OECD

DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN SPAIN

OECD COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT

MINISTERIO
DE EDUCACIÓN
Y CIENCIA

SECRETARÍA GENERAL
DE EDUCA IÓN

INSTITUTO
DE EVALUACIÓN

MARCH 2007

The current national report about *School Leadership in Spain*, which is based on a report written by Mr Joaquín Gairín Sallán, professor of the Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona, has been developed by the corresponding educational Spanish authorities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

OECD

DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN SPAIN

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

MINISTERIO
DE EDUCACIÓN
Y CIENCIA

SECRETARÍA GENERAL
DE EDUCA IÓN

INSTITUTO
DE EVALUACIÓN

MARCH 2007

The Spanish education system has had different models of school leadership. The non-professional model at the beginning of the 20th century, characterised by a system of designating school leaders with no prior training or profile, was followed by a professional model from 1945 up until the General Law on Education of 1970, marked by the creation of a body of head teachers with no specific training. These school leaders subsequently coexist with other leaders chosen by the teachers' assembly, until the Organic Law Regulating the Right to Education of 1985 introduced a non-professional, socio-political model, whereby school leaders with no prior leadership experience were elected by the educational community (through the school council). Later proposals attempted to professionalise the socio-political model of elected leaders by establishing job profile and training requirements, at the same time trying to promote stability in the post by extending the term of office and providing incentives.

In recent times, the debate on school leadership revolves round two key elements: effective management and democratic decision-making. The debate is, on the one hand, between granting broader powers to school leaders to enable them to put school autonomy into practice and limiting their powers so that the other sectors of the educational community can participate; and, on the other, between converting school leaders into democratically elected management professionals, not from teaching, and accepting school leadership as a temporary assignment of governance tasks to teachers. The recently approved Organic Law on Education (LOE) has devised an intermediate formula between both and at the same time reinforces school autonomy.

This executive summary synthesises an important part of the reflections in the report. It analyses pedagogic leadership, identifying as such those persons who, from formal positions of authority in schools, work with others to provide direction and exert influence in order to achieve the school's goals, particularly those related to improving learning and teaching. It refers, therefore, not only to the members of the leadership teams (head teacher, head of studies and school administrator), but also to department coordinators and educational teams.

The summary respects the structure of the general report and thus addresses the main issues identified therein.

1. THE NATIONAL CONTEXT OF SCHOOLING

Spain has undergone a major transformation in the last two decades, coinciding with its political democratisation process and its incorporation into the European Union. The rates of economic, social and cultural development are significant and moving closer to the realities in the majority of European countries. Although Spain is currently a net receiver of European funds, it is expected to become a net contributor.

Nevertheless, considerable work stills needs to be done in some areas of development including, among others, education. Thus, in recent years, resources and budgetary increases focus on improving the quality of education, attracting and retaining students in the education system and providing a high level of training for future employment and personal development.

From the point of view of the administrative organisation of the State, the Constitution of 1978 recognises and guarantees the nationalities and regions that make up Spain the right to autonomy and solidarity among all of them. The effect has been a gradual development of the autonomous communities which have assumed some competencies in relation to education.

The implications of this decentralised model have led to schools and school leaders undertaking activities linked to:

- The implementation and development of school councils, strengthening a culture of participation in and social control of education.

- The promotion of school autonomy.

- Each institution developing its own specific pedagogical and curricular projects, which take into account the needs of the community and the users.

- Restoring curricular and methodological approaches which not only take into account products and results, but also educational processes and stakeholders.

- Promoting school leaders, who are attentive to the demands of the community and the users, encourage participation and promote a community education model (especially at compulsory education levels).

In the last decade Spain has experienced deep transformations derived from the processes of migration. Those population movements have also brought about a number of changes including, among others, the need to:

- Design and develop strategies to provide an appropriate response to people from other cultures and the diversity which they promote. The work to be done with the different immigrant groups is of particular importance, as they present major social, cultural and economic challenges.

- Strengthen and reinforce the teaching of the co-official languages of the State for a significant percentage of students not born in Spain.

- Consider integrated education in schools and for greater openness to the cultural diversity of the wider community.

Likewise, the main economic and labour market trends have implications for schools (especially, those responsible for training professionals) and school leaders have to face challenges such as:

- Respecting the territory as a space for synthesizing external influences of a general or contextual nature, linked to the demands of the external environment, and internal influences, linked to the needs and interests of agents and users of the education service.

- Promoting institutional actions which include relating to and cooperating with the social and economic agents in the territory.

- The vocational education cycles require flexibility in relation to planning, organisation and management that are different from the rest of the education system. Vocational education institutions cannot be managed in the same way as the rest of the educational institutions. Their relationship with the productive environment is vital in order to achieve quality vocational education.

2. OVERALL DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The current school system comprises the *general system of education*, which covers pre-primary education, primary education, compulsory secondary education, baccalaureate and vocational education, and the *special system of education* which focuses more on providing education in specific areas such as languages, music and dance, dramatic art, applied arts and design, as well as sports technologies.

At present, we are in a period of transition from the system established by the LOGSE (Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System) to the system introduced by the LOE (Organic Law on Education), published in the Official State Gazette (BOE) on 4 May 2006, which is currently being developed and implemented.

As a result of the current reality of the education system, schools and school leaders are expected to:

- Develop programmes which facilitate a seamless transition between schools as well as stages of education.

- Delimit and develop organisational specifics depending on whether the schools and the teachers belong to the general or to the special system of education.

- Undertake and promote the European demands and the educational objectives established.

- Develop intercultural education programmes, attending to the needs of diversity and the development of values.

- Develop proposals for their own schools, where appropriate, which incorporate the general identifiers and the particularities of the context.

3. SCHOOL GOVERNANCE AND LEADERSHIP

The head teacher is deemed to be the person who is legally responsible for the management of the educational institution. The distribution of leadership tasks within schools is normally as follows: the head of studies focuses on the academic processes, organisation and disciplinary matters, the school administrator on the administrative and financial processes and the head teacher on institutional and external relations and on the coordination of the leadership team. When the coordinators of the departments or the cycles do not have periodic meetings with the head of studies, they sometimes attend the leadership team meetings.

School leadership has evolved, broadly speaking, from directly appointed school leaders to elected leaders; from leaders within the school to the possibility of bringing in leaders from outside; and from administrative leaders to policymakers and pedagogical leaders.

The actions of the school leadership is largely determined by legislative development, which leaves state schools and their leadership little room for action. Thus, the possibilities of leadership intervening in internal staff matters (characteristics, hiring, promotion, etc.), attracting and retaining students, financing, building work and equipping the school, are limited in the case of state schools. However, we can find a number of differences among schools due to, undoubtedly, the contextual reality of their locations, the ways of managing existing resources and whether or not their leaders are committed and dedicated to improvement.

Today's school leaders should include community relations management in their relevant activities, accepting the role of schools as local community centres and as promoters of the culture of the community.

There is no evidence that schools are promoting or developing any general innovations linked to school leadership. However, a number of autonomous communities have introduced some interesting innovations such as: the role of leadership in promoting quality and the certification of schools (in accordance with the ISO, EFQM models and others), implementing improvement plans, taking part in the development of school development programmes (strategic planning, school self-evaluation, community projects, setting up school networks, IT for schools, etc.), centralising school autonomy issues and participating in knowledge management networks, sharing experiences and putting forward proposals.

4. ENHANCING LEARNING AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The last legislation passed (LOE) has increased the interest of schools in improving the school results and other variables of quality. Thus, some of them take part in programmes designed to promote in-school evaluation, homogenise studies and education processes, create and develop plans for quality and drive learning improvement projects.

School leaders may have considerable influence in the context of their schools, bearing in mind they have autonomy to develop the curriculum and their leadership is recognised as they were elected on the basis of a defined action programme. They can thus contribute to change by undertaking and promoting reviews of the curriculum, modifying teaching methods, developing new approaches on the use of materials and promoting different ways of evaluating students' learning. They can also have an influence on teachers' job satisfaction and on getting them to adopt and use innovative working practices.

The reality in Spain is that there is no tradition or practical experience in school accountability, which countries in northern Europe would recognise as such. It should be mentioned, however, that schools are obliged to prepare the annual general plan for the school, which is evaluated and approved by the school council, comprising the leadership team, teachers, parents, administrative staff, students and a representative of the town council. This governance body is also competent to analyse and evaluate the general running of the school, the improvements in school performance and the results of the internal and external evaluations in which the school takes part.

5. THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF SCHOOL LEADERS' ROLE

Strictly, a professional body of school leaders does not exist in education. School leaders are, for the purposes of state schools, practising teachers and, therefore, career entry is conditional on teacher status. This selection shall be carried out democratically by a committee comprising representatives of the education authority and the corresponding school. The committee is entrusted to value the merits of the candidates and the project of direction that they present.

The candidates selected for the head teacher's position must overcome a program of initial training, organized by the educational administrations. The candidate who has overcome it is appointed by the head teacher of the school for a period four years, renewable in periods of equal duration, previous positive evaluation of the developed work. If there are no candidates, the education authority may appoint a civil servant state teacher as the head teacher for a maximum period of four years.

In private schools, the legislation does not establish requirements in this matter, so the appointment of the head teacher is free. This fact causes that on certain occasions people who do not belong to the educational area become head teachers.

The most common way to accede to the head teacher position in state schools has been the election (49.0 %) and the designation (40.8 %). Recognition for the work performed by school leaders is limited, in the administrative area, to the payment of a supplement, part of which they can keep provided that they stay in the teaching profession, and that their experience in a leadership position is taken into account for other jobs in the state teaching profession.

6. TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LEADERS

The pathway to school leadership is subject to the condition of teacher status and to some established requirements and procedures. It should be noted that whilst these requirements (seniority as civil servants and teachers, a leadership project, and a position at the school) apply to state schools, they are not necessarily also applicable to privately owned schools.

School leadership training does not exit in Spain until now. Apart from the training courses for the purpose of achieving the required certification, several education authorities, universities and other institutions have designed and provided a variety of different training programmes and initiatives. The priorities identified in the training initiatives being developed are directly related to the problems school leaders may have in their professional practice and to the developments which the educational stakeholders want to implement. Thus, training programmes usually include subjects such as school climate, commitment to diversity, the integration of immigrants, the use of new technologies and the opening up of schools to the educational community and to the wider community.

The school leadership associations that have been established over the past decades as well as the European Forum on Educational Administration maintain spaces which try to address the concerns of school leaders. Some of the regular activities include the organisation of meetings, the promotion of study visits, publications, and the creation of awards for research and the dissemination of best practices.

There have been a number of diverse policy initiatives to improve the quality of school leadership preparation, certification and development, but there is no evidence that they have had any impact on or provided real benefits to the education system. It can be assumed that initial training, no matter how little, provides guidance for school leaders with respect to their functions and the way to carry them out.

7. CONCLUSIONS

The subject of school leadership in the Spanish education system has been, and is, open to debate in the academic world. The situation of the leadership in the Spanish educational system we can be summarized in the following key questions:

A. *Election or selection of school leaders?*

The election of the head teacher by the collegiate bodies of governance (school councils) was one of the important modifications introduced by the LODE (1985) which has lasted, with slight changes, right up to the present day.

The progressive implementation of school autonomy is one of the reasons for the new system. It now needs a participative, forward-driving school leadership to coordinate actions designed to provide expert support for the collaborative work of teachers, promote the participation of parents and manage any conflicts of interests that may arise.

The creation and development of a school (and, therefore, an education) that is responsive to specific contexts and users demands participative school leadership. And in order to defend it implies strengthening the structures on which it is based (real educational communities responsible for the running of the school), as well as establishing the limits and clarifying the conditions in which the election of school leaders is possible and appropriate.

B. A teaching role versus a leadership role?

Effective school leadership requires that the professionals associated with it are highly skilled, totally dedicated and recognised as the best people for the job. In addition, the selected leaders must have mechanisms for adequate professional leadership development.

The LOE establishes that the selection and appointment of head teachers of state schools is to be carried out through a competitive state exam, based on merit, among civil servant teachers who teach some of the subjects commended to the school. This selection shall be performed in accordance with the principles of equality, publicity, merit and capability.

C. Head teachers from inside or outside the school?

The development of educational communities that are well-established and prominent in the wider community is not inconsistent with bringing in leaders from other institutions to take on the leadership of a certain school. Respect for school autonomy and the selection processes should, in any case, be able to guarantee that those persons from outside the school, who try to identify themselves with the leadership, know the context, accept the educational project of the school and present a leadership programme so that their contribution to improving and developing the school project can be evaluated.

In this regard, the LOE provides that the selection of the head teacher shall be carried out by considering, firstly, the candidacies of teachers from the school, who shall be given preference. In the absence of any candidates from the school or if they have not been selected, the candidacies from other schools shall be considered. The selection shall be carried out democratically by a committee comprising representatives of the education authority and the school concerned. The committee shall take into account an objective evaluation of the

academic and professional merits accredited by the applicants and an evaluation of the leadership project according to the criteria established by the educational authorities.

D. Permanent or temporary head teachers?

When we speak of 'permanent' we are referring to stable situations rather than static situations. From this perspective, we can now consider the appropriate duration of the head teacher's term of office, the possibility of continuing in the same school and any limitations to tenure, as well as the evaluation processes which guarantee the quality of school leadership. The current legislation (LOE) provides that the term of office of the head teacher's appointment shall be for a period of four years which may be renewed for similar periods of time, subject to a positive evaluation of the performance at the end of the same. The criteria and procedures of this evaluation shall be public. It should be noted that the education authorities may set a maximum limit on the number of renewals of terms of office.

Thus, participative leadership is the answer provided by the Spanish education system, which shares in a democratic society and aspires to provide higher levels of school autonomy. The challenge, in any case, is to analyse the implications it has in respect of entry processes, continuity, professionalisation, and initial and ongoing training.

Some proposals could be anticipated, taking into account the current framework and the opportunities, would be to:

- Develop the model of participative leadership linked to the different levels of school autonomy which may be considered, thus favouring contextualised, non-standardised leadership.

- Open up the selection of school leaders to professionals from other schools, conditional on broad training requirements and prior experience in intermediate leadership posts, and subject to the presentation of a leadership project linked to the context and the school educational project, which must be approved by committees in which the recipient school is represented.

- Provide formal positions of authority for the school leaders who have been elected and to allow them to form their own teams with teachers from the school, and to notify the school council and the education authority.

- Guarantee leadership stability but not unlimited tenure in the post. Although subject to periodic assessment, improvements in student educational attainment, school climate and public perception must be taken into account.

- Promote and drive school leadership which at the present time demands decisive actions from the system and takes into account the professional development aspects of leadership and not only financial matters.

OECD

DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN SPAIN

REPORT

MINISTERIO
DE EDUCACIÓN
Y CIENCIA

SECRETARÍA GENERAL
DE EDUCACIÓN

INSTITUTO NACIONAL
DE EVALUACIÓN Y CALIDAD
DEL SISTEMA EDUCATIVO
INECSE

MARCH 2007

CONTENTS	PAGE

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

BOE Official State Gazette (Boletín Oficial del Estado)

CIDE Centre for Research and Documentation in Education (Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa)

CIS Centre for Sociological Research (Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas)

EFQM European Foundation for Quality Management (Modelo Europeo de Calidad)

EPA Survey of Working Population (Encuesta de Población Activa)

ESO Compulsory Secondary Education (Educación Secundaria Obligatoria)

FP Vocational Education (Formación Profesional)

IE Institute of Evaluation (Instituto de Evaluación)

INCE National Institute for Quality and Evaluation (Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación)

INE National Institute of Statistics (Instituto Nacional de Estadística)

INES OECD Project on International Indicators of Education Systems (Proyecto de la OCDE sobre Indicadores de entorno y procesos escolares)

ISO International Standards Organisation (Normas de calidad)

LGE General Law on Education (Ley General de Educación)

LOECE Organic Law on the Statutes for Educational Institutions (Ley Orgánica de Estatutos de Centro)

LOCE Organic Law on Quality in Education (Ley Orgánica de Calidad de la Educación)

LODE Organic Law Regulating the Right to Education (Ley Orgánica Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación)

LOE Organic Law on Education (Ley Orgánica de Educación)

LOGSE Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System (Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo)

LOPEG Organic Law on Participation, Evaluation and Governance of educational institutions (Ley Orgánica de Participación, Evaluación y Gobierno de los centros docentes)

LOU Organic Law on Universities (Ley Orgánica de Universidades)

MEC Ministry of Education and Science (Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia)

MECD Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte), now known as **MEC**

OCDE Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (Organización para la Cooperación y Desarrollo Económico)

PIB Gross Domestic Product (Producto Interior Bruto)

TED Teacher Training Certificiate (Título de Especialización Didáctica)

INTRODUCTION

The Spanish education system has had different models of school leadership. The non-professional model at the beginning of the 20th century, characterised by a system of designating school leaders with no prior training or profile, was followed by a professional model from 1945 up until the General Law on Education of 1970, marked by the creation of a body of head teachers with no specific training. These school leaders subsequently coexist with other leaders chosen by the teachers' assembly, until the Organic Law Regulating the Right to Education of 1985 introduced a non-professional, socio-political model, whereby school leaders with no prior leadership experience were elected by the educational community (through the school council). Later proposals attempted to professionalise the socio-political model of elected leaders by establishing job profile and training requirements, at the same time trying to promote stability in the post by extending the term of office and providing incentives.

In recent times, the debate on school leadership revolves round two key elements: effective management and democratic decision-making. The debate is, on the one hand, between granting broader powers to school leaders to enable them to put school autonomy into practice and limiting their powers so that the other sectors of the educational community can participate; and, on the other, between converting school leaders into democratically elected management professionals, not from teaching, and accepting school leadership as a temporary assignment of governance tasks to teachers. The recently approved Organic Law on Education (LOE) has devised an intermediate formula between both and at the same time reinforces school autonomy.

In relation to school leadership and school autonomy, the LOE has adopted the following measures. Firstly, a leadership model which grants the most important influence to the educational community to designate the head teacher and incorporates the presence of the education authority in order to guarantee competence and professionalism. The aim is for head teachers to have support from both the educational community and the education authority. Head teachers also need to have authority and decision-making powers and receive professional recognition and remuneration that is commensurate with their responsibilities.

Secondly, the LOE establishes a broad autonomy for schools. Schools should have greater decision-making powers in relation to matters such as personnel management, pedagogical organisation, and timetables, so that they can provide a better response to students' needs. Real decision-making capacity in these areas will strengthen leadership and improve results. Greater autonomy will provide a fundamental stimulus in order to improve commitment and participation.

Finally, it is only possible to achieve greater autonomy providing there are concurrent mechanisms of information and accountability on its use and the results obtained. The evaluations will allow schools and education authorities to verify the effectiveness of the educational policies and the actions undertaken and, therefore, to organise plans to improve students' results and school performance.

In short, the consecutive regulatory amendments to the different school leadership models since its beginnings have had various effects including, among others, the difficulty of identifying and depositing an appropriate leadership model. As Pérez y Pérez (1998:305) pointed out:

"*We cannot really call it a leadership model apart from those aspects which define its structure –linked to the school model– the procedures for accrediting or appointing school leaders, and the leadership roles which are more or less set out in the ad hoc regulations.*"

Nevertheless, it is possible to analyse the elements and parameters that are characteristic of school leadership in recent years, in order to establish the orientation provided in the past and at present, and what can happen to it in the future and how it will affect school development and the achievement of student learning.

This report analyses pedagogic leadership, identifying as such those persons who, from formal positions of authority in schools, work with others to provide direction and exert influence in order to achieve the school's goals, particularly those related to improving learning and

teaching. It refers, therefore, not only to the members of the leadership teams (head teacher, head of studies and school administrator), but also to the department coordinators and the educational teams.

This report was prepared in response to the guidelines provided for country participation; it relates to the questions, numbers the paragraphs sequentially and provides references for the supplementary sections dealt with.

1. THE NATIONAL CONTEXT OF SCHOOLING

This chapter focuses on knowledge of the context and outlines briefly the broad political, demographic, economic, social, and cultural developments that shape the issues that education policies must address.

1.1. Economic, social and cultural background that has implications for schools and school leaders (Q1.1)

1. Spain has undergone a major transformation in the last two decades, coinciding with its democratization process and its incorporation into the European Union. The rates of economic, social and cultural development are significant and moving closer to the realities in the majority of European countries. Although Spain is currently a net receiver of European funds, it is expected to become a net contributor.

2. However, there are still some differences that ought to be considered. Thus some European statistics (source: Eurostat) showed that:

   - In 2005, the volume index of GDP per capita in purchasing power parity in Spain was 98, expressed in relation to the European Union (EU-25) average set to equal 100, which shows an increase of 11 points with respect to the figure for 1997 and reveals that it is undoubtedly approaching EU levels.

   - Health expenditure, as a percentage of GDP, increased 0.5 percentage points in both Spain and the EU-25 between 2000 and 2004. However, the levels of health expenditure in Spain are still lower than the EU-25 average: in the case of Spain, the figures for years 2000 and 2004 are 5.6% and 6.0% of GDP respectively, compared to 6.9% and 7.4% in the EU-25 in the same years.

   - Gross domestic expenditure on research and development in 2005, as a percentage of GDP, amounted to 1.1% compared to the EU-25 average of 1.8% in the same year. Although this figure places Spain at some distance from the EU-25, it should be noted that in the case of Spain this percentage has followed an upward trend since 1995 (0.8%) while there have been no notable changes in the EU-25 in a decade.

3. The Living Standards Survey carried out in 2005 (INE, 2006) also provides some data on the current situation in Spain:

   - The average annual income per household is 22,418 euros.

