationships, communication about children's progress, and engagement in the school community, while equipping parents to effectively encourage and support their children's learning and wellbeing (Fox & Olsen, 2014). Families' involvement at school not only provides opportunities to learn more about school life and schooling, but it also gives agency and voice to those individuals and families previously less connected to education and to their community. Corter and Pelletier (2004) also suggest that public support and community resources can come from parent engagement. Building trust, confidence and accountability with parents flows onto the community generally, building school reputations and public trust, from which government and private resources and policy support can result (O'Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014).

What can schools do to foster parent engagement?

Firstly, the literature suggests there is no 'one size fits all' approach to best practice for parent engagement, with schools ideally developing and implementing engagement policies and practice that are responsive to the needs of the school community (Goodall & Vorhaus, 2011; Kendall et al., 2008). A comprehensive meta-analysis from the Education Endowment Foundation (EEF) found that the evidence-base for specific interventions is relatively weak, due to low-quality studies, but it found promising evidence for family literacy programs, summer reading interventions, communicating with parents via text-message and structured programs aimed at improving children's behaviour and social and emotional skills (Axford et al., 2019).

Additionally, there are consistent messages in the research and practice evidence about:

- **Building trusting relationships between school and community**, including fostering a supportive culture and climate for parent engagement within the school, opportunities for co-design and shared decision-making, positioning the school as a resource for community, and investing in relationship-building.

- **Connecting families with children's learning**, including sharing information about what children and young people are learning, how families can support and amplify their learning, and about how children are progressing (including identifying their strengths).

- **Bringing together family and community resources** to enrich student learning and wellbeing, including creating opportunities for parents to engage, adopting a strength-based approach, and seeing the available resources to enriching student development outside the school gates (ACT Government, 2016; ARACY, 2016).

School leadership

School leadership refers to the practice of influencing and shaping organisational conditions to improve teaching expertise and quality, foster a professional learning culture and ultimately improve learning outcomes.

Individuals at all levels of a school can demonstrate high-quality school leadership, including those in formal leadership positions, such as assistant principals or curriculum leaders, and those without a formally defined leadership role.

High-quality school leaders approach leadership with an attitude of lifelong learning. These leaders are driven, aspirational and self-aware about the impacts of their actions.

Box 4:

DEFINITIONS OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

AITSL defines school leadership as *"the practice of positively influencing individual and collective teaching expertise in a professional learning culture to secure a strong rate of progress for all learners"* (AITSL, 2014;).

Leithwood et al. (2020) defines the function of leadership as building *"the organizational conditions that foster high quality teaching and generate improvements in learner outcomes"*.

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP CAN INFLUENCE TEACHING, LEARNING AND SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Many studies have highlighted the positive role of school leadership in student achievement (Li & Liu, 2022; Wu & Shen, 2022; Leithwood et al., 2020; Robinson & Gray, 2019; Sebastian et al., 2017; Di Liberto et al., 2015; Dhuey & Smith, 2014). A recent review of 12 existing meta-analyses found that principal leadership has a statistically significant, positive relationship with student achievement, and that over time, new research has increased the precision and consistency of the estimated effect of principal leadership on student achievement (Wu & Shen, 2022).

Research shows that school leadership can influence student achievement and educational quality in several ways:

• Good school leadership can affect learning outcomes indirectly by influencing the way teachers and parents help children improve educational outcomes. School leadership, particularly principal leadership, can impact student achievement by influencing teacher instructional quality (Kemethofer et al., 2022; Bellibaş et al., 2021; Leithwood et al., 2020; Leibowitz & Porter, 2019), teacher leadership and autonomy (Tan 2018, Sebastian et al., 2017), teacher efficacy (Meyer et al., 2022; Leithwood et al., 2020), teacher collaboration (Meyer et al., 2022; Bellibaş et al., 2021), and has the potential to influence educational cultures in the family home via productive parent/teacher or parent/principal relationships (Leithwood et al., 2020).

• School leadership may play a significant role in sustaining school improvement (Leithwood et al., 2020; Day et al., 2016; Grissom et al., 2013), with some research suggesting that sustained school improvement is not dependent on a specific leadership style but rather an understanding of the school's needs and a clear articulation of shared educational values (Day et al., 2016).

- Leadership exercised in a way that is sensitive to the school's context is more important than committing to a particular leadership model. In general, there is no pre-eminent model of leadership that encompasses the 'best' or most complete picture of school leadership (Wu & Shen, 2022; Bush & Glover, 2014). However, there are common leadership practices that are generally considered successful if applied in a way that is sensitive to the school's context (Leithwood et al., 2020).

- School leadership and socio-economic disadvantage have a complicated relationship. On the one hand, some studies suggest principals can help schools or students experiencing disadvantage shrink the achievement gap (Tan, 2018; Dhuey & Smith, 2014; Grissom, 2011). However, other studies also find that socio-economic disadvantage can mute the effect of good school leadership (Kemethofer et al., 2022; Wu & Shen, 2022; Wu et al., 2020; Hallinger & Liu, 2016). These findings suggest that the research is still inconclusive and future studies should aim to control for all contextual factors (e.g. student socio-economic backgrounds) to isolate the effect of good leadership on student achievement.

The positive influence of good school leadership on a range of factors including teacher quality, leadership, efficacy and collaboration, and a school's ability to sustain improvement over time make it a key foundation for high-quality schooling. While the effect of good leadership in the context of disadvantage and low socio-economics is complex, there is some evidence that principals can play a pivotal role.

THERE ARE MANY BARRIERS TO GOOD SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

There has been a significant amount of research on the barriers and challenges school leaders face. Tintoré et al. (2022) conducted a meta-analysis of over 153 papers from 17 years of research and found eight themes of leadership challenges. From most to least discussed these are:

1. The management challenge: This includes the predominance of poor management models or the need to address the legacy of previous principals, difficulties in managing budget, resources and school buildings / poor infrastructure, and difficulties in managing issues relating to inequity, inclusion and cultural diversity.

