IMPROVING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT FOR PORTUGAL

MINISTRYOF EDUCATION
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i. This report was prepared by the Portuguese Ministry of Education for the Project “Improving School Leadership” of the Education Committee of the OECD and is based on a study commissioned from Professor João Barroso, Professor Natércio Afonso and Luís Leandro Dinis, PhD researcher at the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences at the University of Lisbon.

ii. The study follows the guidelines set out in the document “Improving School Leadership. Guidelines for Country Participation” and is organized into seven chapters: Chapter I: The national context of schooling; Chapter II: Overall description of the school system; Chapter III: School governance and leadership; Chapter 4: Enhancing learning and school leadership; Chapter 5: The attractiveness of school leaders’ role; Chapter 6: Training and professional development of school leaders; Chapter 7: Conclusions.

iii. Each chapter presents a brief description of the essential information on the current situation by theme, based on the legal framework and available data and, where possible, a short analysis. At the end of the report is an appendix with supporting data.

iv. For the purposes of the report and in view of the Portuguese context, we have considered “school leader” to mean the President of the Executive Council of the relevant management structure, whether this be a single school or a group of schools.

v. Portugal comprises the territory belonging to continental Europe together with the two archipelagos of Madeira and the Azores. It is a unitary state and a constitutional republic. Territorially and demographically, Portugal is in the middle of the scale within the European context, a position which is declining in economic terms. This situation has been aggravated by weak figures for economic growth over the last 7-8 years. The rise in the unemployment rate (affecting women and young people disproportionately), the increase in the cost of living (affecting the middle and lower-middle classes in particular), the associated demographic changes, with a tendency to rapid ageing of the population, the drift to the coast, the growth of suburbs and the rise in immigration are all factors affecting the perception and breadth of social and cultural change, which are reflected in the organization and functioning of institutions such as the family and schools.

vi. The most significant recent development in education in Portugal came with the Revolution of the 25th April 1974 which re-established democracy. Another important turning point was the country’s entry in 1986 into the European Community, now the European Union. In that time the education system underwent a process of ‘permanent reform’ characterized by continuous transformation (at times contradictory), backed up by strong financial investment both nationally and from the European Union which was translated, above all, into higher numbers of students, teachers and schools. The growth in school attendance rates was particularly evident in pre-school education, in compulsory education and in upper-secondary schools which subsequently led to a rise in the number of people going into higher education.
vii. One of the main characteristics of leadership in Portuguese schools is the preservation, since 1974, of the principle of peer election to the governing bodies of schools. This practice is clearly associated with the political and social movement that emerged from the revolution of the 25th of April 1974. It is not surprising, therefore, that the principle of electing school governing bodies constitutes one of the fundamentals of the so-called “democratic organisation”, an expression consecrated in the Constitution and Fundamental Law of the Education System of 1986. The legal regulatory framework for the administration and management of schools has been altered to promote the opening-up of school management to public scrutiny and accountability. This has been done through the participation of local council, community and parents' representatives on school and administrative committees, and by the mandatory requirement for strategic management plans - the school educational project, the school and class curricular project, and the annual programme of school activities. This has created space for the implementation of audit programmes, for internal and external inspections based on checking the implementation of standards and for mechanisms to ensure accountability.

viii. As in other OECD countries, Portugal has also been developing a discourse favourable to the growth of “strong leadership” in schools, with the ability to introduce the changes necessary for organizational improvement. However, there are no extensive studies which detail how this has been implemented in practice, nor its effects on the running of schools. Most of the research is based on case studies of school management or on the work of school heads and it is in this context that the question of leadership has been approached. The development of policies to improve learning through the strengthening of school leadership necessarily accords importance to the functions of the school leader at the level of policy-making, on strengthening school autonomy and in the key areas of curriculum design, pedagogical organisation and human and financial resource management. This is only possible when enough value is placed on the socio-political dimension of work of a school head, and members of the school and the community are involved in improving how things are done and in the results of student learning.

ix. The specifics of how school leaders are chosen, through election, and the conditions in which they carry out their functions are difficult to compare to other countries when recruitment of teachers is based on an annual selection process based on the individual's career history and the laws of supply and demand at the time of placement. The ability to improve recruitment procedures and retain school leaders is related to the availability of the teachers who put themselves forward for leadership posts and to the willingness of those voting to re-elect them. According to some studies, this availability depends more on intrinsic motivation such as a sense of mission, being recognised for their symbolic power, the placement strategy of teachers and so on, rather than any tangible benefit they might obtain. A study in 2001 concluded that a member of teaching staff who held a position of responsibility at the top of a school or school grouping displayed a far lower tendency to possess characteristically feminine traits than the average. There are as many men as women in leadership roles, most possess a first degree, they have over 20 years experience, teach the higher levels in that particular subject and base their claim to a leadership post on similar prior experience with identical duties, often at the same school.

x. The demand for training in the area of school administration is a relatively recent phenomenon in Portugal, although it expanded significantly in the 1990s. It is not
that different from what happened in other European countries, although it started later. Much has contributed to this: the late appearance of research and studies in this area at institutions of higher education; the lack of professional ‘clout’ of a school head because formally diluted by the electoral college system; the weak legal and formal autonomy of school management functions. Because there is no school leader career, nor any specific initial training for the post, it is only through on the job training that the prospects have increased. The development of training in this area also depends on how the term ‘professionalization’ comes to be defined by the powers that be, through the creation of a career path giving access or not to qualified teachers. However, in the short term even within a framework of a structured career path and without insisting on the necessity of some specific initial training, we cannot simply ignore the experience acquired by numerable teaching staff in the exercise of their functions. It should be possible to officially recognise the competencies they have gained, by complementing this training with some sort of post-graduate qualification.
CHAPTER 1 - THE NATIONAL CONTEXT OF SCHOOLING

1.1. – Geographical and political context

Portugal, geographically speaking, comprises the territory belonging to continental Europe and the archipelagos of the Azores and Madeira, both situated in the Atlantic Ocean.

With an area of 88,967.5 Km² and a resident population of 10,043,763, continental Portugal has a population density of 113 inhabitants per km². The Azores, comprising 9 islands, has a resident population of 241,206 people and a population density of 104 inhabitants per km², while Madeira is made up of two islands, having a population of 244,286 people and a population density of 295 inhabitants per km².

Portugal is a unitary state which in organisational and functional terms respects the islands' right to autonomous rule and the principle of subsidiarity, local authority autonomy and the democratic decentralization of public administration.

While it is a democratic state as set out in the Constitution of the Republic, one of the characteristics of the political organization of the Portuguese state is the principle of the separation and interdependency of the organs of sovereignty. These are: the President of the Republic, the National Assembly of the Republic, the Courts and the Government.

The President of the Republic is directly elected for a term of 5 years by universal secret ballot.

Parliament, whose composition may vary from between 180 and 230 deputies elected by legally stipulated electoral cycles with mandates of 4 years, constitutes the body of representative sovereignty of all citizens and in the present parliamentary sitting contains members from six political parties.

The government, as the highest body of public administration, is tasked in general terms with the conduct of politics in the country. The Government is comprised of the Prime-Minister, the Ministers, the Secretaries and Under-Secretaries of State. It is responsible to the President of the Republic and to Parliament.

In accordance with the Education Act the archipelagos of the Azores and Madeira constitute autonomous regions with their own political and administrative statutes and their own governmental bodies. They possess a Regional Assembly and are invested with their own powers with regard to educational matters.

The democratic organization of the State allows for the provision of local authorities. These local authorities exist both on the mainland and in the autonomous regions of the Azores and Madeira, at municipal and parish level. The local authorities are invested with powers in the areas of education and teaching.

1.2. – Economic and employment context

With a Gross Domestic Product in the region of 141 billion euros in 2004, Portugal possesses the 20th largest economy in absolute terms of the 30 member countries of the OECD.
In recent years, having attained a growth rate in real terms of 4.7% of GDP, the Portuguese economy entered a period of recession. It is currently undergoing a slow recovery and a convergence to the average level of economic and social development of the European Union.

The breakdown of GDP by sector shows evolution in that the growth in the percentage share of the service sector (more specifically Government, Health, Education and other services) rose from 62.2% in 1990 to 70.99% in 2004. Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries over the same period saw their contribution to GDP fall from 8% to 3.5%. The remaining activity sectors, Industry and Construction, declined as a proportion of GDP from 29.8% to 25.6%. Consolidation of the economy in the tertiary sector has been absolute and has had a number of important consequences both in terms of human resource policy and in relation to the transparency and interdependence of the economy and its integration into global markets.

The service sector accounted for around 57% of employment in 2004. The structure of employment, by activity type, has not undergone significant alteration over the years. Between 1998 and 2004, the proportion of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries fell on average 0.2 percentage points per annum (from 13.5% to 12.1%). For Industry, Construction and Energy the decrease was 0.5 percentage points (from 35.1% to 31.2%). By contrast over the same period services saw their share increase from 51.4% to 56.8%. Thus the growth in the volume of employment has been achieved fundamentally by a growth in the service sector.

The change in the economic situation in the last few years has not been reflected in employment indicators. The rate of unemployment started to rise in 2001. From a figure of 3.9% in that year, it rose to 6.7% in 2004 and reached 7.6% in 2005. Worsening unemployment continued to affect women in particular along with the 15-24 age group. In general terms, the average annual unemployment rate among women is 1 percentage point above the overall rate, while for the 15-24 age group that difference is 6 percentage points.

The inherent dynamics of economic demography bring with them two important tendencies in the pattern of employment: on the one hand there is a trend towards a reduction in employment of the 15-24 age group which declined, slowly but steadily between 1998 and 2004, from 47% to 43.6%; on the other hand, the reverse phenomenon can be observed for the employment rate for women which showed a slow but steady rise from 43.7% to 46.7% over the same period.

Regarding employment qualifications, there was a rise, in absolute and relative terms, in the number of employed people with qualifications equivalent to or above the completion of secondary school. The number of employed people with these qualifications in 1998 was 954,500 and in 2004 1,374,200 which corresponds to an average annual growth of 7.3%. Even so, in 2004, the percentage of employed without this level of qualification was 70%. If we consider the employed population by profession we see a similar picture, with the four most qualified categories being the only ones to see their percentage share grow between 1998 and 2004: senior management (from 7.3% to 9%), specialists in white collar and scientific professions (from 6.2% to 8.5%), middle-ranking technical staff (from 7.7 % to 8.3%) and administrative and similar staff (from 9.1% to 10.1%).

1.3. – Demographic Trends

The Portuguese population rose to 10.52 million inhabitants in 2004. In European demographic terms Portugal is located in the medium-sized group of countries together with Greece, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Sweden and Austria, countries with a population of between 8 and 12 million people. At the heart of the OECD, it lies in 16th position, corresponding to around 0.9%
of its population. In 2004, with regards distribution by sex, the proportion of women was slightly higher than men (51.62%).

Comparison in the rates of natural and effective growth reveal that population increase has been sustained by migration, that is by the clearly positive effect of international migration. In fact, since the early 1990s the resident population has increased due to the rise in the migrant population. Aside from the phenomenon of population ageing and spatial concentration (the movement to the coast and the rise of the suburbs) immigration and emigration constitute one of the most important demographic dynamics in Portugal today, if not in absolute quantitative terms, then at least relatively and qualitatively.

From a country of net emigration, Portugal became at the beginning of the 1990s a country of immigration. The scale of this phenomenon is clear in the growth of foreign population groups since 1990. Taking as a reference point data regarding foreign populations with the legal right of residence we can see that numbers have doubled between 1990 and 2004, from 107,767 to 265,361.

Another more visible trend is the ageing of the population. Statistics reveal a significant ageing of the Portuguese population over the last decade, as a result of the decrease in the birth rate and in the progressive rise in life expectancy (75.4 years in 1995 to 77.79 years in 2004). The change registered between 1990 and 2004 in the age profile of the population shows the progressive and rapid ageing of the population, so that ratio of old to young people has changed from 68.1 to 108.7. This means that over the last decade and a half, there are now 40 more elderly for every 100 young people.
CHAPTER 2 - DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

2.1. - Structure and organisation of the school system

2.1.1. - Foundations and legal framework

The Education Act No. 46/86, defines the general legal framework and the fundamental principles for the organization and functioning of the Portuguese Education System as “a series of measures which establish the right to education and guarantee equality of opportunity in access to and success at school”.