   - The monthly salary of men is 36.6% higher than that of women; this difference is reduced to 15.2% when the hourly wage is considered.

   - One in five persons resident in Spain lives below the threshold of relative poverty; the percentage of women (20.9%) is greater that that of men (18.6%), because of the fact there are more women than men in the over 65 age group, which is one of the collectives most affected by poverty.

   - Each household spends on average 212 euros a month on housing costs. These costs include rent (if the property is rental housing), mortgage interest (for privately

owned housing with outstanding repayments) and other associated expenses (community charges, water, electricity, gas, etc.).

- One in four households has problems with noise. 18.9% of households have problems of delinquency and vandalism in their local community.

4. The above data shows that considerable work stills needs to be done in some areas of development including, among others, education. Thus, in recent years, resources and budgetary increases focus on improving the quality of education, attracting and retaining students in the education system and providing a high level of training for future employment and personal development.

5. From the point of view of the administrative organisation of the State, the Constitution of 1978 recognises and guarantees the right to autonomy of the nationalities and regions that make up Spain and solidarity among all of them. The effect has been a gradual development of the autonomous communities which have assumed competencies in relation to education. This has led to the creation of an education system in which competencies are shared among several education authorities:

- The *State Education Authority* is the competent authority as regards the general organisation of the education system, establishing the minimum requirements for schools, regulating educational qualifications, international relations and cooperation, promoting research, state inspections, raising funds, statistics on education, among others.

- The *Autonomous Education Authority* is the competent authority in terms of establishing and approving schools, management of personnel, educational programmes, student services, financial management, support and funding. It is also empowered to develop the specific regulations required to implement state legislation and any other relevant matters for its territory.

- The *Local Corporations* (Local Education Authorities) act in cooperation with the autonomous communities. They are responsible for providing sites for the construction of state schools, maintenance (repairs and alterations) of pre-primary, primary and secondary education schools, out-of-school activities, ensuring compliance with compulsory education regulations, and for the security and protection of schools and their environment.

6. Chapter IV of the Organic Law on Education (LOE) establishes the criteria for cooperation among education authorities. It also sets out the guidelines and the common objectives in order to improve the quality of the education system and to guarantee equity, the management of resources for education, the delegation of authority to local councils to manage certain educational services, the promotion of territorial cooperation programmes, the interchange of information and the dissemination of best practices.

7. This decentralised model which seeks to promote closer relationships with local communities is made complete with participatory mechanisms at the different established levels in which representatives of the community, the state, experts and users are involved.

- At state level, there is the State School Council, the General Council on Vocational Education and the Council on University Coordination.

- Each autonomous community has its own autonomous school council. There are also school councils at lower territorial levels (provincial, district, municipal, etc.), as well as the school councils of the educational institutions.

8. The implications of this decentralised model has led to schools and school leaders undertaking actions linked to:

- Implementing and developing school councils, strengthening a culture of participation in and social control of education.

- Promoting school autonomy.

- Developing pedagogical and curricular projects specific to each institution, which take into account the needs of the community and the users.

- Restoring curricular and methodological proposals which not only take into account products and results, but also educational processes and stakeholders.

- Developing school leaders, who are responsive to the needs of the community and the users, encourage participation and promote a community education model (especially at compulsory education levels).

1.2. Broad population trends in terms of numbers, age structure and cultural diversity that have implications for schools and school leaders (Q1.2)

9. Birth rates in Spain continue to decline, which may be explained by concerns about family size and raising families (changing gender roles in the family, incorporation of women into the labour market, providing childcare, etc.). However, in practical terms, the population has increased by 3.10% in the period from 1986 to 1996 (rising from 38,473,418 to 39,669,394 inhabitants) and by 11.19% between 1996 and 2005 (the population is now 44,108,530 inhabitants).

10. The latest population data published by the INE (September, 2006) shows that the growth trend of a decade ago has been modified by the effect of the 'population of foreign origin', as the birth rates of this population group partially offset the decline in the population of Spanish origin. The table below shows the ageing growth rates and the variations in the Spanish population.

REFERENCE	YEAR						
	1975	**1980**	**1985**	**1990**	**1995**	**2000**	**2004**
EU 25	3.7	3.2	2.0	2.0	0.6	0.7	1.0
EU 15	2.7	2.5	1.4	1.8	0.7	1.0	1.4
SPAIN	10.4	7.5	3.7	1.8	0.4	0.9	1.9

Table 1: Annual population ageing growth in Spain and the European Union (%)

Source: Eurostat

11. An analysis of the Spanish population pyramids for years 2000 and 2005 shows that the widening of the central part is due to the arrival of young foreigners, which in turn has contributed to the deceleration in the ageing population process. It should also be noted, on the one hand, that females continue to outnumber males in the group of Spaniards over 70, and that there are more males than females in the group of young foreigners and, on the other hand, that demographic growth in recent years (76.4% in 2005) is mainly due to foreigners.
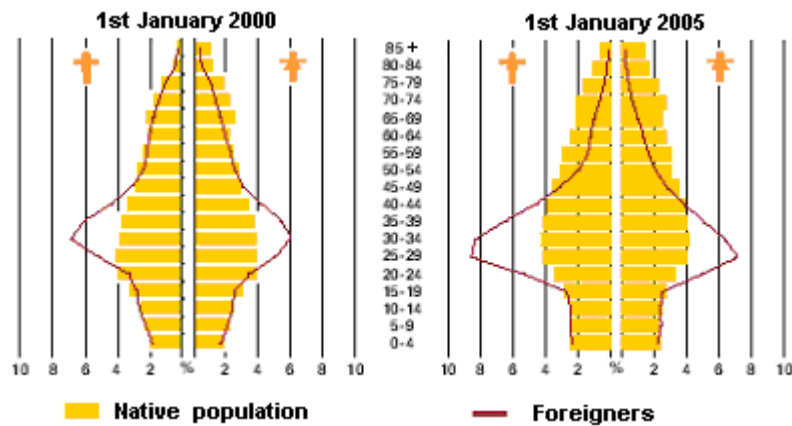
Figure 1: Spanish population pyramids

Source: INE (2006)

12. The integration of foreigners into Spanish society is increasing the diversity of approaches and sensitivities. The phenomenon of the arrival of foreigners, given the numbers and diversity, is relatively recent and establishes the need to design policies to facilitate their integration. Some of the data from the INE shows that:

   a) The total number of inhabitants on 1 January 2005 was 44.11 million, of which 3.73 million were foreigners (8.5% of the total). In 2005, 36.2% of the foreigners who arrived in our country were Europeans, 13.8% from Rumania and 6.1% from the United Kingdom. The second highest continent was America, with 20% of the immigrants in the same year, especially Bolivia (5.6%) and Argentina (3.5%). Finally, 14.8% of the immigrants came from Africa, principally Morocco (10.1%)

   b) The characteristics of immigration flows received by Spain since 1996 have given rise to the creation of important immigrant collectives, the most numerous being Moroccans (more than 500,000), followed by Ecuadorians (approximately 498,000), although Romanians had the highest population growth in 2004, with more than 100,000 new registrations.

   c) More than a third (34%) of all foreigners registered in Spain in 2001 arrived after 1995.

   d) In the past decade, the average inter-annual immigrant growth rate is 6.1%.

   e) By age, 15% are less than 16 years old, 64.8% are between 16 and 44, and 20.2% are more than 45 years old.

   f) At least 60% of immigrants come from countries where Spanish is not the native language.

13. Total population movement and its distribution by age coincide with the fall in student numbers in different stages of education. Nevertheless, there is a significant increase in the numbers of pre-primary students and a moderate increase in university students; student numbers have decreased in basic, compulsory secondary and, especially, post-compulsory secondary education. The new groups of immigrants also affect the demand for education, which the education system needs to address.

14. Some of the consequences of the above data for schools would be the need to:

   • Develop an education system in which class size and student-teacher ratios and, in general, financial resources per student evolve positively, especially in state education.

   • Design and develop strategies to address the needs of people from other cultures.

19

- Strengthen and reinforce the teaching of Spanish and other co-official languages to students not born in Spain.

- Consider inclusive education in schools and the need for greater openness to the cultural diversity of the community.

- Provide assistance to the parents of immigrant students.

- Support and help teachers, facing new challenges, provide a quality response to a community with a plurality of languages, values and ways of understanding life.

1.3. Main economic and labour market trends that have implications for schools and school leaders (Q1.3)

15. There are some differences in respect of the labour market that ought to be taken into account. Thus, some European statistics (according to Eurostat and OECD) and national statistics (according to the National Institute of Statistics) show that:

- In Spain, 40.5% of the working population in 2003 were women, compared to 44.6% in the EU-25. This percentage in Spain increased to 41.3% in 2005.

- The percentage of the population between 25 and 65 years old with studies corresponding to the second stage of secondary education was 18.0% in 2004, which is notably lower than the EU-19 average for the same year (45.0%).

- In 2002, the unemployment rate in Spain was 11.4%, compared to 8.7% in the EU-25. In Spain, the unemployment rate for women was 57.0% of the total labour force, while the EU-25 figure was 49.3%. The situation in Spain has evolved positively in consecutive years, reducing the unemployment rate to 10.9% in 2004 and the number of unemployed women to 56.0%. The figures for 2005 were better, with an unemployment rate of 9.2%, of whom 55.0% were women. Unemployment in the EU-25 has not evidenced the downward trend in Spain, recording a rate of 9.0% in 2004 and the number of unemployed women has not changed substantially.

- In Spain, according to level of education, the 2005 employment and unemployment rates for the 25-64 age group who had completed the second stage of secondary education were 80.6% and 7.3% respectively, and for those persons with higher levels of studies, 87.6% and 6.2% in each case.

- In 2002, 62.4% of employed persons were male, compared to 56.9% in the EU-25. In 2004, these percentages decreased to 60.8% and 55.9% respectively, reaching 60% in Spain in 2005.

- The part-time employment rate (men and women) in Spain in 2002 was 7.97%, compared to 16.6% in the EU 25. In 2004, these percentages increased to 8.7% and 17.8% respectively, reaching 12.4% in Spain in 2005.

16. Furthermore, it is important to point out that a major transformation is occurring in the workplace. On the one hand, there are changes in the production structures (globalisation, specialization,…) which entail mobility of labour, and on the other, there is greater emphasis on the nature of the processes involved (more focussed on controlling information) and the public image (quality, marketing, etc.).

17. The computer age presents an important challenge which cannot be ignored: updating the value of information and knowledge. New companies appear (computer maintenance, cyber-cafés, experts in portals, etc.), but what is more important is that IT and the Internet have revolutionized the concept of work and the new ways of hiring people.

18. Likewise, an analysis of the most significant trends in employment in recent decades shows the growing complexity of professional careers and, consequently, the training

required to embark upon them. More and more jobs require periods of retraining and a work cycle of periods of employment followed by periods of training is becoming more frequent. Training has thus been converted into a structural element for our economies and is regarded as an extension of an individual's social obligations.

19. However, the importance of lifelong learning should not be forgotten as it is seen as essential in encouraging global training for personal development in a social context.

20. It would thus seem necessary to prepare students for this global reality and for acquiring general skills. The competencies demanded by the business world depend more on general training aspects than on highly specialized processes. While not undervaluing these processes for solving specific problems, having multidisciplinary personal skills can help employees keep their jobs and to adapt to the changes that social and labour market realities demand.

21. Current factors such as the complexity of the working environment, the increased demands made of workers for training and problem-solving capabilities, the introduction of flexible working practices and the need to develop teamwork methods, exceed a strictly technical vocational education. The diversity of working, social and personal situations demands certain skills (tolerance, adaptability to change, teamwork, loss of fear in uncertainty, independence, knowing how to fit in with groups and people, etc.) which can be just as important as technical know-how.

22. Some of the new, labour market values are flexibility, versatility, managerial ability, responsibility, the right attitude, etc., linked to "know-how", "social skills" as well as "business skills"; these values demand not only specialised training but also a broad general base and an opportunity of real experience.

23. The above observations present challenges to educational institutions (especially, to those persons who are responsible for training professionals) and their leaders such as:

- The performance of school leaders in a changing environment linked to the labour market realities demands willingness to incorporate changes and promote new knowledge.

- The articulation of a training system based on principles such as equality of opportunity of access to training actions, its cost-free status, the participation of economic and social agents, adapting to the needs of different territories and economic sectors, the quest for territorial balance and the complementariness and coordination of training programs, among others.

- The acquisition of basic competencies by the student at the end of compulsory secondary education in order to achieve social cohesion.

- The promotion of institutional actions which include relating to and cooperating with the social and economic agents in the territory. A strategic commitment to a new productive model and the need to develop quality employment means that it is necessary to integrate institutional, business and social responses in the area of training for employment.

- The vocational education cycles require flexibility in relation to planning, organisation and management that are different from the rest of the education system. Vocational education institutions cannot be managed in the same way as the rest of the educational institutions. Their relationship with the productive environment is vital in order to achieve quality vocational education.

2. OVERALL DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the main features of the school system, its goals, and trends in order to provide much of the detail that is to be cross-referenced in the following chapters.

2.1. The main structural features of the school system (Q2.1)

24. The Spanish education system is governed by Article 27 of the Spanish Constitution, which has been developed by consecutive education laws which regulate fundamental aspects of the education system, as well as its integration with the other systems in the Spanish legal framework (fundamental rights, social participation, financing, legislative powers, etc.).

25. The main education laws are summarised in Table 2 below.

SPANISH CONSTITUTION	Recognises education as a fundamental right that must be protected by the public authorities. Guarantees personal freedom as regards education. Distributes powers between central government and autonomous communities.
Organic Law Regulating the Right to Education (LODE, 8/1985)	Guarantees the right to education. Regulates the mechanisms for freedom of education, participation in education, as well as the mechanisms for financing and providing school places.
Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System (LOGSE, 1/1990)	Organises all non-university education, based on the principle of lifelong education. Establishes two systems of education (general and special), the duration of compulsory education, adult education, vocational training, and provides guidance on students with special educational needs and students in areas of disadvantage, and describes the factors of quality in education.
Organic Law on Participation, Evaluation and Governance of Educational Institutions (LOPEG, 9/1995)	Orientates and redefines the ways educational communities participate in school governance and school autonomy in the design and dissemination of the educational project. Regulates inspections, as well as the contents of evaluations, supervision and control by the education authorities.
Organic Law on Universities (LOU, 6/2001)	Orientates the effort to improve the quality of university education. Determines the degree of autonomy. Supports the university system in terms of coordinating the dynamics between the State and the autonomous communities. Establishes mechanisms for relations between universities and the wider community.
Organic Law on Vocational Training (LFP 5/2002)	Orientates the organisation of an integrated vocational training system, its qualifications, and accreditation. Regulates the provision of lifelong training supported by public funds. Establishes the mechanisms for coordination with employment policies and promoting the free movement of workers.
Organic Law on Quality in Education (LOCE, 24/12/2002)	Guided by five basic principles: 1) The culture of effort as a guarantee of personal progress; 2) A more open orientation of the education system towards results, strengthening evaluation processes for students, teachers, schools and system as a whole; 3) Reinforcement of a system which provides quality opportunities to all stakeholders, and is sensitive to 'diversity' in its broadest sense;

	4) The teacher workforce as the basic element for the success of the policies to improve quality in education;
	5) Development of school autonomy making them responsible for school achievement.
	Although the LOCE was passed in 2002, it never came into force.
Organic Law on Education (LOE, 03/05/2006)	Sets out the challenges to:
	1) Provide quality in education and training to all citizens.
	2) Obtain the collaboration of all the members of the educational community in order to achieve the above aim.
	3) Achieve an equitable participation of students.
	4) Manage student diversity
	5) Converge with the European systems of education and training. Learning is thus seen as a lifelong programme.
	6) Increase the flexibility of the education system to facilitate the transition from training to employment and vice versa or to other activities.
	7) Establish evaluation mechanisms for the different areas and agents of the educational activity, students, teachers, schools, curriculum and authorities, and accountability.
	Expressly repeals the LOGSE, the LOPEG and the LOCE.

Table 2: Spanish education laws

26. The current education system is developed in the *general system of education* (pre-primary education, primary education, compulsory secondary education, baccalaureate and vocational education). The latter two stages of education are not compulsory. The *special system of education* focuses more on providing education in specific areas such as languages, music and dance, dramatic art, applied arts and design, as well as sports technologies.

27. Currently, we are at the developmental stage of the regulatory framework of the LOE, which has provided the curricula for primary, secondary and pre-primary education.

28. There are a number of reasons why these legislative changes are appropriate and justified in the current social and political context, which are summarised below:

- The need to involve the members of the educational community in a review of the approaches to education. The LOE was actually proceeded by a public debate, which lasted six months, on the document "*A quality education for all and shared by all*", published by the Ministry of Education and Science in September 2004, which presented a set of analyses and diagnostics about the situation of education and put forward a number of solutions as matters for debate.

- The need to provide quality in education to all citizens at all levels in the education system. Having guaranteed participation up to the age of 16, what now needs to be done is to improve school results and to reduce drop-out rates, that is, to provide an effective equality of opportunity, and whatever support is necessary, both to students and to the schools where they are enrolled.

- The need for all the members of the educational community to collaborate in achieving the ambitious objective of quality in education. This principle, which combines quality and equity, necessarily demands a shared effort to be made by all: students, families, teachers, schools, education authorities and, in the final instance,

society as a whole, which is ultimately responsible for the quality of the education system.

- A firm commitment to the educational objectives established by the European Union for the coming years, in order to:

    1. Improve teachers' qualifications, develop the necessary aptitudes for the knowledge society, guarantee universal access to information and communication technologies, increase enrolment in science, technical and arts courses, make the best use of available resources, and increase investment in human resources.

    2. Facilitate widespread access to the education systems and ongoing training programmes by building an open learning environment, making learning more attractive and promoting active citizenship, equality of opportunity and social cohesion.

    3. Open up these systems to the outside world, which calls for reinforcing relationships with business, research and society in general, developing an entrepreneurial spirit, improving foreign languages learning, increasing mobility and exchanges, and reinforcing European cooperation.

NOTE

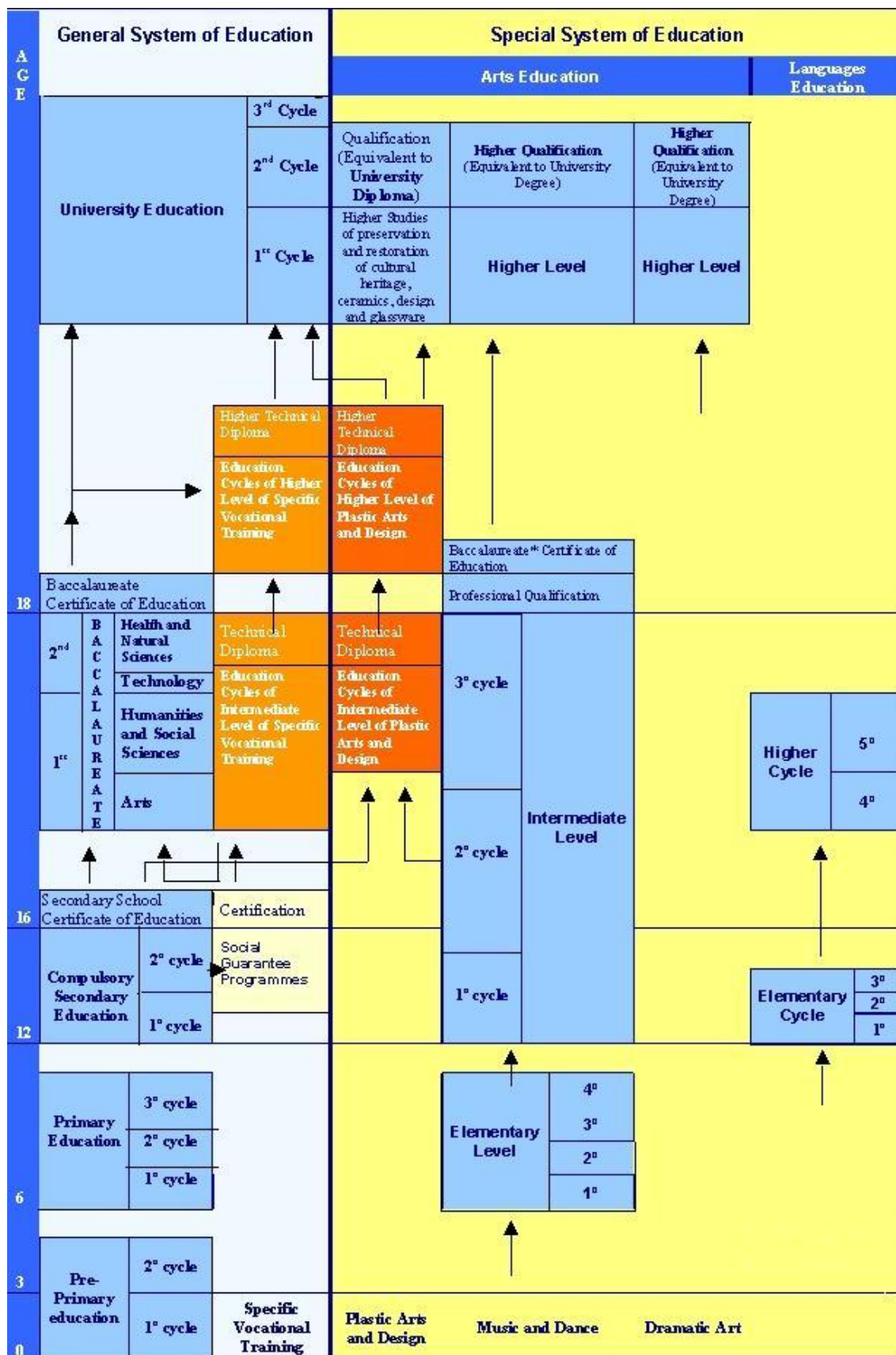|		
1º = 1st	**4º = 4th**	**1er ciclo = 1st cycle**
2º = 2nd	**5º = 5th**	**2º ciclo = 2nd cycle**
3º = 3rd	**6º = 6th**	**3er ciclo = 3rd cycle**

Figure 2: Structure of the Education System currently in force, pending development and implementation of the LOE

Source: Ministry of Education and Science (2006)

29. The following information about the Spanish education system has been provided by the Ministry of Education and Science. It contains some important data for the academic year 2006-2007 (when not available, figures refer to academic year 2005-2006). Annex 2 provides data for previous academic years as from 1995. The selected information describes some of the structural characteristics of the system:

- The school year 2006-2007 began, as predicted, with a total of 8,473,158 students in the general system of education which represents an increase of (+0.6%) with respect to the number of students in 2005-2006. This variation is due to a marked increase in the number of non-university students, 72,191 (+1.0%), which offsets a predicted fall of 20,415 (−1.4%) in university enrolment. This thus confirms the growing trend of non-university students which began in the 2002-2003 school year, the main reasons being: the incorporation of students from abroad and a significant increase in the birth rate in Spain since 1999.