2. The complexity challenge: This includes the increasing number and difficulty of responsibilities and increasing administration and paperwork. For principals there is the issue of isolation or lost proximity to other staff and lack of professional identity.

3. The learning challenge: This relates to lack of job preparation and career development and lack of professional feedback.

4. Challenges with educational authorities and educational policy: For principals this involves lack of autonomy, weak support from authorities, insufficient funding from governments, pressure to achieve standards, and changes in curricula, school programs or other regulation.

5. Challenges with teachers, teaching and non-teaching staff: This includes insufficient staff, or insufficient skilled staff in schools to support children who have complex / additional needs, brain drain of teachers, ineffective staff / poor performance, low teacher morale, difficulties in recruitment and retention, difficulties in supporting teachers to develop students academically and social-emotionally, staff resistance to new technologies, limited time for staff career development and assessment / feedback.

6. Challenges with students: This includes bad student behaviour and lack of discipline, absenteeism and early drop-out, growing percentage of students with special needs / from different cultural backgrounds and addressing bullying and cyberbullying.

7. Challenges with families and the school community: This includes parents' negative or indifferent attitudes towards schooling, lack of communication between parents and the school, demanding parents who have high expectations, lack of respect from parents to school leaders and teachers, and supporting families with serious, complex problems.

8. Challenges with society: This includes lack of social recognition for the principal and teacher profession and high societal expectations that the profession can solve all kind of problems that affect children.

Of these challenges, the first four are the most prominent in literature (Tintoré et al., 2022), however the long list of issues illustrates that school leadership has many complex and interrelated challenges, some of which lie within a school's sphere of influence (such as managing budgets, and attitudes towards inclusion and diversity) and others which are external and largely outside of a school's control (such as regulatory changes and government funding).

GOOD SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IS SENSITIVE AND RESPONSIVE TO THE OPERATING CONTEXT

While the literature discusses instructional and distributed leadership models extensively, there is general refrain from specifying a 'best' model, and an expectation that good leaders are sensitive and responsive to the context they operate in. The literature on good leadership highlights both instructional and distributed leadership models. Instructional leadership refers to leaders (generally principals) who prioritise and focus on the improvement of teaching and learning (Bellibaş et al., 2021). There is established evidence on the link between instructional quality and student achievement (Bellibaş et al., 2021; Leithwood et al., 2020; Leibowitz & Porter, 2019), and instructional leadership and student achievement (Wu et al., 2020; Tan, 2018; Day et al., 2016; Grissom et al., 2013).

Distributed leadership refers to the distribution of leadership among staff at multiple levels and has become more popular as principals' responsibilities grow more complex (Bellibaş et al., 2021). Distributed leadership is positively associated with teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy (Liu et al., 2021), promotes schools' academic growth (Tsuyugushi et al., 2020) and builds leadership capacity in teachers (Ezzani, 2019). Teacher leadership and middle leadership in turn positively influence pedagogical practices, professional development, and a school's institutional capacity-building (Li et al., 2021; Ali, 2014).

However, there is generally no consensus that one model is better than the other (Wu & Shen, 2022; Bush & Glover, 2014), nor are they mutually exclusive since both models can work in harmony and can create positive impact together (Xia & O'Shea, 2022; Ezzani, 2019).

The most successful leaders are those that apply basic leadership practices such as building a shared vision, modelling the school's values, providing instructional support, and sharing leadership, in ways that demonstrate responsiveness to the school's particular context and challenges (Leithwood et al., 2020).

Good leadership means identifying the specific needs of the school, embedding evidence informed solutions within the school's context, including issues of diversity and inclusion, and building a culture of continuous learning. Research has shown that leadership style is less important than understanding, diagnosing using research data and evidence, and clearly articulating the school's challenges and values within broader social, political and economic forces affecting students (Slater et al., 2018; Day et al., 2016).

Ways to improve school performance may involve prioritising multiple combinations of context-sensitive or "layered" strategies that reflect the school's work, culture and achievements. (Day et al., 2016). Learning "on-the-job" or from informal experiences can be key and school leaders often turn to customised professional learning resources to support staff training and development (Drago-Severson & Maslin-Otrowski, 2018).

Leaders should make decisions using and contextualising evidence and data when available, and with particular attention to achieving equity (Ezzani, 2019). As student bodies become more complex and diverse, there is a need for more diversity-engaged leadership that celebrates difference while still academically and socially integrating minority and immigrant cohorts (Gómez-Hurtado, 2018). Leaders must also be aware of, and prepare to question and confront, their own positions on sociocultural diversity (Magno et al., 2022).

Engaging in a continuous culture of learning is also important, as is the ability to transform adversity into opportunities for fostering growth and improvement (Extremera et al., 2022; Ezzani, 2019; Drago-Severson & Maslin-Otrowski, 2018).

School leaders face many challenges and barriers, and while greater autonomy would help them focus on the things that matter most, devolving responsibility should be approached carefully to avoid creating additional work.

As discussed above, school leaders face many barriers, many of which are outside of their control and relate to centrally-mandated administrative processes, curriculum requirements and lack of funding (Tintoré et al., 2022). While giving leaders greater autonomy, particularly in relation to managing teaching practice may be required (Llorent-Bedmar et al., 2019), this should be approached carefully as greater principal discretion without adequate resourcing could create greater workload instead (Gavin & Stacey, 2022; Eacott et al., 2022).

References

Adey, P., Csapó, B., Demetriou, A., Hautamäki, J., & Shayer, M. (2007), Can we be intelligent about intelligence?: Why education needs the concept of plastic general ability. Educational Research Review, 2(2), 75–97.

Akiba, M., LeTendre, G. K., & Scribner, J. P. (2007), Teacher quality, opportunity gap, and national achievement in 46 countries. Educational researcher, 36(7), 369–387.