In 1989 a bill was approved defining the guidelines for the autonomy of schools in the 2nd and 3rd cycles of compulsory and upper-secondary education. In 1991, a bill was approved establishing a new system of management and administration in those schools which was to be introduced in a small number of schools for a trial period, while at the same time maintaining the management system which has been in place since 1976 in the majority of schools. Until the publication of Decree-Law No. 115-A/98, the bill which in 1998 legally instituted the System of School Autonomy, Administration and Management and came to include all 1st cycle schools, there were two systems of state school leadership in operation.

However, in 1993, the restructuring of the central and regional services of the Ministry of Education was carried out. The competencies and functions of each service or body were clarified and defined. The reform was heralded as a way of ensuring greater customer friendliness in the way services were organized, and aimed to consolidate powers at the highest level of decision-making, namely among the Regional Directors of Education – these were created in 1987 and given formal structures in 1989. The existing structures of the Ministry of Education and its respective regulations, which we shall examine in greater detail later, mainly originate from May 2002 [Organic Law of the Ministry of Education] and February 2004 [Organic Laws for Central and Regional Services]. At the end of October 2006 a new Organic Law from the Ministry was approved which introduced further restructuring of the services and bodies of the Ministry with the aim of wholesale reform of the Central Administration of State.

2.1.2. - Levels and types of education

The education system, in accordance with the Education Act of 1986 covers pre-school education, school education and after-school education. Pre-school, in its formative aspect, aims to complement the educative role of the family, with which it works in close cooperation. School education covers teaching at compulsory, upper-secondary and higher levels, integrating special needs and including extra-curricular activities. After-school education covers literacy schemes and basic skills, improving and updating cultural and scientific knowledge, beginners’ classes, conversion courses and professional improvement and is carried out in an open framework of varied initiatives, both formal and less formal in nature. Some approaches to school education are governed by particular arrangements: special education, professional training, adult education, distance learning and the teaching of Portuguese abroad. In the process of reorganizing the curriculum in upper-secondary education in 2004 professional courses were integrated into mainstream upper-secondary teaching.
Pre-school Education

Pre-school education is aimed at children between the ages of 3 and 6 and is optional. It is incumbent on the State to ensure that there is a range of pre-school educational options. The range of pre-school education is comprised of institutions – commonly known as *Jardins-de-Infância* (nursery schools) – created either by the state or by other organisations, groups or individuals, either on a profit or non-profit-making basis.

Compulsory Education

Compulsory education is made up of three cycles which last a total of 9 years: 1\(^{st}\) cycle (4 years), 2\(^{nd}\) cycle (2 years) and the 3\(^{rd}\) cycle (3 years). The three cycles constitute a series of stages such that each progressively reinforces and builds on the one before, to form a comprehensive whole. The first cycle of compulsory education is general in nature, and a class is the responsibility of a single teacher for four years, although they may be supported by a specialist in certain areas; the second cycle is organised by subject areas at a basic level and is largely taught by a different teacher for each subject; the third cycle has a separate teacher per subject or group of subjects. The outcomes and objectives specific to each of the three cycles form part of the general objectives of compulsory education in line with the corresponding development for each age group.

Free, compulsory, universal education changed from 6 years to 9 years’ duration in 1986 with the passing of the LBSE (Education Act). Schooling is free and compulsory in order to try and make it universal, guaranteeing every child access to education and academic success. Compulsory attendance stops at 15 years of age. Entry into the first cycle of compulsory education is compulsory for all children who are 6 years old by the 15th of September or, if requested by their parents, by the 31st December of that year.

The end of compulsory education corresponds to the moment when students must make a choice between continuing their studies along one of the various academic paths offered or entering the labour market.

Upper-Secondary Education

Upper-Secondary Education is optional, is of 3 years’ duration and access is conditional on the successful completion of Compulsory Education. It is organised along different lines, with courses either of a more vocational nature or for more academic study, all of which should include components of technical, technological or professional training as well Portuguese language and culture. At present it comprises: *Sciences and Humanities*, for those who intend to study further in Higher Education; *Technology*, which the dual aim of entrance into the labour market and further study, especially post-upper secondary school courses specializing in technology and higher education courses; *Specialized Arts*, again, depending on the artistic area in question, with the dual aim of entrance into the labour market and further study; *Professional courses* aimed at an initial qualification, which will help students into the world of work but allowing them to continue with further study.

The option of repeating years of Upper-Secondary Education aims to give people a second educational opportunity, which allows them to combine study with professional activity, and comprises sciences and humanities, technology and specialised arts.
A certificate is awarded to everyone who completes upper-secondary education, which in the case of technological and professional courses qualifies students to take up a professional career.

Special Education

Special Education aims to support and integrate students with special educational needs and to provide for them to be taught by specialised teachers.

Professional Education

Professional education delivered at professional schools was intended to introduce an alternative to regular upper-secondary provision into the educational system. At present, professional courses last three academic years, with 3,100 hours of instruction, comprising: socio-cultural, scientific, technical, practical, artistic and technological subjects. Students may enter such courses having completed the third cycle of compulsory education. Access to vocational courses in the Arts is possible for students who have completed the second cycle of compulsory education. Specialised technology courses are open to students who have a Level III professional qualification.

The organisation of professional courses follows the pattern of other upper-secondary courses, but includes a compulsory job training component with practical activities related to a specific professional field in the form of a work placement. Courses are modular in nature and their course description must identify a common core of subjects and a specific outcome. Professional Schools are managed by the scientific, pedagogical and administrative departments of the Ministry of Education and have autonomy in how their activities are developed.

Professional Schools are able to organise and run other types of educational and training courses and activities: vocational courses in the Arts, aimed at students who have completed the second cycle of compulsory education; compulsory or upper-secondary level repeat courses; evening classes; support programmes for those who are entering the labour market having completed compulsory or upper-secondary level education; other professional training programmes resulting from adapting the curricular input of professional courses to the particular needs of the socio-economic level of the students in question. Professional schools may also organize professionalization courses for the over-15s who have completed the second cycle of compulsory education. Professional courses award an upper-secondary school certificate and a Level III Professional qualification. This professional diploma is awarded after successful completion of a study plan and a professional aptitude test. Work-oriented vocational training is organized in various ways, in terms of the duration and programme content, varying according to the project areas of each Professional School and the specific local and sectoral needs of each region of the country. Ultimately, this learning regime is an alternative to mainstream education and represents a form of initial professional training for young people to allow them to develop their abilities and acquire the knowledge necessary for working in a recognised profession.

2.1.3. – Private education

According to the Statute on Private and Cooperative Education private schools are institutions created by single individuals or combinations of individuals where group teaching is delivered or where regular activities of an educational nature take place. The State recognises the importance and value of private education, as a practical expression of the freedom to learn and teach and of
the right of parents to determine the direction of the education of their children. Thus, private schools which conform to the general principles, outcomes, organization and objectives of the educational system are considered to be an integral part of the school network. In this way the State, in defining and shaping the school system, will take private initiatives and private schools into consideration when deciding on the best way to do things, use resources and guarantee quality.

Teaching in private schools may function in parallel with the State sector or completely independently. Teaching in parallel means a school does not depend on state schools for its methodological direction, school materials and assessment systems. This type of set-up presupposes the existence of premises, equipment and suitable teaching material; of a teaching staff designated by the authorising body, organised administrative support and compliance to the legislation currently in force in respect of students and teachers as it applies to the state sector.

The independent route implies there is no dependence on state schools as regards methodological direction, school materials, study plans and curricular content, assessment, examinations, enrolment and the issuing of certificates of attainment. To become fully independent the school must in addition have already operated in parallel with the state sector for five consecutive years.

The State gives priority to authorising the establishment of private schools, assuming they meet all the necessary legal requirements, in areas where state provision is lacking. Contracts between State and private sector may be simple, a partnership or a sponsorship and may be renewed automatically on an annual basis if both sides agree. Partnership contracts are often made for a minimum of one year in areas where there is no state school available. Apart from granting such schools tax benefits, they also subsidise each student. Simple contracts also offer subsidies for each student plus a reduction in the school fees payable. Sponsorship contracts are used if the course programme, teaching methods or quality of teaching staff justify it. This type of contract aims to give incentives and support to forms of teaching not covered by state schools, especially in areas of pedagogical innovation.

2.2. - Administration of the educational system

2.2.1. – General administration – national level

In 2002 a new organic law was approved by the Ministry of Education, and the associated regulations of the different departments and central and regional services were issued in 2004. The new law advanced the idea of developing schools as autonomous centres of learning, so that national educational goals could be realised through the implementation of individual educational projects. The departments and central and regional services of the Ministry could act in accordance with the Plan for School Autonomy, Administration and Management. Since October 2006 a new Organic Law has introduced new orders from central government as part of a Global Reform of Public Administration started by the 15th Constitutional Government and developed and rounded off by the 17th Constitutional Government in Decree-Law 213/2006, of the 27th October.

The Ministry of Education is the government department responsible for national education policy at pre-school, compulsory and upper-secondary levels. The administrative structure of the Ministry covers central and regional services and the schools network at all levels up to higher education.
The present government has two ministries which oversee Education: the Ministry of Education (ME), whose brief covers all aspects of learning up to higher education, and the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MCTES) covering higher education. The Ministry of Education has two Secretaries of State: the Secretary of State for Education (SEE) and the Assistant Secretary of State for Education (SEAE).

The central services of the Ministry of Education are as follows: Secretary-General (SG), the Director-General for Innovation and Curriculum Development (DGIDC), the National Agency for Professional Qualifications (ANQ), the Director-General for Human Resources in Education (DGRHE), the Office of Educational Assessment (GAVE), the Office of Educational Statistics and Planning (GEPE), the Finance Office (GGF), the General Inspectorate for Education (IGE), the National Council for Education (CNE) and the Mission for Information Systems at the Ministry of Education (MISI).

The SG performs the usual functions in the areas of innovation, quality control, the specification and standardization of school buildings, the upkeep of educational property, documentation, publications and archives, information and public relations, as well as in human resources and generally ensuring the smooth running of so many organisations and services. In addition, it carries out technical support and administrative and logistical functions to other parts of the Ministry and the educational system.

The DGIDC provides conceptual input in pedagogical and didactic matters, including the definition of teaching content and the implementation of educational support. Responsibility for educational policy in the area of vocational training falls on the ANQ. The DGRHE develops policy in the area of human resources, teaching and non-teaching staff, schools, technical support and coordinates policy implementation and personnel management while taking into account the legal role of local authorities and local school management in this respect.

The GAVE manages planning, conception, coordination, development, validation, application and monitoring of external assessment measures. The GEPE is responsible for the production and analysis of statistics, for evaluation, for preparation of possible studies, for strategic planning and the coordination of international and EU cooperation in education and training. The GGF deals with the Ministry’s financial planning and management. After the reorganisation of the Ministry, the MISI has the task of creating, maintaining and guaranteeing the efficient functioning of an integrated information system. This is designed to be a cross-departmental support structure for government and administration, which ensures provision of up-to-date, coherent and accessible information.

The IGE provides an autonomous audit of the education system, with the prime purpose of guaranteeing quality and protecting the interests of all stakeholders. It carries out technical, pedagogical, administrative, financial and property audits with regards to legal requirements, procedural efficiency, quality of service, achievement of objectives and results and efficient use of resources.