- The participation rate for students between 4 and 15 years of age is 100% in the academic year 2006-2007; for 3 year-olds it is 95.8%, and for 16 and 17 year-olds, 82.3%. The number of students in pre-primary and primary education has increased compared to year 2005-2006, but decreased in other stages of education.

- In the general system of education, 67.5% of the students attend state education schools and 90.2% of students attend state universities; 32.5% attend private subsidized schools and 9.8% attend private universities.

- The distribution of students by gender shows slight differences. Although the percentage of males in compulsory education is higher than the percentage of females (51.5% compared to 48.5%), there are more females in post-compulsory education (51.2% in baccalaureate and vocational education and 54% in university education). The differences in participation rates in favour of females increase on comparing education results. Thus, 78.0% of females are awarded the certificate of graduate of secondary education on completion of compulsory secondary education (ESO) compared to 63.1% of males. A similar situation is found in the percentage of students who are awarded the baccalaureate certificate (females, 52.8% and males, 36.2%), and those awarded university degrees (females: certificates, 20.6%, degrees, 21.1%; males: certificates, 12.4%, degrees, 14.5%). However, there is a closer gender balance in vocational education, although the percentages are favourable to females (technical diploma: females 17.1%, males 14.9%; higher technical diploma: females, 18.5%; males, 15.1%).

- The number of foreign students has increased significantly throughout the school system and, especially, in compulsory education. According to the statistics for the academic year 2005-2006, there are over half a million (529,461) foreign students in non-university education, which is an increase of 70,170 students (+15.3%) compared with the previous academic year. These figures mean that foreign students represent 7.4% of the total number of students in the general system of education, excluding university education. By nationality, the largest numbers of students are from South and Central America with 47.2% (mainly, Ecuador and Colombia), followed by Europe with 27.4% (mainly Rumania) and Africa with 19.5% (mostly Morocco).

- The special system of education (plastic arts and design, music, dance, dramatic art, language education and sports education) had 658,838 students in the 2005-2006 academic year which is 7.8% of the student population, some of whom study the general and the special system of education at the same time.

- The number of non-university teachers in educational institutions has increased by 22.7% in the last ten years, while the number of students has decreased by 8.6% in the same period. There are a total of 606,141 teachers in the current academic year, which is a marked increase (+3.7%) in relation to the previous academic year.

Roughly half of this increase corresponds to primary education teachers (9,881 more teachers) in state schools. There are more female teachers in the non-university general system of education, where 66.2% of the teachers are women; this percentage increases to 75.6% in state primary education. In subsidized and non-subsidized private schools 69% of the teachers are women. In relation to the age structure of teachers, it should be noted that the most numerous is the 40-49 age group (33.1%), and that 27.9% of the teaching force are aged over 50. The number of teachers under 30 in state nursery and primary education schools is 11.4% of the total number of state teachers, although the highest percentage of the youngest teachers (17.5%) are in subsidized and non-subsidized private schools.

30. The analyses of the situation of education in Spain from a European Union perspective are also of interest. The data published by Eurostat and the OECD (Education at a Glance, 2006) for the academic year 2003-2004, shows that:

- The percentage of students in state education is 69.8% which is in line with the majority of the countries in Europe and higher than Holland, Belgium and the United Kingdom (23.5%, 42.7% and 59.4%, respectively).

- The average number of students per teacher is 14.3 in primary education and 12.9 in secondary education, compared to United Kingdom (21.1 and 17.1), Germany (18.8 and 15.6), France (19.4 and 14.1), Finland (16.3 and 10) and Holland (15.9).

- Finally, annual expenditure on educational institutions per student in relation to GDP per capita in 2003 was 26.0%, which is slightly higher than the EU-19 average (25%).

31. The data referring to the progress made in the area of education in relation to the Lisbon objectives are also significant. More specifically, and according to the European Commission on the basis of data from Eurostat:

- In Spain, the net participation rate for 3 year-olds was 95.3% compared to the EU-25 average of 68.2% in the academic year 2002-3. Nevertheless, the data vary greatly from country to country according to the characteristics of the education systems.

- As regards early school dropout rates, in the year 2005, the percentage of the population in the 18-24 age group which had at most completed the first stage of secondary education and had not undertaken any further studies or training was 30.8% in Spain, which percentage is quite higher than the EU-25 average of 14.9%. The percentage is higher for men (36.4% compared to 17.1%) than for women (25.0% compared to 12.7%) both in Spain and the EU-25.

- In 2005, the percentage of the population in the 20-24 age group in Spain which had at least completed the second stage of secondary education was 61.3% (68.2% women; 54.8% men) compared to 77.3% in the EU-25 (80.0% women; 74.6% men).

- In 2003, the number of higher education graduates in science, mathematics and technology in Spain was 12.6 per 1,000 inhabitants (7.8 women and 17.1 men). This data is very similar to the EU-25 average of 12.3 per 1,000 inhabitants (7.8 women and 16.8 men).

- 12.1% of the Spanish population in the 25-64 age group had participated in an education or training event in 2005, compared to the European Union average of 11.0%.

- Public expenditure on education in Spain in the year 2003 was 4.34% of GDP compared to EU-25 average of 5.21% in the same year. Since then, the public

expenditure on education in Spain has followed an upward trend until reaching 4.47% of GDP in 2006 (See table 3).

Year	TOTAL EXPENDITURE[1]		Public Expenditure[2]		Expenditure of parents[3]	
	Amount (millions €)	% GDP[4]	Amount (millions €)	% GDP[4]	Amount (millions €)	% GDP[4]
1996	27,388.4	5.78	21,924.6	4.63	6,037.7	1.27
1997	28,621.6	5.68	22,785.3	4.52	6,298.5	1.25
1998	30,282.8	5.61	23,998.6	4.45	6,791.8	1.26
1999	32,339.8	5.58	25,688.4	4.43	7,128.0	1.23
2000	34,285.8	5.44	27,407.0	4.35	7,404.3	1.17
2001	36,344.9	5.34	29,208.2	4.29	7,693.3	1.13
2002	38,771.0	5.32	31,440.9	4.31	7,958.1	1.09
2003	41,384.6	5.29	33,938.1	4.34	8,202.6	1.05
2004	44,567.2	5.31	36,920.6[5]	4.39	8,479.3	1.01
2005	47,718.0	5.27	39,841.4[6]	4.40	8,767.6	0.97
2006	51,486.9	5.30	43,390.6[6]	4.47	9,065.7	0.93

(1) Total consolidated expenditure (transfers between the State Sector and the parents not included).

(2) Refers to expenditure on education (Liquidated Budgets) by all the Public Administrations, including Universities. Source: Public Expenditure on Education Statistics.

(3) Source: National Institute of Statistics until 1998. As from 1999, estimated figures have been revised with respect to earlier published figures in the National Accounts in accordance with changes in parents' expenditure, as end consumers, on education services.

(4) GDP based on year 2000. Source: National Institute of Statistics until 2005 and latest forecast of the Ministry of Finance for 2006.

(5) Provisional figure.

(6) Estimated figure on the basis of initial budgets.

Table 3: Expenditure on Education and as a percentage of GDP

Source: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures (MEC 2005-06)

32. In summary, and in addition to the above, it should be pointed out that the state network of educational institutions is the most numerous and widespread. In the academic year 2004-2005, the state network represented 71.5% of the Spanish network of educational institutions.

33. As a result of immigration, there is an immense cultural diversity in the groups of students, especially among the populations on the Mediterranean coast and in the centre of the country. This diversity, as well as the differences generated by their learning processes, is an asset to be protected. In the case of immigration this diversity can be observed in the multitude of foreign student collectives from different origins that are to be found in our classrooms. The figures published by the INE for the academic year 2004-2005 show that 19.4% of the total number of foreign students were from Ecuador, 15.2% from Morocco, 9.1% from Columbia, 6.4% from Rumania, 5.6% from Argentina, 4.5% from the United Kingdom, and 2% in the case of other groups from

Bulgaria, Bolivia, Peru and China. However, there are few social, economic or cultural differences among the teachers, with the highest number of older teachers in the urban schools.

34. The education authority deals with the definition and organisation of the curriculum. Within this framework, each school prepares its own educational and curricular proposal, in accordance with the reality of the school environment, the needs of the students and the nature of the educational stage concerned.

2.2. Availability of public and private resources for schooling (Q2.2)

In accordance with the statistics from the Ministry of Education and Science:

35. Total expenditure on education in 2004 was 44,567.2 million euros (5.31% of GDP) although this figure is still provisional. Expenditure in 2005 (47,718 million euros, 5.27% of GDP) and in 2006 (51,486.9 million euros, 5.30% of GDP) are estimations based on the initial budgets of the education authorities. The above data include family expenditure, which varies from 0.93% to 1.01% of GDP for the given period. In the last ten consecutive years, it has been observed that public expenditure[1] has continually increased, and that the growth rate has accelerated in the last three, while family expenditure, as end consumers, on education services has decreased. For the year 2006, the volume of spending by the education authorities and the universities on education has been estimated at 43,390.6 million euros, 9% more than the previous year.

36. It should be noted that the largest part of the contributions for education come from the public sector, as there are no reliable statistics other than those of the families.

37. Public expenditure in 2004 was distributed as follows: pre-primary education, primary and special education (30.9%), secondary education (30.2%), university education (22.6%), special system of education, adult and other education (initial occupational training, administration and associated activities) (13.4%) and grants (2.9%).

38. The amounts of student funding and grants have gradually increased, focusing mainly on non-compulsory levels with a significant increase in university education grants as shown in Figure 3 below.

---

[1] Since 1992, information about public expenditure on education is based on the budgetary control of the different education authorities and universities, and includes an overall valuation of the national insurance contributions attributed to the teaching activity, following the criteria of the national accounting authority and the recommendations of the OECD and Eurostat.

Amount

0,90%
4,10%
22,60%
0,60%
71,80%

- Languages

- Special Education

- University Education

- Pre-primary Education

- Post-Compulsory Secondary E. & Vocational Education

Grant holders

1,60% 9,70%
38,40%
48,10%
2,20%
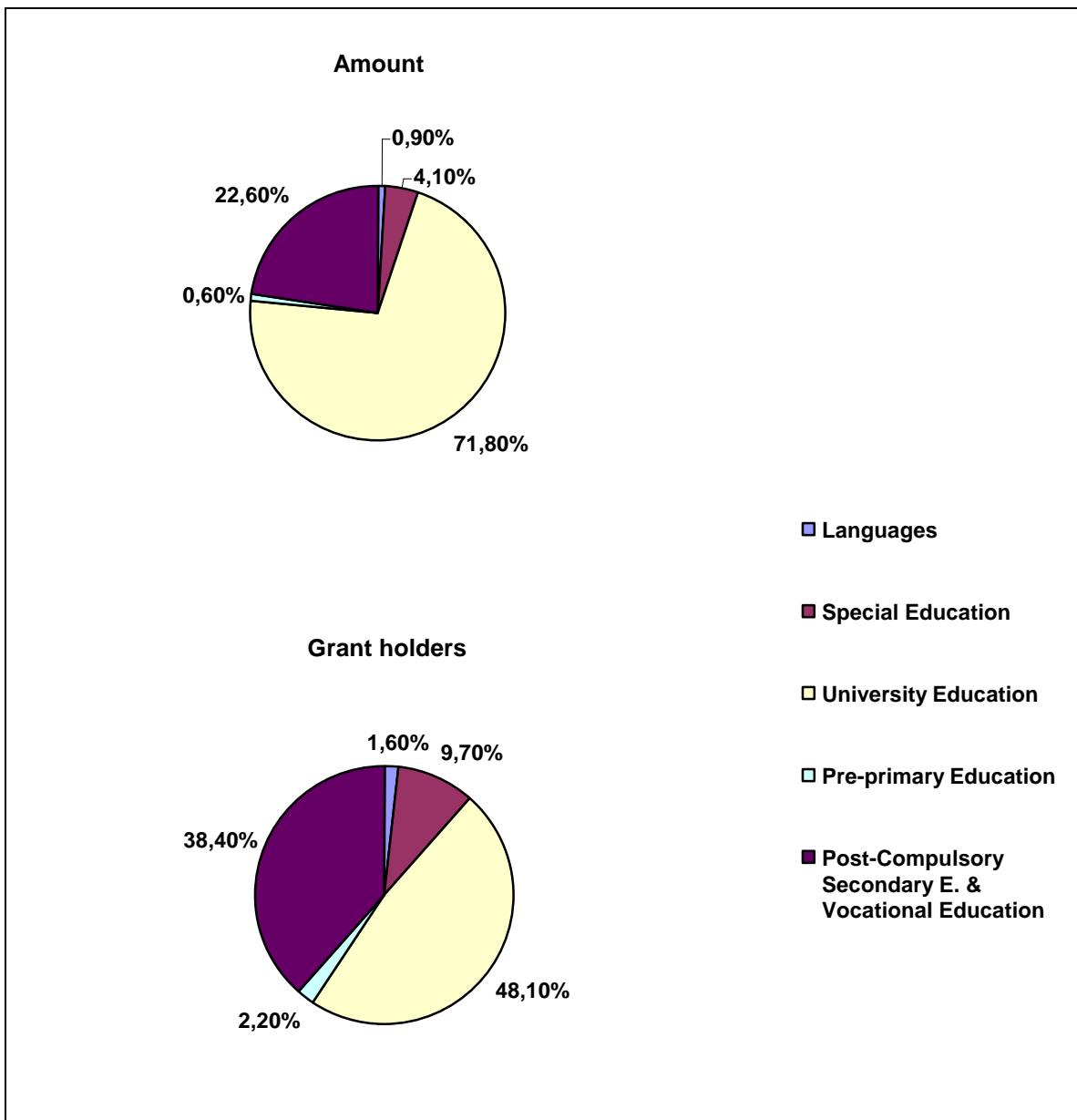
Figure 3: Predicted distribution of the number of grant holders and the amounts of grants from the Ministry of Education and Science, by level of education. Academic year 2006-2007.

Source: Ministry of Education and Science (2006)

2.3. Regulatory framework for the school system and basic form of governance

39. The current regulatory framework is linked to the development of the LOE, based on a decentralised model of education, in which the decision-making processes in relation to educational policies and financing in order to achieve quality in the education system, are shared between the State education authorities and the education authorities of the autonomous communities, and are coordinated through the development of incipient programmes of territorial cooperation.

40. Decentralisation has driven institutional autonomy which is powerful at university level but less so at levels preceding university, although it is increasing gradually in relation to academic, curricular and organisational matters.

41. Although the education authorities are responsible for the management of the education system and schools, they are supported by the representative bodies and the educational

community (school councils). These bodies act in a consultative and managerial capacity with respect to the decision-making bodies in the education system, both at State level and autonomous community and local levels, influencing institutional policy matters such as the approval of the pedagogical project, the election of school leaders and the approval and evaluation of school plans and programmes.

42. The participative management also covers technical management, given that the consecutive regulations continue to promote the establishment of leadership teams. However, in recent years, the trend is to reinforce the competencies of school leaders as a whole in their different respective functions.

43. Evaluations on the organisation and functioning of the system have been strengthened in recent years by the creation of the Institute of Evaluation (in 2006) –formerly known as INCE (in 1990) and INECSE (in 2002)– and other similar bodies in the autonomous communities in connection with improving quality. This concern has also affected schools which more and more are promoting and developing school self-evaluations as a follow-up to the external evaluations carried out.

2.4. Goals and objectives of the school system

44. The guiding principles and objectives of the education system are set out in Article 1 of the LOE. The principles refer to quality, equal rights, equity, democratic values, social participation, and education as lifelong learning, as a joint effort by direct and indirect users, and the commitment to diversity; it also refers to student motivation, the roles of the teachers and the evaluation of the processes involved. For the first time the legislation incorporates education for peace and the need for cooperation and collaboration among the different education authorities.

45. The objectives to be achieved by the education system are set out in Article 2, which specifies the content of the above principles. The objectives identify new and current concerns such as: education in relation to personal responsibility, merit and personal effort, development of student capability to regulate their own learning, education as respect for and recognition of the linguistic and cultural pluralism of Spain, education for good citizenship and social integration.

46. The above principles and objectives provide the guidelines for setting out the particular goals for each stage of education (pre-primary, primary, compulsory secondary, etc.). Articles 12 to 70 in Title I of the LOE establish the provisions for each stage of education under the headings of principles and objectives, organisation, pedagogical principles, and evaluation. The only differences are those which take into account the age of the students and whether the type of education is compulsory or not; but no distinctions are made according to the type of educational institution (state, private, urban, rural, etc.).

47. Each autonomous community implements these common principles and objectives by developing the necessary regulatory framework in order to give effect to the law. Finally, there have been some initiatives, such as the case of Andalusia, to promote regulatory frameworks at autonomous community level, which would incorporate their own specifics and policies, thereby providing more stability than the current system of implementing legislation.

2.5. Associations for teachers and school leaders

48. Trade union membership and activity is an individual right protected by the right to privacy, which means that it is difficult to obtain any accurate statistics as they are subject to many doubts regarding their reliability and authenticity. The references taken in this respect are the official results of the trade union elections held in 2002 and 2006.

49. The structure and evolution of trade union representation in non-university state education from 2002 to 2006, in the number of trade union delegates, is summarized in the table below. Their activity focuses mainly on salary negotiations and proposals for improving the education system.

Trade Union Organisations	Election Results 2002	Election Results 2006
FE-CCOO Education Federation of the union 'Comisiones Obreras'	454	484
FETE-UGT Federation of workers in Education of the union 'Unión General de Trabajadores'	269	282
STEs Confederation of workers in Education	270	295
ANPE Independent Union	256	293
CSI-CSIF Independent civil servants' union	193	235
Others	384	439

Table 4: Union representation

Source: Trade unions

50. There are no trade unions that group school leaders specifically, but several school leaders' associations have been established, most of them at a regional level. Although these associations are not officially recognised as unions, they have a certain amount of prestige and are usually taken into consideration by the corresponding education authority.

51. All things considered, the fact remains that the level of union or association or guild membership is low. Although we are unable to provide precise figures, union membership should not be more than 20% of the workforces and even less in the higher stages of the education system. Likewise, the lack of data means we cannot distinguish representation by type of school or education sector.

52. The most common concerns in the negotiation processes are usually salary increases, the abolishment of temporary contracts and improvements in working conditions. There are also concerns about work-related stress, classroom discipline and retirement benefits. In the long-term, some progress has been achieved in matters such as keeping salaries in line with the retail price index (RPI), improving class size ratios and support for teachers to respond to diversity.

2.6. Public perceptions about the role of schools, the quality of schooling, and the status of teachers and school leaders

53. Perceptions acknowledge the subjective nature of the personal views held. This is particularly relevant as information that is based on recent, reliable studies that take into account the overall reality of the whole of Spain cannot be provided. However, there are some studies for lesser territorial areas, which are included for illustrative purposes.

54. With regard to public perceptions about the role and status of teachers, several studies have gathered impressions from teachers, head teachers and inspectors. Some of them have been conducted by the University of Oviedo (report by Sanz *et al*, 2003: 25-26) and their main conclusions are the following ones:

- Most teachers seem generally satisfied with their choice of profession. Nevertheless, they also realise that this assessment is not shared by the wider community. Many of them, especially the older teachers, remember more favourable moments and perceive there has been a change for the worse in terms of social recognition. Some teachers declared certain weariness with the bureaucracy involved in the day-to-day tasks and increased difficulties in relationships with the parents.

- The associations that took part in this study think that public perceptions about the teacher is at a turning point, recovering very slowly from its lowest point and overcoming a somewhat negative perception.

- There are no major differences of opinion between men and women. However, some differences do exist between teachers in primary education (less dissatisfied) and in secondary education (greater feeling of 'loss of authority caused by the system', 'professional disrepute' and 'growing unrest').

3. SCHOOL GOVERNANCE AND LEADERSHIP

This Chapter aims to identify the roles and responsibilities of school leaders. It also provides evidence, where applicable, or opinions, on the competencies of effective leaders as well as their relationship with governance structures and contents.