Ali, T. (2014). Development of teacher leadership: a multi-faceted approach to bringing about improvements in rural elementary schools in Pakistan. Professional Development in Education, 40(3), 352–375. doi:10.1080/19415257.2013.828238

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority, (n.d.) 'Structure'. https://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/f-10-curriculum/structure/

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) (2023) National Report on Schooling in Australia , https://www.acara.edu.au/reporting/national-report-on-schooling-in-australia/national-report-on-schooling-in-australia-2021

Australian Early Development Census (2015a), Australian Early Development Census National Report 2015: A snapshot of early childhood development in Australia, Commonwealth of Australia: Canberra, p. 33.

Australian Early Development Census (2015b), 'Early childhood education and care and the transition to school', AEDC Research Snapshot.

Australian Education Research Organisation 2022, 'Engaging with families to support student learning in primary school' Australian Education Research Organisation https://www.edresearch.edu.au/practice-hub/family-engagement-learning

Australian Education Research Organisation (2021), Evidence based teaching strategies – how often are Australian teachers using them? https://www.edresearch.edu.au/articles/evidence-based-teaching-strategies-how-often-are-australian-teachers-using-them

Australian Education Research Organisation (n.d.), Tiered Interventions, https://www.edresearch.edu.au/our-work/current-projects/tiered-interventions

Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations for the Council of Australian Governments (2009), Belonging, Being & Becoming: The Early Years Learning Framework for Australia, Commonwealth of Australia: Canberra, p. 5.

Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2020), Australia's children. Cat. no. CWS 69. Canberra: AIHW.

Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) (2014), Australian Professional Standard for Principals and the Leadership Profiles. Melbourne, Victoria.

Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) (2022), Australian Professional Standards for Teachers. Melbourne, Victoria

Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) (n.d.), Spotlight: Attendance matters. Melbourne Victoria.

Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) (n.d.), Spotlight: Informing teaching: navigating and translating education best practice. AITSL. Melbourne, Victoria.

Australian Research Alliance for Children and Youth. (2016), Parent Engagement: Review Linking Policy and Programs. ARACY.

Azevedo J. P., Hasan A., Goldemberg D., Iqbal S. A., Geven K. (2020), Simulating the potential impacts of COVID-19 school closures on schooling and learning outcomes. https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/education/publication/simulating-potential-impacts-of-covid-19-school-closures-learning-outcomes-a-set-of-global-estimates

Barger, M. M., Kim, E. M., Kuncel, N. R., & Pomerantz, E. M. (2019), The relation between parents' involvement in children's schooling and children's adjustment: A meta-analysis. Psychological bulletin, 145(9), 855.

Barker, B, Harris, D 2020, 'Parent and Family Engagement: An Implementation Guide for School Communities' Australian Research Alliance for Children and Youth, Canberra https://www.aracy.org.au/documents/item/647

Bellibaş, M. Ş., Gümüş, S., & Liu, Y. (2021), Does school leadership matter for teachers' classroom practice? The influence of instructional leadership and distributed leadership on instructional quality. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 32(3), 387–412.

Bradshaw, C. P., Mitchell, M. M., & Leaf, P. J. (2010), Examining the effects of schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports on student outcomes: Results from a randomized controlled effectiveness trial in elementary schools. Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 12(3), 133-148.

Buchanan, R., Gueldner, B.A, Tran, O.K., & Merrell, K.W. (2009), Social and Emotional Learning in Classrooms: A Survey of Teachers' Knowledge, Perceptions, and Practices, Journal of Applied School Psychology, 25:2,187–203, DOI: 10.1080/15377900802487078

Burger, K. (2010), 'How does early childhood care and education affect cognitive development? An international review of the effects of early interventions for children from different social backgrounds', Early Childhood Research Quarterly, vol. 25(2), pp. 140–165.

Bush, T., & Glover, D. (2014), School leadership models: what do we know? School Leadership & Management, 34(5), 553–571. doi:10.1080/13632434.2014.928680

Capp, M. J. (2017), The effectiveness of universal design for learning: A meta-analysis of literature between 2013 and 2016. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 21(8), 791–807.

Carroll, H. (2013), The social, emotional and behavioural difficulties of primary school children with poor attendance records. Educational Studies, 39(2), 223–234. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2012.717508

Catalano, R. F., Berglund, M. L., Ryan, J. A. M., Lonczak, H. S., & Hawkins, J. D. (2004), Positive youth development in the United States: Research findings on evaluations of positive youth development programs. The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591(1), 98–124. 10.1177/0002716203260102

Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation. (2016), How schools can improve literacy and numeracy performance and why it (still) matters. NSW Department of Education, https://education.nsw.gov.au/cese

Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation (2022), Understanding attendance – A review of the drivers of school attendance and best practice approaches, NSW Department of Education, education.nsw.gov.au/cese

Clarke A.M, Morreale, S., Field, C.A., Hussein, Y., & Barry, M. M. (2015), What works in enhacing social and emotional skills development during childhood and adolescence? A review of the evidence on the effectiveness of school-based and out-of-school programmes in the UK. Retrieved from the U.K. Health Promotion Research Centre website https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/411492/What_works_in_enhancing_social_and_emotional_skills_development_during_childhood_and_adolescence.pdf

Clarke, A., Sorgenfrei, M., Mulcahy, J., Davie, P., Friedrich, C. & McBride, T. (2021), Adolescent mental health: A systematic review on the effectiveness of school-based interventions. Early Intervention Foundation.

Clarke, A., & Waddell, A. (2018), Introduction to social and emotional learning in schools in schools. Early Intervention Foundation.

Connolly, F., & Olson, L. S. (2012), Early elementary performance and attendance in Baltimore city schools' pre-kindergarten and kindergarten. Baltimore Education Research Consortium.

Corcoran, R., Cheung, A., Kim, E., & Xie, C. (2018), Effective universal school-based social and emotional learning programs for improving academic achievement: A systematic review and meta-analysis of 50 years of research. Educational Research Review. 25, 56-72.