Parallel to these departmental structures under the current administration are two consultative bodies of growing influence, the National Council for Education (CNE) and the Schools’ Council (CE). The CNE is broadly-based with around sixty members, representatives of the various organisations directly involved in education and in the political and social spheres. Its president is elected by the National Assembly. The CNE expresses opinions and recommendations, either on its own initiative or in response to representations made to it, on all educational questions, in particular in monitoring the application and development of the Education Act. In turn the recently
created Schools’ Council functions as a representative for the pre-school, compulsory and upper-secondary institutions attached to the Ministry of Education with relation to the definition of policies relevant to the different levels of schooling.

2.2.2. – General Administration – regional/local levels

The Ministry of Education has five regional directorates: the North (DREN), the Centre (DREC), Lisbon and the Tagus Valley (DRELVT), the Alentejo (DREALENT) and the Algarve (DREALG). The Regional Education Directorates have executive powers which are peripheral to the Ministry, with decentralised autonomous administrations. Within their respective territorial borders, they administer the educational system, determining the direction and coordination of schools and their relations with the local authorities.

In each regional directorate at inter-municipal level there may be educational coordinators who exercise powers delegated by the regional educational director and provide a vital support service. The General Educational Inspectorate is divided into the same five regional services.

According to the IGE Law of 2006 each Regional Educational Directorate, or DRE, monitors the schools in their jurisdiction, providing support and information to users, including access to a legal service as part of its remit.

The Plan for the Autonomy, Administration and Management of Schools, passed in 1998, allows for the creation, on the initiative of the municipalities, of local education councils as participatory structures for various bodies and social partners. Their role is to articulate educational policy along with other social policy, such as socio-educational support, the organisation of activities to complement the school curriculum and the school transport network. The following year, the law defining the framework for the transfer of powers to local authorities provided for the creation of Local Education Councils by the municipalities. In 2003 their name was changed to Municipal Education Councils and their powers, composition and operation were defined.

The Municipal Education Council is a consultative and coordinating body at municipal level whose basic role is to promote the coordination of local educational policy, proposing action for educational stakeholders and social partners, through analysing and overseeing the functioning of the educational system and proposing any changes necessary to improve performance. They thereby constitute agents regulating the functioning of the system. At municipal level, the law also provides for a series of bodies specifically to participate in the planning and management of educational facilities, for drawing up the school plan, to manage school canteens, school transport, and student accommodation and for participation in social support and in the management of non-teaching staff at pre-school and compulsory education level.

As far as education and teaching goes, the municipalities have the powers to invest in the following areas: establishment of pre-school education; compulsory education schools; accommodation centres for students during their compulsory education; school transport; complementary educational activities at pre-school and compulsory education level (social support and after-school activities); equipment for adult education. The following are also the responsibility of municipalities: the construction, adaptation and maintenance of furniture; deciding on the type of learning materials, as well as the expenses involved in running pre-school educational establishments. In the sphere of culture, sport and after-school activities, municipalities have powers to invest in the following areas: cultural centres, libraries and museums; urban and rural cultural heritage; campsites; sports and recreational installations and equipment.
2.2.3. – Administration of the teaching establishments

Since 1998 the administration and management of state schools below Higher Education has been governed by the Regulation on School Autonomy, Administration and Management outlined in Decree-Law No. 115-A/98 passed on 4th May. The phasing-in period for the new law was until the end of the academic year 1999/2000.

Amongst the changes brought about by its introduction was the reorganisation of the network of school and teaching establishments to create groups of schools defined as organisational entities with their own powers of administration and management at pre-school or compulsory level around a common pedagogical project.

As a rule, groups of schools were constituted only of schools in the same parish. The proposal to create and introduce these new organizational entities, which is one of the responsibilities of the Regional Directorate of Education, is aimed at eliminating the isolation of some schools, especially in the first cycle of Compulsory Education. In this way, the state school network will now be made up of “educational management bodies” – schools or groups of schools with their own organs of administration and management – with the following organizational schema: 1 – Vertical groupings of schools made up of Schools from the 1st Cycle of Compulsory Education, which may or may not include pre-school establishments, and a School of Compulsory Education with the 2nd and 3rd Cycles assuming the statute of head of the Grouping; 2 – Horizontal groupings of schools made up only of Schools of Compulsory Education from the 1st Cycle, which may or may not include nursery schools, one of which will assume the position of head of the School Grouping; 3 - Schools from the 1st cycle of Compulsory Education whose size justifies the establishment of its own management and administrative bodies 4 – Integrated Compulsory Schools; 5 - Schools from the 2nd and 3rd cycles of Compulsory Education and 6 – Upper-Secondary Schools.

In each of the “management bodies” mentioned above there is an administrative and management structure consisting of four bodies: the School Council, the Executive, the Pedagogical Council and the Administrative Council. Within certain limits provided for in law, the composition and function of the first three bodies and the structures and coordinating services and the educational and pedagogical direction are defined by the internal regulations of the management body. Nevertheless, there are still a small number of schools which have their own management bodies.

2.3. – Structural characteristics of the system

2.3.1. – Schools/educational and teaching establishments

There are currently various types of schools and educational and teaching establishments. In 1990 the government decided to try to define the criteria for classifying the country’s educational establishments. It decided to base them on the level of education and teaching provided. The names given, however, covered different levels, cycles and forms of education. The typology adopted for schools was approved a year later and took into account the guiding principles of the Education Act and the need to proceed with a reorganisation of the school system.

Pre-school education is either delivered by dedicated entities or included within entities where the 1st cycle of Compulsory Education is taught, or in buildings where social activities take place, namely after-school education, being a nursery school or 1st cycle of Compulsory Education with
nursery attached. With the reorganization of the school system and the construction of new school installations, at Compulsory Education level, the following form should favour the organisational structure laid down by the Education Act. Thus, as well as schools of the 1st/2nd/3rd cycles of Compulsory Education, known as integrated compulsory schools, which will also have a nursery, the school system will still contain schools with only the 1st cycle and those teaching only the 2nd and 3rd cycles of Compulsory Education.

As for upper-secondary education, it should as a rule be taught in multi-curricular upper-secondary schools or in specialised schools devoted to technical, technological or arts education. However, the law does not provide for Upper-Secondary Technological Schools, as vocational education, whether technical or technological is taught in conventional Upper-Secondary Schools along with general and other forms of education. Professional training is taught as a separate type of education in specialised schools and is a matter of local initiative.

In the private sector, schools generally include a nursery in their provision and/or compulsory education and upper-secondary education, without adhering strictly to the sequence of cycles and levels nor the pattern of establishments that pertain in the state system.

For the academic year 2005/2006 the total number of schools in Portugal, including the pre-school network reached 14,230. Around 17% (2,419) belonged to the private sector.

In terms of size, in mainland Portugal in 2005/2006, of the 11,811 state schools, nearly half (about 45%) has less than 25 students. 1,584 1st Cycle Compulsory Schools and 448 nursery schools had less than 10 students, about 13.4% of the total. These figures are even more significant when we take into consideration the closure of 1,159 1st Cycle Compulsory Schools between 1996/1997 and 2005/2006. At the other extreme, there were almost 200 schools with more than 1,000 students, most of which were Upper-Secondary Schools.

Between 1996/1997 and 2005/2006, in the state sector, there was a substantial drop in the number of small and very small schools (up to 100 students) and in very big schools (over 1,000 students) and a moderate increase in medium-sized schools. There was a reduction of 3,554 small and very small schools (down 27.8%), a drop of 189 in very big schools (down 48.7%), and a rise of 148 in the number of medium-sized schools (up 6.6%).

### 2.3.2. – Students

In the academic year 2005/2006 almost 1,650,000 students were enrolled in pre-school, compulsory and upper-secondary education. Around 18% of these students were in private education. That percentage rises to 48% in pre-school education and drops to 9% in compulsory education. In the case of upper-secondary education the proportion in the private sector is 14%, reflecting the inclusion of professional education.

Between 1996/1997 and 2005/2006 there were some significant changes in the school population. The first thing that stands out is an overall drop of 200,000 students (down 10%). The numbers of students in state sector education shrank by 230,000 while those in private education rose by nearly 30,000. In state education, with the exception of pre-school, which rose by 46.8%, all the other cycles/levels saw a drop in student numbers: -14.2% in compulsory education and around -30.2% in upper-secondary education. Conversely, in the private sector, there was a rise in all cycles/levels (17.5% in pre-school education, 10.2% in compulsory education and 6.3% in upper secondary education).
If we analyse the change in the school population, taking type of school rather than cycles/levels as a reference, the decrease in absolute terms in the school population affected especially general education in state secondary schools which lost more than 155,000 students.

In the appendices there are up-to-date figures on students, teachers and schools by level of education.

2.3.3. – Teachers

The teaching staff below higher education was made up, in the year 2005/2006, of 178,202 nursery nurses and teachers. Relative to the previous year there was drop of 1.26%, corresponding to 2,281 staff: 3,275 fewer in the public sector and 994 more in the private education. Relative to 1996/1997 the increase was 14.4% (average annual growth of 1.6%). Over the last 9 years, the number of staff grew year on year, reaching a maximum in 2004/2005. The clear upward trend until then will not be repeated in future, because of the overall drop in staff in the state sector.

The distribution according to type, sector and cycle/level/form of teaching gives us an indication of the important features of the teaching staff and its development between 1996/1997 and 2004/2005. Women predominate at all cycles and levels of teaching and education, whether in the public or private. Over the period in question, we can see a slight increase in the proportion of women at the Second and Third Cycles of Compulsory Education and in Upper-Secondary Education with a similar trend amongst men in pre-school and First Cycle of Compulsory Education. This trend is more pronounced in the private sector, although it is not the case at the First Cycle of Compulsory Education where women as a proportion of the teaching staff increased from 67.9% to 70.51%.

In 2004/2005 around half of all teachers were between 35 and 50 years of age. Over the nine preceding years the proportion of this age group dropped slightly, from 48.6% to 47.2%. The percentage of staff below 35 years of age exceeded by 10 percentage points the over 50s (31.4% as against 21.4%). This difference was much bigger in 1996/1997, however, as more than 20 percentage points between these two groups. The permanence and ageing of the teaching profession are confirmed by these figures.

In terms of academic qualifications, in the public sector, around 83.2% of teachers had a full first degree or were studying for one, 14% had partial degrees or other qualifications and around 2.8% had a Masters’ or Doctorate. Analysis of the change between 1996/1997 and 2004/2005, excluding pre-school education, reveals a radical transformation in the qualificational profile of teachers: in the First Cycle of Compulsory Education the percentage of graduates went from 4.1% to 75.6% and in the Second and Third Cycles and in Upper Secondary Education the percentage with a level of education lower than a degree fell from 22.8% to 10.3%.

As a consequence of the sharp decline in the school population, without a corresponding decline in the teaching population, there has been a general fall in the student/teacher ratio. In the public sector that ratio went from 11.2 to 9 between 1996/1997 and 2004/2005.
2.3.4. – Non-teaching staff

In global terms, non-teaching staff in 2004/2005 numbered 85,166 professionals, of which the overwhelming majority were female (84.6%) and employed in the state sector (70.55%). Between 1996/97 and 2004/05 non-teaching staff grew by almost 50% (an annual average increase of 5.4%). Despite the higher proportion of females in this sector for the period in question, they still represented the bigger proportion of the increase (52.1% as against 31.8% men).

When compared to the school population for the same time period, there is clearly a rise in the number of non-teaching professionals per student. Between the two academic years in question the number of non-teaching staff per 100 students rose from 3.09 to 4.34 in the public sector and from 3.18 to 8.41 in the private sector.

2.3.5. – Finance

The main source of finance for education in Portugal is the State, the money for different educational sectors being allocated according to strategic development priorities. The Ministry of Education finances the public sector in its entirety, and partially supports the private sector, from the central budget.

The Education Development Programme for Portugal [PRODEP] is a community financing for educational costs, comprising two structural funds: the European Regional Development Fund and the European Social Fund. The funds for PRODEP I (1990-93), prioritised development of infrastructures and human resources, vocational training and adult and higher education. PRODEP II (1994-1999) continued the effort to develop infrastructures for compulsory, upper-secondary and vocational education. Technological, arts and adult education along with higher education were other areas financed by PRODEP II. PRODEP III (2000-2006), continuing the previous focus, had as its general aims an improvement in the quality of compulsory education, encouraging a culture of initiative and civic responsibility, the expansion, diversification and quality of basic job training for young people, as well as the promotion of lifelong learning and a corresponding improvement in employability amongst all people of working age.

