# Performance Information and Personnel Decisions in the Public Sector: The Case of School Principals<sup>1</sup>

Julie Berry Cullen<sup>2</sup>, Eric A. Hanushek<sup>3</sup>, Gregory Phelan,<sup>4</sup> and Steven G. Rivkin<sup>5</sup>

July 2018

# ABSTRACT

School ratings based on test scores provide performance information to administrators, board members, parents and other stakeholders with the hope of driving quality improvements and efficiency gains. Accountability systems standardly report both categorical school ratings and the continuous underlying student pass rates that determine them, permitting direct investigation of how different information affects key school personnel, specifically principals. This study uses regression discontinuity design methods to investigate how accountability ratings affect principal labor-market outcomes. Results reveal no significant differences in salary growth and the probability of principal retention across the acceptable-recognized and recognized exemplary boundaries but large and significant discontinuities at the unacceptable-acceptable boundary. This divergence is consistent with the notion that school district administrators access the continuous underlying information on achievement and productivity but that parents, school board members or other stakeholders respond to cruder unacceptable ratings in ways that jeopardize the principal's career opportunities. This apparent information breakdown could nonetheless be welfare improving if it raised the distribution of principal quality through disproportionate departures of less effective school leaders. However, the extensive overlap of achievement value-added distributions across school rating categories suggests that a categorical accountability system based on pass rates does not distinguish well among principals of varying levels of effectiveness. Moreover, it almost certainly disadvantages principals in schools serving low-income populations that already have general difficulties in attracting and retaining effective educators.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This work was done in conjunction with the Texas Schools Project at the University of Texas at Dallas. It was supported by grants from the Kern Family Foundation and the Laura and John Arnold Foundation. The conclusions of this research do not necessarily reflect the opinions or official position of the Texas Education Agency, the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, or the State of Texas.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> University of California, San Diego and NBER

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Stanford University, University of Texas at Dallas, and NBER

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> University of Texas at Dallas

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> University of Illinois at Chicago, University of Texas at Dallas, and NBER

#### **1. Introduction**

The lack of competitive pressures on public sector organizations has long raised concerns about inefficiencies in provision and about low quality of service, with perhaps no sector receiving as much attention as public schools. Passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2001 was the culmination of many state-level efforts to measure and rate school performance with the explicit goal of elevating the quality of instruction and reducing inefficiencies. Although teacher performance under school accountability has received the most attention, it is the school leader who is the fulcrum of most school improvement efforts. The effect of accountability ratings and related performance measures on principal labor market outcomes therefore constitutes an important channel through which accountability reforms might affect school quality.

Test score based school accountability systems standardly report both categorical school ratings and the continuous underlying student pass rates that determine them, permitting direct investigation of how different information affects key school personnel, specifically principals. Although school district administrators retain the authority over hiring, raises, and principal retention, they do not operate in a vacuum. Rather school superintendents report directly to school boards and likely respond to feedback from parents, politicians and other stakeholders. Consequently, accountability systems may influence principal employment and salary decisions through a number of channels, and the various stakeholders may access and utilize different types of information in reaching conclusions about the performance of a particular principal.

In this paper, we use regression discontinuity design (RD) methods to identify the causal impacts of reaching higher school rating categories on labor market outcomes of elementary school principals. We use this analysis to gain a better understanding of the determinants of principal labor market outcomes, the impact of NCLB-like accountability, and the use of information by education stakeholders. A significant discontinuity at a rating threshold showing divergent treatment of equally productive principals across the boundary constitutes *prima facie* evidence of an information failure and suboptimal decision-making. One possibility is that district administrators discount the underlying continuous performance information and focus on the rating. However, a discontinuity could emerge even when district administrators have complete information if, for example, parents, school board members or other stakeholders who directly or indirectly influence the district administration rely heavily on the cruder ratings in

2

drawing conclusions about principal performance and whether the principal merits a raise or contract renewal.

Our empirical results reveal no significant differences in salary growth and the probability of principal retention across the acceptable-recognized and recognized-exemplary boundaries but large and significant discontinuities at the unacceptable-acceptable boundary. In the absence of direct evidence on the use of information and the initiator of job separations, the RD analysis cannot identify the channels through which ratings affect principal retention and salary. However, comparisons of effects across the three boundaries can provide indirect evidence. Smooth movement in labor market outcomes across all three boundaries would support the notion that the complete underlying scale is being used, while discontinuities at all three boundaries would reject the full information hypothesis in favor of at least partial reliance on the cruder ratings.

Our findings run against both of these simple characterizations of information use. The significant labor market impact found only at the unacceptable-acceptable boundary and not at other thresholds suggests receipt of an unacceptable school rating leads to worse labor market outcomes despite district administrator knowledge of the continuous scale. The receipt of an unacceptable, or failing, rating may evoke strong responses that place pressure on districts to take dramatic actions including the removal of a principal.<sup>6</sup>

Whether the responsiveness to ratings that we uncover in the RD analysis is welfare improving depends upon the effects on the distribution of principal quality. This in turn depends primarily upon the underlying motivations of district administrators and the differences in average principal effectiveness between ratings categories. For example, reluctance to fire a poor-performing principal due to psychological or political costs associated with such actions may be overcome by the public stigma surrounding a school rated as failing. Although the ineffective principal just above the threshold will retain her job, the introduction of discrete rating categories may operate below the threshold to lift the distribution of principal quality.

However, the fact that the Texas system, like NCLB, emphasizes achievement levels rather than measures associated with achievement growth, means that school ratings are poor

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> For example, the *Tampa Bay Times* reported sudden replacement of principals when some of the Hillsborough County schools received D or F grades in Florida in 2018. Explaining that he was reacting to previous pressure, the Hillsborough superintendent of schools reported, "the State Board of Education ordered him [in 2017] to move principals out of four schools even though his own data showed they were doing a good job." (Sokol (2018)))

indicators of principal quality. Since higher-income students typically receive far more family resources that support learning and come to school better prepared, pass rates on state achievement tests are systematically biased against schools serving low income and disadvantaged populations. For these reasons, it is not surprising that we find substantial overlap in estimates of principal value-added across ratings categories. While principals in the bottom quartile of effectiveness as measured by principal value-added are overrepresented in schools rated unacceptable, principals in these schools are also as likely to be in the top quartile as principals in schools rated more highly. The risk to principals of incurring labor market penalties from being in low rated schools may exacerbate challenges facing hard-to-staff low-achieving schools.

To complement the main RD analysis, we present results from regressions relating labor market outcomes of principals to ratings, average pass rate, and estimated value-added. An important caveat is that these associations do not have causal interpretations due to the likely presence of unobserved but correlated influences in the labor market. Nonetheless, in these analyses we continue to observe worse labor market outcomes, particularly within the home district, for principals leading schools that attain the lowest rating.

The small number of principals who switch school districts limits the power to detect differences in the use of information between the current employer and destination districts. However, the significant positive relationship between within-district labor market success and principal value-added coupled with the absence of such a relationship with out-of-district success suggests that incumbent districts have greater access to and make greater use of information on productivity. Overall, the pattern of findings highlights the possibility that disseminating information that accurately measures school effectiveness could both improve labor market incentives to raise school quality and mitigate disincentives to work in schools that serve educationally disadvantaged populations.

Surprisingly, few studies have linked administrator outcomes to performance. In prior work on school-level data in Texas, Cullen and Mazzeo (2008) find that first-time principals who lead schools where achievement is higher than expected given family background characteristics are more likely to move to more advantaged schools and to be promoted, realizing larger salary increases through these channels. In contrast, since we have access to student level data, we are able to construct school quality measures based on individual achievement gains. For our

4

analogous descriptive regressions, this allows us to compare market responses associated with more refined measures of principal effectiveness. It also covers the full experience spectrum of principals. Importantly, incorporating extensive information on how the accountability ratings are assigned in our RD analysis allows us to causally identify the impact of ratings.

The next section provides the relevant details on the Texas school principal labor market and school accountability system. Section 3 describes the Texas administrative data used in the analyses, while Section 4 explains the methods used to measure principal effectiveness. Section 5 then presents the analysis of accountability system effects on principal labor market outcomes and how district responses affect the distribution of principal quality. Section 6 investigates differences between current and destination districts in the use of performance information. Finally, Section 7 summarizes the findings and considers implications for policy.

# 2. Institutional background

The principal labor market in Texas is likely to be more fluid than other states. Texas is one of the few states that prohibit public employees from entering into collective bargaining. School principals and teachers generally serve under term contracts, and those contracts cannot be longer than five years and are typically much shorter. Though the state does not collect data on individual terms, a recent survey found that the standard contract term for principals is two years in most Texas districts.<sup>7</sup> Principals come from the teacher ranks, as they are required to have two years of classroom teaching experience in addition to completing a Master's degree in a principal preparation program. Although there is a state minimum salary schedule for teachers by years of experience, there are no constraints on principal salaries. Salaries for principals are set by the superintendent and subject to approval of the school board.

As the school leader, the principal is responsible for how the school functions. In Texas, principals are required to be evaluated annually by central administrators. State code recommends standards for evaluating principals on specific indicators in the areas of instructional leadership, human capital development, executive leadership, school culture, and strategic operations. Importantly, academic progress of students at the school becomes a factor starting in the second year after a principal has been at a campus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> "HR Services' contract practices survey reveals common practices" (Texas Association of School Boards Human Resources Exchange Newsletter, February 2015, https://www.tasb.org/Services/HR-Services/HR-Services/Hrexchange/2015/February-2015.aspx).