3.1. The conceptualisation of school leadership (Q3.1)

55. School leadership is closely related to quality in education and the quality of the education system. This view implies there is immense concern for analysing the work of school leaders, and at the same time an increase in the requirements, demands and responsibilities which affect them.

56. In the case of Spain, in the last three decades school leadership has undergone a twofold transformation which, on account of different policies and circumstances, continues to be polemical:

- Although the first postulates and organisational models focused on administrative management, the trend is more and more towards pedagogical leadership. The complexity of education calls for head teachers who are able to respond to the complexity and the dynamism of social and personal demands, which excludes the possibility of only concentrating on tasks that are merely technical, administrative or connected with already defined curricula.

- This same complexity and the variety of requirements to attend to has made it necessary to go beyond a single head teacher to a leadership team comprising several people who share the responsibility for managing and driving change within the institution.

57. At present, the head teacher is still deemed to be the person who is legally responsible for the management of the educational institution. The LOE also refers to the leadership team as the executive body of governance in state schools, and that it comprises the head teacher, the head of studies, the school administrator and as many others as the education authorities may decide (article 131.1). This thus confirms the legal personality of the head teacher, who can act jointly with other school leaders. School leaders are identified as those persons who coordinate the work of other teachers, referring to the head teacher of the school, the head of studies, the school administrator, heads or coordinators of cycles or any other organisational unit.

58. The current legal references speak of the head teacher as the person who is legally responsible for the organisation inasmuch as he or she holds the highest management

post, but there is no express reference to school leaders. However, on analysing some of the functions assigned to those directly involved in pedagogical processes, there are indeed some references to pedagogical leadership.

59. It can be distinguished the functions of the head teacher (maximum authority within the organisation) and the way they are performed. Pedagogical leadership refers to a style of management which centres on educational processes and results, and administrative leadership is linked to administrative and economic processes. From this perspective, there are many possibilities:

- School leaders who do not act as pedagogical leaders, as this function has not been assigned to them or because they do not perform it.

- Teachers who act as pedagogical leaders, even though they have no formal position of authority.

- School leaders who act as pedagogical leaders because their charisma is recognised and they accept and perform the leadership task which corresponds to them.

60. Under the heading of pedagogical leaders, we refer, in our case, to persons who from formal positions of authority provide pedagogic leadership in the pedagogical tasks which correspond to them. It is considered pedagogical leaders to be the head teacher of the school, the head of studies and the heads of department, head of school cycles or any other organisational unit which is directly related to improving learning and strengthening teaching.

3.2. Basic legal framework that governs the functions and responsibilities of school leaders (Q3.2)

61. The school leadership model currently in force in our schools is the result of various reforms of the education system over the past thirty-five years: the General Law on Education of 1970 (LGE), the Organic Law Regulating the Right to Education of 1985 (LODE), the Law on the General Organisation of the Education System of 1990 (LOGSE), the Organic Law on Participation, Evaluation and Governance of Educational Institutions of 1995 (LOPEG) and, finally, the above-mentioned LOCE (2002) and the LOE (2006).

62. Table 5 provides a schematic view of this evolution and the present situation.

Law	LEADERSHIP MODEL AND FEATURES
LODE (1985)	Educational institutions shall have the following governance bodies: Single-member bodies (head teacher, school administrator, head of studies, and any other persons as determined by the corresponding organic regulations) and collegiate bodies (school council, teachers' assembly and any other bodies as determined by the corresponding organic regulations).
	The head teacher of the educational institution shall be elected by the school council and appointed by the competent education authority. The candidates must be teachers of the institution with at least one year's seniority in the same and three years' teaching experience. The election shall be by absolute majority of the members of the school council. If there are no candidates or the candidates do not obtain an absolute majority or in the case of newly established institutions, the corresponding education authority shall appoint the head teacher provisionally for a period of one year. The duration of the term of office of the single-member bodies of governance shall be for three years.
	Leadership competencies are shared among single-member and collegiate governance bodies in such a way that decision-making or management functions belong to the school council,

	which is the participative body for all the educational community; the executive competencies are distributed among the single-members bodies of governance.
LOGSE (1990)	Title IV describes school leadership as a factor of quality in education. Article 58.3 provides: "The education authorities shall contribute to school leadership by adopting measures to improve the training and performance of the leadership teams in said schools".

Another important provision is the introduction of the concept "leadership team".

Change of direction with respect to the LODE regarding school management. The trend is towards greater professionalism as school leaders are selected on merit and capability, and as the law provides for specific training for leadership teams. |
| **LOPEG (1995)** | Introduces important changes regarding conditions of access to leadership posts and leadership performance. The head teacher shall be elected by the school council from among those teachers of the school who have previously been accredited for this function, and shall be appointed by the competent education authority for a term of office whose duration shall be four years. Head teachers may hold their post in the same educational institution for a maximum of three consecutive terms of office. The election shall be by absolute majority of the members of the school council of the institution. The school council shall know the leadership programme, which must include the proposal of the single-member bodies of governance of the candidature established in this Law, the merits of the accredited candidates and the conditions under which they were accredited for the leadership function.

Candidates for the position of head teacher can be any civil servant teacher who fulfils the following requirements: at least five years seniority in the body of civil service teachers from which the application is made, and to have been a teacher for a similar period of time in a school which offers subjects at the same level and system of education; to have a permanent placement at the institution, with a seniority of at least one full academic year; and to have been accredited by the education authorities for the leadership function.

Teachers who request to be accredited for school leadership must have successfully completed the training programmes which the education authorities organise for this purpose or hold whatever qualifications, relating to the leadership function, as the above education authorities may determine. Teachers who wish to be accredited must satisfy at least one of the following requirements:

a) Experience and a positive evaluation of previous work performed in the leadership positions corresponding to the single-member bodies of governance.

b) A positive evaluation of the teaching performed in the classroom and in pedagogical coordination tasks, as well as, where applicable, in functions of organisation, management and participation in governance bodies.

Therefore, the elective nature of the head teacher position by the school council is maintained, but prior job profile requirements are established which are based on experience and accredited training. The rest of the single-member governance bodies are proposed by the head teacher. The term of office is increased to 4 years, which may be renewed for a further two terms. The law provides for an evaluation of leadership performance and part of the supplementary payments may be consolidated subsequent to a positive evaluation.

This is an attempt to professionalise school leadership, anticipating that more training, experience and authority can contribute to more effective leadership. |

Table 5: Historical antecedents to the current leadership model

63. An analysis of the above regulatory frameworks offers diverse interpretations. However, it seems necessary to define school leadership in Spain by referring to three

important variables: professionalism related to the selection process, participation in school leadership, and school leader profile. Table 6, based on contributions from Gairín and Villa (1999: 42-47), provides a description of these variables.

Lines	Models	Legislative development XX-XXI Centuries
Professionalism related to the selection process RUL and GARGALLO (1994)	Non-professional model	From the beginning to mid 20th century, school leaders were officially designated; no previous training or profile required.
	Professional model	From 1945 until the LGE of 1970, marked by selection through state exam (primary education) and official appointment (secondary) with the creation of an official body of head teachers; no specific training required.
	Coexistence of professional model and non-professional model	After the dissolution of the official body of head teachers by the LGE, a non-professional selection process is introduced, whereby head teachers are elected by the teachers' assembly and appointed by the education authority. Lack of definition and legal ambiguities after the LOECE (1980) is passed; a return to a professional model which is not fully applied.
	Non -professional and socio-political model	From 1985; the LODE marks a return to the non-professional model with head teachers elected by the educational community (through the school council); no previous profile required.
Participation in school leadership	Centralised and autocratic model	In force until the General Law on Education (LGE) of 1970. The head teacher holds all school management powers as the only governance body with decision-making and executive capacity, in representation of the education authority. The teachers' assembly (pedagogical area) and the school council (consultative area), have limited powers as they are collegiate bodies.
	Consultative model	As from the LGE of 1970. The head teacher transfers some powers to the assembly in the pedagogical area; teaching teams established for purposes of coordination and development of new functions. Increased participation of collegiate bodies, but in a consultative, informative and advisory capacity.
	Participatory model (functional and collegiate)	The LOECE of 1980 introduced collegiate governance bodies, raising to that status bodies that previously were merely consultative: the assembly (pedagogical area), the school council (broad powers as a management body, increased participation of parents and students) and board of finance. Head teacher powers limited to the administrative area. The LODE of 1985 consolidated the participation of the educational community through the school councils, broadening the functions of the management council and taking part in the election of the head teacher. The LOGSE and the LOPEG saw a notable increase in the powers of the teachers' assembly, which was granted greater autonomy in drawing up curricular projects. It was also given a more dynamic structure to facilitate the coordination of teaching staff tasks and functions.
School leader profile	Autocratic and bureaucratic-administrative profile	Prior to 1970. Centralised, personal authority. Focused on the development of technical, administrative, bureaucratic and pedagogical functions. No specific training required, thus the role linked to the personal attributes of the head teacher.
	Bureaucratic profile persists and socio-political profile appears	After the LGE of 1970, head teacher profile in a period of transition and ambivalence. Increased participation of educational communities in the advisory bodies meant that leadership was based on personal relations, dialogue, negotiation and agreement, with the head teacher acting as a coordinator, and motivating the community.

	Consolidation of the socio-political profiles	The LOECE was an attempt to professionalise the leadership profile by providing it with a certain degree of autonomy with respect to the educational community, and a technical and managerial profile. But this was countered by the fact of being appointed by the education authority, on the one hand and the loss of powers by the assembly on the other, which was resisted by the teaching staff. Thus, the attempt to create a new profile failed. The LODE consolidated the socio-political profile of the head teacher, who was now elected by the school council, and reaffirmed the leadership profile as a coordinator and driver within the new collegiate governance structures.
	Professional profile based on situational and collegiate leadership	The experience under the LODE, showed the need to provide specific training, different to that for teachers, for optimum performance. The LOPEG of 1995 was an attempt to professionalise school leadership; it was hoped that more training, experience and authority would facilitate collegiate leadership, as required by the LODE, as well as pedagogical leadership, as demanded of the self-management model for projects under the LOGSE.

Table 6: Lines of development in the statutory framework

64. The above regulations have deposited a leadership model which focuses on the teaching staff, elected leaders, teams, and the educational community. Later legislation has done little more than confirm this model, with some slight changes (see table 7 below).

LOCE (2002)	LOE (2006)
Selection process	
• Competitive examination based on merit, capability, and publications. In addition, the LOE introduces the principle of equality of opportunity.	
• Selection panel with representatives from the education authority and the school.	
Candidate requirements for head teacher position	
• At least five years' seniority as a civil servant.	
• At least five years' teaching experience, as a civil servant teacher.	
• Currently employed as a state school teacher with at least one full year's seniority at the school.	
	• Submit a leadership project which includes, among other things, the objectives, the action plan and an evaluation of the project.
Composition of the selection panels	
• Number of members established by the education authority, which shall always include representatives of the authority and the school.	
• At least thirty per cent shall be representatives of the school, of whom at least fifty per cent shall be appointed by the teachers' assembly.	• At least one third of the panel members shall be teachers chosen by the assembly. • Another third shall be chosen by and from the members of the school council who are not teachers.
Evaluation of merits	
• Academic and professional merits. • Experience and positive evaluation of prior performance in a leadership position and of teaching performance. • Special consideration will be given to previous experience in a leadership position.	• Objective assessment of academic and professional merits. • Evaluation of the management project. • Preference is given to candidates from the school; and from other schools when there are no candidates or no one has been selected in the same school.

Initial training programme	
• Training course on theoretical knowledge of leadership tasks and practical experience.	• Successfully complete an initial training programme.
• Candidates who are already head teachers are exempt.	• Candidates with at least two years' experience in a leadership position.
Term of appointment	
• Period of three years.	• Period of four years.
Management support and recognition	
• Different pay scales.	
• Performance taken into account for future state teaching positions.	
• Consolidation of the supplementary payment according to years of service, and subject to a positive evaluation of performance.	
• Recognised head teacher status for the corresponding stage of education, subject to a positive evaluation over a period of three years.	• Personal and professional recognition, subject to a positive evaluation at the end of term of office.
• Leadership team, especially the head teacher, may be totally or partially exempt from teaching duties according to characteristics of the school.	
Termination	
• Termination of term for which appointed, or any extensions thereto.	
• Resignation explained to and accepted by the education authority.	
• Sudden physical or psychological disability.	
• Justifiable dismissal by the competent education authority for a serious breach of the duties of the post, following a hearing with the interested party.	• Justifiable dismissal by the competent education authority, on its own initiative or on the school council's initiative, for a serious breach of the duties of the post, following a hearing with the interested party and the school council.

Table 7: Comparison of the LOCE and the LOE leadership models

Source: Montero, 2006

65. The changes incorporated by the regulatory framework developed by the autonomous communities do not suppose any modifications, as they focus mainly on including some functions to those which are established of a general nature.

3.3. Actions of the school leadership (Q3.3)

66. The actions of the school leadership are largely determined by legislative development. The reports from Eurydice, the education indicators and the national and international evaluations, as well as numerous studies, have shown that school autonomy in Spain is one of the lowest among OECD countries. The PISA 2003 index of school autonomy was prepared on the basis of who takes the following decisions: appointing teachers and establishing their salaries, formulating school budgets, establishing assessment policies and disciplinary policies, student admissions, determining course content, and deciding which courses were offered by the school. The results of this index, which are summarised below (See table 8), show that in Spain the number of decisions which are classified as a school responsibility, particularly those taken by the head teacher, are significantly lower than all the countries in the OECD, in all the aspects considered.

	SPAIN (mean value)	OECD (mean value)
SCHAUTON – School autonomy	-0.27	0.00
No. of head teacher decisions (over 12)	3.5	5.8

Table 8: The SCHAUTON index and number of head teacher decisions

Source: PISA (OECD, 2003)

67. The SCHAUTON index is a standardized variable whose mean value zero is equivalent to the average value of OECD countries. In Spain, the overall school autonomy index is clearly lower than the OECD average (a standard deviation of a quarter of a point).

68. The possibilities of school leaders intervening in internal staff matters (characteristics, hiring, promotion, etc.), attracting and retaining students, financing, buildings works and purchasing equipment for the school, are limited in the case of state schools.

69. The differences are most noticeable when we consider the ways of establishing relationships with parents and the local community, dealing with evaluation processes, innovation and change, and the way they respond to the needs of students. What marks the differences between schools are: the development of tutorial programmes, relationships with the wider community, the implementation of school self-evaluation programmes, the promotion of social inclusion, the provision of support to new teachers and students and the follow-up of students' progress. Some of the determinant factors in pre-primary and primary schools are the provision of individualised support programmes for students and their parents, school climate and classroom management.

3.4. Distribution of responsibilities for decision making in state schools (Q3.4)

70. The LOE establishes that the collegiate bodies of governance are the school councils and teachers' assemblies, and that the executive body is the leadership team, comprising the head teacher, the head of studies, the school administrator and those persons appointed by the education authorities.

71. The competencies of the school council in state schools, in which the leadership team, teachers, parents, students and members of the local community are represented, include: the approval and evaluation of school projects (educational, leadership and the annual general plan of activities) as well as the regulations for the organisation and the functioning of the school, participation in the head teacher selection process, admission of students, pupil behaviour, renovation of materials, collaboration with the wider community and an analysis and evaluation of the general performance of the school.

72. The teachers' assembly is responsible for planning, coordinating, reporting and, where appropriate, deciding on all the educational aspects of the school. Thus, its competencies, among others, include: the approval and evaluation of the curriculum content as well as the pedagogical aspects of other projects, the analysis and evaluation of students' results, the resolution of disputes and setting out the criteria in matters of student guidance, tutorials, evaluations and learning support.

73. The competencies assigned to the collegiate bodies are very similar ever since the LODE established a system of participative leadership. However, some aspects which affect school projects and school leadership have been modified. Likewise, there have not been many changes to the functions of the head teacher, whose authority has more or less been reinforced over the period of time, as shown below in table 9.

COMPETENCIES	LODE (1985)	LOPEG (1995)	LOE (2006)
REPRESENTATION	Act in representation of the school.	Officially act in representation of the school and in representation of the education authority in the school.	Act in representation of the school and in representation of the education authority in the school, which shall be informed of the approaches, aspirations and needs of the educational community.
ADMINISTRATION	Approve expenses in accordance with the school budget, authorise payments and review the certifications and official documents of the school. Propose appointments to leadership positions. Comply and require compliance with the laws and provisions in force.	Contract buildings works, services and supplies. Approve expenses in accordance with the school budget, authorise payments and review the certifications and official documents of the school. Appoint the head of studies and the school administrator, as well as any other single-member body of governance which may form part of the leadership team, excluding the financial administrator, and propose appointments and dismissals to the competent education authority. Comply and require compliance with the laws and provisions in force.	Contract buildings works, services and supplies, and approve expenses in accordance with the school budget, authorise payments and endorse the certifications and official documents of the school. The head teacher, with prior notice to the teachers' assembly and the school council, shall draw up proposals for the education authority regarding the appointment to, or dismissal from, the post of head of studies and school administrator, from among the teachers who are posted at the school. Guarantee compliance with the laws and other provisions in force.
MANAGEMENT COORDINATION AND EXECUTION	Call and chair academic functions and meetings of all the collegiate bodies of the school and execute the resolutions adopted within his/her area of competence. Performance of the headship role for all the personnel posted at the school. Manage and coordinate all the activities of the school, without prejudice to the competencies attributed to the school council of the school and to the teachers' assembly.	Call and chair academic functions and meetings of all the collegiate bodies of the school and execute the resolutions adopted within his/her area of competence. Performance of the headship role for all the personnel posted at the school. Manage and coordinate all the activities of the school to achieve the aims of its educational project, in accordance with the current regulations and without prejudice to the competencies of the school council.	Call and chair academic functions and meetings of the school council and the teachers' assembly of the school and execute the resolutions adopted within his/her area of competence. Performance of the headship role for all the personnel posted at the school. Manage and coordinate all the activities of the school, without prejudice to the competencies attributed to the school council of the school and to the teachers' assembly. Provide pedagogical leadership, promote educational innovation and plans to achieve the goals of

			the school's educational project.
			Promote in-school evaluations and collaborate in external evaluations and teacher assessments.
RELATIONS AND COLLABORATION		Promote a convivial atmosphere in the school and assume responsibility for discipline, in accordance with the provisions established by the education authorities and in compliance with the criteria set by the school council. Collaborate with the bodies of the education authority in all matters concerning the achievement of the educational objectives of the school.	Encourage a convivial atmosphere in the school, guarantee mediation in dispute resolution and assume responsibility for student discipline, taking into account the competencies attributed to the council. Promote collaboration with the parents, institutions and official bodies that facilitate the school's relations with the wider community. Foster a school climate that encourages study and the development of actions which help students acquire an all-round education of knowledge and values.

Table 9: Head teacher competencies according to the LOE (article 132)

74. The legislation which has just come into force includes a new article in relation to the leadership team. The provisions cover aspects such as its composition, the authority of the head teacher to propose the appointment or dismissal of other members of the team and specifically refer to the need for in-school coordination (article 131 of the LOE).

75. The ongoing development of school autonomy has progressed on curricular issues and now wants to promote organisational autonomy. From this perspective, it seems schools might receive greater means in the distribution of economic resources and personnel. These options provide new opportunities, but the authority to take part in the teacher selection processes or in the student admissions is very limited.

76. In Spain the average number of decisions taken by the head teacher, which could serve as an indicator of school autonomy and the decision-making capacity of the head teacher, is much lower than all the countries in the OECD. An analysis of these decisions allows us to fully appreciate the distance between Spanish schools and their counterparts in the OECD (See table 10).

Head teachers with responsibility for:

		Spain	OECD
Personnel	Appointing teachers	30%	60%
	Dismissing teachers	31%	51%
	Establishing teachers' starting salaries	6%	20%
	Determining teachers' salary increases	5%	23%
Budget	Formulating school budgets	55%	62%
	Allocating budgets within the school	53%	75%
Organisation	Establishing student disciplinary policies	46%	67%
	Establishing student assessment policies	31%	51%
	Approving students for admission	29%	73%
Pedagogy	Choosing which textbooks to use	12%	22%
	Determining course content	11%	20%
	Deciding which courses were offered	38%	57%

Table 10: The average number of decisions taken by the head teacher

Source: PISA (OECD, 2003)

77. The responsibility of head teachers in Spanish schools only comes close to that of their colleagues in the OECD in the area of budget, although it is not equal. In the area of organisation and pedagogical autonomy they have much less responsibility. In appointing teachers and, especially, in remuneration issues, our head teachers have a very limited degree of autonomy. The correlation of this index with student performance is higher in the OECD where there is a greater degree of autonomy.

3.5. Governance structure of schools (Q3.5)

78. The governance structure of the schools referred to above does permit some minor changes according to the type of school and the nature of the collectives represented. Some examples of these minor differences would be that student representatives do not form part of the school council in pre-primary or primary schools; and that school councils in vocational schools include a representative of business or similar organisations. On the other hand, the total number of members of the council is fixed by the autonomous communities.

79. Schools have no legal recourses to modify the basic structure as provided by law. However, there is nothing to prevent schools from developing other supplementary structures. Many schools, for example, have cycle coordinators (two years of schooling) in primary education and a pedagogical committee (teachers' meeting for coordinating areas of instruction or education).

3.6. Division of responsibility between school leaders and the school governing board or local/regional education authority (Q3.6)

80. The current regulations, which are very detailed, reduce the possibility of disputes between schools and external authorities. The above mentioned regulation delimits the competencies of every level, giving, in the practical, certain pre-eminence to the external authorities in case of conflict.