As a result of the decentralisation of central government local authorities have been granted powers to finance education in the following areas: meeting the cost of constructing and maintaining facilities, the running costs of nursery and First Cycle compulsory education schools, along with costs relating to school transport and sporting and extracurricular activities. Such costs will not exceed 4% of total educational costs. Families end up bearing the cost of school fees in non-compulsory education and for the purchase of school materials. They are therefore also financial agents of the educational system.

Ministry of Education costs as a proportion of public spending grew significantly between 1995 (10.4%) and 2002 (11.8%) and has since declined and stabilised at around 7% in 2005. It is worth noting here that this figure represents final and not budgeted costs. The figures relevant to this area in the appendices provide an overview of spending as a whole, with education represented as a percentage of Public Spending and GDP.

The breakdown of Ministry of Education spending by area and financial function show running costs in the order of 98% with investment taking up the remaining 2%. As one might expect, the most significant share is costs related to the running of Second and Third Cycle Compulsory Education together with Upper Secondary Education (65.3%), with First Cycle Compulsory
Education taking up 19.3%. However, there has been an increase in relative terms in spending on pre-school education (from 3% to 7.7%), special education (up from 2.4% to 4.1%), private education (from 3.9% to 4.3%) and social intervention in schools (1.9% to 2.3%).

2.3.6. – Summary

The most significant recent development in education in Portugal came with the Revolution of the 25th April 1974 which re-established democracy. Another important turning point was the country’s entry in 1986 into the European Community, now the European Union. In that time the education system underwent a process of ‘permanent reform’ characterized by continuous transformation (at times contradictory), backed up by strong financial investment both nationally and from the European Union which was translated, above all, into a higher numbers of students, teachers and schools. The growth in school attendance rates was particularly evident in secondary and higher education, where between 1980 and 1995 numbers increased 95% and 219% respectively.

A study entitled “The future of education in Portugal” gives the following overview of the situation at the beginning of the 21st century: “Educational progress has, in many respects, been impressive. The schooling of children and young people has undergone exponential growth. We have 100% of today’s generation in compulsory education [up to the 9th grade], around 70% stay until the end of upper secondary school [up to 12th grade] and more than 30% go on to post-secondary education. These are indicators which, beyond a shadow of doubt, compare well with statistical averages in the European Union. School attendance – from pre-school to university – has grown spectacularly, covers the country much more evenly, and conforms to the internationally accepted criteria for quality. The overwhelming majority of our teachers and nursery nurses are professionally trained. Higher education that was until only 30 years ago, concentrated in three university cities is today available in every district in the country, in the autonomous regions, and in a great many other locations which are nurturing a whole new urban wave of training throughout the country (...). Nevertheless, these unquestionable advances bring with them persistent problems that represent the other side of the coin. In standardized assessments which are regularly carried out by international organisations our results are worrying: whether in terms of literacy or ability in mathematics and sciences, our young people come out bottom in the country league table more often than not. There is systematic condemnation at every level of the system with regard to the “student product” when it arrives at the next stage of education. There is a clear dysfunction between the new necessities of the labour market and what the conventional school graduate has to offer. Above all, society and the Portuguese economy continue to place their hopes in the current adult working population which, in contrast with younger generations, did not manage to go much beyond their six years of formal schooling.”

In truth, however, over the last thirty years Portugal has managed not only to make up for the enormous backwardness from which it suffered, namely in the quantity and equality of the education it can offer, but it has also, despite the certain failings, promoted the democratisation of the whole state school system.

It is with this in mind that we need to analyse the challenges which today face the organization and administration of the Portuguese education system. On one hand, despite the quantitative gains mentioned above, there continue to be problems with the universality and quality of what the school system can offer, especially in the upper secondary sector where high dropout levels still persist.
There remains in Portugal a very centralised administration, and initiatives aimed at transferring power from central government come up against difficulties. However, the actions of some local authorities reveal positive interventions in schools and in the local education system through the financing and development of extra-curricular social educational projects. This trend has been reinforced through measures to promote greater autonomy since 1989, and particularly since 1998.

In summary, it is possible to say that successive governments have faced the dilemma of wishing to promote decentralization, reduce costs and obtain efficiency gains, while at the same time not wanting to relinquish the advantages of centralisation through the progressive modernisation of the mechanisms of management, monitoring and assessment.
CHAPTER 3 – SCHOOL GOVERNANCE AND LEADERSHIP

3.1. – Structures of School Governance

3.1.1. – Legal Foundations

The Decree-Law no. 115-A/98 of May 4th was the first law in the basic legislative framework that regulates the administration and management of school. This law has subsequently been amended, by parliamentary decree, by the Law no. 24/99 of April 22nd. Particular aspects of School Autonomy, Administration and Management have also been regulated, such as: the system for performing the functions of president of the executive council or head teacher and the vice-president or the assistant of the head teacher of schools of non-higher education, as well as the respective groupings, the criteria and conditions to be observed in the constitution and workings of techno-pedagogical assistance to the executive council, the definition of the responsibilities of education bodies and the regime of their respective coordination, the definition of a timetable for the president of the school assembly, the definition of the necessary criteria for the constitution of the school groupings, as well as those for the procedures for their creation and workings, the implementation of the school groupings process and the suppression of school delegations.

One of the most significant amendments to the formal structures of the bodies and how they are made up, in relation to the previous normative framework introduced by the RAAG, was the creation of a body – the School Assembly – with the aim of broadening the representation of parents and guardians and local authorities, which up until that time was very limited. The definition of the size and composition of collective management bodies became the responsibility of the school or school groupings, within certain limits.

The same happened with the format of the executive council (an option between a collegiate and unipersonal body), with the organisation of education structures and many other specific aspects that will be mentioned later. The performance of these new functions and responsibilities would have to involve the drawing up of internal school regulations, which should include all of these choices and working norms. In this way, the management structures could adapt to the characteristics and specific aspects of the internal and external context, obeying a limited number of general principles that are applicable to all schools and school groupings in the country. The legal framework described in the previous numbers is only applicable to the management bodies of non-higher education establishment which report to the Ministry of Education.

3.1.2. – Management and administration bodies

Within the context of the current Autonomy, Administration and Management System, the following are considered management and administration bodies: the school or school groupings assembly, the executive council/head teacher, the pedagogical council and the administrative council. Apart from these bodies, it is worth mentioning the post of Establishment Coordinator due to its position within the structure of the school groupings. All of them can be considered as representing some form of school leadership at different levels and to different degrees, because they all have responsibilities and privileges in their field of action, something necessary (but obviously not sufficient) to exercise leadership.
School Assembly

The School Assembly is the body for the participation and representation of the educational community which includes students (in the case of upper-secondary education), teachers, non-teaching staff, parents and guardians, the local authority and socio-economic-cultural interests. It is responsible for the definition of activity guidelines for Schools and School Groupings. Its make-up is defined in the internal regulations; however the number of people on it can never exceed 20. It must meet once every term and, extraordinarily, whenever the respective president wishes or at the request of a third of its members or the President of the Executive Council/Head teacher.

Among the nationally defined duties of this management body are: the approval, monitoring and evaluation of the educational project and its respective implementation, the approval of the internal regulations and the issue of an opinion on the activity plan, definition of the budget guidelines and the issue of an opinion on the report and accounts of annual management, appreciation of the results of the internal evaluation of the School or the School Grouping and the promotion of the relationships with the surrounding community.

The Executive

The Executive is the body of administration and management in all of the working areas of the School or the School Grouping. If set out in the internal regulations, the Executive has the option of being a collegiate body, in the shape of executive council or a uninominal body, in the shape of a head teacher. The head teacher option was chosen by so few schools that, on a national level, the phenomenon is statistically irrelevant.

The number of representatives that make up the Executive can vary depending on the breadth of educational provision afforded by the School or School Grouping, in terms of the cycles and levels of teaching. Normally, this body, in its collegiate form, is made up of one president and two vice-presidents, however the number of vice-presidents can be three if there is pre-school education along with compulsory education, or even four when there is upper-secondary education in the School/School Grouping. In addition, whenever there is pre-school education alongside the 1st cycle of compulsory education with the other cycles of compulsory education, one of the vice-presidents should be a nursery teacher and another should be a teacher in the 1st cycle of compulsory education. In the case of the Head teacher, they are assisted by two assistants that can be three or even four according to the abovementioned situations.

The following support structures for the work of the Executive are foreseen: techno-pedagogical assistance can be given via a proposal by the Executive/Head teacher and after the assembly’s authorisation is given. This support is given by teachers working at the School/School Grouping. The criteria for the constitution and role of this assistance are defined on a national level; they vary according to the size, type and working regime of the educational establishment.

The duties of the Executive include: the drawing up and submission of proposals for the internal regulations and proposal for contracts of autonomy for the appreciation and approval of the School Assembly/School Grouping, draw up and approve the annual activity plan and write periodic and final reports for them, define the working regime of the School/School Grouping, draw up the budget project, perform pedagogical and administrative management, taking into account the principles defined by the Pedagogical Council, in the following areas: creation of classes, drawing up timetables, distribution of teaching and non-teaching services,
implementation of activities in the field of social school action and protocols with other schools, particularly in the training field.

In the performance of his duties the President of the Executive Council/Head teacher represents the School/School Grouping, coordinate the activities resulting from the duties of the Executive, exercise hierarchical power in relation to disciplinary matters for teaching and non-teaching staff, exercise disciplinary power in relation to students and assesses teaching and non-teaching staff.

**Pedagogical Council**

The Pedagogical Council is the body that provides the coordination and educational guidance for the Management Unit. How it is made up is defined in the internal regulations based on certain nationally-defined conditions and criteria. It cannot have more than 20 members and has to include representatives from guidance and educational support services, from parent and guardian associations, from the upper-secondary student body, from non-teaching staff and those involved in educational development projects. By inheritance the President of the Executive Council is a member of this body.

The duties of the Pedagogical Council include: drawing up the proposal for the school education project, presenting proposals for annual activity plan and giving an opinion on the respective project, giving an opinion on proposals for the internal regulations and the celebration of contracts of autonomy, drawing up training plans and updating teaching and non-teaching staff, in coordination with the respective school association training centre, and monitoring its implementation, defining the general criteria in the fields of information and school and career guidance, pedagogical assistance and student assessment, submitting proposals, defining general criteria for the organisation of timetables, adoption of schoolbooks, contracting teaching staff, management and curriculum development, special types of school education and pedagogical innovation.

**Administrative Council**

The Administrative Council is the decision-making body in the administrative-financial field and is made up of the President of the Executive Council/Head teacher, who presides, the head of school administration services and by one of the Vice-Presidents of the Executive Council/Head teacher's Assistant.

Its duties are: to approve the annual budget project, draw up the report on management accounts, authorise expenditure and respective payment, check the payment of income and verify the legality of financial management and ensure the inventory of all assets is kept up to date.

**Establishment Coordinator**

The Establishment Coordinator is a member of the permanent teaching staff and is responsible for the coordination of each teaching establishment that is part of the school grouping. This position does not exist in the establishment that is the headquarters of the grouping, or in those establishments that have fewer than three teachers. It is the responsibility of the Establishment Coordinator to: coordinate the establishment's educational activities in conjunction with the Executive, implement and ensure implementation of the decisions taken by the executive and perform the duties delegated to it, transmit information in relation to teaching and non-teaching
staff and students, promote and encourage the participation of parents and guardian, local agents and authority in educational activities.

3.1.3  **Relationship between bodies and school leadership**

Within the framework of the relationship between the abovementioned bodies, the duties of the "head of educational establishment" are performed by the President of the Executive Council. Its formally endowed responsibilities give it an obvious role and function in school management, competencies such as its external representative function, the disciplinary power it has over the other school players and its responsibility for accountability to the community and the governing body.