The evaluation of principals takes place within the broader system of statewide standardized testing and school accountability. The system determines not only the publicly available information on academic outcomes but also the data available to construct additional measures of principal productivity. Texas has required statewide testing since 1980 and was also an early mover on school accountability, having implemented a four-tiered school rating system in 1994 that remained in place through 2011. School ratings of unacceptable, acceptable, recognized, and exemplary were assigned by the state every year except for 2003 when there was the transition to a new standardized testing regime.<sup>8</sup>

In our analysis, we study elementary-school principals over the 2001 to 2008 school years.<sup>9</sup> Though the choice of sample period is driven by data availability, we choose to focus on elementary grades where test performance is the sole academic outcome used to construct the accountability rating; the drop-out rate contributes to the rating starting in grade seven. Elementary-school ratings depend on student performance on standardized tests in mathematics and reading (grades 3-6), writing (grade 4), and science (grade 5). The administration of mathematics and reading tests in consecutive grades also makes it possible to observe achievement growth in core subjects and to estimate principal value-added.

The mapping from test scores to the campus rating is complex. First, separate pass rates for each subject based on year-specific cutoff scores for proficiency are calculated for all students and for demographic subgroups (white, black, Hispanic and economically disadvantaged) that meet minimum size requirements ranging from 30 to 50 students. Then, these pass rates are compared to thresholds that vary by rating category and year. The lowest pass rate across subjects and subgroups is the primary determinant of the accountability rating, but there are exceptions. For example, in the case of the acceptable rating, a subgroup not reaching the current statutory threshold in a subject but closing a specified percentage of the gap from the prior year can meet the alternative standard of required improvement.<sup>10</sup> The required

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) was administered each spring starting in 1993, and was replaced by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) in 2003. Both are criterion-referenced tests that assess student mastery of grade-specific subject matter. In 2012, the testing regime changed again and a new set of rating categories were introduced in the following year. School years are referred to by the spring year (i.e., school year 2000-2001 is referred to as 2001).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Other research on the effects of the Texas accountability system include Deming et al. (2016) and Reback (2008) that study effects on the distribution of student achievement and Craig, Imberman, and Perdue (2015) that studies the effect on budgets.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> In this case, the prior year pass rate is adjusted to account for any change in the cutoff score for passing.

improvement alternative is also available for the recognized rating, with the additional requirement that the pass rate fall no more than five percentage points below the statutory rate. The 2004 through 2008 accountability systems also include additional exceptions provisions for campuses to be elevated to acceptable, recognized, and exemplary ratings: a specified number of subject-by-subgroups can be ignored if the pass rate falls no more than five percentage points below the statutory rate and the subject-by-subgroup did not receive an exception in the prior year.<sup>11</sup>

The campus ratings are linked to both rewards and punishments. The state appropriates limited funding to provide financial awards to schools rated acceptable or above that show sustained or improved performance, as well as to schools led by principals identified as high-performing based on the same types of indicators. The highest performing campuses are also exempted from specific regulations. On the other hand, schools rated as unacceptable must work with external review teams to develop improvement plans. Receipt of an unacceptable rating in two consecutive years initiates the imposition of sanctions that become progressively more severe for each additional year the school fails to reach an acceptable rating.<sup>12</sup> After five years, requirements to replace school staff or make other dramatic changes can directly affect principal job retention.

The detailed and summary information about academic performance and school ratings is made publicly available on the web. In evaluating principals, district administrators surely have additional information to go by, such as measures of performance on other dimensions, teacher reports, feedback from students and families, and direct observations. Yet, the extent to which these sources of information guide personnel decisions might be moderated by pressure from less informed stakeholders who focus on the more salient ratings. This motivates our primary analyses of how ratings per se impact principal labor market outcomes, as well as our secondary analyses of how other measures that differ in salience and information content are correlated with these outcomes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> The number of subject-by-subgroup exceptions allowed is determined by campus size.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Starting in 2004, when the federal No Child Left Behind policy became effective, schools are also classified by whether they meet adequate yearly progress (AYP). The state aligns that determination as closely as possible to the school rating process, though federal rules require adjustments to some of the indicators, including the consideration of additional subgroups. During our sample period, only 8 percent of elementary and middle school campuses designated as failing to meet AYP were also rated as unacceptable, and only 16 percent of campuses receiving an unacceptable rating failed to meet AYP. No schools progressed to a stage where repeatedly failing to meet AYP would have direct consequences for principals according to NCLB.

## 3. Data on principal labor market outcomes and campus performance

To characterize labor market outcomes for elementary school principals and the performance of the schools they lead, we use a combination of restricted-use and publicly available data spanning the 2001 through 2008 school years. The restricted-use data we rely on are the administrative data constructed as part of the UTD Texas Schools Project.<sup>13</sup> Working with the Texas Education Agency, this project has combined different data sources to create matched panels of staff and students. The personnel database provides annual information on administrator background characteristics, total years of experience in the school system, current position, tenure, and salary. From this information, we track the careers of principals as long as they remain in Texas public schools. The student panels include demographic characteristics, instructional program participation, and achievement test scores. We merge data on campus characteristics and performance from the publicly available Texas Academic Excellence Indicator System. These comprehensive annual reports include accountability ratings, pass rates for all and subsets of students, and a broad range of contextual measures.

A significant advantage of studying Texas is the large number of principals and schools. Over our period, there are 3,942 elementary schools serving an average of 569 students in grades K-6 each year. Further, the typical school experiences a principal turnover every 5 years.

Our main analytic sample includes principals with fewer than 25 years of total experience in the Texas Public Schools who have been in their current positions for at least two years. The exclusion of principals with high levels of experience is designed to reduce the incidence of exit via retirement. The exclusion of the first year in a school recognizes the limited initial control over staff composition and the likely persistence of predecessor decisions in the short run. Table 1 shows the effects of these sample restrictions. Starting from the full sample of campus-by-year observations, successively excluding highly experienced and new-to-campus principals hardly alters average school characteristics. Highly experienced principals are a bit more likely to have advanced education and enjoy slightly higher pay, while new-to-campus principals are quite typical. After making these exclusions, we observe 4,222 principals and 11,351 principal-by-year labor market transitions across 3,251 campuses.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> https://www.utdallas.edu/research/tsp-erc/

When constructing measures of principal effectiveness, we impose further restrictions on the sample. To account for fixed differences among schools, effectiveness is inferred from achievement gains relative to others serving the same campus. Thus, for this estimation, we eliminate any campus that is served by only one principal for at least two years over our sample period. This leaves us with 7,653 principal-by-year observations representing 3,285 unique principals. The final column in Table 1 shows that these principals and schools again appear to be typical, though there is a detectable fall in average achievement and corresponding increase in student disadvantage.

The labor market outcomes that we initially focus on are job retention, compensation, and student body composition. Since the latter two outcomes are only observed for those who remain in the Texas Public Schools, we also investigate exit from the system. Past evidence highlights the influence of the quality of student and family inputs on the labor supply of teachers and administrators.<sup>14</sup> We use a summary measure of student advantage as a proxy for this aspect of working conditions. Specifically, for all elementary school campuses in Texas over our sample period, we regress average pass rates across math and reading on the set of student characteristics from Table 1, as well as district and year fixed effects. We then extract the predicted values ignoring the year effects and, to simplify interpretation, standardize these to form an index with a mean of zero and standard deviation of one across campus-years. To characterize student composition at the district-year level analogously, we average the campus indices, weighting by enrollment, and then standardize this variable to have a zero mean and standard deviation of one across all district-years.

In our analysis of potential differences in the use of information between the current and destination district, we construct a composite indicator of labor market success. This composite measure equals one for a principal who either retains her job or makes a "successful" move. A successful move is defined as moving to another position within the school system and realizing above median salary growth or above median improvement in student composition, where the medians are defined based on all principals who remain in the system regardless of whether they switched jobs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Loeb, Kalogrides, and Horng (2010) and Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin (2004) provide evidence of a desire for educators to work in higher-achieving, lower-poverty districts.

Timing is an important issue to consider when linking these labor market outcomes to measures of school performance. Though preliminary results on student test outcomes are available to district officials as early as May, preliminary accountability ratings are not released until August. Given that most principal hiring occurs in the spring, there is limited scope for immediate impacts on principal positions in the subsequent fall. We therefore use a two-year definition of outcomes, relating labor market transitions between academic years t and t+2 to performance as measured in the spring of academic year t. For student composition, to avoid embedding any impacts of principals on student characteristics or outcomes, we calculate the change based on the values at time t at the sending and receiving campuses (or at the sending and receiving districts if the principal moves to a district-level position).<sup>15</sup> Thus, for those individuals who are retained, the change in student composition is mechanically zero.

Table 2 shows summary statistics for the two-year labor market outcomes for relevant principals across the state (column 1), as well as for those in the subset at campuses served by multiple principals over our sample period (column 2). The majority (65.2 percent) of principals in our main analysis sample are retained. Approximately one in five (19.9 percent) changes positions within the same district, one in ten (8.1 percent) exits the Texas Public Schools, and one in fifteen (6.9 percent) changes districts. Of those who change positions within the same district, three quarters make successful moves according to our definition, with most of these accompanied by above median salary gains. Successful moves outside the district account for a similar share of district movers and are also primarily attributable to salary. Altogether, 85.0 percent experience labor market success according to our composite measure. For principals at multi-principal campuses, the overall rate of success is similar (81.4 percent) but not surprisingly reflects less retention (56.1 percent) and more within-district (19.0 percent) and across-district (6.3 percent) moves.