81. There is a greater problem in implementing the framework of competencies. The abovementioned general laws are frequently challenged in the courts by diverse autonomous communities or by the State, on the grounds that the latter has assumed competencies beyond its powers. Some of the problems that arise are related to amendments to the current curriculum and the reorganisation of timetables and curricula as some autonomous communities want to include their own language and contents. It usually takes some time to resolve these problems as the judgment is delivered by the Constitutional Court.

3.7. Balance between autonomy, transparency and accountability at the school level (Q3.7)

82. The incorporation of regular, external school evaluations is relatively recent. On certain occasions, the inspectorate has carried out evaluations of samples of schools (for example, the EVA Plan). Likewise, the Institute of Evaluation has been carrying out studies and evaluations in primary and secondary schools on curricular programmes and school performance since 1995. It has also taken part in international programmes (for example, PISA and TIMSS).

83. The situation, nevertheless, is changing in recent years. On the one hand, education authorities in the autonomous communities are trying to promote evaluation by creating their own evaluation institutes and organising school self-evaluations, and on the other, by supporting evaluation initiatives in schools and institutions with the standard type of ISO 9000 or European Quality models.

84. Besides external evaluation, schools usually produce an annual report of activities linked to the Annual General Plan which shows the results of the evaluation processes carried out as planned. Only some autonomous communities promote periodic evaluation programmes that are accompanied by improvement plans.

85. School leadership plays a vitally important role in promoting, managing and developing these evaluation processes; in fact, many of the initiatives have come from or have been directed by school leaders, and its usefulness depended to a large extent on this involvement.

3.8. Organisation and leadership structure within schools (Q3.8)

86. The distribution of leadership tasks within schools is normally as follows: the head of studies focuses on the academic processes, organisation and disciplinary matters, the school administrator on the administrative and financial processes and the head teacher on institutional and external relations and on the coordination of the leadership team. When the coordinators of the departments or the cycles do not have periodic meetings with the head of studies, they sometimes attend the leadership team meetings.

87. The proposals submitted by each one of the members at the coordination meeting are decided on the basis of consensus and in the event of a disagreement, the head teacher decides. Nevertheless, the head teacher, as the maximum authority within the school, must guard that the decisions respect the regulations or any other fundamental criteria. Issues that require an immediate decision can be resolved by the head teacher and the persons involved, without having to wait until the next meeting.

88. This participative method of working is within the letter and the spirit of the regulations. However, it may be difficult to apply in the case of a dispute or a situation where there is a low level of involvement of the members of the educational community.

89. Some of the cases in which the participative models are relied on (responsibility and commitment of all involved, delays in decision-making, blurring of collective responsibilities, etc.) and some of the real difficulties in developing them may explain,

the gradual reinforcement of the head teacher's competencies and improvements in their working conditions (See 3.3. and 3.4).

3.9. Tensions over the relative weight given to different leadership responsibilities (Q3.9)

90. The most important challenges in schools revolve round curricular issues (achieving good results in students' learning, providing support for all students), organisational issues (internal and local community relations, school discipline, and managing resources for change), and personnel issues (student and teacher motivation, absenteeism and discipline).

91. As a result of the increase in the number of years of compulsory education and the access to education of new student groups, the conditions in which schools perform their task have become more complex. It is now necessary to provide an appropriate response to the diversity of students and to contribute equitably to the new challenges and difficulties generated by this diversity.

92. The different levels of implication of families, the difficulties in living together and the problems in the management of the resources can raise challenges to school leaders if they have not the training or the suitable tools to deal with them.

93. Up to now, the functioning of the incentives of the managerial tasks has not been able to be valued properly.

3.10. Collaboration with other schools (Q3.10)

94. There has always been collaboration with other schools. Clear examples are the associations of schools under the same organisational parameter (such as the Ikastolas in the Basque Country or the CEPEC schools in Catalonia), the groups of schools in rural areas, the associations of schools for adults, leisure centres or school networks, or the collaborative projects promoted within broader contexts such as the City Education Project. However, we might add that these collaborative efforts are not very numerous.

95. This kind of collaboration will require some factors such as: freedom of association, a firm commitment to share interests, respect for the decisions of each school, equal treatment or a complete break with the levels of dependency, loyalty and commitment in the terms of the collaboration, participation in policies, processes and results, respect for their differences and a general recognition that specific difficulties may arise that justify responses other than those anticipated.

3.11. Involvement in community development (Q3.11)

96. On many occasions, schools have limited their relations to either the parents of the students, in the first place, or to the representatives of the parents, in the second place. Furthermore, vocational schools did not always develop satisfactory relations with the labour market.

97. As a result of the recent legislative changes and the development of a new policy of openness on the part of the schools, it is possible to talk about schools as incipient community centres. On the one hand, the use of school facilities for extracurricular activities has been increased by some autonomous communities to include cultural and social activities connected with education and, on the other hand, some communities are promoting specific plans linked to their communities.

98. Today's school leaders include community relations management in their relevant activities, accepting the role of schools as local community centres and as promoters of the culture of the community.

3.12. Different aspects of the competencies required of leaders depending on the variable external characteristics (Q3.12)

99.   From the studies carried out about the school leadership in Spain, the only differences that have been identified between school leadership in primary and secondary schools are connected with the type of curriculum developed or the nature of the students enrolled.

3.13. Different aspects of the competencies required of leaders depending on the variable internal characteristics (Q3.13)

100.   As pointed out above in paragraph 3.12, in our context, there are no comparative studies that identify differences in school leadership according to the different organisational contexts.

3.14. Innovations in relation to the organisation of leadership roles in schools (Q3.14)

101.   A number of autonomous communities have introduced some interesting innovations. In relation to these innovations, it should be pointed out the role of leadership in: a) taking part in improvement plans and in the development of school organisation programmes (strategic planning, school self-evaluation, community projects, setting up school networks, IT for schools, etc.), playing a central role in school autonomy issues, participating in knowledge management networks, sharing experiences and putting forward proposals. And b) promoting quality and the certification of schools (under the ISO, EFQM models and others), in which case the leadership team is responsible for preparing the request to participate in these projects.

102.   The characteristics of the above innovations are extremely varied but, rather than focusing on the technical details, it seems that not only is it necessary to get school leadership involved, but it is essential to have motivated teachers who are interested in the project and committed to its development.

4. ENHANCING LEARNING AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

This chapter focuses on the role of school leadership in enhancing learning and aims to identify the conditions and policies under which school leaders can exercise this role most effectively.

4.1. Major concerns about the quality of teaching, learning and assessment in schools (Q4.1)

103.   There has always been concern about improvement and, indeed, ultimately it explains the consecutive changes in the regulations and the educational practices introduced by schools such as the annual action plan/improvement plans as well as the corresponding reports on the evaluations.

104.   Many of the proposals, linked to reinforcing teacher training, supporting the commitment to diversity in the classrooms, promoting the use of new technologies, providing individual support to students, among others, can be indirectly related to the evaluations carried out by the education inspectorate, the Institute of Evaluation (formerly INCE and INECSE) and other bodies.

105.   The international evaluations on school results (especially PISA and TIMSS) have received considerable attention from the media and the teaching profession.

106.   Anyway, it can be seen that more than one third of the schools are making bigger and bigger efforts to improve the school results and other variables of quality. Thus, some of them take part in programmes designed to promote in-school evaluation, homogenise

studies and education processes, create and develop improvement plans and drive learning improvement projects.

4.2. Role of school leadership in the development and evaluation of policies for teaching, learning and assessment (Q4.2)

107. The participation of school leadership in the development of educational policies is indirect.

108. School leaders may have considerable influence within the context of their schools, bearing in mind they have the autonomy to develop the curriculum and their leadership is recognised as they were elected on the basis of a defined action programme. They can thus contribute to change by undertaking and promoting reviews of the curriculum, modifying teaching methods, developing new approaches on the use of materials and promoting different ways of evaluating students' learning. They can also have an influence on teachers' job satisfaction and on getting them to adopt and use innovative working practices.

109. The Spanish report (Gil, 1999) on the OECD Education Indicators Project (INES) on the learning environment and school organisation shows that primary school leaders have an average class contact time of 15 hours a week. It also points out that the relatively high teaching workload of head teachers in some countries (such as Spain and Portugal), means they are considered "first among equals", that is, another teacher who has a specific function which is the responsibility for the school. However, in countries such as Italy and Belgium, the professional profile of head teachers, who have hardly any teaching commitment, is different to that of the teacher.

110. In contrast, the analysis of the time devoted to questions of pedagogic leadership shows that Spanish primary school leaders have one of the lowest averages of time devotion in Europe (Gil, 1999). The current situation has not changed substantially and it is indicative of that the intervention of the school leaders in pedagogic aspects is delicate.

111. Likewise, the study by Gago (2006), in relation to head teacher educational leadership, offers a view that accurately reflects their situation in intermediate education:

    - Frequent, pertinent actions: formulating, defining and communicating the school project, curriculum coordination in order to implement the pedagogical leadership programme and creating a positive learning environment in the school.

    - Infrequent, pertinent actions: supervising and evaluating the education and enhancing teaching and learning and promoting professional development.

    - Actions which offer a diversity of opinions: monitoring student progress, maintaining a strong presence within the school.

4.3. School accountability and role of school leaders (Q4.3)

112. The reality in Spain is that there is no tradition or practical experience in school accountability, which countries in northern Europe would recognise as such. It should be mentioned, however, that schools are obliged to prepare the annual general plan for the school, which is evaluated and approved by the school council, comprising the leadership team, teachers, parents, administrative staff, students and a representative of the town council. This governance body is also competent to analyse and evaluate the general running of the school, the improvements in school performance and the results of the internal and external evaluations in which the school takes part.

113. School leaders take part in the approval and follow-up of proposals in their capacity as presidents of the school council and the teachers' assembly. They are also responsible

for promoting school self-evaluations and collaborating in external evaluations and teacher assessments.

4.4. Role of school leaders in analysing and acting on students' disciplinary behaviour, learning progress and outcomes (Q4.4)

114. The head of studies is the academic reference in schools. They are responsible for the teaching and usually coordinate the education (programmes, timetables, groups, spaces, etc.) and the teaching teams. One of their most usual tasks in basic education is to encourage and coordinate the meetings of the education cycles (two consecutive years), as well as the meetings of the teaching departments and the educational guidance department in intermediate education.

4.5. Curriculum development and implementation (Q4.5)

115. The educational project of the school sets out its principles, objectives and priorities. It also includes the curricular content established by the education authority, which the teachers' assembly has to define and approve, and describes how to implement the principles and other education across the areas, subjects and modules of the curriculum.

116. The educational project of the school must take into account the characteristics of the school's social and cultural environment and its commitment to student diversity, organize individual support and create an appropriate learning environment, in accordance with the regulatory frameworks established by the education authorities.

117. The teachers' assembly develops the curricular aspects defined in the educational project such as educational content, timetables, working methods, teaching materials and evaluation. In all types of schools, the head of studies is responsible for ensuring compliance with the agreements, coordinating activities, supervising the teaching and presenting proposals for improvement. The head of studies receives help, especially in large schools, from the coordinators of the cycles and the teaching departments.

4.6. Teaching responsibilities of school leaders (Q4.6)

118. The responsibilities of school leaders in relation to teaching are governed by article 132.c of the LOE which provides that one of the head teacher's competencies is:

"To perform the role of pedagogical leadership, promote educational innovation and drive plans to achieve the aims of the educational project of the school".

Nevertheless, pedagogical leadership is delegated to the head of studies, who is nominated by the head teacher and also forms part of the leadership team.

119. The conceptualisation of the school as a unit which promotes student learning, reinforces the idea that activities such as relationships with the parents, the development of extracurricular activities, the promotion of an appropriate school climate, school evaluations and management of resources, cannot be separated from classroom activities and the established curriculum. In this regard, we might say that the school administrator and the head teacher of the school also have teaching responsibilities, although they concentrate more on administrative and financial matters and standards of behaviour and external and internal coordination, respectively.

4.7. Role of school leadership in teacher mentoring (Q4.7)

120. There were no established initial training or teacher mentoring systems in schools until the LOE came into force. Occasionally, at a superficial level, some schools organised induction courses for newly qualified teachers, which usually included initial

information processes and the assignment of a colleague as a peer coach for the first few months after starting at the school. In these cases, the school leadership focused on promoting the plan and providing information to newly qualified teachers.

121. Since the LOE came into force, a new proposal has been established for teaching practice, consisting in the need for applicants to do a master. The first course of the master relates to pedagogy and the teaching of certain subjects and the second course to teaching practice in a school. School leaders will play a crucial in this second course, as a person who mentors, coordinates and directs the teachers on teaching practice.

4.8. Role of school leadership in evaluating teacher performance (Q4.8)

122. The Spanish education system has not developed an evaluation system for teacher performance, nor does it seem feasible that school leaders, on their own initiative, can establish any measures in this regard.

4.9. Role of school leadership in the professional development of teachers (Q4.9)

123. School leaders are not directly involved in the professional development of teachers as they do not take part in the selection process, the training system or in promoting teachers. Some autonomous communities consult school leaders when they have to establish training plans for teachers or promote specific training plans for schools.

4.10. Evidence that particular leadership practices are more effective in promoting learning in schools (Q4.10)

124. The relationship between school management and educational leadership has also been shown to be a key factor in effective learning in our country. Although the scope of this relationship is a long way off the research findings in other countries, several studies carried out (CSIC, 1982; Coronel, 1992; Muñoz-Repiso *et al*, 1995) highlight that school leadership has become an important issue for the effectiveness and quality of education (and also for changing and improving schools) given the effect it has on the standards of attainment by students. Other studies (Muñoz Arroyo; 1977; Isaacs, 1978; Ibar *et al*, 1978; Carmena y Regidor, 1980; etc.), adopt an *a priori* approach which sees leadership as a contributory factor for the quality of education, although they fail to verify it, as shown by Gago (2006:160).

125. A review of the research, in this case foreign research, carried out by Gago (2006: 169-171), also highlights the impact of leadership on standards of attainment, referring to a direct relationship, for learning purposes (regarding the aims, the interpersonal relations, the impact of members of the local community... as influential factors) or for reciprocal purposes, according to the review by Hallinger and Heck (1998). This latter option, which tries to define the type of school leadership that has the most influence on educational attainment, is deemed the most appropriate as it can provide the most accurate data.

4.11. Evidence that particular contexts are more conducive to learning-centred leadership practices (Q4.10)

126. There is a rather limited amount of published research which analyses the influence of the context on learning-centred leadership practices. Gago (2006:160), in this regard, refers to the study by Muñoz-Repiso *et al* (1995), which is based on the elaboration of two empirical models for running schools: one for primary and the other for secondary schools (Murillo, 1996). The process factors, which are directly related to school dynamics, seem to influence the effectiveness of primary schools, while in secondary

schools there appear to be more variables which interrelate in a more complex way. The evaluation by the educational community of the leadership teams' performance in both stages of education is, however, a factor linked to the effectiveness of schools and indirectly related to student learning and achievement.

4.12. Policy initiatives related to learning-centred leadership and their impact (Q4.12)

127. There have been some instances of training initiatives for head teachers and heads of studies that have been positively evaluated by the users but there are no assessments of their impact. The evaluation of the basic competencies by the autonomous community of Catalonia has implied new tasks for heads of studies, but there are no reports which connect the results of this new activity with the head of studies profile or the working practices adopted by them.

4. 13. Policy priorities for strengthening learning-centred leadership (Q4.13)

128. The Organic Law on Education establishes as one of its main principles the "autonomy to establish and to adapt the organizational and curricular performances" within the framework of its competences (art. 1 i). This pedagogic autonomy (art. 120) is materialized in the ability of schools to elaborate and develop their educational project (art. 1219) and in a reinforcement of the leadership of the managerial team, to whom its development is entrusted (art. 132.c).

5. THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF SCHOOL LEADERS' ROLE

This chapter explores the characteristics of the school leadership workforce, as well as the types of employment conditions and support structures that make school leadership an attractive career.

5.1. Concerns about the supply and quality of school leaders (Q5.1)

129. The school leadership model established by the LODE in 1985 responded to a democratic and participative conception of education. The Spanish solution granted the school council, the representative body of the whole educational community, the powers to elect the head teacher. During these years the elections to school councils have had a high participation of teaching staff, students, administrative and services staff, but a more modest participation of students' parents.

130. The school leadership teams have incorporated teachers with a good attitude to work, recognised professional abilities, who are trusted and supported by their educational communities, and are convinced about the benefits of introducing democracy in schools.

131. These teams had the scarcest resources to deal with a process of expansion without precedent in Spanish education, as well as very little school autonomy. In the majority of the cases they were also regarded with distrust by the education authorities.

132. The difficulties of democratic management, not sufficiently recognised, and the limited decision-making authority granted to head teachers caused a growing scarcity of candidates. The LOPEG managed to stimulate recognition, training and remuneration for head teachers, but, in the middle term, the situation did not improve substantially. It would appear necessary to insist on the importance of management difficulties and limited decision-making capacity as the fundamental causes of the problems with this leadership model.

133. In recent years, school leadership in Spain has been affected by the lack of a professional model and the relative instability of the alternative proposals developed. The lack of a clear career structure has been identified as the reason why so few potential leaders are attracted to school leadership as they do not regard it as an appropriate context for career opportunities or as a space for professional management.

134. The information provided by the study carried out by Gairín and Villa (1999) in 56 primary and secondary schools in the autonomous communities of Catalonia and the Basque Country shows, among other things, that:

- Almost half of the leadership teams have been working for one academic year and only a minority (1.9%) more than five school years.

- The most common methods of access to the post of head teacher are by election (49%) or by appointment (40.8%). Comparing these percentages with those for other members of the leadership team, it could be seen that more heads of studies are appointed (46.3%) than elected (25.9%) or proposed by another member (27.8%). It is more common for school administrators to be proposed by another member (45.2%), although on occasions they are appointed (32.3%). The majority of the other leaders (coordinators of education cycles, heads of departments, etc.) are appointed (70.7%), and not so many are elected (17.2%) or proposed (12.1%).

- Most head teachers (84%), heads of studies (61.8%) and school administrators (51.6%) have been in the teaching profession for more than twelve years and, normally, have had previous experience in other leadership positions with less responsibility.

- The reasons given by head teachers for applying for the position were: to carry out projects and develop ideas for the school (50%), personal achievement and satisfaction (38.5%) and the fact that no one else was willing to accept it (30.8%).

- School leaders were given minimal training for their leadership roles, when available. 20% of head teachers said no specific training was provided. 75% of those who did receive training, which they described as superficial and insufficient, said it was after they had taken up the post. 37.3% of heads of studies and 45.7% of school administrators said they had received no specific training.

- On a scale of 1 to 5, prior motivation for the position is 2.9 (head teacher), 2.6 (head of studies) and 3.1 (administrator). Willingness and motivation to continue in their leadership roles is 3.4, 3.3 and 3.3, respectively.

135. The professionalisation of leadership, linked to the effective development of some ideal competencies for the established function, has been and continues to be a topic of debate which has often led to presumptions that are not always correct. Thus, the low numbers of candidates does not necessarily raise doubts about the election models behind the participatory processes; nor should professional leadership be interpreted as a job for life, authoritarian, or taken out of context.

136. It is, therefore, not surprising that recent regulations aim to provide certain stability in the post, encourage applications and continuity, and to promote training, respecting the role of the educational community in the election and control of school leaders.

5.2. Monitoring the supply versus demand situation of school leaders (Q5.2)

137. Given that the leadership role has been relegated to the internal affairs of schools, that there is no register for professional school leaders and that the school leadership selection process is not open to the public, it is not possible to quantify the supply versus demand situation of school leaders. Occasionally, at a superficial level, some head teacher positions for privately owned schools are advertised in the press.

5.3. Changes in the characteristics of school leaders (Q5.3)

138. The number of **women in leadership posts** has increased discreetly in recent years, but bears no proportion to the total number of women teachers in all levels of education.

- The studies indicate a predominance of males (72% compared to 28% female) in leadership posts, which is inversely proportional to the number of teachers. In fact, in secondary education women hold only approximately 30% of the leadership posts.

- Grañeras (2003) shows that there is a clear imbalance in the number of women in governance bodies. However, the percentage difference between the proportion of women teachers (42%) and the proportion of women in secondary education leadership teams (34%) is less than that recorded in the lower stages. The most senior leadership posts are usually held by men, with women filling only a quarter of head teacher posts (See table 11 below).

TEACHERS	LEADERSHIP TEAMS		
42%	34.07%		
	HEAD TEACHERS	HEADS OF STUDIES	SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS
	25.08%	37.65%	36.19%

Table 11: Percentage of women in leadership teams in secondary education

Source: M. Grañeras (2003: 17)

139. The situation and the explanations given are not far removed from those in other contexts. The differences do not seem to be due to reasons of a structural nature (relating to school leadership, the training required, the competencies or the election/appointment process), rather to cultural or social matters of a general nature (Muñoz Repiso, 2003). According to this researcher, the indifference of women to leadership posts is due to social conditions: lack of time as they have a family to look after, and an unfavourable working environment.

140. Some studies in the 1990s offered different explanations to the above two dimensions:

- Professional development and family responsibilities are incompatible, due to the longer working day.

  o Traditional burden of family responsibilities so women do not fill leadership posts (Barquín and Melero, 1994).

  o Women have two jobs to do every day and this keeps them away from a job as demanding as leadership (Bardisa, 1995).

  o Concern, on the part of women themselves, that leadership means taking on more responsibility that is difficult to combine with their personal lives (Díez, Terrón, Valle y Centeno, 2003).