Despite the abovementioned structural layout, with a formal division between the collegiate bodies with different representations, duties and powers, experience and research shows that the Executive, and particularly its President, took a leading role in school management. This does not mean that, in certain situations, those opposing the Executive did not take advantage of the existing structures to gain greater influence, either by being elected to the School Assembly/School Grouping or the Pedagogical Council or by creating alternative electoral lists for the Executive.

Generally, the conflict or electoral disputes that can result from this division of powers are limited in number and, effectively, the President of the Executive Council is in a position to effect leadership according to their own management style, which is participative to a greater or lesser degree.

The area where schools have more autonomy and freedom to act, and effectively do so because of organisational imperatives, is the internal organisation of school time and human resources and matters including setting up timetables, distribution of taught and non-taught teacher services, and the management of educational premises and facilities. The responsibilities and powers in these areas are divided between the School Assembly/School Grouping, who discuss and approve the general principles and guidelines which are laid down in the educational project and internal regulations and constitute the terms for the definition of criteria for pedagogical and organisational guidelines that are approved by Pedagogical Council. These terms indicate the boundaries and conditions of implementation of the means and material, human and financial resources that are the responsibility of the Executive.

Although the attributed levels of control are relatively rudimentary in relation to the planning and management of the curriculum and syllabus, selection, recruitment and evaluation of teaching staff, autonomy and financial management, the lack of accountability mechanisms seems to be accepted overall and considered normal by the various educational players. However, the current trend is towards the consolidation of a culture of evaluation ad accountability that has translated into the evaluation of teachers, non-teaching staff and school leaders in relation to the objectives that need to be achieved.

3.1.4.  **Situation in Private and Cooperative Education**

In the area of private school administration and management the law imposes a minimum set of rules that must be observed in order for authorisation to be granted. One of the rules is that there must be a pedagogical board, which can be collective or unipersonal. This body is responsible for: school educational action guidance; representing the school before the Ministry of Education in all pedagogical matters, planning and supervising study and cultural activities, promoting the
fulfilment of study plans and programmes; maintaining teaching quality and overseeing the education and discipline of students.

While not identifying any particular administrative and internal school management model, the law stipulates, however, what it considers the rights and responsibilities of the body authorised to run private schools: defining general guidelines for the school, guaranteeing the necessary investment, representing the school in all administrative matters, being responsible for the correct application of subsidies, credits and other support, establishing the administrative organisation and appropriate working conditions for the school, contracting and managing staff, supplying the Ministry of Education with the information it legally requires, fulfilling all other legal obligations. The authorising body is also responsible for nominating the abovementioned executive.

In private education, there is a wide variety of models of internal organisation of schools, both in terms of administration and pedagogy, that range from the more business-like/rational models to those models based on cutting edge pedagogy. However, the management and administration models of state schools have been a major influence on the structure of educational and pedagogical bodies, particularly in those schools that consider it advantageous in their relations of the techno-pedagogical and/or financial support given by the Ministry of Education.

3.1.5. – Professional Schools

The case of the Professional Schools is quite unique. They are organised by and they work in accordance with their own Statutes, which contain their objectives, hierarchical structure, the powers of their bodies and the forms of access and substitution of their post holders. Professional Schools must include a pedagogical board, as do all other private schools and consultative bodies.

The responsibilities of the owning body and the pedagogical board entity are generically equivalent to those defined for private schools in general, and roughly correspond to the performance of administrative and pedagogical-educational management. The consultative bodies, whose specific duties involve issuing an opinion on the educational project, professional courses and other training activities, should be made up of those representing students, parents and guardians, teachers and school management and those local economic and social institutions in the community. They enjoy considerable independence in the definition of hierarchical structure and other aspects related to its administration and management.

3.2. – Areas of intervention and levels of decision-making within the educational system

There are five levels of intervention in the creation, co-ordination, implementation and evaluation of educational policy that can be identified in the administration of the public educational system. The main agents on these levels are, respectively (i) the Government, via the Ministry of Education, its bodies and central services, (ii) the Government of the autonomous regions of Madeira and Azores, via the respective Regional Education Department, (iii) the Regional Education Directorates, (iv) the Local Authorities and (v) Schools, via their management and administrative bodies. They share responsibilities in the process of configuring the system regarding issues and areas such as: * the attribution and management of financial resources; * the creation/definition and implementation of the curriculum and academic assessment: the definition of syllabus, methodologies and pedagogical processes, organisation of school time, assessment and exam processes, support and curriculum complement activities, extra-curricular
activities; * human resource management: recruitment, training, evaluation, promotion/progression and dismissal of teaching and non-teaching staff, including those people in school management positions; * the management of school-community relations: the management of student movement and numbers, school-family interaction, school-company relations, inter-school cooperation, relations between the school and local authority, accountability.

3.2.1. – Financial resources

The Ministry of Education is largely responsible for the public funding of the educational system. Funds from the general State budget are channelled into the individual management units according to rules and criteria that are related to the school population, equipment type, the educational cycles taught, the staff salary structure, etc.

In recent years the level of flexibility in terms of the management of financial resources that come from the state budget has increased: apart from money from Ministry of Education budget, the management units have income generating mechanisms such as premises rental, service provision, charging certain fees, donations, subsidies or support for specific projects or programmes. These resources, which constitute a policy of support for projects presented by the management units, have the advantage of promoting their initiatives and adapting financial policy to school contexts but have demonstrated a lack of a global strategy.

At the local authority level there have been projects which have been funded by the municipal and parish authorities. Also, due to their involvement in the management bodies and via the Municipal Education Councils, they can play an important role in the definition of local educational policies and in the mobilising of the material and financial resources necessary for their implementation.

3.2.2. – Study plans, curriculum and assessment

Curriculum plans, as well as syllabus content, the respective learning objectives and timetables are defined on a national level with certain guidance given for the distribution of teaching and the organisation of the teaching timetable. In the area of management units autonomy the criteria for the realisation of these duties are the responsibility of the Pedagogical Councils.

There are certain areas of the curriculum where management units are free to organise as they see fit, such as the timetable of the different areas of the curriculum, within pre-established limits, the definition of the content and organisation of the non-subject curriculum areas of the 2nd and 3rd cycle of compulsory education, the proposal for the creation of technological courses in upper-secondary education and curricular diversification measures for failing students or students with special educational needs or the creation and organisation of education and vocational training courses for students that complete compulsory education and stop studying.

Among the measures that support the autonomy of the management units are: the availability of a global hours credit (7% of the total of curriculum hours) for pedagogical support activities for students with learning difficulties, the creation of classes with “alternative curriculum” for students with “repeat school failure” and who are at risk of leaving compulsory schooling, the “flexible management of the curriculum”, the possibility of creating courses for young people between 15 and 18 who have not completed compulsory education. It is worth mentioning the creation of
Educational Priority Areas in 1996, which are subject to policies of “positive discrimination” as a more global measure in this area.

In the area of the curriculum, autonomy is fundamentally found at the level of the management units, with the role of the local authorities and other bodies relatively unimportant from an institutional perspective. However, it is worth mentioning the provision of socio-educational programmes and free time activities on the part of many municipal bodies that are complementary, despite not being part of the official curriculum.

The flexibility of curriculum management in Compulsory Education on the part of management units was accompanied by learning and school results control mechanisms, mainly in the form of the reintroduction and widespread use of exams and assessment tests. The evaluation of pupils abides by assessment rules that are defined by national legislation that is applicable to the student population by level of education.

Apart from internal assessment, which is undertaken by the class teacher in conjunction with the teachers council in the case of the 1st cycle of Compulsory Education, and by the class council under teacher proposal in the 2nd and 3rd cycles of Compulsory Education and Upper-Secondary Education, there is external assessment which consists of the taking of exams on a national level for certain subjects that are considered to be more core to the respective curriculum plans. Exams are organised by the central services of the Ministry of Education on dates that are stipulated annually. The final classification is a combination of the results of internal assessment and exams.

3.2.3. – Human resources and staff management

Teaching Staff

The documental placement system is the selection and recruitment process for teaching staff. This placement can be internal or external. Initially, only teachers from the school staff or from the pedagogical zone can apply. The second round is open to other qualified teachers. The placement system can be for appointments on a national scale, aiming for teacher mobility and the filling of vacancies in schools and pedagogical zones, or be done as a placement application aiming to place teachers who are integrated within the respective zone staff structure in the schools of the particular zone. The distribution of human resources is done centrally by the Directorate-General of Human Resources in Education and on a regional level by the Regional Directorates of Education. The legal tenure of teaching staff in relation to the Ministry of Education can take the form of a permanent position or an individual contract.

In each management unit there is a defined structure of teaching positions that is considered to serve permanent teaching requirements. Those teachers that are placed within that staff structure are considered to have definitive tenure. Non-permanent needs, which are normally the result of the variation in the number of students and changes in curriculum plans, are met via recruitment through a national placement system. These positions are filled by teachers from the pedagogical zone and by contracted teachers. The latter are teachers who do not have permanent tenure and, in order to continue working, have to make another application via the placement system after the effects of the previous round have expired. In order to give greater stability to the teaching body, from 2006/2007 the placement system, which used to take place on an annual basis, became valid for 3 years.
If there are vacancies after the placement round, due to a lack of candidates or a change in needs during the year, management units can advertise vacancies in the regional/local press and must assess candidates and select teachers according to strict rules.

There is a trend (which has yet to be translated into published regulation) for the responsibility for the priority recruitment and placement of teachers for Compulsory Education to be transferred to the municipal authorities and, under certain conditions, to management units.

The management of staff in area of service distribution is the responsibility of the Executive, according to criteria approved by the pedagogical council.

The President of the Executive Council is responsible for teacher assessment, who must fulfil a minimum set of requirements, such as participation in a certain number of training hours, a minimum of relational problems with students and the presentation of a critical report of activities during the period of work (3 or 4 years), in order to receive the classification “Satisfactory”.

The attribution of “Good” is the responsibility of a commission made up of the president of the Pedagogical Council, a teacher from outside the school and another teacher or individual of recognised merit from the field of education nominated by the teacher being assessed.

Career progression takes the shape of moving to the next scale after receiving “Satisfactory” at the end of the abovementioned assessment process.

Progression can also occur by acquiring specialised post-graduate qualifications that enable the teacher to perform other educational duties or acquiring qualifications such as first degrees, Master’s degrees or doctorates in education, or in areas related to teaching, or by obtaining the performance evaluation classification “Very Good”.

Redundancy or dismissal are disciplinary penalties that imply the organisation of a disciplinary process that exceeds the authority of the Executive, being something that requires ministerial decree.

Since 1997, the initial training of nursery teachers and teachers in compulsory education has been given in polytechnics and universities. Training for upper-secondary teachers has continued to be given exclusively in universities. The professional qualifications of upper-secondary teachers can also be acquired via degree courses that have scientific training in the respective teaching area, complemented by appropriate pedagogical training. In 1997 a first degree was established as a minimum qualification to teach at any education level.

In 1988 an in-service professionalization model was created that is still in force, although this is relatively unimportant when compared with the current requirement of professionalizing degree to enter the profession.

In relation to professional development, it is the responsibility of the individual teacher to attend further training sessions chosen from the range given by accredited institutions. Formally, further training is much decentralised and can be organised by higher education institutions, teacher associations, Ministry of Education services and school association training centres which were created in 1993. In terms of managing the further training of its teachers, the autonomy of schools and associated school groupings in the organisation of a training centre is limited by dependence on external funding and the accreditation rules defined by the Further Training Scientific-Pedagogical Council.
Members of management bodies

Access to positions of school management are granted via election, as such recruitment is done via an electoral process that is organised within the individual units. The rules that govern these processes are part of the internal regulations. Eligibility for the Executive and the School Assembly are defined within national legislation. In the specific case of election for the Executive, specific training in the area of school administration is one of the requirements, or, alternatively, the person must have performed these functions for one full mandate.