#### 4. Measure of principal effectiveness

A natural way to judge principal effectiveness is by the academic performance of students at the school she leads. However, similar to the case of rating corporate CEOs, the level of performance depends on many factors that are not directly within the principal's control,

 $<sup>^{15}</sup>$  In rare cases, the receiving school or district was not operational in year t, so we use the working conditions index from t+1 if available, and t+2 if not.

including the composition of the student body. For this reason, inferring principal effectiveness from measures that are heavily dependent on levels of student achievement is likely to be misleading.

To provide a more meaningful proxy for effectiveness against which to benchmark the more readily available school accountability campus performance measures, we apply methods that have become standard in the broader labor economics literature to separate worker and firm productivity and that have also been previously applied to estimate principal effectiveness.<sup>16</sup> We estimate achievement value-added models that include both principal fixed effects and school fixed effects.

Our model relates achievement (A) for student *i* in grade *g* in school *s* served by principal *p* in year *t* to a cubic in prior achievement ( $f(A_{t-1})$ ), student characteristics (X), school and peer characteristics (C), year-by-grade indicators ( $d_{gt}$ ), and vectors of school ( $g_s$ ) and principal ( $q_p$ ) fixed effects. Adding a random error ( $\varepsilon$ ), the empirical model is:

$$A_{igspt} = a_1 f(A_{t-1}) + a_2 X_{it} + a_3 C_{gst} + d_{gt} + g_s + q_p + \mathcal{E}_{igspt}$$
(1)

Achievement is defined to be the average of math and reading standardized test z-scores, where scores are normalized by grade and year across all students in the state. The vector X includes the student characteristics detailed in Table 1, while the vector C includes the averages of these characteristics for students in grade g in school s in year t. The estimates of principal effectiveness are based on the estimated coefficients on the principal indicators.

As in the approach pioneered by Abowd, Kramarz, and Margolis (1999), the model identifies principal effectiveness vis-à-vis other principals in the same connected network, where schools in each network are linked by principal transitions among the schools. By controlling for school fixed effects, the model accounts for persistent school differences. Since the estimates would otherwise be relative to an arbitrary omitted reference principal within each network, we demean our estimates by the average principal fixed effect in each connected network to make the estimates unique (Abowd, Creecy, and Kramarz, 2002).<sup>17</sup> Each school without a principal

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> See, for example, Branch, Hanushek, and Rivkin (2012), Coelli and Green (2012), Dhuey and Smith (2014), and Helal and Coelli (2016).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> The problems for the estimation of teacher value-added associated with test measurement error are far less important in the case of principals given the much larger number of test-takers in schools than classrooms, and

who ever leads another Texas public school (for at least two years) is a separate network, in which case principal performance is measured relative to other principals at the same school. For our sample of principals leading elementary schools with at least two principals with sufficient tenure over our sample period, three quarters of the networks (1,617 of 2,133) include a single campus. This is an important limitation of our relatively short panel, since systematic differences in principal effectiveness across campuses will not be captured in those cases, as it is switchers across schools that identify these. Measuring effectiveness relative only to principals serving at the same schools will tend to understate variation in effectiveness to the extent that similarly effective principals sort to the same schools.

In order for our estimates to be unbiased measures of effectiveness within networks, principals must not be sorting based on match quality and changes in school leadership must not be correlated with unobserved changes in school quality. We attempt to minimize the role of unobserved changes in school quality by conditioning on student and peer characteristics and through sample restrictions. Evidence in Miller (2013) reveals a systematic decrease in school value-added in the year prior to the arrival of a new principal. Although poor performance may trigger a departure, the dip may also reflect a reduction in principal health, effort, or authority over the school or the impacts of other factors associated with the decision to leave. Since achievement growth during a principal's first year might be inflated by recovery from the dip in the final year of the prior principal's tenure as well as the fact that the persistent influences of the prior principal are likely to be strongest during the first year of a spell, we exclude the first year of job spells throughout.

Unfortunately, without a longer panel, it is difficult to validate our measures by testing whether changes in principal effectiveness following turnovers map to changes in student achievement.<sup>18</sup> Chiang, Lipscomb, and Gill (2016) do attempt this type of exercise using a panel of similar length to ours. Their measure of productivity that is most closely related to ours (i.e., school value-added during the principal's term relative to prior years) translates to less than one third of the expected change in achievement at the new school when one principal replaces

Branch, Hanushek, and Rivkin (2012) show that Bayesian shrinkage has little effect on the variance of principal value-added estimates. Therefore, we do not make any further adjustments to account for sampling error. <sup>18</sup> Bacher-Hicks, Kane, and Staiger (2014) and Chetty, Friedman, and Rockoff (2014, 2016) develop these tests for forecast unbiasedness of teacher value-added estimates. The logic is that if the estimates are valid and scaled appropriately, then changes in teacher effectiveness across schools and grades over time due to turnover should predict one-for-one changes in student achievement.

another. Though the magnitude of the estimated impact on achievement is of the same magnitude, it is only statistically significant for a simpler measure that does not adjust for prior campus performance. This echoes the finding in Grissom, Kalogrides, and Loeb (2015) that school-by-year value-added is more predictive of district evaluations of principals than measures that attempt to also control for school fixed effects. Importantly, these papers rely heavily on schools with multiple principals who serve short terms as leaders, and both include the initial and final years of principal terms in the analysis. Excluding these years, Laing et al. (2016) show that the variance of estimated principal value-added shrinks and that value-added increases monotonically with teacher ratings of the principal's effectiveness as an instructional leader.

Table 3 reports correlations between our principal fixed effect measure and other more readily calculated measures of campus performance one might use as proxies for principal effectiveness. The sample in the top panel is campus-years for campuses observed with more than one principal over our sample period, while the lower panel includes campus-years for campuses served by only one principal with sufficient tenure. The variable in the first column is our principal fixed effect estimate from equation (1), demeaned by connected network (which is only available for the top panel of multi-principal schools). The variable in the second column is the school-by-year fixed effect that ignores the specific principal tenure. The variable in column 3 averages these across a principal's term (thus including single-principal schools and ignoring first and last year complications). Column 4 is the average campus pass rate across math and reading, and column 5 is the residual from a regression of the pass rate on the student characteristics shown in Table 1.

Principal value-added is positively correlated with all of the alternative campus performance measures, but only weakly so. The correlation between the principal fixed effect and the school-by-year fixed effect rises from 0.19 to 0.26 when the school-by-year fixed effects are averaged over the principal's term. Similarly, the correlation rises from 0.10 to 0.15 when the average pass rate is adjusted for student demographics. The patterns in the correlations for the alternative measures are broadly similar for the single-principal campuses, supporting the evidence in Table 1 that these campuses are not systematically different from the campuses we observe with multiple principals over our period. Overall, Table 3 suggests that more readily available measures of school performance, such as pass rates, neglect significant portions of the variation in principal effectiveness.

13

Figure 1 similarly shows that the four campus accountability ratings categories do not systematically sort principals from low to high effectiveness. Though the distributions of principal fixed effects in the top panel reveal a higher concentration of ineffective principals and a lower modal effectiveness in the unacceptable category, differences are small between the acceptable and recognized ratings and virtually nonexistent between recognized and exemplary.<sup>19</sup> The excess mass of ineffective principals leading schools with an unacceptable rating suggests that the inclusion of required improvement and exceptions provisions in the determination of the acceptable category. Yet, the distribution of principal effectiveness for those with unacceptable ratings also has a thicker right tail, illustrating that a substantial share of relatively effective principals lead schools that receive a rating of unacceptable.

In contrast, there are sharp differences in average pass rates across the rating categories, as seen in the bottom panel of Figure 1. Importantly, such differences appear even for the subset of principals who fall in the top quartile of the principal effectiveness distribution. Average pass rates for schools led by principals in the top quartile are 70 percent for schools rated unacceptable, 82 percent for schools rated acceptable, 90 percent for schools rated recognized, and 96 percent for schools rated exemplary. The rating-system reliance on pass rates rather than achievement growth clearly penalizes effective principals who work in schools serving predominantly lower achievers who struggle to earn a passing score.

### 5. Campus rating effects on labor market outcomes

The first component of the empirical analysis investigates whether school ratings affect principal labor market outcomes. To identify the causal effects of ratings holding principal effectiveness and all else constant, we use regression discontinuity (RD) methods based on the school accountability system rules. We then provide complementary results from regressions of labor market outcomes on all measures of principal performance, recognizing that these estimates are more difficult to interpret as causal.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> The p-values from Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests for the equality of distributions between consecutive ratings categories are all less than 0.01.

## 5.1 Regression discontinuity design approach

Our RD exploits discontinuities in the probability of receiving a higher accountability rating based on the pass rate for the subgroup (i.e., student group-by-subject) that is most likely to be binding for that campus and year. To identify this marginal subgroup for each rating boundary, we first determine the relevant pass rate threshold for each subgroup that meets applicable minimum size requirements. The threshold may be the statutory threshold, the required improvement threshold, or the exceptions threshold and is determined by the subgroup pass rate in the prior year and whether exceptions are available. We then center subgroup pass rates around the relevant thresholds. The subgroup with the most negative (or least positive) centered pass rate is selected as the marginal subgroup for each rating category.<sup>20</sup> Running variable values greater than (less than) zero indicate that student performance was sufficient (not sufficient) to earn the higher rating.