Corter, C., Pelletier, J. (2004), 'The Rise and Stall of Parent and Community Involvement in Schools' Orbit 34(3) pp. 7-12.

Council of Australian Governments. (2018), National School Reform Agreement. Department of Education and Training.

Daraganova G, Mullan K and Edwards B (2014), 'Attendance in primary school: factors and consequences', Occasional Paper 51, Department of Social Services, Australian Government, accessed 7 May 2021.

Darling-Hammond, L 2000, 'Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence', Education Policy Analysis Archives, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 1–49.

Day, C., Gu, Q., & Sammons, P. (2016), The Impact of Leadership on Student Outcomes: How Successful School Leaders Use Transformational and Instructional Strategies to Make a Difference. Educational Administration Quarterly, 52(2), 221–258. doi:10.1177/0013161X15616863

Demir, K., & Karabeyoglu, Y. A. (2016), Factors associated with absenteeism in high schools. Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 62(62), 37–56. https://doi.org/10.14689/ejer.2016.62.4

Desforges, C, Abouchaar, A 2003, 'The Impact of Parental Involvement, Parental Support and Family Education on Pupil Achievements and Adjustment: A Literature Review' Department for Education and Skills, UK https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/6305/

Deslandes, R., & Bertrand, R. (2005), Motivation of parent involvement in secondary-level schooling. the Journal of Educational Research, 98(3), 164-175.

Dhuey, E., & Smith, J. (2014), How important are school principals in the production of student achievement? Canadian Journal of Economics/Revue Canadienne d'économique, 47(2), 634–663. doi:10.1111/caje.12086

Di Liberto, A., Schivardi, F., & Sulis, G. (09 2015), Managerial practices and student performance. Economic Policy, 30(84), 683–728. doi:10.1093/epolic/eiv015

Donohoo, J. (2017), Collective teacher efficacy research: implications for professional learning. Journal of Professional Capital and Community, 2(2), 101–116.

Donohoo, J., Hattie, J., & Eells, R. (2018), The power of collective efficacy. Educational Leadership, 75(6), 40-44.

Drago-Severson, E., & Maslin-Ostrowski, P. (2018), In Translation: School Leaders Learning in and from Leadership Practice While Confronting Pressing Policy Challenges. Teachers College Record, 120(1), 1–44. doi:10.1177/016146811812000104

Dreise, T., Milgate, G., Perrett, B., & Meston, T. (2016), Indigenous school attendance: creating expectations that are 'Really High' and 'Highly Real.' Policy Insights, ACER.

Durlak, J., Domitrovich, C., Weissberg, R. P., & Gullotti, T. P. (2015), Handbook of social and emotional learning. New York, NY: Guildford Press.

Durlak, J.A., Weissberg, R.P., Dymnici, A.B., Taylor, R.D., & Schellinger, K.B. (2011), 'The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: a meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions,' Child Development, 82(1), 405–432

Eacott, S., Niesche, R., Keddie, A., Blackmore, J., Wilkinson, J., Gobby, B., & MacDonald, K. (2022), Autonomy, Instructional Leadership and Improving Outcomes – The LSLD Reforms in NSW, Australia. Leadership and Policy in Schools, 0(0), 1–14. doi:10.1080/15700763.2022.2081212

Education Endowment Foundation. (2021), Social and emotional learning. Teaching and Learning Toolkit, London: Education Endowment Foundation.

Education Endowment Foundation. (2022), Attendance Interventions, Rapid Evidence Assessment, London: Education Endowment Foundation.

Egert, F., Fukkink, R. G., & Eckhardt, A. G. (2018). Impact of in-service professional development programs for early childhood teachers on quality ratings and child outcomes: A meta-analysis. Review of educational research, 88(3), 401–433.

Ehrlich, S. B., Gwynne, J. A., Pareja, A. S., Allensworth, E. M., Moore, P., Jagesic, S., & Sorice, E. (2014), Preschool Attendance in Chicago Public Schools Relationships with Learning Outcomes and Reasons for Absences. Research Report, Chicago: University of Chicago Consortium on Chicago School Research.

Elmore, RE & Burney, D 1997, Investing in Teacher Learning: Staff Development and Instructional Improvement in Community School District #2, National Commission on Teaching and America's Future and the Consortium for Policy Research in Education, New York City.

Elmore, RE 2000, Building a New Structure for School Leadership, Albert Shanker Institute. http://www.shankerinstitute.org/Downloads/building.pdf

Emerson, L., Fear. J., Fox, S., and Sanders, E. (2012). Parental engagement in learning and schooling: Lessons from research. A report by the Australian Research Alliance for Children and Youth (ARACY) for the Family-School and Community Partnerships Bureau: Canberra.

Epstein, J.L. (2010), 'School, Family, and Community Partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools' Westview Press, Colorado.

Extremera, M. O., Townsend, A., & Segovia, J. D. (2022), Resilient leadership in principals: case studies of challenged schools in Spain. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 0(0), 1–20. doi:10.1080/13603124.2022.2052758

Ezzani, M. D. (2019), Principal and teacher instructional leadership: A cultural shift. International Journal of Educational Management.

Fallon, L. M., McCarthy, S. R., & Sanetti, L. M. H. (2014), School-wide positive behavior support (SWPBS) in the classroom: Assessing perceived challenges to consistent implementation in Connecticut schools. Education and Treatment of Children, 1–24.

Family-School and Community Partnerships Bureau. (2017), 'Factsheet: Parent engagement in learning: Family-school partnerships A guide for schools and families'. Australian Government, Canberra https://www.education.gov.au/supporting-family-school-community-partnerships-learning/resources/factsheet-parent-engagement-learning

Fantuzzo, J., & Grim, S., & Hazan, H. (2005). Project START: an evaluation of a community-wide school-based intervention to reduce truancy. Psychology in the Schools, 42, 657–667.