- Women are traditionally excluded from management positions.

141. It should also be mentioned that women who take up posts of responsibility adopt different styles, in exercising their authority and performing their duties, to those used by men, whether it is leadership (Bardisa, 1995) or inspection (López Fernández, 1998). The in-depth study by Gómez y Casado (2003) provide some explanations that refer to:

1. *Perception of the posts in the education system*. Teachers do not seem to regard taking up a leadership role as a part of their career path: it is not something to which they aspire or are entitled to say they aspire.

2. *Invisibility of the gender imbalance in the education system.* The unequal distribution of posts of responsibility among men and women in the education system is hardly noticeable; it does not even appear to be a cause for concern among those persons who work in it. The most common answers (especially from men) are to reject the facts, claiming that in their case the current situation is no longer like that, or to play it down, saying that the situation is changing and that it is only a matter of time. Even people who confirm there is a gender imbalance usually say the causes lie outside the education system ("beyond their control", "it happens everywhere"), placing the responsibility on society as a whole or more specifically on the norms of domestic life.

3. *Dissimilar views on time and authority.* Men and women see the time they devote to their jobs in different ways: men see it as time given to their profession; women see it as time taken away from other responsibilities they have. Taking both views into account, in the case of women, one has to consider: a "cannot" (as they give priority to other matters) and a "don't want" (the result of the complex gender-authority relationship).

4. *New difficulties.* There is an almost generally accepted view that the different career paths of men and women are as a result of personal choices: each person chooses what they want to do. However, these choices have different meanings, starting points and contexts which mark the different professional careers.

142. Likewise, the study by Díez, Terrón, Valle y Centeno (2002) tries to explain why there are fewer women in leadership posts. The reasons are set out in table 12 below.

1. Social custom   Traditionally, a woman's role was limited to the domestic and private sphere. Integration into the labour market creates personal, family and other difficulties, typical of the social, cultural and organisational context in which she finds herself, that will have negative psychological consequences for her.
2. *The hierarchical and individualist focus on management and leadership*   The traditional concept of management and leadership has been (and continues to be) linked to this focus. It is essentially a masculine model: its features are associated with characteristics traditionally attributed to men (determination, strength, self-assuredness, etc.).
3. *Single-minded pursuit of power*   Women see leadership as a service to the educational community, as a personal contribution to improve the organization and not as a personal merit (curriculum) or a single-minded pursuit of power (authority).
4. *Expectations*   It is usually taken for granted that men adapt better to the management model. It is assumed they are more accustomed to and prepared for positions of authority.
5. *Lack of role models of women in positions of authority*   There are not enough women leaders with characteristics different to those of men who can serve as positive role models for other women.
6. *The belief that nowadays there is no discrimination*   The equality argument is internalised and, therefore, if anything goes wrong, it must be because women are unsuitable: 'women not only don't want the job, they're not right for it' (Eguskiza, 1996) or, 'if there are no women in management posts, it must be because they don't want it': "the exception to the rule myth" (Santos Guerra,

2000).
7. *Low self-esteem of women faced with exercising their authority*
In education, women feel they are much more criticised and questioned than men in their leadership tasks.

Table 12: Reasons for gender imbalance in leadership posts

Source: E. J. Orez, E. Terrón, R. E. Valle and B. Centeno (2002).

143. In his analysis of these studies Gago (2003:204) points out:

"*In short, all the research attributes the lower numbers of women in leadership posts to reasons of a cultural or attitudinal nature, which has also been well documented elsewhere by almost all the international studies. That is to say, although they are just as capable as their male colleagues to fill the position, a persistent sexual stereotype associated with the role of head teacher seems to be the main cause of such marked reluctance*".

144. It is not possible to provide any statistics which show the influence of the age variable over the past decade. However, it is feasible to provide some research data which are regarded as not far removed from reality. The study by Gairín y Villa (1999:63-64) shows that 31-40 age group is the most predominant among the members of the leadership teams. Some of the differences according to ownership and type of school refer to:

   o Access to promotion as head of studies is earlier than head teacher or school administrator.

   o The average age of head teachers and heads of studies in private schools is older than those in state schools.

   o School administrators in private schools are on average younger than their colleagues in state schools.

   o The age of access to other leadership posts is lower in private schools than in state schools.

145. The ownership of the school also establishes some differences as regards leadership functions. School leaders in private schools stay longer in the post, and administrators have less teaching experience, than their colleagues in state schools. The study also shows that school leaders in private schools received more specific training for the post.

5.4. Lack of involvement of teachers in leadership (Q5.4)

146. The study by Montero (2006:136) provides conclusive evidence regarding the involvement of teachers in leadership. It shows that the education authorities had to directly appoint more than half of the head teachers almost every year from 1985 to 2003. There were always more direct appointments in primary schools, except in recent years in which the proportions were similar, at between 55 and 61%.

147. The level of involvement of teachers in leadership elections has been the subject of constant evaluations by the State School Council, which has repeatedly pointed out in its annual reports that the education authorities need to adopt measures to encourage and motivate teachers to apply for leadership posts in schools.

148. School leaders collectively share a number of beliefs, apart from the specialised tasks they occasionally perform. Debón (1997: 532) described them in the following way:

   • *He is not really a head teacher because it is only a temporary appointment.*

- *He is not a teacher because he has to manage, discipline and give orders to his colleagues.*

- *He is not a colleague because he represents the education authority.*

- *He is not a representative of the education authority because he has to defend his school and the educational community against them.*

- *He has executive authority but all the decisions are controlled by the collegiate bodies.*

- *He does not have executive authority but he is responsible for the excesses and errors of others.*

- *He does not want to be a bureaucrat but demands more training in organisational and administrative matters, etc.*

149. This dual role of head teachers, as a representative of the Education Authority as well as the school, is not the only reason why there is a shortage of candidates. The diverse studies carried out mention others such as:

- Excessive, complicated workload with many problems and responsibilities and little reward for the performance of their duties.

- Lack of social and professional recognition.

- Leadership roles and duties not widely accepted by "colleagues", especially when there are failings or problems.

- Lack of authority and real powers to take decisions and to carry them out, particularly in relation to management of personnel and resources.

- Limited specific training, both initial and ongoing, for the position.

- Insufficient support from the education authority, especially in the event of disputes.

- Isolationism.

150. However, even though the intrinsic interests (improving school management, providing a service to the community, etc.) are more influential than the extrinsic (professional development, desire for promotion, etc.), we should not forget that the increased pay and the working conditions affect the attractiveness of the post.

151. It should also be pointed out that the willingness to continue in the post is greater than when the school leaders were first elected or appointed. However, in general, they do not usually stay in the post for long. Villa and García (2003) state that the desire to take up a post is sometimes concealed due to how it might be interpreted ("eagerness for authority", "questionable interests",…) or to avoid having to make the explicit commitments that occurs when one is elected rather than appointed. In any case, as they explain, leadership problems and disputes do not produce the same effect when school leaders are deciding whether or not to continue in the position.

5.5. Evidence regarding teachers who aspire to school leadership (Q5.5)

152. There is no knowledge of any statistics on the percentages of teachers who aspire to school leadership.

5.6. Selection of school leaders (Q5.6)

153. The selection process and candidate requirements for the post of head teacher are governed by Articles 133 to 137 of the LOE. According to these articles, the

educational community and education authority shall take part in the head teacher selection process. The process must allow the most professionally qualified candidates who have obtained the greatest support from the educational community to be selected. The selection and appointment of head teachers of state schools is by means of a competitive state exam among civil servant teachers who teach some of the subjects commended to the school and must be carried out in accordance with the principles of equality, notification, merit and capability.

154. In order to participate in the competition for the post of head teacher candidates must:

   a) Have at least five years' seniority as a civil servant state school teacher.

   b) Have at least five years' teaching experience as a civil servant state school teacher, in some of the subjects offered by the school to which the application is made.

   c) Be currently teaching in a state school one of subjects offered by the school to which the application is made, and at least one full year's seniority as from the date of the official announcement, within the boundary of the education authority which organised the selection.

   d) Present a leadership project which includes, among other things, the objectives, the lines of action, and an evaluation of the project.

155. The education authorities may waive compliance with some of the candidate requirements in paragraph 1 of this article in the case of specific schools of pre-primary education, small primary schools not offering all the courses, secondary education schools with less than eight units, which provide vocational education in arts, sports, languages, or adult education, and have less than eight teachers.

156. For the selection of head teachers in state schools, the education authorities must announce the competition for posts and establish the objective criteria and the procedure for evaluating the candidates' merits and the project presented. The selection is carried out in the school by a committee comprising representatives of the education authority and the corresponding school, and the education authority shall decide the total number of members of the committees. At least one third of the members of the committee shall be teachers chosen by the teachers' assembly and another third shall be chosen by and from the members of the school council who are not teachers.

157. The selection of the head teacher, which must take into account the objective evaluation of the academic and professional merits accredited by the applicants and the evaluation of the leadership project, shall be decided democratically by the members of the committee, in accordance with the criteria established by the education authorities. The selection committee shall first consider candidacies from teachers at the school, who shall be given preference. If there are no candidates from the school or if none of these candidates have been selected, the committee shall evaluate the candidacies of teachers from other schools.

158. The applicants who are selected must successfully complete an initial training programme, organized by the education authorities. However applicants who have at least two years' experience in a leadership post are exempt. The education authority shall appoint the candidate who successfully completes this programme as the head teacher of the corresponding school for a term of four years. The appointment of the head teacher may be renewed for periods of similar duration subject to a positive evaluation of the head teacher's performance at the end of each term of office. The criteria and procedures of this evaluation are public. Furthermore, the education authorities may establish a maximum limit for renewals of the term of office. If there are no candidates, as in the case of a new school, or the respective committee fails to select a candidate, the education authority may appoint a civil servant state teacher as the head teacher for a maximum period of four years.

5.7. School leadership positions (Q5.7)

159. School leadership, as we have seen, is a temporary appointment, subject to election and periodic evaluation. Recognition for the work performed by school leaders, other than the social recognition which school leaders themselves regard as not very relevant, is limited to, in the administrative area, the payment of a supplement, part of which they retain provided that they stay in the teaching profession, and that their experience in a leadership position is taken into account for other jobs in the state teaching profession.

160. School leadership is thus based more on moral and personal authority than on functional authority, which demands expending a significant amount of energy on personal relations which are not always satisfactory and quite often a source of stress. The only compensations which appear to retain school leaders is the initial commitment on appointment and the support they receive from and offer to other leaders in the school.

5.8. Evaluation and employment renewal of school leaders (Q5.8)

161. School leadership evaluations are carried out at the end of the four-year term of office and, normally, on the basis of the leadership project presented. Subject to a positive evaluation, they can consolidate part of the supplement paid and their leadership experience is taken into account for other positions (basically the schools inspectorate and specialist in school support services). However, there are very few real opportunities for promotion as it only affects a small, indeterminate percentage of school leaders. School leaders are not promoted from one type of school to another or to schools which provide different stages of education.

162. Due to a lack of specific studies, we do not know whether the school leadership evaluations at the end of the term of office take into account both the contextual factors which affected their performance and the results of the studies on the more effective, specific leadership practices for enhancing learning in schools. The evaluations are normally based on the reports prepared by the educational inspectorate and the results usually attach particular importance to a positive relationship with the education authority.

5.9. Leadership salary scales (Q5.9)

163. The salaries of school leaders have improved gradually, and are determined according to the stage of education and the size of the school. Table 13 shows the respective supplements for intermediate education schools. As can be observed, the specific remuneration depends on the size of the school and the autonomous community. The remuneration of school leaders in primary education would be 15-20% lower. In both cases, the supplements are usually about 20% of a teacher's salary.

164. Apart from the specific official remuneration, there are no other supplements, at least in the case of state education, which could recompense effective leadership performance or establish differences among school leaders. This factor of uniformity is probably due to the fact that the evaluation does not discriminate between schools and school leaders.

	A €	Intervalo A	B €	Intervalo B	C €	Intervalo C	D €	Intervalo D
Andalusia	403.14	> 32 groups	315.30	20 - 32 gps.	275.81	<20 groups		
Aragon	632.96	> 1800 stnt.	545.19	1001 - 1800	493.52	601 - 1000	446.76	< 601
Asturias	625.31	> 1800 stnt.	539.16	1001 - 1800	488.43	601 - 1000		< 601
Balearic Islands	621.33	> 1800 stnt.	535.17	1001 - 1800	484.45	601 - 1000	438.56	< 601
Canary Islands	636.48	> 1650 stnt.	566.12	901 - 1649	509.82	581 - 900	464.36	< 580
Cantabria	869.85	> 1000 stnt.	749.23	600 - 999	678.22	300 - 599	613.97	< 300
Castile and Leon	621.33	> 1800 stnt.	535.17	1001 - 1800	484.45	601 - 1000		< 601
Castile La Mancha	621.33	> 1800 stnt.	535.17	1001 - 1800	484.45	601 - 1000	438.56	< 601
Catalonia	754.09	> 30 groups	643.24	22 - 30 gps.	537.85	12 - 21 gps.	495.69	<12 gps
Ceuta-Melilla	621.33	> 1800 stnt.	535.17	1001 - 1800	484.45	601 - 1000	438.56	< 601
Basque Country	471.35	> 1800 stnt.	416.20	1001 - 1800	386.24	601-1000	358.46	< 601
Extremadura	621.33	> 1800 stnt.	535.17	1001 - 1800	484.45	601 - 1000	438.56	< 601
Galicia	621.33	> 1350 stnt.	535.17	750 - 1350	484.45	450 - 750	438.56	< 450
Madrid	895.82	> 57 groups	796.27	36 - 57 gps.	716.65	23 - 35 gps.	646.98	<23 gps
Murcia	621.33	> 1800 stnt.	535.17	1001 - 1800	484.45	601 - 1000	438.56	< 601
Navarra	635.83	> 1000 stnt.	581.33	500 - 1000	526.83	<500		
Rioja	659.32	> 1800 stnt.	567.89	1000 - 1800	514.05	601 - 1000	465.34	< 601
Valencia	628.76	> 1800 stnt.	541.57	1001 - 1800	490.24	601 - 1000	443.80	< 601

Table 13: School leadership supplements (2006)[2]

Source: Axia, Barcelona.

5.10. Other working conditions of school leaders (Q5.10)

165. There are no other differences between school leaders and teachers than those described in the above paragraphs. In any case, it should be mentioned that school leaders usually have a reduction of 5/8 to 12 hours a week in their teaching contact time, depending on the position and the type of school, to allow them more time for their leadership duties.

166. The position and working conditions of school leaders are clearly inferior to those enjoyed by leaders in other non-governmental organisations who normally work longer hours and have a more demanding timetable, but receive a higher remuneration and other types of incentives (spaces, retirement benefits, mobility, financial packages for health care, etc.)[3].

167. Their conditions are also inferior to those who hold leadership positions in other government organisations such as managers of health centres, welfare offices and other similar offices. Obviously, in this case, the lower remuneration of school leaders corresponds to the lower salaries of teachers (who have intermediate and higher degrees) compared to remuneration received by the employees (lawyers, economists, higher technical officers, etc.) in other governmental or local organisations (administrators, managers, higher-ranking officers, etc.).

---

[2] In some Communities the above amounts, which are paid as a single specific School Leadership supplement, are listed separately. In others such as Andalusia, it is included in the list of Specific Teaching Supplements received by all teachers (476.10 € in the year 2006) which means the comparative data is sometimes confusing.

[3] On the contrary, teachers' salaries, in both the state and private sector, are on average at the same level of remuneration as other professionals, although they are about 25% lower than the remuneration of professionals in the areas of technology and business management (Sanz *et al*, 2003:59).

5. 11. School leaders' expectations and views (Q5.11)

168. The leadership role is seen as stressful on account of the disputes on the functions involved and the lack of time to develop them. The person who most suffers from stress is the head teacher followed by the head of studies and the school administrator (Armas, 1996). For this author the main causes of stress are related to: the feeling they are not well-prepared for the post, the disputes and decision-making in the performance of their leadership duties, lack of time, the pressure of ongoing reforms, personal relations, bureaucratic procedures and the lack of financial resources.

169. It is significant that school leaders and teachers agree that one of the main reasons for the lack of candidates is that after a period of school leadership, the head teacher has to return to the teaching and perform normal teaching duties (Gimeno, 1995).

5.12. Abandonment of activity as school leader (Q5.12)

170. In publicly owned schools, employment as a school leader may be terminated for any of the following reasons:

- Expiry of the term of office for which appointed or, where applicable, any extension thereof.

- Resignation for reasons accepted by the education authority.

- Sudden mental or physical incapacity.

- Dismissal by the competent education authority, of its own initiative or on a proposal from the school council, for a serious breach of the functions inherent to the post of head teacher, subsequent to a hearing with the interested party, and the school council.

171. School leaders who give up their leadership posts for any of the above reasons usually return to teaching. It seems they find it difficult to adapt, especially if they return to the same school where they held their leadership posts, although we have no knowledge of any studies on this problem. From a comparative point of view, the abandonment of the activity as school leader is more acute in large cities and secondary schools.

172. The study by Gimeno (1995) shows that more than half (63%) of the school leaders in primary and secondary schools regarded the term of office (at that time, 3 years) as appropriate, and 30% (mainly leaders in primary and vocational schools) were in favour of a longer term. The study also shows that only 6% of those interviewed did not want to renew the term of office, 51% were undecided, and 43% were willing to continue in the post.

173. The position of school leaders who abandon the activity is probably connected with the problems encountered. An exhaustive study of national and international research, which is presented by Murillo, *et al* (1999), systematizes, building on Villa, *et al* (1998), the conclusions of the research carried out:

- There is a great similarity between the autonomous communities and the countries analysed in relation to the problems linked to leadership practice.

- They especially coincide in the hierarchical structuring of the problems relating to internal matters, of which the most notable are the diversity of the tasks and effective time management.

- Activities relating to the educational policy of the education authority and the public perception of the school are hierarchically structured as external matters.

- A special feature in our country is the importance given to the management of curricular issues, as it probably coincided with the implementation of the LOGSE.

5.13. Retirement of school leaders (Q5.13)

174. The retirement age for school leaders is 65, which is the same for teachers. There are some exceptions such as the special programmes implemented under a number of education laws which allow them to retire 5 or 10 years earlier in certain circumstances. The situation in this regard has been the same over the past few decades.

5.14. Leadership succession (Q5.14)

175. Schools sometimes take the initiative and voluntarily organise peer coaching and mentoring processes for the persons involved. However, this situation is not very common and is subject to the willingness of the interested parties. The succession process is simplified by the fact that many of the candidates who apply for the post of head teacher have previously performed other leadership tasks.

5.15. Policy initiatives related to the recruitment and retention of effective school leaders (Q5.15)

176. Leadership planning and regulation has always been a matter of concern for those in charge of the education system. The initiatives developed are along the lines of extending the term of office, improving remuneration and reinforcing leadership authority. However, the dual role of head teachers (they represent both the education authority and the school) and direct elections are maintained.

177. It is possible to highlight some training initiatives that have more or less been developed. However, these initiatives are mainly initial training courses for head teachers and are usually of short duration. Many of the courses are based on earlier legislation which established certain certification requirements, which included training, in order to apply for and to be appointed to the post of head teacher.

5.16. Future priorities in attracting and retaining effective school leaders (Q5.16)

178. Policymakers, teachers and unions are becoming more and more aware that school leadership is a key factor in enhancing the quality in education and that it is linked to better school management. This reality will probably facilitate future leadership development, especially as far as training, working conditions, status and recognition are concerned.

6. TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LEADERS

This chapter aims to identify effective policies and practices to develop high quality school leaders, by exploring issues in relation to the structure, content, methods and effectiveness of existing preparation and development programmes.

6.1. Major concerns about school leaders' preparation, development or certification (Q6.1)

179. School leaders are, for the purposes of state schools, practising teachers and, therefore, career entry is conditional on teacher status. The pathway to a teaching position is through a "competitive state examination", whose contents and scope vary according to which specific stage of education (primary or secondary) candidates wish to apply.

180. The competitive part is to evaluate the relative merits of the applicant, measured on a scale which basically relates to professional experience. It only applies to those applicants who pass the state examination. The aim of the state examination is to evaluate the applicant's knowledge from both a 'scientific' (specific subject to be

taught) and a pedagogical point of view. The examination comprises three tests: a written paper on two topics chosen at random, one on the specific subject and the other on knowledge of the education system; and a practical test for some subjects such as Physical Education and Music. After successfully completing the above tests, the applicants have the opportunity to give a talk on a subject chosen by them from the 'scientific' part.

181. The scores obtained in the state examination phase are arranged in order to determine which candidates have passed the selection process. Subsequently, the score obtained in the competition phase is added. These applicants go on to become civil servant trainee teachers of the education authority. Throughout the following academic year they work as teachers on 'teaching practice' for a period of 12 months in a school. During this period they are tutored by other civil servant practising teachers who are designated for this purpose by the Qualifications Committees.

182. Besides this method of entry into the state education system, teachers can begin in the profession on temporary contracts, which do not have the advantages inherent to the civil servant post: continuity, mobility, salary, etc. The contracts are to cover posts that are vacant pending allocation and to provide supply teachers for short-term absences.

183. The regulations established by the LOE also provide for a new format of teacher training and certification. The initial training for teachers in different official subjects has been adapted to the graduate and postgraduate system in the European space of higher education, introducing the requirement to study postgraduate or masters courses after the corresponding degree or teaching diploma in order to become a teacher.