We estimate our models using local linear regression with a triangular kernel on our main analytic sample.<sup>21</sup> We use the structure of the accountability system and existing research to guide our choice of bandwidths. The distances between the statutory pass rates for the various ratings leads us to trim the samples to schools with running variable values within ten percentage points of the threshold in question. Virtually all schools within this range earn one of the two ratings around the threshold, while the fraction falling into a different rating category rises outside this range. We apply five alternative bandwidths to the trimmed sample—10, 7.5, 5, and 2.5 percentage points along with an optimal bandwidth described by Cattaneo and Vazquez-Bare (2016) and implemented by Calonico et al. (2017). We cluster standard errors by values of the running variable in all specifications.

Figure 2 illustrates the relationship between the probability of attaining the higher rating and the running variable for each of the school rating thresholds. As is apparent from the differences in precision, the bulk of the observations are at the threshold between acceptable and recognized. Over the years 2001 to 2008, 17 percent of the elementary and middle school campuses were rated exemplary, 45 percent were rated recognized, 38 percent were rated acceptable, and only 1 percent received an unacceptable rating. The discontinuity is quite

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> Appendix Table A1 shows marginal student-by-subject subgroup shares for 10 percentage point bandwidths around the rating thresholds. Due to the required improvement provisions, Appendix Table A2 shows that the marginal student subgroup is also the lowest performing on the relevant subject only about two thirds of the time. This share fell further once the exceptions provisions were newly introduced in 2004.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Rectangular kernels produce very similar estimates.

pronounced at all three thresholds between consecutive categories. Though we fully incorporate the complex rules that change over time in the construction of the running variable, the presence of a small fraction (less than 2 percent) of schools whose ratings we do not correctly predict means that we have a fuzzy design.<sup>22</sup> The corresponding first-stage estimates reported in Table 4 range from between 0.80 and 0.88 at the unacceptable-acceptable boundary, whereas they all exceed 0.96 at the recognized boundary and 0.91 at the exemplary boundary. Consequently, though we report intention-to-treat estimates for the labor market outcomes, local average treatment effect (LATE) estimates are similar in magnitude.

Any discontinuities in outcomes at the thresholds can be attributed to the receipt of the rating only if principals are unable to manipulate the running variable near the boundary and no other determinants of outcomes differ discontinuously at the boundary. Though others have shown that it is possible to manipulate pass rates by altering the test-taking pool (e.g., Cullen and Reback (2006), Figlio and Loeb (2011)), it is not feasible to do so precisely. Once students sit for exams, they are scored and recorded centrally. Thus, variation in the subgroup pass rates in the neighborhood of the thresholds should be as good as random. Appendix Figure A1 shows the densities of acceptable, recognized and exemplary running variables. Formal statistical tests based on McCrary (2008) reject the null of no discontinuity for the recognized threshold, which we presume is due to chance.<sup>23</sup>

To explore further, we test whether there are any discontinuities in observable characteristics on either side of the ratings thresholds. We estimate a system of seemingly unrelated RD regressions using the principal and student characteristics shown in Table 1 as the dependent variables. Table 5 shows that almost none of these exhibits statistically significant discontinuities at the ratings boundaries, and we fail to reject the null hypotheses that all coefficients are jointly equal to zero for the acceptable and exemplary boundaries, though we do reject for the recognized boundary. Similarly, for the multi-principal campuses, there are no statistically significant discontinuities in our estimates of principal effectiveness at the other two boundaries, though principals at campuses just meeting the recognized threshold are found to be

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> One source of discrepancy is due to special accommodations that may be made in particular circumstances that are not elucidated in accountability manuals. Another is that it is possible for superintendents to appeal ratings, such as based on a consequential change in the coding of a student's race/ethnicity from prior years. Importantly, the underlying data reports are never altered even if an appeal is granted.

 $<sup>^{23}</sup>$  The discontinuity estimates and associated standard errors for the optimal bandwidths from the first stages are 0.899 (0.543), 0.976 (0.197) and -0.019 (0.143) at the acceptable, recognized and exemplary boundaries, respectively.

more effective for the smallest two bandwidths.<sup>24</sup> Taken together, the validity tests suggest that the recognized boundary could be problematic, though in our context it is hard to imagine that this is due to manipulation of the running variable. Regardless, in the results that follow, we do not find any evidence of career impacts at this boundary.

# 5.2 Regression discontinuity estimates of ratings impacts

We present results for three labor market outcomes: principal retention in the same school, salary growth and changes in student composition. All three measures are defined based on positions held in year t+2, where ratings are based on performance in the spring of year t. Our proxy for student composition is the normalized predicted pass rate, capturing the level of student background advantage. Since salary and student composition can only be observed if the principal remains in the sample, we also examine effects on the probability of exit from the Texas Public Schools to document the extent of nonrandom attrition.

The results for principal retention are depicted graphically in Figure 3, which plots the relationship between the running variable and the probability of retention for each of the ratings boundaries. A sharp contrast emerges between the sizable discontinuity at the unacceptable-acceptable boundary in the top panel and little if any jump at the two other thresholds in the bottom panels. The corresponding RD estimates reported in Table 6 confirm what is evident in the graphs. The estimates of discontinuities associated with moving into the two higher rating categories are small and insignificant for all bandwidths, while the estimates show significant increases in retention for moving into the acceptable rating. For the optimal bandwidth, the estimate is 42.5 percentage points, which is a doubling relative to the baseline rate of retention for those campuses that do not escape the unacceptable rating. Accounting for the fuzziness of the design, the implied LATE estimate would be about 20 percent larger.

An important issue concerns the channels that underlie the ratings effect on retention. The regulatory link between sanctions and an unacceptable rating raises the possibility that the impetus is NCLB statutory requirements rather than administrator discretion. However, it takes two unacceptable ratings in successive years to trigger sanctions, so that schools not classified as unacceptable in the prior year are not at risk for sanctions. Table 7 first shows that only about 10 percent of campuses currently rated unacceptable were also rated unacceptable in the prior year. Second, the RD estimates for schools not previously rated unacceptable are significant and even

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> See Appendix Table A3 for the estimates of discontinuities in principal value-added.

larger than those estimated for the full sample, supporting the conclusion that school ratings provide information that influences discretionary personnel decisions.

Beyond continued employment, a principal's job can become better or worse in terms of salary and student composition. We next investigate whether the school rating has a significant impact on these labor market outcomes. Figures 4 and 5 show the graphical evidence, while Tables 8 and 9 present the estimates for salary growth and the change in student composition, respectively. As with retention, there is no evidence of statistically or economically significant discontinuities at the recognized and exemplary boundaries. For the acceptable boundary, the pattern of estimates reveals improvements in salary on the order of 5-7 percent for the more narrow bandwidths. This naturally follows from the findings for job retention, since many who are not retained move to lower-paying campus and district positions, but also reflects possible upgrades for those who attain the acceptable rating. For student composition, though the point estimates are large and surprisingly negative for all bandwidths, none of the estimates is statistically significant.

Since the absence of compensation measures for principals who exit the Texas Public Schools could introduce selection bias, we also analyze the effect of ratings on the probability of exiting (see Appendix Figure A2 and Table A4). Crossing the acceptable threshold appears to be associated with an increase in the probability of exit, though the estimate is significant only for the smallest bandwidth considered and the magnitude is far smaller than for retention. Nevertheless, if the receipt of an acceptable rating provides public information that shifts the outside offer distribution to the right, the exclusion of leavers from the sample would likely bias downward the effects of an acceptable rating on salary.

Could these rating impacts have a rational basis? In the absence of frictions or information asymmetries in the principal labor market, no differences in outcomes for principals leading campuses that happen to barely achieve the higher rating would have been expected. By the logic of the RD design, these principals are equally effective. Yet, receipt of the unacceptable rating has real consequences, perhaps due to public pressures on district administrators. If most of the principals in the vicinity of this boundary are ineffective, using the rating to overcome inertia in firing might be a second-best solution.

However, the patterns in Figure 1 discussed above suggest that this is not the case. In fact, average effectiveness is if anything higher below the acceptable threshold than above it, and

18

nearly one-quarter of principals in the vicinity of this threshold are in the top quartile of the overall distribution of principal effectiveness.<sup>25</sup> Since leading a disadvantaged school puts a principal at greater career risk, the fact that the ratings do not better differentiate principals by quality provides an additional impediment to efforts to attract and retain effective principals in schools with low levels of achievement.

# 5.3 OLS estimates for broader sets of performance metrics

Although the accountability ratings do a poor job of differentiating by principal productivity, districts may nevertheless favor more effective principals based on other achievement information made available through the system as well as from direct observations, parent reports and other sources. While not necessarily causal, we can describe for principals at multi-principal campuses the pattern of associations between principal labor market outcomes, our estimate of principal effectiveness, and more readily observable school performance measures.

The OLS regressions for the three outcomes (retention, change in log salary, and change in student composition) are reported in Table 10. All columns include indicators for the campus rating categories (where acceptable is the excluded category), as well as district-by-year fixed effects and the principal and student characteristics shown in Table 1. The first column also includes the principal fixed effect, the second column instead includes the campus average math and reading pass rate, and the third column includes both at the same time. As before, the outcomes are defined across years t and t+2, and the time-varying performance measures are as of year t. Standard errors are clustered by district.

Perhaps most striking is that there is little evidence of a positive relationship between principal effectiveness and any of the labor market outcomes. All but one of the estimates are statistically insignificant. In contrast, the pass rate is consistently positively associated with salary growth. A one standard deviation improvement in the pass rate (8.2 percentage points) is associated with salary growth that is about 2 percentage points (or 0.2 standard deviations) higher. It is important to note that this pass rate is in effect student-mix adjusted, since the regression also controls for student characteristics. As for ratings, similar to the RD analysis, the unacceptable rating is the single strongest predictor of the probability of retention. And, there is a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> See Appendix Table A5 for more details on the distribution of principal value-added by bandwidth around the acceptable threshold.

monotonic association between change in salary and rating, though only the exemplary rating is significantly related to the change in salary at the five percent level after also conditioning on the pass rate. Broadly speaking, the patterns are consistent with the qualitative lesson from the RD analysis that the achievement level of the campus per se can affect labor market outcomes.