Ferguson, RF & Ladd, HF 1996, 'How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools', Holding Schools Accountable: Performance Based Reform in Education, Brookings Institute, Washington DC.

Fischer, S., Barnes, R.K., Kilpatrick, S. (2019), 'Equipping Parents to Support their Children's Higher Education Aspirations: a design and evaluation tool', Educational Review 71(2), pp. 198-217 https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/00131911.2017.1379472

Fox, S., & Olsen, A. (2014), Defining parental engagement. Retrieved from Canberra: Fox, S., Southwell, A., Stafford, N., Goodhue, R., Jackson, D., & Smith, C. (2015). Better systems, better chances: A review of research and practice for prevention and early intervention.

Frontiers in Psychology, 10:2222, doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02222

Gavin, M., & Stacey, M. (2022), Enacting autonomy reform in schools: The re-shaping of roles and relationships under Local Schools, Local Decisions. Journal of Educational Change, 1–23.

Gómez-Hurtado, I., González-Falcón, I., & Coronel, J. M. (2018), Perceptions of secondary school principals on management of cultural diversity in Spain. The challenge of educational leadership. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 46(3), 441–456. doi:10.1177/1741143216670651

Greenberg, M. T., Domitrovich, C., & Bumbarger, B. (2001), The prevention of mental disorders in school-aged children: Current state of the field. Prevention & Treatment, 4(1), 1–62. 10.1037/1522-3736.4.1.47c

Greenwald, R, Hedges, LV & Laine RD 1996, 'The effects of school resources on student achievement', Review of Educational Research, vol. 66, pp. 361–96

Goldberg, J.M., Sklad, M., Elfrink, T.R. et al. (2019), Effectiveness of interventions adopting a whole school approach to enhancing social and emotional development: a meta-analysis. Eur J Psychol Educ 34, 755–782 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-018-0406-9

Goodall, J., & Vorhaus, J. (2011), Review of best practice in parental engagement.

Goodman, A., Joshi, H., Nasim, B., & Tyler, C. (2015), Social and emotional skills in childhood and their long-term effects on adult life. London: Institute of Education.

Gottfried, M. A. (2014), Chronic Absenteeism and Its Effects on Students' Academic and Socioemotional Outcomes. Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk, 19(2), 53–75. https://doi.org/10.1080/10824669.2014.962696

Grissom, J. A., Loeb, S., & Master, B. (2013), Effective Instructional Time Use for School Leaders: Longitudinal Evidence From Observations of Principals. Educational Researcher, 42(8), 433–444. doi:10.3102/0013189X13510020

Grissom, J. A. (2011), Can Good Principals Keep Teachers in Disadvantaged Schools? Linking Principal Effectiveness to Teacher Satisfaction and Turnover in Hard-to-Staff Environments. Teachers College Record, 113(11), 2552–2585. doi:10.1177/016146811111301102

Gueldner, B. A., Feuerborn, L. L., & Merrell, K. W. (2020), Social and emotional learning in the classroom: Promoting mental health and academic success. Guilford Publications.

Gutman, L. & Akerman, R. (2008), Determinants of aspirations. University of London, Institute of Education. Available: http://eprints.ioe.ac.uk/2052/

Hallinger, P., & Liu, S. (2016), Leadership and teacher learning in urban and rural schools in China: Meeting the dual challenges of equity and effectiveness. International Journal of Educational Development, 51, 163–173. doi:10.1016/j.ijedudev.2016.10.001

Hancock, K. J., Gottfried, M. A., & Zubrick, S. R. (2018), Does the reason matter? How student-reported reasons for school absence contribute to differences in achievement outcomes among 14–15 year olds. British Educational Research Journal, 44(1), 141–174. https://doi.org/10.1002/berj.3322

Hancock, K. J., Shepherd, C. C. J., Lawrence, D., & Zubrick, S. R. (2013), Student attendance and educational outcomes: Every day counts. Report for the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, Canberra. https://doi.org/10.13140/2.1.4956.6728

Hanushek, E. A., & S. G. Rivkin. (2010), "Generalizations about Using Value-Added Measures of Teacher Quality." American Economic Review. 100 (2): 267–71

Harvard University. (n.d.), Explore SEL: Navigate the complex field of social and emotional learning. Harvard University .

Hattie, J. (2003), Teachers make a difference, what is the research evidence?, ACER: Melbourne, p. 3.

Hattie, J. (2009), Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses related to achievement. London: Routledge.

Hawley W & Valli, L 1999, 'The essentials of effective professional development: A new consensus', in Teaching as the Learning Profession: Handbook of Policy and Practice, L Darling-Hammond & G Sykes (eds), Jossey Bass, San Francisco, pp. 151–80.

Hill, N. E., & Tyson, D. F. (2009). Parental involvement in middle school: A meta-analytic assessment of the strategies that promote achievement. Developmental Psychology, 45(3), 740.

Hornby, G., & Greaves, D. (2022), Importance of Evidence-Based Teaching Strategies. In Essential Evidence-Based Teaching Strategies: Ensuring Optimal Academic Achievement for Students (pp. 1-13). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Horner, R. H., Sugai, G., & Anderson, C. M. (2010), Examining the evidence base for school-wide positive behavior support. Focus on exceptional children, 42(8).

Horner, R. H., Sugai, G., Smolkowski, K., Eber, L., Nakasato, J., Todd, A. W., & Esperanza, J. (2009), A randomized, wait-list controlled effectiveness trial assessing school-wide positive behavior support in elementary schools. Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 11(3), 133-144.

Jensen, B., Hunter, A., Sonnemann, J. & Burns, T. (2012), Catching up: Learning from the best school systems in East Asia, Grattan Institute.

Jeynes, W. H. (2007), The relationship between parental involvement and urban secondary school student achievement. Urban Education, 42(1), 82-110.