Because school management is not a career position there is no assessment, promotion, relief of duties associated with a professional identity. Even the concept of professional development, in terms of school management, is only partially applicable in terms of initial training in the areas of school/educational management and administration, as continuity or lack of continuity or a school manager does not depend on vocational training/development.

One of the ways that the work and performance of school leaders is assessed is through elections in the case of those seeking re-election and a new mandate. Voting means not only a choice between different projects and programmes, but also very often an evaluation of the work done by those seeking re-election. Apart from this situation, in the event of poor management, the School Assembly must assess the performance of the Executive and has the power to end the mandate of its members at the end of the school year. Legally speaking, the performance evaluation of teachers who perform the duties of the President of the Executive Council is done “by default”, which means, unless there is anything contradictory, the classification “satisfactory” is automatically given. However, this is not an assessment of the teacher’s performance as a manager, as there is none, but an assessment of the teacher that, at the same time, performs management duties.

Non-teaching staff

The Executive is responsible for the organisation and management of non-teaching staff in School, observing the norms established nationally regarding the rights and duties found in the applicable legislation, such as the career and statutory regime of these staff.

3.2.4. – Community Relations

Parental intervention at school

The School Assembly is the vehicle that is institutionally earmarked for the development of relations between the school organisation and its environment, involving representatives of pupils’ parents, the local authorities and local economic and cultural interests. However, those representatives tend to come from an essentially small middle-class section of the population, and quite often they are parents who are teachers.

The participation of parents in Schools and how they are managed has had relatively little impact on how they are organised and run and on school results themselves. However, considering how recently these measures were introduced (1998) it is still too early to judge and to fully measure their impact. It is worth noting that, from a formal perspective, the conditions for greater parental participation have been created, namely via legislation that foresees justifiable absences, and in some cases maintaining the right for payment for parents who occupy management positions in the respective associations or Schools.
School-Business Relationship

The involvement of bodies connected to companies is essentially related to the development of vocational training. Apart from this, it is common for schools to develop strategies to raise funds and support for their projects from parents, local authorities and companies, sometimes creative active collaboration and partnership networks between the school and the local community.

In Upper-Secondary Schools with technological courses it is common to have a link with companies in the region, both in the definition of the courses provided and in the development of internships for students.

The creation of Level III Professional Courses (three years after compulsory education), consolidated the development of these partnerships and the school-business relationship.

The major drop in the school population has caused the progressive change of paradigm in terms of the school supply and demand relationship. This means that the institutional regulation by “zoning” - the obligation of pupils attending schools where they live or where their parents work - has been “subverted” by types of more autonomous regulations that have been produced within the situational context. These new regulations are essentially a result of the dynamics of a social demand and strategies from families, particularly from the middle-class, that wish to choose Schools or academic paths with the greatest possible chances of success and social mobility.

On behalf of the schools, the Executives have begun to develop strategies to promote courses and schools, particularly in upper-secondary education, in order to attract students. The specialisation taking place in upper-secondary schools in certain places also aims to influence student intake.

3.3. – Summary

As has been mentioned, one of the main characteristics of school management in Portugal has been the result of keeping the same principles of eligibility and collegiality for the middle and senior management posts for over 30 years (since 1974). Despite this practice not being original, historically speaking, (it was the legally established form of choosing high school principals between 1910 and 1928), it is clearly associated with the political and social movement of the revolution of 25th April, 1974.

Therefore, it is no surprise that the principle of electing school management bodies constitutes one of the foundations of the so-called “democratic management” consecrated in the Constitution and the Education Act of 1986. This principle has remained in force until today, despite being subject to various formal-legal amendments in terms of how it has been applied. One can say that in these 30 years and in relation to school management, neither the principle of electability of the head teacher or the professional collegiality of teachers in senior and middle school management posts have been questioned but there has been a trend for their effects to be limited. This has occurred by maintaining centralised administration, which has been consolidated by the creation of the Regional Directorates (non-concentrated structures of the Ministry of Education) and via an increasing individualisation of the function of manager and greater participation by parents and other community representatives, which increasingly make management accountable to the Ministry and reduces teacher corporatism.

Within the field of major social changes the situation has altered, particularly when it comes to the redefinition of the role of the State, the forms of public policy regulation and the emergence of a new public management. In recent years, and particularly as a result of international
comparative studies, in an effort to make school management more professional and up-to-date, there have been proposals that question the current model, especially in relation to the election, collegiality or primacy of recruitment of teachers.

It is within this context and these paradoxes that the changes occurring in school management and leadership in Portugal should be analysed, namely the growing pressure for management to be more professional with its implication for the development of competencies in the areas curriculum management and peripheral pedagogical activities, as well as financial and human resource management, including teacher recruitment and performance appraisal. This pressure, justified by the need to combat teacher corporatism and introduce the primacy of responsibility and competence, contradicts the dominant collegial culture in the majority of schools, which its defenders justify with the argument of maintaining trust among peers and the priority of the pedagogic over the administrative.

Against a background of limited public spending, the Ministry of Education has been applying school management measures that determine the effective counting of the non-teaching component of the teachers' working week, as well as the changes to the statutes of the teaching profession that make automatic progress in the profession difficult and focus on performance evaluation. Such measure have been developed against a background of a degree of discontent on the part of the unions and teachers, which has meant school leaders have been confronted with the dilemma of choosing between loyalty to the corporation to which they belong and the management perspective that their position increasingly demands. Such a contradiction has been made more acute by the public demand of accountability, particularly in the area of school results, which has been extensively covered in the media.

The legal regulatory framework for school administration and management has changed towards promoting public scrutiny and social control of corporative school management, particularly via the participation of representatives from local authorities, community and parents in collegial school administration bodies, as well as via the demand of the production of strategic management instruments (school educational project, school and class curriculum projects, annual activities plans). This has created the room for audits and internal and external assessment that focuses on verifying the achievement of concrete standards and activities.

The important changes in the area of school governance structures are also centred on efficiency concerns, focusing on measures that force schools to aggregate based on geographical location, involving various levels of education and with the aim of speeding up the management of available resources. This implies the closing of small schools and teachers using a wider range of competencies and skills.

There are substantial legislative changes being made to the statute of school leaders, probably in the sense of consolidating management perspective, giving greater importance to their position and interlocutors of governmental authority. To this end, there has been the initiative to create a collegial consultative body for the governmental authorities involving school leaders, as well as regular meetings of these school leaders with policy officials from the Ministry of Education and the Minister of Education herself.

The day to day management of schools has been distinguished by tensions based on two different perspectives on how they should be run, one that focuses on traditional management practice and the other, which is capable of responding more efficiently to the needs of families and apt to accountability and results, promoted by governmental measures and by active and influential sectors of public opinion.
There are no collaborative networks between schools with any significant impact, apart from isolated initiatives resulting from local educational projects that are the result of occasional action by local leaders. The existing collaboration is merely formal and fits in with implementation of governmental measures with other objectives, for example, for the creation of school associations, for the creation of training centres, school groupings to maximise resources.

There are also no clear social expectations that schools play an important part in the development of the local community. Generally, schools are seen by their professionals and their local community as local State services that serve a specific purpose, that of educating children and young people.

Finally, it is important to mention that there is no research that has studied the variety of competencies required for effective school leaders regarding the different characteristics of the individual schools such as sector, size, location, student intake or behaviour.
CHAPTER IV- ENHANCING LEARNING AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

4.1. Teaching, learning and quality

Educational issues have been high on the media agenda in Portugal. The general public is becoming more and more informed, interested and demanding of the quality of state school education and the role it plays in the knowledge society. This is reflected in educational training programmes which attempt to mobilise the skills and competencies of local players. Concerns over teaching, learning and quality have been the subject of a raft of programmes implemented over the last ten years since the institution of the new System of School Autonomy, Administration and Management in May 1998. The most significant of these programmes are the Project for Inter-cultural Education, Innovation and Educational Quality, School Autonomy, Self-evaluation and External Assessment in Schools. In the last two years, it is worth mentioning the Programme for Curricular Consolidation in First Cycle Schools with the introduction of English, Training Programmes for First Cycle Teachers of Mathematics and English, and the ICT Programme, a general programme for all levels of education to promote the use of computers, networks and the internet. In addition, 2006 saw the launch of a programme of External Assessment for individual and groups of schools to implement contracts of autonomy which had been envisaged since 1998 but never introduced. These are contracts agreed between Regional Directorates and schools which aim to strengthen school autonomy.

All of these programmes were initiated by central government but there has always been a concern to involve schools and teachers, especially those in leadership positions. Because participation of school leaders in the new laws from the Ministry of Education is not systematic and representative, a coordination and consultative body was created – the Schools’ Council.

4.2. Mechanisms for school accountability

School accountability is mediated through the participation of parents and students in the election of school leaders, through the Pedagogical Council of the school and with the participation of parents’, students’ and municipal associations in the School Council. Participation of parents and students is provided for in the legislation covering parent and student associations and these associations operate in spaces granted by the schools. In 1999 an integrated programme was started to assess all schools and groups of schools within 6 years. This programme was suspended in 2003. It was restarted more recently as the External Assessment of Schools in 2006 with the aim of introducing contracts of autonomy for those schools who submitted to assessment.

4.3. Monitoring school progress and learning

Monitoring and evaluating the learning process is the responsibility of the Class Council, which is coordinated by the Class Head. This is an intermediary body which coordinates the Class Project, identifies students’ learning patterns, educational support needs and special educational needs, liaises with relevant specialised services and adopts pedagogical strategies appropriate to learning. Class councils also plan extra-curricular activities and encourage contact between school and parents. In addition, the Class Head organises elections for students’ and parents’ representatives.
The Executive Council of each school may, in addition, nominate teachers or tutors to be responsible for monitoring problem students or those with learning difficulties, either on an individual or small group basis.

4.4. Monitoring the curriculum

Monitoring and supervision of the school curriculum falls to the body responsible for educational direction: the Curriculum Department, coordinated by a teacher elected by all of the members of the department. This body coordinates the implementation of the curriculum and the study plan, reconciling local and national curriculum components, organizing, monitoring and evaluating class activities and undertaking curricular and pedagogical coordination throughout the year, cycle or course even though there may also be a course, cycle or year head with similar functions.

The task of the President of the Executive Council, taking into account the views of the Pedagogical Council, is to plan and implement measures to consolidate teaching knowledge and practice, to ensure the adoption of specific methodologies to develop the national or local aspects of the curriculum, to the application of different and diverse teaching methodologies suitable for the students while taking their educational difficulties into account. He or she analyses and reflects on educational practice and plans remedial activities with the educational and learning success of the students always in mind.

The President also coordinates and monitors curriculum implementation with the aim of developing the Educational Project of the School, and tries to provide the conditions and resources to achieve it. As the person responsible for the administration and management of the school and the school results, he or she has the job of allocating the teaching and non-teaching staff, classroom space and timetables, having listened to the views of the Pedagogical Council.

4.5. Teaching, Learning and Teachers

The Executive and the Pedagogical Council are responsible for supervising the composition and powers of the curriculum management team. This team is comprised mainly of departmental heads. However, these supervisory functions have not tended to be exercised in a way that contributes to improving the quality of public service.

The assessment of teachers and their career paths was suspended in August 2005. This assessment consisted of a critical report made by the individual teacher, together with certificates from training courses which the teacher had taken. The report would further contain a critical assessment of the teaching content which was and was not delivered, the teacher’s relations with their students, the parts of the syllabus completed, their performance in posts of responsibility, educational and pedagogical coordination roles, participation in projects at the school, the relation of the school with the educational community, studies and research undertaken, authorship of school publications and other projects in which the teacher had participated. The report would always have to be approved by the Pedagogical Council, and the teacher would then pass to the next point on their salary scale. The President of the School Executive could only intervene in one of three situations: lack of support or relationship with students, refusal of duties, or non-participation in a sufficient number of the required hours of further training.

With regard to the choice of further training courses chosen by teachers, the President of the School Executive had no right of intervention, this being a matter of complete autonomy for the
teacher. Nevertheless, this situation did not stop some Presidents promoting training plans in liaison with the Training Centres which clearly responded to the pre-identified training needs.