#### 6. Inside-outside differences in the use of performance information

The decisions of both the current district and potential alternative employers determine labor market outcomes, but the current district is likely to have access to and to make use of more detailed information on job performance, including information not publicly available as part of accountability system reporting such as observations or parental feedback. This suggests that the probability of retention and compensation growth within the district may be more strongly related to true effectiveness than would the transition to a desirable position outside of the district. Nonetheless, the current district may also face more pressure from less-informed interest groups to take action in response to the more salient information released to the public.

To compare within-district and out-of-district transitions, we use our composite success measure. This variable takes a value of one if a principal remains in her position, if salary growth exceeds median salary growth for all principals, or if the change in student composition exceeds the median change for all principals. Among principals who remain in the same district, retention accounts for the vast majority of successes, while most district switchers with successful outcomes realize larger than median changes in salary. Overall, as shown in Table 2, we classify 85.0 percent of principal-years in our main analysis sample as being associated with successful labor market outcomes two years later. The residual categories of principals who are identified as not being successful include principals who move to lower paying and less appealing positions as well as principals who exit the Texas Public School system. This latter group is quite heterogeneous. Individuals who exit may be switching to private schools, changing occupations, dropping out of the labor force or retiring – though we have reduced the incidence of retirement by restricting the sample to principals with no more than 25 years of total experience in the system.

Table 11 presents the RD estimates of the effects of ratings for any success (top panel) and then separately for within district success (middle panel) and new district success (bottom panel). Consistent with the retention findings, crossing the acceptable boundary significantly

20

raises the probability of within district success. There is also weak evidence that crossing the recognized boundary improves this same outcome, though the estimates are only statistically significant for the wider bandwidths. Though imprecise, none of the estimates for new district success are statistically significantly different from zero.

Lumping together failures and successes in the null category in the RD specifications with binary dependent variables complicates interpretation of the RD estimates. Thus, we supplement these with non-causal multinomial logit regressions that divide principals into within district successes, new district successes, and failures regardless of destination. These regressions incorporate additional performance metrics, including the principal fixed effect, and thus the sample is restricted to principals serving multi-principal campuses.

The estimates in Table 12 show that the probability of new district success is significantly related just to the pass rate, while the probability of within district success is significantly related to the rating, pass rate, and the principal fixed effect. In terms of the use of information, the findings suggest that the publicly reported pass rate is related to the probabilities of success both within- and out-of-district. Interestingly, the ratings and the proxy for effectiveness, which fall on opposite sides of the spectrum in terms of salience and information content, only appear to matter within district. This is consistent with the district both possessing more information about true productivity and being subject to more pressure from the public when a school receives an unfavorable rating.

### 7. Conclusions

Our empirical results provide strong evidence that a school rating of "unacceptable" significantly reduces the incumbent principal's probability of job retention and salary growth. The absence of effects at other school rating thresholds suggests that receipt of the unacceptable rating leads to worse labor market outcomes despite district administrator knowledge of the underlying continuous scale. And, while principals in the bottom quartile of effectiveness as measured by principal value-added are overrepresented in schools rated unacceptable, these schools are as likely to be led by top quartile principals as schools rated more highly.

Supplementary analyses of associations between principal outcomes and a broader set of performance measures are consistent with the current district but not alternative districts making use of productivity information that is not reported in the accountability system. This is in line

21

with their greater access to parent feedback, supervisor evaluations, and other sources of information outside of public reporting requirements, though imprecision of the estimates for outside districts weakens any conclusions. Perhaps unexpectedly, receiving the lowest rating only has a negative association with outcomes in the current district, raising the possibility that the current employer is more susceptible to pressure from imperfectly informed parties. Both current and alternative districts seem to pay attention to pass rates. The strong ordering of average pass rates by rating, both of which are publicly reported, contrasts with the more limited variation of principal effectiveness across categories.

Overall, the substantial effects of the performance measures currently emphasized in the accountability system suggest that aligning the performance evaluation system better with student learning could improve the quality and allocation of school leaders. Recent work on teacher transitions finds that the distribution of teacher value-added information positively influenced personnel decisions and the distribution of teacher quality (Bates (2016)). Because non-school factors account for a larger portion of the variation in test score pass rates currently reported, this raises the possibility that selection into a school serving higher-SES students may be more beneficial to a principal's labor market prospects than raising the quality of instruction. Similarly, it might be difficult to attract principals to a school that is likely to receive a low rating due to limited family resources, for fear of being penalized for any failure. Principals in high poverty schools, which are likely to have low baseline pass rates, may be especially disadvantaged in the principal labor market through these channels.

Imperfectly designed public performance information can distort incentives and outcomes. Our findings for Texas are likely emblematic of prevalent school accountability systems across the U.S. and thus highlight a set of important design issues. Moreover, the increasing use of outcome-based incentives to reduce healthcare spending suggests that these concerns extend far beyond the education sector.

# References

- Abowd, John M., Francis Kramarz, and David N. Margolis. 1999. "High wage workers and high wage firms." *Econometrica* 67, no. 2 (March): 251-333.
- Bacher-Hicks, Andrew, Thomas J. Kane, and Douglas O. Staiger. 2014. "Validating Teacher Effect Estimates Using Changes in Teacher Assignments in Los Angeles." NBER Working Paper No. 20657. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research (November).
- Bates, Michael. 2016. "Public and Private Learning in the Market for Teachers: Evidence from the Adoption of Value-Added Measures." (mimeo) Riverside, CA: University of California at Riverside (December 2).
- Branch, Gregory F., Eric A. Hanushek, and Steven G. Rivkin. 2012. "Estimating the Effect of Leaders on Public Sector Productivity: The Case of School Principals." NBER Working Paper W17803. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research (January).
- Calonico, Sebastian, Matias D. Cattaneo, Max H. Farrell, and Rocío Titiunik. 2017. "rdrobust: Software for regression-discontinuity designs." *Stata Journal* 17, no. 2: 372-404.
- Cattaneo, Matias D., and Gonzalo Vazquez-Bare. 2016. "The choice of neighborhood in regression discontinuity designs." *Observational Studies* 2: 134-146.
- Chetty, Raj, John N. Friedman, and Jonah Rockoff. 2014. "Measuring the impacts of teachers I: Evaluating bias in teacher value-added estimates." *American Economic Review* 104, no. 9 (September): 2593-2632.
- Chetty, Raj, John N. Friedman, and Jonah Rockoff. 2016. "Using Lagged Outcomes to Evaluate Bias in Value-Added Models." *American Economic Review* 105, no. 5 (May): 393-99.
- Chiang, Hanley, Stephen Lipscomb, and Brian Gill. 2016. "Is School Value Added Indicative of Principal Quality?" *Education Finance and Policy* 11, no. 3 (Summer): 283–309.
- Coelli, Michael, and David A. Green. 2012. "Leadership effects: school principals and student outcomes." *Economics of Education Review* 31, no. 1 (February): 92-109.
- Craig, Steven G., Scott A. Imberman, and Adam Perdue. 2015. "Do administrators respond to their accountability ratings? The response of school budgets to accountability grades." *Economics of Education Review* 49 (December): 55-68.
- Cullen, Julie B., and Michael J. Mazzeo. 2008. "Implicit Performance Awards: An Empirical Analysis of the Labor Market for Public School Administrators." University of California, San Diego (December ).
- Cullen, Julie Berry, and Randall Reback. 2006. "Tinkering Toward Accolades: School Gaming under a Performance Accountability System." In *Improving School Accountability*, edited by Timothy J. Gronberg and Dennis W. Jansen: 1-34.
- Deming, David J., Sarah Cohodes, Jennifer Jennings, and Christopher Jencks. 2016. "School accountability, postsecondary attainment, and earnings." *Review of Economics and Statistics* 98, no. 5: 848-862.
- Dhuey, Elizabeth, and Justin Smith. 2014. "How important are school principals in the production of student achievement?" *Canadian Journal of Economics/Revue canadienne d'économique* 47, no. 2 (May): 634-663.
- Figlio, David, and Susanna Loeb. 2011. "School accountability." In *Handbook of the Economics of Education, Vol. 3*, edited by Eric A. Hanushek, Stephen Machin, and Ludger Woessmann. Amsterdam: North Holland: 383-421.

- Grissom, Jason A., Demetra Kalogrides, and Susanna Loeb. 2015. "Using Student Test Scores to Measure Principal Performance." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 37, no. 1 (March): 3-28.
- Hanushek, Eric A., John F. Kain, and Steve G. Rivkin. 2004. "Why public schools lose teachers." *Journal of Human Resources* 39, no. 2 (Spring): 326-354.
- Helal, Mike, and Michael Bernard Coelli. 2016. "How Principals Affect Schools." Melbourne Institute Working Paper No. 18/16. Melbourne: University of Melbourne (June 1).
- Laing, Derek, Steven G. Rivkin, Jeffrey C. Schiman, and Jason Ward. 2016. "Decentralized Governance and the Quality of School Leadership." NBER Wroking Paper No. 22061. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research (March).
- Loeb, Susanna, Demetra Kalogrides, and Eileen Lai Horng. 2010. "Principal Preferences and the Uneven Distribution of Principals Across Schools." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* Vol. 32, no. 2 (June): 205–229.
- McCrary, Justin. 2008. "Manipulation of the running variable in the regression discontinuity design: A density test." *Journal of Econometrics* 142, no. 2: 698-714.
- Miller, Ashley. 2013. "Principal turnover and student achievement." *Economics of Education Review* 36(October): 60-72.
- Reback, Randall. 2008. "Teaching to the Rating: School Accountability and the Distribution of Student Achievement." *Journal of Public Economics* 92, no. 5-6: 1394-1415.
- Sokol, Marlene. 2018. State grades push Hillsborough into an unexpected wave of principal transfers. *Tampa Bay Times*, July 5.