Jeynes, W. H. (2012), A meta-analysis of the efficacy of different types of parental involvement programs for urban students. Urban Education, 47(4), 706-742. doi:10.1177/0042085912445643

Jones, D.E., Greenberg, M., & Crowley, M. (2015), Early Social-Emotional Functioning and Public Health: The Relationship Between Kindergarten Social Competence and Future Wellness. American Journal of Public Health 105, 2283_2290, https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2015.302630

Kearney, C.A. (2021), 'Integrating systemic and analytic approaches to school attendance problems: synergistic frameworks for research and policy directions', Child and Youth Care Forum, 50:701-742, doi:10.1007/s10566-020-09591-0

Kearney, C.A., Gonzálvez, C., Graczyk, P. & Fornander, M.J. (2019), Reconciling contemporary approaches to school attendance and school absenteeism: toward promotion and nimble response, global policy review and implementation, and future adaptability.

Kemethofer, D., Helm, C., & Warwas, J. (2022), Does educational leadership enhance instructional quality and student achievement? The case of Austrian primary school leaders. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 0(0), 1–25. doi:10.1080/13603124.2021.2021294

Kendall, S., Straw, S., Jones, M., Springate, I., & Grayson, H. (2008), A review of the research evidence (narrowing the gap in outcomes for vulnerable groups).

Keppens, G., & Spruyt, B. (2017),The development of persistent truant behaviour: an exploratory analysis of adolescents' perspectives. Educational Research, 59(3), 353–370. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2017.1339286

Kim, Y., Mok, S. Y., & Seidel, T. (2020), Parental influences on immigrant students' achievement–related motivation and achievement: A meta-analysis. Educational Research Review, 30, 100327.

Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2020), Seven strong claims about successful school leadership revisited. School Leadership & Management, 40(1), 5–22. doi:10.1080/13632434.2019.1596077

Leithwood, K., Sun, J., & Schumacker, R. (2020), How School Leadership Influences Student Learning: A Test of "The Four Paths Model". Educational Administration Quarterly, 56(4), 570–599. doi:10.1177/0013161X19878772

Letourneau, N. L., Duffett-Leger, L., Levac, L., Watson, B., & Young-Morris, C. (2013), Socioeconomic status and child development: A meta-analysis. Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 21(3), 211-224.

Leu, E. (2005), The Role of Teachers, Schools, and Communities in Quality Education: A Review of the Literature. Academy for Educational Development.

Li, L., & Liu, Y. (2022), An integrated model of principal transformational leadership and teacher leadership that is related to teacher self–efficacy and student academic performance. Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 42(4), 661–678. doi:10.1080/02188791.2020.1806036

Li, S. C., Poon, A. Y. K., Lai, T. K. H., & Tam, S. T. C. (2021), Does middle leadership matter? Evidence from a study of system–wide reform on English language curriculum. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 24(2), 226–243.

Liebowitz, D. D., & Porter, L. (2019). The Effect of Principal Behaviors on Student, Teacher, and School Outcomes: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of the Empirical Literature. Review of Educational Research, 89(5), 785–827. doi:10.3102/0034654319866133

Liu, Y., Bellibaş, M. Ş., & Gümüş, S. (2021), The Effect of Instructional Leadership and Distributed Leadership on Teacher Self–efficacy and Job Satisfaction: Mediating Roles of Supportive School Culture and Teacher Collaboration. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 49(3), 430–453. doi:10.1177/1741143220910438

Llorent-Bedmar, V., Cobano-Delgado, V., & Navarro-Granados, M. (2019), School leadership in disadvantaged contexts in Spain: Obstacles and improvements. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 47(1), 147–164. doi:10.1177/1741143217728084

London, R. A., Sanchez, M., Castrechini, S., & Castrechini, S. (2016), The dynamics of chronic absence and student achievement. Education Policy Analysis Archives, 24(112). https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.24.2471

MacCann, C., Jiang, Y., Brown, L. E. R., Double, K. S., Bucich, M., & Minbashian, A. (2020), Emotional intelligence predicts academic performance: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 146(2), 150-186. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000219

Magno, C., Becker, A., & Imboden, M. (2022), Educational practice in Switzerland: Searching for diversity–engaged leadership. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 0(0), 17411432221086224. doi:10.1177/17411432221086225

Marzano, R.J., Gaddy, B.B., & Dean, C.B. (2000), What Works in Classroom Instruction.

Masters, G.N. (2016), 'National school improvement tool. Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER)' Australian Council for Education Research, Melbourne https://research.acer.edu.au/tll_misc/18.

Masters, G.N. (2016), Five challenges in Australian school education, ACER: Melbourne, p. 18.

McConnell, B.M., & Kubina, R. M. (2014), Connecting With Families to Improve Students' School Attendance: A Review of the Literature, Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 58:4, 249–256, DOI: 10.1080/1045988X.2013.821649

Melbourne Graduate School of Education. (2016), 'Parental engagement: A summary of the research evidence on parental engagement in the Australasian context', Evidence for Learning https://evidenceforlearning.org.au/education-evidence/australasian-research-summaries/teaching-and-learning-toolkit/parental-engagement

Merle, J., Thayer, A., Larson, M., Pauling, A., Cook, C,. Rios, J., McGinnis, J., & Sullivan, M. (2022), Investigating strategies to increase general education teachers' adherence to evidence-based social-emotional behaviour practice: A meta-analysis of the single-case literature. Journal of School Psychology, 91, 1–26.

Meyer, A., Richter, D., & Hartung-Beck, V. (2022), The relationship between principal leadership and teacher collaboration: Investigating the mediating effect of teachers' collective efficacy. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 50(4), 593–612. doi:10.1177/1741143220945698

Murano, D., Sawyer, J. E., & Lipnevich, A. A. (2020). A Meta-Analytic Review of Preschool Social and Emotional Learning Interventions. Review of Educational Research, 90(2), 227–263. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654320914743

NSW Department of Education (2018), presentation to Directors, The Literacy and Numeracy Strategy 2017–2020, unpublished.