The Administration and Management System in school does not provide for any compensation for teachers who stand out in terms of quality and school results. However, the President may compensate or caution the teacher as he or she is responsible for the distribution of the staff, nominations to coordinator posts and working conditions (equipment, timetables and classroom allocation).

The Statute on the Teaching Career was changed, and came into force from January 2007, at the level of assessment mechanisms for teacher performance.

As for studies which examine the role of school leader in developing learning, the investigations which have been carried out are at the level of school case studies and not those of any significant depth in what is a complex area.

Summary

In Portugal, as in other OECD countries, the idea has been developing of ‘strong leadership’ which can bring in changes and improvements in school organisations. This idea has different origins, such as studies on “effective schools”, where the leadership is one of the factors that most influences the effectiveness of schools and learning outcomes.

Although there are no studies with which to back up the importance of effective leadership, there is a common sense which links quality of educational service in state schools to the importance of motivational leaders and communicators who can inspire a sense of team spirit and who focus on a concern for results and the sound management of resources.

In conclusion, it is important to stress the value of the school manager and their power of decision-making backed up by an effective capacity for strategic management. In this context, there exists a strong expectation that contracts in autonomy will strengthen the capacity for decision-making in areas of importance such as curriculum management, human resources and finance.

It is important to mention that school autonomy does not simply strengthen the decision-making power of the school manager, but also reinforces the independence of middle-ranking leaders such as curriculum coordinators, class heads, teachers working on curriculum management within their own area and in the development of competencies of autonomy, initiative and student innovation.
CHAPTER V – ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE SCHOOL LEADERS’ ROLE

5.1. De/motivating factors

Recruitment for a three–year term of office on the Executive Council of a school is based on qualifications and experience. There are several factors which discourage suitable teachers from applying for these posts. Firstly, they do not carry the power to make decisions regarding human resources or finance and are bound by the complex legislation relating to education. Although the post carries financial compensation and may be a boost to a teacher’s career, there is the complexity of the duties involved, and the hierarchy between schools and Ministry of Education which leads to centralised decision-making.

Despite this, there have usually been enough candidates - of the 1,286 posts of responsibility in 2006, between 80 and 90% were filled by elected teachers. Where there is no list of candidates, the selection process is coordinated by the government who advertises it externally. In these cases the teachers selected serve only one year.

There are several attractive features of these posts. There is the opportunity to replace someone who is doing a bad job and the chance to introduce change and innovation into a school that one knows well by using the efficiency and skills of a good professional team of colleagues. There is also the advantage of a supplement to one’s salary or the guarantee of a place at the school of one’s choice.

5.2. Conditions of entry and terms of office

For candidates applying for posts on the Executive there is series of requirements that must be met. The teachers must be tenured for at least five years, be specialized in administration and management or already have served one term on the Executive Council. Those eligible to vote are teaching or non-teaching staff, students’ representatives (at upper-secondary level), and parents’ and guardians’ representatives (at compulsory education level). There is a three-year mandate which applies to all leadership roles at higher and intermediary level. This situation is subject to the internal regulations of each school, however.

There is no formal evaluation of a post holder’s performance except for the External Assessment of the Inspector General for Education, and this is only in schools which applied for a Contract of Autonomy from 2006.

5.3. Salary Supplement

There is no specific pay structure for post holders, but instead a salary supplement fixed according to the number of students at the school. For staff with more than twenty years’ service, the supplement corresponds to an amount equivalent to between 25 and 30% of their salary. As there is no formal performance evaluation, remuneration can not depend on a post-holder’s level of performance. There have not been any significant alterations in this regard in the last few years, although the supplement has been regularly updated.

5.4. Retaining school leaders

Top teaching post-holders have an exclusivity clause in their contract and the President of School Executive has the option of whether to teach classes or not. There is no extensive data
on the reasons why teachers leave such posts, or to be precise why they do not reapply. It is also not possible to ascertain why teachers move to other schools to fill posts on the Executive. Equally, as there is no formal career path it is not correct to talk of abandoning a post, as teachers who do not reapply do not at the same time abandon their teaching career, returning instead to teach and to fill intermediary leadership positions.

Summary

Recruitment of school leaders via an electoral process makes it difficult to compare the attractiveness of the system with that of other countries where a candidate applies, is selected on an individual basis and has a career based on the demand and supply of suitably qualified managers.

According to studies in the 1990s, (Sanches, 1987), (Barroso, 1995), teachers put themselves forward and reapply for a series of reasons. It may be by a process of mutual agreement between electors and those elected, by intrinsic motivation, out of a sense of mission, for personal and professional growth or for the desire to influence decision-making. Other factors may also affect the choice, such as the chance to influence teacher placement or for benefits such as the extra income that comes with a salary supplement.

According to figures for 2006, 49.6% of posts of responsibility were occupied by women, even though the female population is underrepresented as a proportion of the teaching staff as a whole. Clearly though, this percentage is more balanced than female representation in other OECD countries.

As for the attractiveness of the school leader role, 2006 figures give the percentage of school leadership posts filled by elected representatives as between 80% and 90%. One study (Afonso and Viseu, 2001) revealed that the majority of school leaders possessed a first degree and over 20 years’ service at the higher cycles or levels of teaching, and had very often gained their experience at the same school.
CHAPTER VI – TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LEADERS

6.1. Professional career paths and access to administrative functions and management of state schools

Access to senior school management positions generally stems from fulfilling duties in middle management functions for various years, particularly in positions like coordinator of the curriculum department or coordinator of form tutors. This situation can be explained by the lack of training for these administrative and management functions. Also, we cannot forget that the requirement for specialised training might not be cumulative with the requirement for experience of at least one mandate on the Executive. Having a post in middle management means the person acquires experience within the context of the school, like the position of vice-president or assistant to the Executive. Also, the fact that teachers who put themselves up for election have practical knowledge and experience has an influence on the electoral process that takes place every three years.

6.2. School administration and management in the private sector

In private and cooperative education, the administrative and management bodies are occupied by people chosen by those that own and control the respective institutions. Private and cooperative education establishments have to request authorisation to function from the educational administration, fulfilling the requirement that the Pedagogical Board have at least one of its members with an academic qualification no lower than the highest academic level taught and two years’ teaching experience.

6.3. Training for school leaders

The provision of Specialised Training in School Management and Administration by universities and polytechnics began at the beginning of the 1990s. The aim of this training was the acquisition of pedagogical and technical knowledge, competencies and perspectives of critical analysis, innovation and research, with a view to qualifying the person for pedagogical and administrative leadership in schools/school groupings in compulsory and upper-secondary education. These courses should last at least 250 hours and have three components: one component of general training in Education Sciences (20% of timetable), one component of specific training in the area of Administration and Management (up to 60% of the timetable) and one training component geared towards the development and assessment of a project in the area of Administration and Management.

According to a study published in 2005 (Silva, 2005), from 1994 to 2000, there were 50 initial training and post-graduate courses accredited as specialised training in the area of educational administration. The accreditation and evaluation of these courses is the responsibility of the Further Training Scientific-Pedagogical Council, 70% of teaching time should be given by trainers with a Master’s degree or PhD or with recognised competencies in this area. Those applying for these courses have to be qualified teachers with at least 5 years teaching experience.

However, it is in further training that we see the greatest increase in provision in educational administration, (Silva, 2005). A total of 24,050 courses were identified, of these 5.1% were in the area of educational administration. The main areas dealt with were: educational project and similar 35.4%, general issues of school administration 26%, form tutoring 12%. In contrast, issues such as “school assessment”, “financial management”, and “school legislation” were
considerably less popular. The theme “school leadership”, was not considered as a subject, although this does not mean it was not covered in other courses. School administration and management were also introduced in initial teacher training and post graduate courses at the universities of Minho, Aveiro and Lisbon. There is further training provision in the area of Administration and Management that does not serve as a qualification for senior administration and management posts but aims to contribute to the professional development of teachers and promotion in the teaching profession. According to recent research this provision constitutes an important part of further training and the training bodies involved include: universities, polytechnics, school association training centres, and professional or scientific association training centres. This further training can be given in a variety of ways, such as courses, modules, higher education disciplines, seminars, training workshops, internships, intervention projects and study circles. The funding for this further or specialised training can be public, as long as it constitutes one of the annual priorities defined for the training programmes or it can be funded by the teacher themselves.

6.4. Monitoring training

The body that oversees teacher training policy, the Further Training Scientific-Pedagogical Council, is also the body that accredits, monitors and assesses the teacher training system. There are no institutionalised support programmes for teachers who take up senior administration and management posts in schools/groupings. Therefore, there are no programmes that specifically envisage the professional development of teachers as school administrators and managers. The further and specialised training programmes offered by the various training bodies are not geared towards the support and monitoring of teachers as school administrators and managers. In the opinion of some researchers in this area, the training of these teachers within the context of permanent social, political and technological changes could constitute one of the priorities of the training system. From 1999 and up until 2002 the Institute of Educational Innovation initiated an exclusively distance learning training programme – CeNET- For the organisational development of schools – a distance learning training mechanism. This is a training programme that is integrated within the new Administration and Management Autonomy Regime launched in 1998. The themes of this training were directly linked to school administration and management: Education Policy, Strategic Planning and Management, Curriculum Organisation and Management, Resource Planning and Management, Evaluation and Self-Evaluation of Schools. Despite being distance-learning training, it focussed on the problems of the school involved and had the objective of meeting the support/monitoring needs of school teams in the more peripheral regions. In 2004 and 2005 the Technical Improvement Course for School Administration was launched. Its targets were the School Executives, but the training was exclusively instrumental in areas such as: administrative procedures, financial management, human resource management, leadership and self-assessment. Based on this course, the intention was to complete the training with specialised training in the area of school/educational administration and management given via protocols with universities and teacher training colleges. This programme was suspended in 2005.

Within the context of research on school leaders, there are no studies that allow us to draw any conclusions about the impact of the specialised or further training on the professional development of school leaders.
Summary

Training in the area of school administration is varied and eclectic in terms of models and techniques with no national strategy that envisages the qualification and professional development of school leaders. Neither are there any studies that allow us to draw any conclusions about the impact of the specialised or further training on the professional development of school managers. This problem is part of another more general problem of “professionalisation of managers” or the “qualification of teachers” for the functions of senior and middle management posts.

The abovementioned researchers, authors of the study that this report is based on, propose that two mechanisms are set up: one for the recognition and certification of competencies acquired by teachers with experience in management positions; the other for “on the job training” for teachers performing these functions, with a view to complementing the training already done and the reorganisation of specialised training courses in this area. These courses should be specifically aimed at training school leaders. They should be based on the experience acquired in management positions and be extended to greatest number of players.
CHAPTER VII - CONCLUSIONS

7.1. – Introduction

In accordance with the OECD guidelines, the purpose of this chapter is to give an overall assessment of policies regarding school leadership, pointing out the “major strengths and weaknesses”, as well as “trends and priorities for future policy development in this field”.

The essential aspects of the current situation in our country, its strengths and weaknesses, point to the previous chapters where one can see a model of school administration that is still centralised, where school administration and management professionals are still limited in number and quality. Although there are cases of considerable dedication, motivation, and competence on the part of school leaders, the general picture is one of a lack of will and aptitude on the part of the majority of teachers for the performance of those functions, there being a lack of overall accountability by teachers and educational leaders for the learning achieved and for a more efficient and rational use of available resources. Indeed, school leadership, in its strictest sense, is still in its infancy in Portugal, although there has been rapid change in this area. We can say that the country is going through a transitional phase between the situation that is characterised by a system of electing presidents of executive councils and a new policy of seeking to inculcate the guiding principles and guidelines in school administration and management of a concept that is dynamic, professionally demanding and accountable in terms of overall results that comes from “school leadership” in itself. It will still take some time until school leadership practices trickle down to the day-to-day running of schools and the local educational communities. However, current trends allow for a positive view of future development, counting on the adherence and adaptability of teachers in general and school leaders in particular, not forgetting the major contribution of the municipal authorities.