Figure 1. Principal fixed effect and school pass rate densities, by accountability rating

Notes: In both panels, the sample of campuses is restricted to those served by multiple principals over our sample period, and the unit of observation is a campus-by-year. The principal fixed effects are based on achievement gains for students relative to others within the same linked network of campuses, as described in the text. The pass rate is the average across math and reading by campus and year.



Figure 2. First stage probability of attaining the higher rating, by accountability rating threshold

Notes: In each panel, the running variable is the difference between the pass rate for the marginal student subgroup and the relevant pass rate threshold. The bin width is 0.5 percentage points. Points are weighted by bin size (i.e., number of campus-by-year observations) and are comparable within ratings categories but not across.



Figure 3. Probability of retention, by accountability rating threshold

Notes: Retention is defined as continuing in the same principal position in academic year t+2, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Figure 2.





Notes: Salary growth is measured by the change in the log (real \$2003) total pay between academic years t+2 and t, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Figure 2.



Figure 5. Change in student composition, by accountability rating threshold

Notes: Student composition is proxied by a predicted achievement index based on student characteristics, as described in the text. The change in student composition is between academic years t+2 and t, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Figure 2.

		Experience	Tenure $\geq 2$	Multi-
Variable	All	<25 years	years at	principal
v driable			campus	campuses
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Principal characteristics				
Male	0.281	0.290	0.284	0.292
Black	0.109	0.101	0.100	0.100
Hispanic	0.224	0.214	0.212	0.215
White	0.663	0.680	0.684	0.681
Other race/ethnicity	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004
Below Master's degree	0.055	0.072	0.072	0.081
Master's degree	0.904	0.895	0.895	0.888
Doctorate degree	0.040	0.033	0.033	0.031
2 or fewer years tenure	0.272	0.329	0.274	0.327
3 years tenure	0.160	0.191	0.207	0.246
4 or more years tenure	0.568	0.479	0.519	0.427
Total years experience	22.49	17.53	17.64	17.01
Principal salary				
Total pay (2003 dollars)	\$66,478	\$64,089	\$64,078	\$63,639
Student test performance				
Average math/reading pass rate	88.02	88.01	88.13	87.51
Math pass rate	87.07	87.03	87.17	86.47
Reading pass rate	88.85	88.87	88.96	88.42
Campus accountability rating				
Unacceptable	0.012	0.012	0.012	0.013
Acceptable	0.381	0.384	0.377	0.401
Recognized	0.438	0.441	0.446	0.439
Exemplary	0.169	0.163	0.165	0.147
Campus student characteristics				
Male	0.514	0.514	0.515	0.514
Black	0.142	0.135	0.134	0.138
Hispanic	0.466	0.459	0.459	0.475
White	0.361	0.375	0.376	0.357
Other race/ethnicity	0.031	0.031	0.031	0.030
Economically disadvantaged	0.601	0.595	0.594	0.614
Title 1 participant	0.722	0.727	0.725	0.750
Limited English proficient	0.210	0.207	0.207	0.219
Special education	0.107	0.107	0.107	0.107
Gifted and talented	0.061	0.059	0.059	0.058
Mid-year school mover	0.062	0.062	0.062	0.062
N (campus-by-year)	20,045	12,296	11,351	7,653

Table 1. Summary statistics for principal, campus and student characteristics across samples

Notes: Summary statistics for all elementary campus-by-year observations for the years 2001 to 2008 (excluding 2003) are reported in column 1. Statistics for all campus-by-year observations with principals that have less than 25 years of total experience in the Texas Public Schools are reported in column 2. Statistics for all campus-by-year observations with principals that have less than 25 years of total experience and have been principal at the current campus for at least two years are reported in column 3. Column 4 further restricts the sample to exclude any campus led by only one principal for at least two years from 2001 to 2008.

Variable	Experience < 25 and tenure ≥2 years	Multi-principal campuses
	(1)	(2)
Outcomes for all principals		
Retained	0.652	0.561
Moved within the same district	0.199	0.252
Successful move within district	0.150	0.190
Successful move with high salary growth	0.129	0.166
Unsuccessful move within district	0.049	0.062
Moved to a new district	0.069	0.090
Successful move to a new district	0.048	0.063
Successful move with high salary growth	0.038	0.050
Unsuccessful move to a new district	0.021	0.027
Exit Texas public schools	0.081	0.097
N (school-by-year)	11,351	7,653
N (principals)	4,222	3,285
N (schools)	3,251	2,174
Outcomes for principals who remain in the system		
Salary growth	0.039	0.044
	(0.081)	(0.091)
Change in student composition	-0.012	-0.015
	(0.335)	(0.388)
N (school-by-year)	10,437	6,913
N (principals)	3,934	3,021
N (schools)	3,157	2,116

Table 2. Summary	v statistics for	principal labor	r market outcomes	bv :	analysis	sample
Tuolo 2. Dummu	y statistics for	principul iucos	i market outcomes	, U , '	unui y bib	Sumpre

Notes: Statistics for all campus-by-year observations with principals that have less than 25 years of experience in Texas public schools and have been principal at the current campus for at least two years are reported in column 1. Column 2 further restricts the sample to exclude any campus led by only one principal for at least two years from 2001 to 2008. Standard deviations for continuous variables are shown in parentheses. The outcomes are based on academic year t+2, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. Retention is defined as continuing in the same principal position in academic year t+2. Successful moves are defined as realizing above median gains in log (real \$2003) salary or student composition between t and t+2, relative to all principals who remain in the system. Student composition is proxied by a predicted achievement index based on student characteristics, as described in the text. Exiting Texas public schools is defined as not holding any position within the system in academic year t+2.

	Principal FE	School-by- year FE	Mean school-by- year FE	Pass rate	Adjusted pass rate
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Multi-principal campuses					
Principal FE	1.000				
School-by-year FE	0.192	1.000			
Mean school-by-year FE	0.257	0.526	1.000		
Pass rate	0.099	0.322	0.276	1.000	
Adjusted pass rate	0.152	0.420	0.287	0.615	1.000
Ν			7,653		
Single-principal campuses					
Principal FE	NA				
School-by-year FE	NA	1.000			
Mean school-by-year FE	NA	0.556	1.000		
Pass rate	NA	0.307	0.285	1.000	
Adjusted pass rate	NA	0.377	0.217	0.554	1.000
Ν			3,698		

Table 3. Correlations between principal fixed effects and other school performance measures

Notes: In the top panel, the sample is restricted to observations from campuses served by more than one principal during the course of our sample period. The sample in the bottom panel is observations from those campuses served by only one principal. In both cases, principals are required to have at least two years of tenure in their current position and 25 or fewer years of total experience in Texas public schools. The variables in the first three columns are estimates of student achievement value added, where student achievement is defined to be the average of math and reading z-scores. Column 1 is our estimate of principal productivity from specifications following equation (1) that include principal and school fixed effects, and then demean the estimated principal fixed effects by the average within each connected network. In column 2, value-added is proxied by the concurrent school-by-year fixed effects from specifications that replace principal and school fixed effects across principals' terms. Column 4 is the current campus average pass rate across math and reading, while column 5 adjusts for student demographics by taking residuals from OLS regressions of the pass rate on the campus student characteristics shown in Table 1.

	Bandwidth					
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal	
Acceptable	$0.882^{***}$	$0.861^{***}$	$0.833^{***}$	$0.796^{***}$	$0.817^{***}$	
	(0.058)	(0.068)	(0.082)	(0.113)	(0.093)	
Mean	0.062	0.064	0.067	0.095	0.079	
Ν	760	497	299	140	222	
Recognized	$0.978^{***}$	$0.975^{***}$	$0.972^{***}$	$0.960^{***}$	$0.960^{***}$	
	(0.006)	(0.008)	(0.010)	(0.017)	(0.017)	
Mean	0.009	0.009	0.012	0.016	0.016	
Ν	5,613	4,252	2,879	1,458	1,457	
	stastasta		ate ate ate	ate ate	ale ale ale	
Exemplary	0.954***	0.948***	0.936***	0.911***	0.921***	
	(0.010)	(0.012)	(0.016)	(0.024)	(0.021)	
Mean	0.008	0.011	0.017	0.028	0.023	
Ν	4,935	3,925	2,690	1,419	1,767	

Table 4. First stage probability of attaining the higher rating, by accountability rating threshold

Notes: Each cell shows the estimated discontinuity at the threshold from a separate local linear regression with a triangular kernel, with the associated standard errors clustered by values of the running variable shown in parentheses. The mean of the dependent variable is shown for the subset of principals within the bandwidth sample receiving the lower rating. The bandwidths vary across the columns as indicated by the column headers. Optimal bandwidths are estimated using the optimal MSE bandwidth selector discussed by Cattaneo and Vazquez-Bare (2016) and Calonico et al. (2017). Optimal bandwidths for Acceptable, Recognized and Exemplary thresholds are 3.82, 2.49, and 3.18, respectively. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.10