OECD. (2000), Measuring student knowledge and skills. The PISA 2000 assessment of reading, mathematical and scientific literacy. Education and skills. Paris: OECD.

OECD (2012), Let's read them a story! The parent factor in education: OECD Publishing.

OECD (2013), Key findings from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), OECD: Paris, p. 3.

OECD (2015), Skills for Social Progress: The Power of Social and Emotional Skills, OECD Skills Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264226159-en

O'Hehir, J., Savelsberg, H. (2014), 'Towards Best Practice in Parent Involvement in Education: A literature review A report prepared for the Office of Non-Government Schools and Services', Government of South Australia, Adelaide https://www.education.sa.gov.au/sites/default/files/towards-best-practice-parent-involvement.pdf?acsf_files_redirect

Payton, J.W., Wardlaw, D.M., Graczyk, P.A., Bloodworth, M.R., Tompsett, C.J. and Weissberg, R.P. (2000), Social and Emotional Learning: A Framework for Promoting Mental Health and Reducing Risk Behavior in Children and Youth. Journal of School Health, 70: 179-185. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1561.2000.tb06468.x

Pearce, N., Cross, D., Epstein, M., Johnston, R., & Legge, E. (2019), Strengthening school and system capacity to implement effective interventions to support student behaviour and wellbeing in NSW public schools: An evidence review. Telethon Kids Institute: Perth, Western Australia.

Pomerantz, E. M., Moorman, E. A., & Litwack, S. D. (2007), The how, whom, and why of parents' involvement in children's academic lives: More is not always better. Review of Educational Research, 77(3), 373-410.

Power, T. J. (2015), Commentary: Strengthening networks and attachments to promote child development. In S. M. Sheridan & E. M. Kim (Eds.), Processes and pathways of family-school partnerships across development (Vol. 2, pp. 101-114). New York: Springer.

Redding, S., Langdon, J., Meyer, J., & Sheley, P. (2004), The effects of comprehensive parent engagement on student learning outcomes. Paper presented at the Annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego. http://www.hfrp.org/publications-resources/browse-our-publications/the-effects-of- comprehensive-parent-engagement-on-student-learning-outcomes

Reid, K. (1984), Some social, psychological and educational aspects related to persistent school absenteeism. Research in Education, 31, 63-82.

Robinson, V., & Gray, E. (2019), What difference does school leadership make to student outcomes? Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand, 49(2), 171–187. doi:10.1080/03036758.2019.1582075

Robinson, C.D., Lee M.G., & Dearing, E., Rogers T. (2018), Reducing Student Absenteeism in the Early Grades by Targeting Parental Beliefs. American Educational Research Journal 55(6), 1163-1192

Rollnick, S., & Miller, W. R. (1995), What is motivational interviewing? Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy, 23(4), 325–334. https://doi.org/10.1017/S135246580001643X

Robson, D. A., Allen, M. S. & Howard, S. J. (2020), Self-regulation in childhood as a predictor of future outcomes: A meta-analytic review. Psychological Bulletin, Online First 1-31.

Sebastian, J., Huang, H., & Allensworth, E. (2017), Examining integrated leadership systems in high schools: connecting principal and teacher leadership to organizational processes and student outcomes. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 28(3), 463–488. doi:10.1080/09243453.2017.1319392

Shoppe, R.L. (2019), Effect of the breakthrough student assistance program on grades, behavior, and attendance., ProQuest Information & Learning.

Shute, V. J., Hansen, E. G., Underwood, J. S., & Razzouk, R. (2011), A review of the relationship between parental involvement and secondary school students' academic achievement. Education Research International, 2011.

Sklad, M., Diekstra, R., Ritter, M. D., Ben, J., & Gravesteijn, C. (2012), Effectiveness of school-based universal social, emotional, and behavioral programs: Do they enhance students' development in the area of skill, behavior, and adjustment?. Psychology in the Schools, 49(9), 892-909.

Slater, C. L., Garduno, J. M. G., & Mentz, K. (2018), Frameworks for principal preparation and leadership development: Contributions of the International Study of Principal Preparation (ISPP). Management in Education, 32(3), 126–134. doi:10.1177/0892020617747611

Smith, N. R., Marshall, L., Albakri, M., & Sehmi, R. (2019), The impact of mental health and wellbeing on GCSE performance in England: A longitudinal analysis of the national pupil database linked to understanding society. BMJ Paediatrics Open, 3(1). https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjpo-2019-RCPCH-SAHM.3

Spencer, A. M. (2009), School attendance patterns, unmet educational needs, and truancy: A chronological perspective. Remedial and Special Education, 30, 309-319.

Stokers, H., Kern, P., Turnbull, M., Farrelly, A.,& Forster, R. (2019), Research and Evaluation of the Berry Street Education Model (BSEM) as a wholeschool approach to student engagement and wellbeing (2016-2018) university of Melbourne: Melbourne.

Stokes, H. & Turnbull, M. (2016), Evaluation of the Berry Street Education Model: Trauma informed positive education enacted in mainstream schools. Melbourne, VIC: University of Melbourne Graduate School of Education, Youth Research Centre.

Stynes, M., Mcnamara, G., & O'hara, J. (2018), An Analysis of Day to Day Activities of a Sample of Primary School Principals in Ireland. Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 18(76), 93–112.

Sugai, G., O'Keeffe, B. V., & Fallon, L. M. (2012), A Contextual Consideration of Culture and School-Wide Positive Behavior Support. Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 14(4), 197 208. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098300711426334

Sugai, G., & Horner, R. (2002), The Evolution of Discipline Practices: School-Wide Positive Behavior Supports, Child & Family Behavior Therapy, 24:1-2, 23–50, DOI: 10.1300/J019v24n01_03

Tan, C. Y. (2018), Examining school leadership effects on student achievement: the role of contextual challenges and constraints. Cambridge Journal of Education, 48(1), 21–45. doi:10.1080/030576 4X.2016.1221885

Taylor, R.D., Oberle, E., Durlak, D., & Weissberg, R.P. (2017), Promoting positive youth development through school-based social and emotional learning interventions: A meta-analysis of follow-up effects. Child Development, 88(4), 1156-1171.