184. The protocol established for state education teachers does not apply to teachers in private education who are usually selected and directly hired by the owners of the school. The legal regulations on pay and working conditions for teachers in the private sector are, generally speaking, the same as those for any other worker. The applicable regulatory framework is the Workers' Statute (1980) as well as any relevant secondary legislation and, in particular, the Collective Bargaining Agreements for the subsidized and non-subsidized education sector.

185. The requirements to become a head teacher are described in paragraph 3.2. The LOE has established that applicants who are selected must successfully complete an initial training programme organised by the education authorities.

6.2. Pathways to become school leaders (Q6.2)

186. The pathway to school leadership is subject to the condition of teacher status (paragraph 6.1) and to the requirements and procedures described in paragraphs 3.2 and 5.5 above. It should be noted that whilst these requirements apply to state schools, they are not necessarily also applicable to privately owned schools.

187. It is only in private education that people from outside the sector can become school leaders.

6.3. Requirements to qualify for school leader positions (Q6.3)

188. The requirements for school leader positions have already been described in paragraphs 3.2 and 6.1. It should be explained that the requirements normally refer to head teachers, and do not apply to school leader positions such as head of studies, school administrator and secondary level school leaders (coordinators of cycles, departments, etc.). In the case of the head of studies and the school administrator, the school management usually proposes a number of people among the teachers of the educational centre without any technical criteria. Heads of studies and other school leaders are actually appointed by the education authority which takes into account the

proposal of the management.There are no specific requirements to qualify for leadership positions in the teaching departments or the cycles of education. In these cases, the head of studies proposes the candidates for the position, and the election falls to the school management. Nevertheless, in many schools, there is a tradition that the coordinators are elected by the members of the governance bodies.

189. Teachers take part in the elections of the intermediate leaders, and also in nomination processes for the post of head of studies and school administrator, in order to identify those persons who are most acceptable to the people they have to manage. However, this may create problems as it may not always be possible to form cohesive leadership teams who work and think along the same lines.

6.4. Basic regulatory framework that applies to school leadership preparation programmes (Q6.4)

190. At present, the only regulatory framework is a brief reference in article 136.1 of the LOE which provides, as mentioned above, that the applicants selected for the positions of school leaders have to successfully complete an initial training programme organized by the education authorities (paragraph 2). It should also be borne in mind that applicants who have at least two years' experience in a leadership position are exempt from the initial training programme.

6.5. Agencies and/or organizations that are involved in the development and evaluation of the training (Q6.5)

191. School leadership training is one of the least developed institutional issues up until now. Apart from the training courses for the purpose of achieving the required certification, several education authorities, universities and other institutions have designed and provided a variety of different training programmes and initiatives.

192. In recent years, the regional governments of Andalusia, the Canary Islands, the Basque Country, Catalonia, the community of Madrid and the Ministry of Education have developed, among other things, their own regulations and implemented leadership training programmes which are now quite established. The majority of the courses, which usually last 60 to 100 hours, are almost exclusively for practicing leadership teams.

193. Some of the education authority initiatives are to promote training actions which focus on administrative processes. There are also some courses on organisational skills that are based on Total Quality Management or similar models from the business world. The contents focus basically on formal aspects (school structure, administrative functions, tasks, legislation, etc.), but only a few of them deal with matters such as school climate, communication processes, decision making or dispute resolution. In some instances, they include practical work and a final report is required for the official course certification; certain programmes include evaluations.

194. A noteworthy initiative was developed in the period between 1993 and 1997 by the Directorate General of Pedagogical Renewal of the Ministry of Education and Science, which promoted courses (70 to 100 hours) for school leaders at territorial level based on theory, practical classes and a final project. The structure of the course, the methodology and the materials, which are still referred to today, deserved and deserve a special mention, as do the periodic evaluations of the same.

195. Furthermore, several universities (including, especially, the Autonomous of Barcelona, Barcelona, Comillas, the Complutense, Deusto, Las Palmas, the Basque Country, Santiago de Compostela, the UNED and Zaragoza) have also prepared training courses either on their own or in collaboration with the education authority of the autonomous community. In many cases, these courses take the form of a master's degree or typical

university modules of longer duration (250-500 hours) and are usually for diploma holders or graduates, although no previous experience in leadership is strictly required.

196. The objectives are more on issues related to transforming schools, pedagogical renewal, research skills and relationship structures. The contents of the courses are quite similar to those organised by the education authorities, although they also include topics such as organisational and curricular innovation, social psychology, communication processes and educational research, in accordance with the stated objectives.

197. Besides the abovementioned proposals, Murillo *et al* (1999) refer to offers from other institutions: teaching organisations, the National Institute of Public Administration, associated institutes of the UNED and town councils, as well as different types of foundations. They usually provide courses of a lower ranking, more varied as regards duration (ranging from 30 to 100 hours), format (they include intensive courses, conferences, etc.) and methodology (lectures, workshops, seminars, practical sessions, etc.). The core subjects are usually of a strictly monographic or general training nature, in which case they are more career or business orientated and include elements on management, resource allocation, as well as the role of schools and school leadership in organisational and educational reform. Nevertheless, in this type of programmes more emphasis is given to dispute resolution techniques, group dynamics, discussions regarding experiences and communication processes.

198. It is hoped that the regulatory framework of the LOE facilitates the development of effective training programmes in this area. The new realities call for courses, especially on subjects such as knowledge management, management by processes, staff development, self-management, intercultural leadership and organisational ethics.

6.6. Induction programmes for new school leaders (Q6.6)

199. There are no specific induction programmes for new school leaders. The only support currently provided is initial training and the offer of ongoing training.

6.7. Professional development options and programmes for school leaders (Q6.7)

200. The school leadership associations that have been established over the past decades as well as the European Forum on Educational Administration maintain spaces which try to address the concerns of school leaders. Some of the regular activities include the organisation of meetings, the promotion of study visits, publications, the creation of awards for research and the dissemination of best practices.

6.8. Effects of participation in professional development programmes (Q6.8)

201. The fact that there are no established professional development programmes is connected with the temporary nature of leadership. The most obvious effects are the lack of a professional career structure and an access to promotion programme.

6.9. Effectiveness of school leadership preparation and development programmes (Q6.9)

6.10. Policy initiatives to improve the quality of school leadership preparation, certification and development (Q6.10)

202. As explained in paragraph 6.7, there have been a number of diverse initiatives which have focused on leadership training but, on the basis of studies carried out, there is no evidence that they have had any impact on or provided real benefits to the education

system. It can be assumed that initial training, no matter how little, provides guidance for school leaders with respect to their functions and the way to carry them out.

203. Some autonomous communities have organised activities for school leaders that go beyond the general initiatives in connection with the development of school plans and programmes. Thus, for example, whenever the autonomous community of Catalonia implements school self-evaluation programmes or strategic plans in order to promote school autonomy, it always provides information/training sessions for the members of leadership teams involved. However, there are no systematic evaluations of the effects of these initiatives.

6.11. Priorities for future policy developments in school leadership preparation, certification and development (Q6.11)

204. The priorities identified in the training initiatives being carried out are directly related to the problems school leaders may have in their professional practice and to the developments which the educational stakeholders want to implement. Thus, training programmes usually include subjects such as school climate, commitment to diversity, the integration of immigrants, the use of new technologies and the opening up of schools to the educational community and to the wider community.

6.12. Recent innovations in relation to school leadership preparation and development programmes (Q6.12)

205. The initiatives are rather only partial and relate to the concerns of training institutions to provide a suitable response to the interests of this collective.

206. The University of Deusto has organised in-depth Seminars for school leaders that are held one day a month and cover matters of interest proposed by the school leaders themselves. Each training session has a lecturer who acts as an expert and a moderator on the subject.

207. The Autonomous University of Barcelona, the University of Barcelona as well as the University of Deusto, provide distance learning training programmes, whose contents are broadly similar. They are of particular interest, in any case, as they were the first e-learning initiatives for school leaders and provide them with a varied range of materials through the platform which serves as a support.

208. The knowledge management platform Accelera, developed by the Autonomous University of Barcelona (Gairín y Rodríguez, 2006), has incorporated the Atenea network for school leaders. The network deals with issues selected by the school leaders (bullying, teacher motivation, etc.) through a process which is similar to that found in quality management circles. School leaders work on issues that are of interest to them and within a maximum period of four months they are able to produce documents that can be directly used by the school leadership.

209. It should also be noted that Praxis publishers (Walter Kluwer group) has recently launched a Portal on school leadership and management. The Portal includes all its publications on these subjects, and provides a variety of consultation and information services for school leaders on school organisation issues.

7. CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides an overall assessment of policies regarding school leadership, and comments on trends and changes in policy which may be developed in the future.

Major strengths and weaknesses in current policy on school leadership (Q7.1).

210. The subject of school leadership in the Spanish education system has been, and is, open to debate. The main issues which affect it are synthesized below.

A. *Election or selection of school leaders?*

211. The election of the head teacher by the collegiate bodies of governance of the schools (school councils) was one of the important modifications introduced by the LODE (1985) which has lasted, with slight changes, right up to the present day.

212. The progressive implementation of school autonomy is fundamental for the new system. Now it needs a participative, forward-driving school leadership to coordinate actions designed to provide expert support for the collaborative work of teachers, promote the participation of parents and manage any conflicts of interests that may arise.

213. As school are being offered greater autonomy, it seems only logical that the school community should take part in the election of school leaders, as they are ones who have to promote the collective project and achieve the aspirations of the different stakeholders. If the school community does not participate in the key processes: leadership, the approval and follow-up of the school project, the school's autonomy does not amount to much.

214. In order to create and develop a school (and, therefore, an education) which is close to the local context and the users demands a participative school leadership. In order to defend it implies strengthening the structures on which it is based (real educational communities responsible for the running of the school), but also to establish the limits and clarify the conditions in which the election of school leaders is possible and appropriate.

B. *A teaching role versus a leadership role?*

215. No one doubts that teaching requires some specific qualities, preparation and experience. If that is the case, why are questions raised about the need for specific leadership training or the value of leadership experience?

216. Effective school leadership requires that the professionals associated with it are highly skilled, totally dedicated and recognised as the best people for the job. In addition, the selected leaders must have mechanisms for adequate professional leadership development. The LOE establishes that the selection and appointment of head teachers of state schools is carried out by means of a competition for posts among civil servant teachers who teach some of the subjects commended to the school. This selection shall be performed in accordance with the principles of equality, publicity, merit and capability.

C. *Head teachers from inside or outside the school?*

217. The development of educational communities that are well-established and prominent in the wider community is not inconsistent with bringing in leaders from other institutions to take on the leadership of a certain school. The aim is to choose the best person for the post who may not always be a teacher from the school who wants to fill the leadership position.

218. Respect for school autonomy and the selection processes should, in any case, be able to guarantee that those persons from outside the school, who try to identify themselves with the leadership, will know the context, accept the educational project of the school and present a leadership programme so that their contribution to improving and developing the school project can be evaluated.

219. In this regard, the LOE provides that the selection of the head teacher shall first consider the candidacies of teachers from the school, who shall be given preference. If there are no candidates from the school or they have not been selected, candidates from other schools shall be considered. This selection shall be carried out democratically by a committee comprising representatives of the education authority and the corresponding school. The committee shall take into account an objective evaluation of the academic and professional merits accredited by the applicants and an evaluation of the leadership project in accordance with the criteria established by the education authorities.

220. We must not forget that the most highly regarded requirements for the leadership post are prior experience in leadership positions as well as experience in pedagogical coordination tasks; and also that 36.9% of teachers say they are in favour of leaders from outside[4] and only 17.7% reject the idea (Sáenz y Debón, 2000).

D. *Permanent or temporary head teachers?*

221. The idea of permanent head teachers brings back memories, in the Spanish context, of the times when the "Official Body of Hed Teachers" existed, which, in some cases, was associated with an autocratic style of leadership and ideological control that the political regime at the time upheld.

222. However, when we say 'permanent' we are not referring to static situations rather to stable situations. From this perspective, we can now consider the appropriate duration of the head teacher's term of office, the possibility of continuing in the same school and any limitations to tenure, as well as the evaluation processes which guarantee the quality of school leadership.

223. Although the current legislation (LOE) provides that the term of office of the head teacher shall be for a period of four years, the appointment may be renewed for similar periods of time, subject to a positive evaluation of the performance at the end of the same. The criteria and procedures of this evaluation shall be public. It should also be noted that the education authorities may set a maximum limit for renewing terms in office.

224. Hence, participative leadership is neither better nor worse than other possible models; its value is self-evident and in how it fits in with the specific contexts and priorities established by the education system and/or the educational institution.

225. Participative leadership is, in any case, the answer provided by the Spanish education system, which participates in a democratic society and aspires to provide higher levels of school autonomy. It only remains, therefore to analyse the implications it has for entry processes, continuity, professionalisation, and initial and ongoing training.

7.2. Trends and changes that might be anticipated in future policy development (Q7.2)

226. Some of the proposals that could be made, taking into account the current framework and the opportunities, would be:

- To develop the model of participative leadership linked to the different levels of school autonomy which may be considered, thus favouring contextualised, non-standardised leadership.

- To open up leadership selection to professionals from other schools and experts in education, conditional on broad training requirements (such as a master's degree, as something desirable) and previous experience in intermediate leadership posts,

---

[4] See also the study carried out by the National Institute for Quality and Evaluation (INCE) in 1998, which shows that 92% are in favour of teachers from the same school.

and subject to the presentation of a contextual leadership project linked to the school educational project, which must be approved by committees in which the recipient school is represented.

- To provide formal positions of authority for the school leaders who have been elected and to allow them to form their own teams with teachers from the school, and to notify the School Council and the Education Authority.

- To guarantee leadership stability but not unlimited tenure in the post. Although subject to periodic assessment, improvements in student educational attainment, school climate and public perception must be taken into account.

- To promote and drive school leadership at the present time demands decisive actions from the system which take into account the professional development aspects of leadership and not only financial matters.

8. GLOSSARY

ANNUAL GENERAL PLAN OF THE SCHOOL: also known as the Annual School Plan, it refers to the annual planning carried out by schools and sets out the objectives to be achieved and the activities (the school calendar, organisation of the group of teachers, student and teacher timetables, excursions and extracurricular activities, budgets, etc.).

AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY (CC.AA.): region with the autonomy to manage its own affairs. (Spanish Constitution, Article 137).

BACCALAUREATE: relating to the stage of education for students whose average age is between 16 and 17 years old, both inclusive.

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENT: document which sets out the agreements adopted in the collective bargaining negotiations between the employees and the employers.

COMPETITIVE STATE EXAMINATION: selection procedure which is a combination of evaluation of merits and passing examinations.

COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION: relating to the stage of education for students whose average age is between 12 and 15 years old, both inclusive.

EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY: administrative structure between the policymaking bodies and the organizations which are notified of their decisions (normally, schools).

EDUCATIONAL PROJECT OF THE SCHOOL: a programme which sets out the principles of the school, the priorities, the organisational structure and the curriculum planning guidelines.

ELECTION OF SCHOOL LEADERS: process which implies the participation and voting of several people in the selection of school leaders.

IMPACT ASSESSMENT: evaluation of the effects of an action programme on a job/position or on the context.

LABOUR FORCE: group of people over the age of 16 with the capacity to perform an economic activity capable of generating added value.

LEADERSHIP TEAM: comprising the head teacher, the head of studies and the school administrator, it has the maximum responsibility for management in educational institutions.

OWNERSHIP: legal ownership of an educational institution.

PISA: the Programme for International Student Assessment is promoted by the OECD and is considered a periodical, comparative international study of student performance. The first PISA assessment took place in the year 2000 (with reading as the main area of assessment), the second in 2003 (maths), and two new assessments are anticipated, one in 2006 (science) and 2009, recommencing the cycle with an assessment of reading. Currently, 57 countries are taking part.

POPULATION CENSUS: organised, exhaustive compilation of all the buildings, homes and people resident in Spain at a particular moment in time. The National Institute of Statistics (Instituto Nacional de Estadística) is normally in charge of this.

PRIMARY EDUCATION: relating to the stage of education for students whose average age is between 6 and 11 years old, both inclusive.

SCALE: a whole range of scoring criteria used in a selection process.

SCHOOL COUNCIL: participative bodies with representatives from different stakeholders, such as the State Schools Council, autonomous community school councils, regional school councils, municipal school councils, and the school councils of the schools.

TIMSS: Trends in International Maths and Science Studies is one of the assessments carried out every 4 years by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational

Performance (IEA). 45 countries participated in the first evaluation in 1995, and 51 countries in the latest evaluation in 2003.

UNEMPLOYED: part of labour force in a situation of unemployment, whether or not covered by aid or benefits from the public administrations.

9. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alemay, M.C. (1995): *Sobre la invisibilidad y la ignorancia en la estimación del saber*. In **Invisibilidad y presencia: Seminario Internacional "Género y trayectoria profesional del profesorado universitario**. Madrid: Instituto de Investigaciones Feministas, Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

Almohalla, J. M., *et al* (1991): *Informe sobre la investigación del perfil y la función directiva en los centros escolares*. In **Revista de Educación**, 294, 477-482.

Álvarez, M. (1997): *La dirección educativa profesional*. In **Cuadernos de Pedagogía**, 262, 58-61.

Armas, M. (1996): *Evaluación de la satisfacción, estrés y autoestima de los directivos escolares*. In **Dirección participativa y evaluación de centros, Actas del II Congreso Internacional sobre dirección de centros docentes**. Bilbao: ICE de la Universidad de Deusto, 419-429.

Bardisa, T. (1995): **La dirección de centros públicos de enseñanza: estudio de su representación social y estimación de necesidades**. Unpublished research report. Madrid: CIDE.

Barquín, J. and Melero, M.A. (1994): *Feminización y profesión docente. Internalización sexista del trabajo*. In **Revista de Investigación en la Escuela**, 22. Madrid.

Carmena, G. and Regidor, J. G. (1980): **La escuela en el medio rural**. Unpublished research report. Madrid: CIDE.

Coronel, J. M.. (1992): **La facilitación del cambio en los centros escolares: un estudio de caso sobre el papel del director en los procesos de gestión mejora escolar**. Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla (unpublished doctoral thesis).

Coronel, J.M. (1996):**La investigación sobre el liderazgo y procesos de cambio en centros educativos**. Huelva: Universidad de Huelva.

CSIC (1981): **La calidad de la Educación**. Madrid: Instituto de Pedagogía San José de Calasanz.

Debón, S. (1997): La dirección escolar en España. Una función en decadencia, Teoría y procesos del deterioro. Granada: Departamento de Didáctica y Organización escolar, Universidad de Granda (unpublished doctoral thesis).

Díez, E.J., *et al* (2003): *La mujeres y el poder en las organizaciones educativas*. In **Organización y Gestión educativa**. Madrid: Forum Europeo de Administradores de la Educación-Praxis, 3, 44-51.

Eguskiza, M.J. (1996): *Mujeres y gestión educativa*. In Gairín, J. y Darder, P. (Coords): **Organización y Gestión de Centros educativos**. Barcelona: Praxis, 292/85- 292/91.

Estruch, J. (2002a): **Dirección profesional y calidad educativa**. Barcelosn: CISS-Praxis.

Estruch, J. (2002b): *Hacia la profesionalización de la dirección de centros escolares*. In **Revista de Educación**, 329, 77-90.

Gago, F. (2006) **La Dirección Pedagógica En Los Institutos De Enseñanza Secundaria. Un Estudio Sobre Liderazgo Educacional**. Madrid: CIDE-Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.

Gairín, J. (1988): *Currículo para la formación de directores*. In Pascual, R. (Editor): **La gestión educativa ante la innovación y el cambio Actas del II Congreso Mundial Vasco**. Madrid: Narcea, 237-244.

Gairín, J. (1991): *La dirección participativa*. In **Cuadernos de Pedagogía**, 189, 26-27.

Gairín, J. (1995): **Estudio de las necesidades de formación de los equipos directivos de los centros educativos**. Madrid: CIDE.

Gairín, J. (1998a): *La colaboración entre centros educativos.* In Gairín, J. y Darder, P. (Editors)**: Organización y gestión centros educativos**. Barcelona: Praxis, Febrero, pages 82-177, 82-202.

Gairín, J. (1998 b): *Estadios de desarrollo organizativo: de la organización como estructura a la organización que aprende*. In Lorenzo, M., *et al* (editor) (1999): **Enfoques comparados en Organización y Dirección de Instituciones Educativas**. Volumen I. Grupo Editorial Universitario, Granada, pages 47-91.

Gairín, J. (Ed.) (2005): **Procesos de cambio en los centros educativos a partir de evaluaciones internacionales**. Madrid: Centro de Información y Documentación Educativa. (polycopied document)

Gairín, J. *et al* (2002): **Avaluació externa del Sistema de Formació Ocupacional.** Barcelona: Generalitat de Catalunya, Departament de Treball (internal document).

Gairín, J. and Rodríguez, D. (2006): *La gestión del conocimiento en red***.** In **Formación sin distancia.** Madrid. Servicio Público de empleo, 310-315.

Gairín, J., and Villa, A. (1999) **Los Equipos Directivos de los Centros Docentes**. Bilbao: ICE Universidad de Deusto.

Gil, F. (1999): **Indicadores sobre entorno y procesos escolares**. Madrid: INCE.

Gimeno, J., *et al* (1995): **La dirección de centros: análisis de tareas**. Madrid: CIDE.

Gimeno, J., and Carbonell, J. (2004) **El Sistema Educativo. Una Mirada Crítica**. Barcelona, Cisspraxis ed.