	Acceptable	Recognized	Exemplary
Principal characteristics and salary			
Male	-0.021	-0.051	-0.009
	(0.132)	(0.049)	(0.042)
Black	0.004	0.040	0.025
Diuch	(0.138)	(0.032)	(0.023)
Hispanic	0.060	-0.025	0.036
	(0.132)	(0.045)	(0.035)
Master's degree	0.059	0.034	0.014
	(0.095)	(0.032)	(0.027)
Doctorate	-0.059	-0.037*	-0.017
	(0.073)	(0.017)	(0.016)
Years tenure	0.191	0.247	-0.017
	(0.556)	(0.241)	(0.208)
Total years experience	-2.746	1.042	0.577
	(1.674)	(0.556)	(0.480)
Log total pay (2003 dollars)	-0.012	0.009	-0.006
Log total pay (Loop domais)	(0.035)	(0.013)	(0.012)
Student test performance	(0.055)	(0.015)	(0.012)
Average math/reading pass rate	2 515	0 647	-0.034
riverage many reading pass rate	(2.513)	(0.548)	(0.201)
Campus student characteristics	(2.101)	(0.510)	(0.201)
Male	-0.005	-0.002	-0.001
Mule	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Black	-0.007	0.027	-0.004
Bluck	(0.007)	(0.019)	(0.013)
Hispanic	0.014	-0.020	-0.017
Inspune	(0.088)	(0.020)	(0.029)
White	0.004	-0.015	0.023
() life	(0.051)	(0.030)	(0.028)
Economically disadvantaged	0.009	0.015	-0.009
Leonomieury aisudvanaged	(0.00)	(0.025)	(0.026)
Title 1 participant	-0.010	0.055	-0.009
The I participant	(0.062)	(0.042)	(0.045)
I imited English proficient	0.019	-0.004	-0.009
Elinited English proficient	(0.071)	(0.023)	(0.017)
Special education	0.008	0.003	0.010**
Special education	(0,009)	(0.003)	(0.004)
Gifted and talented	0.002	-0.009	0.005
	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Mid-year school mover	_0.012)	-0.005	-0.007*
wha your senior mover	(0.012)	(0,004)	(0,004)
N	20012)	1 457	1 767
Chi Squared Statistic	17 243	33 / 28	25 200
	1//41		

Table 5. Balance tests for principal and campus student characteristics, by rating threshold

Notes: Each cell reports the coefficient and standard error (in parentheses) from a separate seemingly unrelated regression discontinuity regression where the outcomes have been replaced by principal and student characteristics. As for the outcome analysis, the regressions are local linear regressions with triangular weights, and the bandwidths are set equal to the optimal bandwidths determined by the first stages for each threshold. Chi-squared statistics and their associated p-values are reported for the test of the null hypothesis that all coefficients in the column are jointly equal to zero. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.10

	Bandwidth					
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal	
Acceptable	$0.249^{**}$	$0.270^{**}$	$0.365^{***}$	$0.467^{***}$	$0.425^{***}$	
	(0.097)	(0.109)	(0.129)	(0.172)	(0.142)	
Mean	0.354	0.383	0.387	0.333	0.413	
Ν	760	497	299	140	222	
Recognized	0.011	0.019	0.024	0.021	0.021	
	(0.026)	(0.030)	(0.036)	(0.051)	(0.051)	
Mean	0.625	0.628	0.630	0.627	0.631	
Ν	5,613	4,252	2,879	1,458	1,457	
Fxemplary	0.005	0.014	0.018	0.038	0.024	
Exemplary	(0.003)	(0.031)	(0.037)	(0.050)	(0.024)	
Mean	0.685	0.689	0.694	0.689	0.693	
N	4,935	3,925	2,690	1,419	1,767	

Table 6. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on the probability of principal job retention, by rating threshold

Notes: Retention is defined as continuing in the same principal position in academic year t+2, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

			Bandwidth		
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal
Previously rated unacceptable	-0.364	-0.478	-0.247	-0.799	-0.305
	(0.323)	(0.352)	(0.513)	(0.606)	(0.529)
Mean	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.571
Ν	48	35	24	12	19
Not previously rated unacceptable	0.303***	0.340***	0.424***	0.559***	$0.488^{***}$
	(0.104)	(0.119)	(0.139)	(0.184)	(0.153)
Mean	0.333	0.366	0.373	0.306	0.393
Ν	712	462	275	128	203

Table 7. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on the probability of principal job retention, acceptable rating threshold by prior year rating status

Notes: The top panel restricts the sample to campuses near the acceptable threshold that were rated unacceptable in the prior year, while the bottom panel only includes those that were not previously rated unacceptable. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

	Bandwidth					
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal	
Acceptable	0.033*	0.035*	0.052**	0.070**	0.060**	
Mean	-0.010	(0.020) -0.020	(0.024) -0.017	(0.029) -0.017	(0.025) -0.015	
Ν	628	413	238	112	187	
Recognized	0.005	0.002	0.001	-0.002	-0.002	
Mean	(0.004) 0.004 4.070	(0.005) 0.003 3.762	(0.006) 0.004 2.546	(0.008) 0.003	(0.008) 0.001	
IN	4,970	5,762	2,340	1,285	1,284	
Exemplary	0.010 <sup>*</sup> (0.006)	0.011 <sup>*</sup> (0.006)	0.010 (0.008)	0.008 (0.010)	0.006 (0.009)	
Mean N	0.009 4,479	0.009 3,573	0.008 2,443	0.010 1,290	0.006 1,604	

Table 8. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on salary growth, by rating threshold

Notes: Salary growth is measured by the change in the log (real \$2003) total pay between academic years t+2 and t, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

		Bandwidth						
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal			
Acceptable	-0.257	-0.296	-0.335	-0.114	-0.291			
	(0.165)	(0.190)	(0.222)	(0.295)	(0.239)			
Mean	0.014	0.006	0.010	0.023	0.022			
Ν	628	413	238	112	187			
Recognized	0.017	0.009	-0.026	-0.076	-0.076			
	(0.023)	(0.028)	(0.036)	(0.055)	(0.055)			
Mean	0.005	-0.000	-0.009	-0.012	-0.013			
Ν	4,970	3,762	2,546	1,285	1,284			
Exemplary	-0.005	-0.004	0.000	0.005	0.000			
	(0.020)	(0.023)	(0.029)	(0.041)	(0.036)			
Mean	-0.015	-0.016	-0.022	-0.028	-0.023			
Ν	4,479	3,573	2,443	1,290	1,604			

Table 9. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on the change in student composition, by rating threshold

Notes: Student composition is proxied by an index of predicted achievement based on student characteristics, as described in the text. The change in student composition is between academic years t+2 and t, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Job retention			
Principal fixed effect	0.004		-0.001
	(0.079)		(0.075)
Average math and reading pass rate		0.001	0.001
		(0.002)	(0.002)
Unacceptable	-0.181***	-0.171***	-0.171***
•	(0.064)	(0.066)	(0.066)
Recognized	0.041*	0.035*	0.035*
	(0.023)	(0.021)	(0.021)
Exemplary	0.031	0.021	0.021
	(0.035)	(0.040)	(0.040)
	(0.022)	(0.0.0)	(01010)
Ν		7,653	
		,	
Change in log salary			
Principal fixed effect	$0.032^{*}$		0.025
	(0.017)		(0.015)
Average math and reading pass rate		$0.002^{***}$	$0.002^{***}$
		(0.000)	(0.000)
Unacceptable	-0.038***	-0.020	-0.020
- ·····	(0.015)	(0.014)	(0.014)
Recognized	0.014***	0.003	0.003
	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Exemplary	0.030***	0.014**	0.013**
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Ν		6,913	
		,	
Change in student composition			
Principal fixed effect	0.011		0.017
	(0.066)		(0.068)
Average math and reading pass rate		-0.002	-0.002
		(0.002)	(0.002)
Unacceptable	0.002	-0.014	-0.014
•	(0.133)	(0.133)	(0.133)
Recognized	-0.009	0.000	0.000
	(0.018)	(0.018)	(0.018)
Exemplary	-0.025	-0.011	-0.011
	(0.028)	(0.030)	(0.030)
	()	()	(,
Ν		6,913	

Table 10. Ordinary least squares estimates of relationships between performance metrics and principal outcomes

Notes: Each of the three panels presents OLS estimates for the dependent variable indicated in the panel heading. These labor market outcomes are defined as in Tables 6, 8 and 9, respectively. The estimated coefficients on the included performance metrics are shown with standard errors clustered by district in parentheses. All specifications include district-by-year fixed effects and control for the principal and student characteristics shown in Table 1. Acceptable is the excluded rating category. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.10