The Smith Family. (2018), Attendance lifts achievement: Building the evidence base to improve student outcomes, Research Report. The Smith Family.

Thornton, M., Darmody, M., & McCoy, S. (2013), Persistent absenteeism among Irish primary school pupils. Educational Review, 65(4), 488–501. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2013. 768599

Tintoré, M., Cunha, R. S., Cabral, I., & Alves, J. J. M. (2022), A scoping review of problems and challenges faced by school leaders (2003–2019). Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 50(4), 536–573. doi:10.1177/1741143220942527

Torii, K., Fox, S., & Cloney, D. (2017). Quality is key in Early Childhood Education in Australia. Mitchell Institute Policy Paper No. 01/2017. Mitchell Institute, Melbourne. Available from: www. mitchellinstitute.org.au

Tsuyuguchi, K., Fujiwara, F., & Uzuki, Y. (2020), The effects of community-wide distributed leadership on students' academic achievement. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 0(0), 1–23. doi:10.1080/13603124.2020.1849814

UNESCO. (2004), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005: Education for All—The Quality Imperative. Paris: UNESCO.

United Nations. (n.d.), Quality Education: Why it matters. United Nations

Van de Sande, M. C. E., Fekkes, M., Kocken, P. L., Diekstra, R. F. W., Reis, R., & Gravesteijn, C. (2019), Do universal social and emotional learning programs for secondary school students enhance the competencies they address? A systematic review. Psychology in the Schools, 56(10), 1545–1567. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22307

Wang, M-T., Degol, J., Amemiya, J., Parr, A., & Guo, J. (2020), Classroom climate and children's academic and psychological wellbeing: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Developmental Review, 57, 1–21.

Wang, M. T., & Sheikh-Khalil, S. (2014), Does parental involvement matter for student achievement and mental health in high school? Child Development, 85(2), 610–625. doi:10.1111/cdev.12153

Warren, J.S., Bohanon-Edmonson, H.M., Turnbull, A.P. et al. School-wide Positive Behavior Support: Addressing Behavior Problems that Impede Student Learning. Educ Psychol Rev 18, 187–198 (2006), https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-006-9008-1

Warren, D., & Haisken-DeNew, J. P. (2013), Early Bird Catches the Worm: The Causal Impact of Pre-school Participation and Teacher Qualifications on Year 3 NAPLAN Outcomes – Summary Paper.

Watkins, C. S., & Howard, M. O. (2015), Educational success among elementary school children from low socioeconomic status families: A systematic review of research assessing parenting factors. Journal of Children and Poverty, 21(1), 17–46. doi:10.1080/10796126. 2015.1031728

Weare, K., & Nind, M. (2011), Mental health promotion and problem prevention in schools: What does the evidence say? Health Promotion International, 26(1), i29–i69, https://doi.org/10.1093/ heapro/dar075

Webster-Stratton, C., Jamila Reid, M., & Stoolmiller, M. (2008), Preventing conduct problems and improving school readiness: Evaluation of the incredible years teacher and child training programs in high-risk schools. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 49(5), 471–488. 10.1111/j.1469-7610.2007.01861.x

Wenglinsky, H 2000, How Teaching Matters: Bringing the Classroom Back into the Discussions about Teacher Quality, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, NJ. http://www.ets.org/ research/pic/teamat.pdf

Wigelsworth, M., Verity, L., Mason, C., Qualter, P., & Humphrey, N. (2022), Social and emotional learning in primary schools: A review of the current state of evidence. The British journal of educational psychology, 92(3), 898–924. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12480

World Bank (2013), What Matters Most for Teacher Policies: A Framework Paper, Saber Working Paper Series, Number 4, April 2013, https://documents1. worldbank.org/curated/en/503591468331856077/ pdf/901820NWP0no4000Box385307B00PUBLIC0.pdf

World Health Organization (WHO). (1998), Health Promoting evaluation: recommendations for Policy-Makers, report of the WHO European Working Group on Health Promotion Evaluation. Copenhagen: WHO.

Wu, H., Gao, X., & Shen, J. (2020), Principal leadership effects on student achievement: a multilevel analysis using Programme for International Student Assessment 2015 data. Educational Studies, 46(3), 316–336. doi:10.1080/03055698.2019.1584853

Wu, H., & Shen, J. (2022), The association between principal leadership and student achievement: A multivariate meta-meta-analysis. Educational Research Review, 35, 100423. doi:10.1016/j. edurev.2021.100423

Xia, J., & O'Shea, C. (2022), To What Extent Does Distributed Leadership Support Principal Instructional Leadership? Evidence from TALIS 2013 Data. Leadership and Policy in Schools, 0(0), 1–27. doi:10.1080/15700763.2022.2056059

Yang, W., Datu, J., Lin, X., Lau, M., & Li, H. (2018), Can Early Childhood Curriculum Enhance Social-Emotional Competence in Low-Income Children? A Meta-Analysis of the Educational Effects, Early Education and Development, DOI: 10.1080/10409289.2018.1539557

Yoshikawa, H., Leyva, D., Snow, C. E., Treviño, E., Barata, C., Weiland, C., ... Arbour, M. C. (2015), Experimental impacts of a teacher professional development program in Chile on preschool classroom quality and child outcomes. Developmental Psychology, 51, 309–322. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038785

Zubrick, S. (2014), School attendance: Equities and inequities in growth trajectories of academic performance. In ACER Research Conference, Quality and Equality: What does research tell us. Adelaide.

ourplace

education is the key to the door

Contact

info@ourplace.org.au

ourplace.org.au

Our Place sites

Bridgewood	Morwell
Carlton	Northern Bay
Doveton	Robinvale
Frankston North	Seymour
Mooroopna	Westall