Gómez, C. and Casado, E. (2003): *Las mujeres en los cargos del sistema educativo*. In **Organización y Gestión educativa**. Madrid: Forum Europeo de Administradores de la Educación- Praxis, 3, 41-43.

Grañeras, M. (2003): *Las mujeres en los equipos directivos de los centros escolares de España*. In **Organización y Gestión educativa**. Madrid: Forum Europeo de Administradores de la Educación- Praxis, 3, 15-20.

Hallinger, P. and Heck, R. (1998): *Exploring the principal's contribution to school effectiveness*. In **School Effectiveness and School Improvement**, 9 (2), 157-191.

Ibar, M. G., *et al* (1978): **Estudio económico de los centros de enseñanza no estatal en la provincia de Navarra**. Unpublished research report. Madrid: CIDE.

Isaacs, D. (1987): **Teoría y práctica de la dirección de los centros educativos**. Pamplona: Eunsa.

Isaacs, D., *et al* (1978): **Instrumentos y procedimientos para un análisis de la situación en los centros educativos**. Unpublished research report. Madrid: CIDE.

Organic Law 2/2006, of 3 May, on Education. [LOE] Available at http://me.mec.es/me/servlet/DocumentFileManager?document=45762&file=00001000.pdf

López Fernández, J.A. (1998): **La Inspección vista por los inspectores**. Research report. Licencia de estudios 197-98.

López, J., Sánchez, M., Murillo P., Lavié, J. M., and Altopiedi, M. (2003) **Dirección de Centros Educativos. Un enfoque basado en el análisis del sistema educativo.** Madrid: Síntesis.

Ministry of Education and Science (2005) **Datos y Cifras**. Academic Year 2005/2006. Available at http://www.mec.es/mecd/jsp/plantilla.jsp?id=35&area=estadisticas.

Ministry of Education and Science (2006): **Datos básicos de la educación en España en el curso 2006-2007**. Madrid: Secretaría General Técnica.

Montero, M. (2006): **La dirección de centros en el sistema educativo**. Barcelona: Praxis (polycopied document).

Muñoz Arroyo, A. (1997): **Valoración del rendimiento de centros escolares en EGB**. Unpublished research report. Madrid: CIDE.

Muñoz Repiso, M., *et al* (1995): **Calidad de la educación y eficacia de la escuela. Estudio sobre la gestión de los recursos educativos.** Madrid: CIDE.

Muñoz Repiso, M. (2003): *Mujeres, educación y toma de decisiones en la Unión Europea*. In **Organización y Gestión educativa**. Madrid: Forum Europeo de Administradores de la Educación- Praxis, 3, 26-31.

Murillo, F. J. (1996): *¿Son eficaces nuestras escuelas?* In **Cuadernos de Pedagogía**, 246, 66-72.

Murillo, F. J., *et al* (1999): **La dirección escolar. Análisis e investigación**. Madrid: CIDE.

OECD (2003): **Informe PISA 2003. Aprender para el mundo de mañana**, Madrid: Santillana.

Pérez, Mª. Jesús. (2005) **Evaluación de la Educación Primaria 2003.** Madrid: Instituto Nacional de Evaluación y Calidad del Sistema Educativo.

Pérez, Pérez, R. (1998): *Crisis en la dirección de las instituciones docentes. Una visión histórico-cultural*. In **Las organizaciones ante los retos educativos del siglo XXI. Actas V Congreso Interuniversitario de Organización de Instituciones Educativas**. Madrid. Departamentos de Didáctica y Organización de las Universidades de Alcalá, Complutense y UNED, 305-324.

Saénz, O. and Debón, S. (1999): **Estudio crítico dela dirección escolar en España**. In Bordón, 52 (1), 107-122.

Santos Guerra, M.A. (1994): **Entre bastidores. El lado oculto de la organización escolar.** Málaga, Archidona: Aljibe.

Santos Guerra, M.A. (2000): *Yo tengo que hacer la cena. La mujer y el gobierno de los centros escolares*. In Santos Guerra, M.A. (Editor): **El harén pedagógico. Perspectiva de género en las organización escolar**, Barcelona: Graó,53-69.

Sanz, V., *et al* (2003): **Attracting, selecting, training and retaining effective teachers in Spain**. Thematic report for the OECD.

Sobrado, L.M. (1978): **Diagnóstico de necesidades y análisis de modelos de programas en la formación de directivos de centros de E.G.B**. Research report. Madrid: CIDE.

Villa, A. and Gairín. J. (1996): *Funcionamiento de los equipos directivos. Análisis y reflexión a partir de una investigación empírica*. In **Dirección participativa y evaluación de centros, Actas del II Congreso Internacional obre Dirección de Centros Docentes**. Bilbao: ICE-Universidad de Deusto, 489-555.

Villa, A. and García, A. (2003): *El procedimiento de acceso a la dirección. Reflexiones y propuestas para el debate*. In **Organización y Gestión educativa**, 2, 4-14.

Villa, A. and Villardón, L. (1998a): *El rol del liderazgo en la dirección actual*. In Villa, A., *et al*: **Principales dificultades de la dirección de centros educativos en los primeros años de ejercicio**. Bilbao: ICE de la Universidad de Deusto, 65-107.

Villa, A. and Villardón, L. (1998b): *La dirección de centros docentes en el País Vasco. Primeros años de ejercicio*. In Villa, A., *et al*: **Principales dificultades de la dirección de centros educativos en los primeros años de ejercicio**. Bilbao: ICE de la Universidad de Deusto, 183-219.

10. APPENDICES

10.1. Significant data and statistics from the Ministry of Education and Science

Changes in the number of students enrolled in the General System of Education

	Academic Years			
	1996-97	**2001-02**	**2005-06**[1]	**2006-07**[2]
Total	**9,046,600**	**8,358,346**	**8,421,382**	**8,847,158**
Non-university Education	**7,496,288**	**6,832,357**	**6,577,671**	**7,049,762**
Pre-primary Education	1,115,244	1,223,280	1,483,190	1,537,967
First cycle of Pre-primary Education[3]	68,111	126,253	222,775	239,320
Second cycle of Pre-primary Education	1,047,133	1,097,027	1,260,415	1,298,647
Primary Education	2,682,894	2,474,261	2,481,687	2,517,513
Special Education	29,236	27,090	29,196	29,785
Compulsory Secondary Education (ESO)	1,635,850[4]	1,897,912	1,843,844	1,831,366
Baccalaureate and Vocational Education	2,033,054	1,209,814	1,139,654	1,133,131
Former Secondary Education for 14-17 year-olds (BUP) and University Entrance Course (COU)	1,106,041[5]	13,142	—	—
Baccalaureate	153,836	676,107	605,687	600,546
Baccalaureate & BUP/COU (distance learning)	48,454	25,141	35,388	37,632
Vocational Education First Level	232,113	—	—	—
Vocational Education Second Level	369,359	29,296	—	—
Education Cycles Intermediate Level / Modules II	48,609	211,233[6]	230,030	229,007
Education Cycles Higher Level / Modules III	54,455	208,935	217,160	212,060
Vocational Education Cycles (distance learning)	938	2,044	6,605	7,636
Social Guarantee Programmes	17,229	43,916	44,883	46,150
University Education	**1,549,312**	**1,526,989**	**1,443,811**	**1,423,396**
Short Cycle	532,188	578,713	569,672	565,769
Long Cycle	1,017,124	947,276	874,139	857,627

(1) Advance figures.

(2) Estimated figures.

(3) Students enrolled in educational institutions recognised by the Education Authorities.

(4) Includes 464 384 students in 8th course of the former Basic General Education (EGB).

(5) Includes 27 257 students in Baccalaureate Pilot Project.

(6) Includes 483 students in crossover course to the Higher Level Education Cycles.

SOURCE: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures, 2005-06. MEC.

Students enrolled in the Special System of Education. Academic Year 2005-06 [1]

	Total	% State Schools
TOTAL	**666,838**	**92.2**
Plastic Arts and Design Education	**22,859**	**91.8**
Plastic Arts and Design. Intermediate Level Education cycle	3,254	97.8
Plastic Arts and Design. Higher Level Education cycle	15,593	89.8
Higher Studies in Plastic Arts and Design	4,012	95.1
Music Education	**236,540**	**83.7**
Music Education. Elementary Level	42,082	85.8
Music Education. Intermediate Level	36,408	91.5
Music Education. Higher Level	7,127	92.5
Unregulated Music Education (2)	150,943	80.8
Dance Education.	**24,709**	**69.6**
Dance Education. Elementary Level	3,818	82.9
Dance Education. Intermediate Level	2,727	87.3
Dance Education. Higher Level	547	83.0
Unregulated Dance Education [2]	17,619	49.5
Dramatic Art Education	**1,504**	**97.9**
Education provided by the Official Schools of Languages	**369,484**	**100.0**
Sports Education	**1,642**	**44.7**

(1) Advance figures.

(2) Education not leading to academic or professional certification, provided by official schools regulated by the Education Authorities.

SOURCE: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures, 2005-06. MEC.

Changes in numbers of foreign students enrolled

	Academic Years			
	1995-96	**2000-01**	**2004-05**	**2005-06**[1]
Total	**68,197**	**165,967**	**481,492**	**654,082**
Non-university Education	**57,406**	**141,916**	**469,291**	**629,461**
Nursery /Pre-primary Education	9,572	24,571	85,799	93,299
Primary Education	38,397	59,366	198,165	228,072
Special Education	150	428	1,572	2,028
Compulsory Secondary Education	2,490	38,163	124,714	146,387
Baccalaureate	4,518	7,066	19,160	21,828
Vocational Education	2,279	4,574	19,255	24,063
Special System of Education	__	4,668	10,626	13,784
Unlisted education (General System of Education)	__	3,060	__	__
University Education (1st and 2nd cycle)	**10,791**	**14,061**	**22.201**	**24,621**

(1) Advance figures.

SOURCE: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures, 2005-06. MEC.

Changes in numbers of teachers enrolled

	Academic Years			
	1996-97	**2001-02**	**2005-06**	**2006-07**[1]
Non-university Education Teachers	**488,416**	**538,581**	**584,448**	**605,141**
Teachers in State Education	361,353	393,375	425,822	443,470
Primary School Teachers	214,056	223,722	243,889	244,770
Secondary School Teachers	127,855	149,543	170,964	175,987
Vocational Education Teachers	19,432	20,110	20,969	22,713
Teachers in Subsidized and Private	127,033	145,306	157,628	182,671
State Universities Teachers[2]	**70,600**	**84,370**	**89,305**	**90,867**

(1)   Predicted figures.

(2)   Includes estimated data for contract Teaching staff as from academic year 2001-02.

SOURCE: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures, 2005-06. MEC.

Percentage of students and average number of students per unit according to ownership/finance. Academic year 2004-05

	State Education		Subsidized Education		Private Education	
	% Students	Ratio	% Students	Ratio	% Students	Ratio
Primary Education	66.7	19.4	29.6	24.2	3.7	22.8
Compulsory Secondary Education	66.3	23.8	30.4	26.9	3.3	23.4

SOURCE: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures, 2005-06. MEC.

Grants awarded by the whole of the Education Authorities[1]

	Grant holders			Amount (thousands €)		
School Year	**Total**	**Non-university Education**	**University Education**	**Total**	**Non-university Education**	**University Education**
1999-00	540,603	281,881	258,722	555,181	152,507	402,674
2000-01	551,248	288,597	262,651	643,971	187,718	456,253
2001-02	583,570	322,511	261,059	684,857	201,449	483,408
2002-03	623,840	385,263	238,577	709,484	225,532	483,952
2003-04	654,289	417,593	236,696	762,985	274,740	488,245

(1) Not including funding for students in compulsory education or parents with three children who are exempt from school fees.

SOURCE: Educational Statistics. Statistics and Figures, 2005-06. MEC.

10.2. Significant data and statistics from the European Union

European Union Perspective		
Distribution of the numbers of students in Primary and Secondary Education by ownership/education finance. Academic Year 2003-04		
	% State Education	**% Subsidized Education**	**% Non-subsidized Private education**
European Union	..	..	..
Germany	93.9	..	..
Belgium	42.7	57.3	..
Spain	69.6	25.8	4.6
Finland	94.7	5.3	_
France	78.7	20.9	0.4
Greece	92.8	..	7.2
Italy	94.4	0.4	5.2
Holland	23.5	76.5	_
Poland	94.4	0.4	5.2
Portugal	87.6	3.9	8.5
United Kingdom	59.4	36.6	4.0
Sweden	93.9	6.1	_

SOURCE: Eurostat.

Average number of students per teacher. Academic Year 2003-04

	Primary Education	**Secondary Education First stage**	**Secondary Education Second stage**
European Union	..	..	..
Germany	18.8	15.6	13.9
Belgium	12.9	10.6	9.2
Spain	14.3	12.9	8.0
Finland	16.3	10.0	16.2
France	19.4	14.1	10.4
Greece	11.3	8.2	8.4
Italy	10.7	10.3	11.5
Holland	15.9	..	15.8
Poland	..	..	..
Portugal	11.1	10.0	7.3
United Kingdom	21.1	17.1	12.6
Sweden	12.1	11.9	14.0

SOURCE: Eurostat.

Expenditure per student in state educational institutions in relation to GDP, by inhabitant and level of education. Year 2003

	Total	Primary Education	Secondary Education	Higher Education
European Union	**25.1**	**20.2**	**25.1**	**38.2**
Germany	22.7	16.7	19.2	42.4
Belgium	27.0	23.5	28.0	37.8
Spain	28.0	22.3	30.4	37.5
Finland	25.2	18.8	25.9	43.7
France	26.7	18.1	32.7	37.4
Greece	22.0	16.7	24.1	23.8
Italy	28.2	26.8	28.9	31.9
Holland	..	..	..	..
Poland	..	..	..	..
Portugal	29.9	24.6	34.5	38.7
United Kingdom	21.4	18.5	23.9	..
Sweden	27.4	24.6	25.4	54.2

SOURCE: Eurostat.

European Union Perspective: Point of Reference Indicators 2010

Educational dropout rate: Percentage of the population in the 18-24 age group that has not completed the second stage of secondary education and not involved in any type of education/training

	1995	2000	2004	2005
European Union	_	**17.7**	**15.6**	**15.2**
Germany	_	14.9	12.1	13.8
Belgium	15.1	12.5	11.9	13.0
Spain	33.8	29.1	31.7	30.8
Finland	..	8.9	8.7	9.3
France	15.4	13.3	14.2	12.6
Greece	22.4	18.2	14.9	13.3
Italy	32.8	25.3	22.3	21.9
Holland	..	15.5	14.0	13.6
Poland	..	..	5.7	5.5
Portugal	41.4	42.6	39.4	38.8
United Kingdom	..	18.4	14.9	14.0
Sweden	..	7.7	8.6	8.6

SOURCE: Eurostat.

Level of education of young people: Percentage of the population in the 20-24 age group that has completed at least the post-compulsory stage of Secondary Education

	1995	2000	2004	2005
European Union	_	**76.3**	**76.6**	**76.9**
Germany	79.4	74.7	72.8	71.0
Belgium	77.6	80.9	82.1	80.3
Spain	59.0	65.9	61.1	61.3
Finland	82.4	87.8	84.6	84.8
France	78.6	81.6	79.8	82.8
Greece	73.8	79.3	81.9	84.0
Italy	58.9	68.8	72.9	72.9
Holland	..	71.7	74.2	74.6
Poland	..	87.8	89.5	90.0
Portugal	45.1	42.8	49.0	48.4
United Kingdom	64.0	76.4	76.4	77.1
Sweden	88.1	85.2	86.3	87.8

SOURCE: Eurostat.

Graduates in Science and Technology: Number of Higher Education graduates in Science and Technology per 1000 inhabitants in the 20-29 age group

	1995	2000	2003	2004
European Union	_	**10.2**	**12.3**	**12.7**
Germany	9.3	8.2	8.4	9.0
Belgium	..	9.7	11.0	11.2
Spain	5.8	9.9	12.6	12.5
Finland	13.0	16.0	17.4	..
France	..	19.6	22.0	..
Greece	..	..	..	8.0
Italy	2.9	5.7	9.0	10.1
Holland	5.6	5.8	7.3	7.9
Poland	..	6.6	9.0	9.4
Portugal	3.9	6.3	8.2	11.0
United Kingdom	13.5	16.6	21.0	18.1
Sweden	7.3	11.6	13.9	15.9

SOURCE: Eurostat.

Lifelong learning: Percentage of the population in the 25-64 age group that participates in education and training

	1995	2000	2004	2005
European Union	..	**7.9**	**10.3**	**11.0**
Germany	..	5.2	7.4	8.2
Belgium[1]	2.8	6.8	9.5	10.0
Spain[2]	4.3	5.0	5.1	12.1
Finland	..	19.6	24.6	24.8
France	2.9	2.8	7.8	7.6
Greece	0.9	1.1	2.0	1.8
Italy[2]	3.8	5.5	6.8	6.2
Holland	13.1	15.6	17.3	16.6
Poland	..	..	5.5	5.0
Portugal[2]	3.3	3.4	4.8	4.6
United Kingdom	..	21.0	29.1	29.1
Sweden	..	21.6	33.3	

(1) 2004: Break in series

(2) 2005: Break in series

SOURCE: Eurostat.

Total public expenditure on education in relation to GDP [1]

	1995[2]	2000	2002	2003
European Union	..	**4.71**	**5.14**	**5.21**
Germany	4.62	4.45	4.70	4.71
Belgium	..	..	6.11	6.06
Spain	4.66	4.28	4.25	4.29
Finland	6.85	6.08	6.34	6.51
France	6.04	5.83	5.81	5.91
Greece	2.87	3.71	3.90	3.94
Italy[2]	4.85	4.47	4.62	4.74
Holland	5.06	4.86	4.86	5.07
Poland	5.10	4.87	5.42	5.62
Portugal	5.37	5.42	5.54	5.61
United Kingdom	5.02	4.64	5.24	5.38
Sweden	7.22	7.31	7.59	7.47

(1) Calculated in accordance with international methodology

(2) The year 1995 is calculated in relation to the GDP in 1996; the other years in relation to the GDP in 2000

SOURCE: Eurostat.

10.3. Other statistical data

Total Public Expenditure on Education, by educational activity (thousands of euros)

	1995	2000	2003
Total	**20,608,633**	**27,406,989**	**33,938,149**
NON-UNIVERSITY EDUCATION	**14,402,971**	**18,927,260**	**23,472,118.8**
Preprimary and Primary Education / Basic General Ed.	6,912,031	8,408,906	9,530,468.4
Secondary, Vocational and Special System of Ed.	5,417,707	8,230,874	10,747,576.7
Special Education[1]	367,164	398,082	667,235.2
Adult Education	161,782	211,567	242,503.4
Other Education	218,738	44,000	30,059
Education Abroad	81,696	88,783	100,621
Supplementary services & Remedial education	422,118	612,591	805,555.4
Extracurricular activities and associated activities	280,575	147,488	311,988.1
Teacher training & professional development	143,360	184,820	187,569.8
Educational research	13,817	11,938	20,678.2
General administration	383,983	588,211	827,863.6

(1)   Until 2002, part of the expenditure on Special Education was included in Primary and Secondary Education

	PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS					SECONDARY EDUCATION TEACHERS				
	Less than 30 years old	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	over 60	Less than 30 years old	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	over 60
TOTAL	**13.4**	**22.9**	**33.4**	**26.6**	**3.8**	**7.5**	**32.5**	**31.9**	**19.2**	**3.6**
STATE SCHOOLS										
Total	10.9	21.4	36.1	28.5	3.2	5.5	30.9	35.3	20.7	3.0
PRIVATE SCHOOLS										
Total	20.0	26.9	26.0	21.5	5.6	12.6	36.3	23.5	15.6	5.3

(1)   Data for 2002-03 academic year with slight adjustments

SOURCE: Education figures for Spain. Statistics & Indicators. Published 2006. Statistics Office of the MEC

Non-teaching activities of head teachers (1996)

Hours per week spent on non-teaching tasks
(Head teachers' estimations)

	Pedagogical Leadership		Administrative and organisational tasks		Meeting with parents		Professional development		Other non-teaching activities	
Austria	9.7	29%	13.9	41%	3.5	11%	4.2	14%	2.1	6%
Belgium	9.4	24%	17.3	45%	4.9	13%	3.8	10%	3.9	10%
Spain	**5.0**	**27%**	**6.8**	**37%**	**2.8**	**16%**	**2.7**	**15%**	**1.4**	**6%**
Finland	7.0	29%	9.1	38%	2.2	11%	2.9	13%	2.3	10%
France	6.3	33%	7.4	39%	2.4	13%	1.8	11%	1.1	5%
Greece	4.1	26%	5.3	34%	2.5	16%	3.0	16%	1.4	8%
Holland	8.9	25%	14.1	41%	4.0	12%	4.5	13%	3.2	9%
Ireland	5.2	21%	9.1	36%	3.0	14%	2.9	14%	3.2	16%
Italy	12.2	27%	19.2	43%	5.0	11%	6.4	14%	2.0	4%
Norway	9.4	26%	17.7	48%	3.1	8%	3.4	9%	3.2	9%
Portugal	5.9	28%	7.3	39%	2.1	14%	2.4	14%	1.4	7%
Sweden	9.1	22%	21.1	49%	4.0	10%	4.7	11%	4.1	9%

Data weighted according to number of students in primary education affected.

SOURCE: OECD; Non-teaching activities of head teachers (Gil, 1999: Chapter 3.2)