<b>^</b>		-	Bandwidth		
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal
Any success					
Acceptable	0.110	0.102	0.164	0.169	0.195
	(0.100)	(0.114)	(0.135)	(0.185)	(0.148)
Mean	0.584	0.585	0.600	0.643	0.667
Ν	760	497	299	140	222
Recognized	$0.038^{*}$	$0.042^{*}$	0.036	0.016	0.016
	(0.020)	(0.023)	(0.026)	(0.036)	(0.036)
Mean	0.824	0.826	0.820	0.807	0.809
Ν	5,613	4,252	2,879	1,458	1,457
Exemplary	0.010	0.007	-0.006	-0.023	-0.026
Exemplary	(0.018)	(0.007)	(0.022)	(0.023)	(0.020)
Mean	0.877	(0.019)	0.873	0.881	(0.023)
N	4 035	3 925	2 690	1 / 10	1 767
1	4,755	5,925	2,090	1,417	1,707
Within district success					
Acceptable	$0.217^{**}$	$0.222^*$	$0.289^{**}$	0.224	$0.306^{*}$
	(0.105)	(0.120)	(0.142)	(0.194)	(0.158)
Mean	0.487	0.489	0.493	0.476	0.540
Ν	760	497	299	140	222
Recognized	$0.044^{*}$	$0.047^*$	$0.048^{*}$	0.036	0.036
	(0.023)	(0.025)	(0.029)	(0.039)	(0.039)
Mean	0.770	0.770	0.768	0.757	0.760
Ν	5,613	4,252	2,879	1,458	1,457
Exemplary	-0.005	-0.010	-0.028	-0.035	-0.043
	(0.021)	(0.024)	(0.028)	(0.035)	(0.032)
Mean	0.834	0.837	0.832	0.841	0.834
Ν	4,935	3,925	2,690	1,419	1,767
New district success					
Acceptable	-0.107	-0.120	-0.125	-0.055	-0.111
	(0.068)	(0.075)	(0.081)	(0.102)	(0.086)
Mean	0.097	0.096	0.107	0.167	0.127
N	760	497	299	140	222
	100	127	277	110	
Recognized	-0.005	-0.005	-0.013	-0.020	-0.020
	(0.012)	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.022)	(0.022)
Mean	0.054	0.050	0.052	0.050	0.049
Ν	5,613	4,252	2,879	1,458	1,457
Examplany	0.015	0.017	0.022	0.012	0.017
Елетриату	(0.013)	(0.017)	(0.022)	(0.012)	(0.01)
Maan	(0.012)	(0.014)	(0.017)	(0.023)	(0.021)
N	0.045	0.041	0.041	0.041	0.040
1N	4,933	3,923	2,090	1,419	1,/0/

Table 11. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on composite labor market success, by rating threshold and employment location

Notes: Composite principal labor market success is defined to include being retained at the same campus or realizing above median gains in log salary or student composition between academic years t+2 and t, with the campus rating realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(1)	(2)	(3)
Within district success			
Principal fixed effect	$0.799^{**}$		$0.600^{*}$
•	(0.360)		(0.355)
	[0.115]		[0.093]
Average math and reading pass rate		$0.037^{***}$	0.035***
		(0.008)	(0.008)
		[0.004]	[0.004]
Unacceptable	-1.344***	-1.017***	-1.011***
L	(0.216)	(0.235)	(0.231)
	[-0.221]	[-0.172]	[-0.171]
Recognized	$0.468^{***}$	$0.272^{***}$	0.267***
	(0.091)	(0.094)	(0.094)
	[0.067]	[0.044]	[0.043]
Exemplary	$0.629^{***}$	0.337**	0.335**
1 2	(0.160)	(0.158)	(0.159)
	[0.085]	[0.047]	[0.047]
New district success			
Principal fixed effect	0.144		-0.095
•	(0.731)		(0.733)
	[-0.021]		[-0.025]
Average math and reading pass rate		$0.039^{***}$	0.039***
		(0.015)	(0.015)
		[0.000]	[0.001]
Unacceptable	-0.085	0.261	0.261
-	(0.397)	(0.422)	(0.421)
	[0.042]	[0.050]	[0.049]
Recognized	0.148	-0.068	-0.068
	(0.165)	(0.160)	(0.160)
	[-0.009]	[-0.012]	[-0.012]
Exemplary	0.466	0.159	0.160
	(0.299)	(0.300)	(0.300)
	[0.000]	[-0.004]	[-0.004]
N		7,653	

Table 12. Mulitnomial logit estimates of relationships between school performance metrics and composite labor market success within district and out of district

Notes: Each column presents multinomial logit coefficient estimates from a separate specification, with standard errors clustered by district in parentheses. In brackets, average marginal effects are reported for principal fixed effects and pass rates, while the differences in the probabilities of outcomes are reported for accountability rating categories. The three outcomes modeled are i) achieving success within the same district, ii) achieving success in another district, and iii) neither, where neither is the base outcome and success is defined as in Table 11. All specifications include district and year fixed effects and control for the principal and student characteristics shown in Table 1. District and year fixed effects are included in lieu of district-by-year fixed effects since estimation of the more saturated models fails to converge. Acceptable is the excluded rating category. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.10



Appendix Figure A1. Running variable density, by accountability rating threshold

Notes: The bin width is 0.25 percentage points. In each case, the running variable is the difference between the required pass rate and the pass rate of the binding subgroup.

Appendix Figure A2. Probability of exiting Texas public schools, by accountability rating threshold



Notes: Exiting is defined as not holding any position within the Texas public school system in academic year t+2, while the rating is realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Figure 2.

	Any	Marginal student subgroup				
	subgroup	All students	White	Black	Hispanic	Disadv.
Acceptable						
Math	0.049	0.000	0.000	0.039	0.005	0.005
Reading	0.302	0.034	0.001	0.104	0.093	0.070
Science	0.439	0.079	0.001	0.092	0.118	0.149
Writing	0.187	0.053	0.005	0.013	0.046	0.070
Recognized						
Math	0.248	0.008	0.004	0.074	0.059	0.103
Reading	0.195	0.005	0.001	0.034	0.064	0.091
Science	0.416	0.091	0.010	0.022	0.122	0.171
Writing	0.122	0.029	0.009	0.008	0.026	0.050
Exemplary						
Math	0.275	0.021	0.020	0.045	0.070	0.119
Reading	0.296	0.017	0.014	0.031	0.091	0.143
Science	0.249	0.126	0.038	0.004	0.042	0.039
Writing	0.163	0.053	0.043	0.004	0.022	0.041

Appendix Table A1. Marginal student subgroup shares, by accountability rating

Notes: Each cell shows the share of marginal subgroups falling in a specific category for the 10 percentage point bandwidth sample around the accountability threshold indicated in the row heading. The marginal subgroup is the one that determines the running variable for the regression discontinuity analysis, and is the one with the most negative (or least positive) gap between the required pass rate and the subgroup pass rate. Not shown are the cases (about 2% for each category) where the marginal student subgroup is special education students taking alternate non-grade level assessments (SDAA and SDAA II) offered between 2004 and 2007.

Appendix Table A2. Marginal subgroup lowest performing shares, by accountability rating and time period

	Share of marginal subgroup	Share of marginal subgroups that are also the lowest		
	performing subgroup in	performing subgroup in the marginal subject		
	Pre-2004	Post-2004		
Acceptable	0.672	0.584		
Recognized	0.688	0.601		
Exemplary	0.622	0.574		

Notes: Each cell shows the share of marginal subgroups that are also the lowest performing in the marginal subject for the 10 percentage point bandwidth sample around the accountability threshold indicated in the row heading.

	Bandwidth				
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal
Acceptable	-0.010	0.010	0.042	0.129	0.078
	(0.045)	(0.055)	(0.072)	(0.111)	(0.088)
Mean	-0.032	-0.020	-0.018	-0.007	-0.015
Ν	579	385	227	108	164
Recognized	0.009	0.009	0.016	$0.044^{**}$	$0.044^{**}$
	(0.009)	(0.011)	(0.013)	(0.019)	(0.019)
Mean	-0.002	-0.001	-0.000	0.004	0.003
Ν	3,813	2,918	1,974	1,003	1,003
Exemplary	0.006	0.008	0.011	0.014	0.009
	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.011)	(0.017)	(0.015)
Mean	0.013	0.013	0.014	0.010	0.009
Ν	3,122	2,491	1,671	872	1,088

Appendix Table A3. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on principal value-added, by rating threshold

Notes: Principal value-added is estimated from specifications following equation (1) that include principal and school fixed effects, and then demean the estimated principal fixed effects by the average within each connected network. The sample excludes any campus led by only one principal for at least two years from 2001 to 2008. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

	Bandwidth				
	10	7.5	5	2.5	Optimal
Acceptable	0.027	0.057	0.053	0.164**	0.087
	(0.065)	(0.072)	(0.077)	(0.075)	(0.075)
Mean	0.195	0.191	0.200	0.167	0.143
Ν	760	497	299	140	222
Recognized	-0.013	-0.012	-0.009	-0.014	-0.014
	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.021)	(0.030)	(0.030)
Mean	0.093	0.091	0.093	0.098	0.096
Ν	5,613	4,252	2,879	1,458	1,457
Exemplary	-0.011	-0.013	-0.006	0.001	-0.003
	(0.014)	(0.016)	(0.018)	(0.024)	(0.022)
Mean	0.071	0.071	0.072	0.069	0.069
Ν	4,935	3,925	2,90	1,419	1,767

Appendix Table A4. Regression discontinuity estimates of the impact of attaining the higher rating on the probability of exiting the Texas public schools, by rating threshold

Notes: Exiting is defined as not holding any position within the Texas public school system in academic year t+2, while the rating is realized at the end of academic year t. For other details, see notes to Table 4.

Dringing fixed offect	Bandwidth				
	10	5	Optimal		
Average below	-0.032	-0.018	-0.015		
Ν	90	60	48		
Average above	-0.033	-0.033	-0.034		
Ν	489	167	116		
Lowest quartile	0.417	0.423	0.427		
Second quartile	0.183	0.167	0.159		
Third quartile	0.169	0.176	0.165		
Top quartile	0.231	0.233	0.250		
N	579	227	164		

Appendix Table A5. Principal fixed effect averages and quartile shares by bandwidth around the acceptable boundary

Notes: Percentiles of principal fixed effects are calculated using all observations in the sample described in the last column of Table 1. The 25th, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 75th percentiles are -0.044, -0.001, and 0.041, respectively. The optimal bandwidth is 3.82 percentage points.