This view is relatively consensual, although naturally the identification of the causes and the solutions for the problems identified vary according to “position” and the legitimate interests of the various players: administration, schools, unions, parents’ associations, training establishments, etc.

This confrontation of interests and points of view is actually one of the current characteristics of education policy formulation, as the complexity of the problems for today’s schools, as well as the search for appropriate and effective solutions, require flexible forms of governance in order to build commitment. Against a background of the relative and complementary nature of the various points of view, where political action tends to dominate, one can point to the following main conclusions taken from the abovementioned description and analysis in three areas: the political context in which recent school leadership policies have been developed; the current trends in the field; the main challenges that school leadership policies face.

7.2. – The context

The performance of school leadership functions in Portugal has reflected a lack of definition, ambiguity and instability inherent in the consolidation of the democratic regime in Portugal after the revolution of 1974 and the global mutations that have occurred in the last 30 years. The traditional model of a centralised state administration has existed side by side for the last three decades with a set of multiple, sometimes ad hoc measures of delegation, de-concentration, and functional decentralisation involving regional and local public services, institutions and local authorities.
To this end, alongside the traditional bureaucratic regulation mechanisms, based on the imperative setting and checking of standard routines and procedures, results-oriented management models have been established for the effectiveness, efficiency and the quality of public services. However, the policy measures for resource rationalisation, service streamlining and administration modernisation are often seen as a mere pretext for cost cutting, for increasing workloads and work-rates, and for the dismantling and privatisation of public services. Within a context of limited public spending, such measures have been seen with a certain apprehension and, in some cases, with some suspicion on the part of some sectors linked to education, both teachers and presidents of executive councils and some municipalities. Within this context, the position of school leaders is weakened given their position as gatekeepers in the relationship between the governmental authorities and other professionals, in as much as their position could be somewhat ambiguous and ambivalent in the relationship between the “administrator” and the “professional”. As new public policy endows management powers and responsibilities to them, school leaders have faced increasing problems.

7.3. – Current trends

In recent years, and particularly since the beginning of the current government (12th March, 2005), the public policy formulation and management has undergone a significant change. For example, it is the case of the measures taken in relation to self-assessment and external assessment of schools, to the normative development of autonomy contracts and the consolidation of executive councils, particularly in the field of human resource management. Similarly, there has been an increase in the use of policy regulation mechanisms and instruments that increasingly involve scientific knowledge, in the shape of statistical data, quality indicators and “best practice” standards”, making the legal-normative aspect, which until now has been the predominant one, secondary.

School leaders have come to play an important role in the management of this soft power as translators and intermediaries in the processes of the reception and adaptation of policies in their respective schools. This situation may give rise to the contradiction between the feeling of belonging to the teaching body and the new management identity built from the urgency of day-to-day decision making.

Considering these recent developments and the pressure of public opinion for greater social control of schools and the complexity of the problems itself, current trends in the evolution of the functions of the school administrator are not very clear. In school management, the policy measures of successive governments have fluctuated between traditional bureaucratic authoritarianism and the belief in the virtual regulation of competition. A good starting point for a re-thinking of school management could be the emphasis on the political and community aspect of state schools and making the school administrator a local mediator of interests and values.

7.4. - Challenges

As mentioned before, school leaders are nowadays confronted with a set of contrasting changes to the context in which they work, which clearly regulates their mission and functions, the competencies required, the procedures used and the results achieved. Those changes have occurred particularly in (1) the forms of public education policy regulation, (2) management practices and (3) pedagogical processes. In the first case, we are seeing the emergence of new regulation models with the appearance of the “evaluating state” that substitutes control a priori through rules, with control a posteriori through results. In the second case, we have seen a
paradigm change in the way organisation and management are seen, with the substitution of the “bureaucratic model” by alternative post-bureaucratic forms. In the third case, the curriculum has become more flexible and there has been a diversification of pedagogical strategies in order to deal with the increasingly heterogeneous nature of the students taught and promote the adjustment of school paths to student profiles.

As such, the challenges that managers and leaders face nowadays can only be dealt with within the framework of a broader set of policy measures that go beyond the limited field of the school and its professionals. Among those measures, some of the most important are: (i) the change in the State’s and its administration’s role in consolidating the regulation and guarantee of general principles and objectives, of correcting inequalities and equal distribution of resources; (ii) the promotion of geographical and administrative decentralisation with the effective transfer of responsibilities and resources to the municipalities in terms of the provision and local regulation of the educational system, (iii) the guarantee of an effective organisational autonomy of the school within the context of its functional multi-dependence and political multi-regulation (state, local authority, stakeholders and internal community) and (iv) the qualification of school leaders, the professionalization of teachers and other educational players, and the consolidation of student and parent participation. It is within this framework of these more global challenges that the development of leadership and management improvements in schools should be seen.
The following pages present a short statistical profile of the educational system with figures on:

Table 1 – Pupil numbers by sector
Graph 1 – Pupil numbers
Graph 2 – Pupil numbers by sector
Table 2 – Pupil numbers by sector and type of education
Graph 3 – Pupil numbers on Professional Courses (Level 3) and Education and Training courses (Level 2)
Table 3 – Teaching institutions by type
Graph 4 – Teaching institutions
Graph 5 – Teaching institutions by size
Table 4 – Teaching staff by sector
Graph 6 – Teaching staff by sector
Table 5 – Pupil/computer ratio and pupil/computer with internet connection ratio by institution type
Graph 7 – Pupil/computer ratio and pupil/computer with internet connection ratio
Table 6 – Ministry of Education spending and Public spending from 1995 to 2005
Table 7 and 8 – Ministry of Education spending on education as a percentage of GDP by sector (1995, 2000, 2004)
## TABLE 1 – PUPIL NUMBERS BY SECTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Academic year 2005/06</th>
<th></th>
<th>Academic year 2006/07</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>State Education</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>State Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.648.278</td>
<td>1.346.821</td>
<td>1.669.470</td>
<td>1.360.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school Education</td>
<td>245.736</td>
<td>127.002</td>
<td>247.224</td>
<td>127.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory Education</td>
<td>1.076.360</td>
<td>955.172</td>
<td>1.084.800</td>
<td>959.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; cycle</td>
<td>467.061</td>
<td>419.199</td>
<td>469.443</td>
<td>420.354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; cycle</td>
<td>240.218</td>
<td>211.831</td>
<td>239.819</td>
<td>210.453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; cycle</td>
<td>369.081</td>
<td>324.142</td>
<td>375.538</td>
<td>329.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper-secondary</td>
<td>326.182</td>
<td>264.647</td>
<td>337.446</td>
<td>273.049</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GRAPH 1 – PUPIL NUMBERS

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GAISE), Recenseamento Escolar 05/06
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 06/07
**Graph 2 – Pupil Numbers by Sector**

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GAISE), *Recenseamento Escolar 05/06*
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), *Recenseamento Escolar 06/07*

**Table 2 – Pupils Numbers by Sector and Type of Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Academic year 2005/06</th>
<th>Academic year 2006/07</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>State Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,648,278</td>
<td>1,346,821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3rd cycle</strong></td>
<td>369,081</td>
<td>324,142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional courses (level 2)</td>
<td>2,107</td>
<td>1,084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETC (level 2)</td>
<td>11,512</td>
<td>9,620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Upper-secondary education</strong></td>
<td>326,182</td>
<td>264,647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional courses (level 3)</td>
<td>33,341</td>
<td>3,607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETC (level 3)</td>
<td>3,103</td>
<td>2,411</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo, School census 05/06 Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo, School census 06/07
GRAPH 3 – PUPIL NUMBERS ON PROFESSIONAL COURSES (LEVEL 3) AND EDUCATION AND TRAINING COURSES (LEVEL 2)

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 05/06
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 06/07

TABLE 3 – TEACHING INSTITUTIONS BY TYPE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Academic year 2005/06</th>
<th>Academic year 2006/07</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>With fewer than 10 pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14.121</td>
<td>2.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State education institutions</td>
<td>11.702</td>
<td>1.989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools CE1</td>
<td>6.088</td>
<td>1.582</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo, School census 05/06 Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo, School census 06/07
GRAPH 4 – TEACHING INSTITUTIONS

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 05/06
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 06/07

GRAPH 5 – TEACHING INSTITUTIONS BY SIZE

Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 05/06
### TABLE 4 – TEACHING STAFF BY SECTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Academic year 2005/06</th>
<th></th>
<th>Academic year 2006/07</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>State education</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>State education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school education</td>
<td>15.315</td>
<td>8.680</td>
<td>15.332</td>
<td>8.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; cycle</td>
<td>33.179</td>
<td>30.729</td>
<td>30.642</td>
<td>28.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; cycle</td>
<td>32.582</td>
<td>29.706</td>
<td>32.302</td>
<td>29.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; cycle, upper-secondary and professional/qualifying</td>
<td>96.454</td>
<td>80.729</td>
<td>91.015</td>
<td>76.035</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE)

### GRAPH 6 – TEACHING STAFF BY SECTOR
Source:
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 05/06
Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE), Recenseamento Escolar 06/07
TABLE 5 – PUPIL/COMPUTER RATIO AND PUPIL/COMPUTER WITH INTERNET CONNECTION RATION BY INSTITUTION TYPE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Type</th>
<th>Pupil/computer ratio</th>
<th>Pupil/computer with internet connection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic year 2001/02</td>
<td>Academic year 2005/06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Education</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gabinete de Estatística e Planeamento da Educação (GEPE)

GRAPH 7 – PUPIL/COMPUTER RATIO AND PUPIL/COMPUTER WITH INTERNET CONNECTION RATIO

Source: Gabinete de Informação e Avaliação do Sistema Educativo (GIASE)
### TABLE 6 - MINISTRY OF EDUCATION SPENDING AND PUBLIC SPENDING FROM 1995 TO 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Public spending</th>
<th>National Debt</th>
<th>Public spending minus National Debt</th>
<th>M. of Education spending</th>
<th>% of ME spending of Public spending</th>
<th>% of ME spending minus National debt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>31.812,73</td>
<td>11.495,45</td>
<td>20.317,28</td>
<td>3.323,86</td>
<td>10,4%</td>
<td>16,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>33.566,42</td>
<td>11.084,38</td>
<td>22.482,04</td>
<td>3.584,46</td>
<td>10,7%</td>
<td>15,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>49.659,19</td>
<td>23.451,25</td>
<td>26.207,94</td>
<td>3.961,84</td>
<td>8,0%</td>
<td>15,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>42.313,52</td>
<td>15.696,77</td>
<td>26.616,75</td>
<td>4.304,70</td>
<td>10,2%</td>
<td>16,2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>40.322,19</td>
<td>12.659,67</td>
<td>27.662,52</td>
<td>4.680,12</td>
<td>11,6%</td>
<td>16,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>41.766,78</td>
<td>11.307,45</td>
<td>30.459,33</td>
<td>4.947,42</td>
<td>11,8%</td>
<td>16,2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>45.365,58</td>
<td>14.899,89</td>
<td>30.465,69</td>
<td>5.349,58</td>
<td>11,8%</td>
<td>17,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>54.559,20</td>
<td>19.264,18</td>
<td>35.295,02</td>
<td>5.848,15</td>
<td>10,7%</td>
<td>16,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>66.038,66</td>
<td>33.437,99</td>
<td>32.600,67</td>
<td>5.737,66</td>
<td>8,7%</td>
<td>17,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>70.710,87</td>
<td>33.068,46</td>
<td>37.642,41</td>
<td>5.881,55</td>
<td>8,3%</td>
<td>15,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>88.096,93</td>
<td>49.311,59</td>
<td>38.785,34</td>
<td>6.062,77</td>
<td>6,9%</td>
<td>15,6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: CGE (1995-2005); GGF of ME


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PORTUGAL</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory, upper-secondary, further</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary education</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education at a Glance 2007, OECD

### TABLE 8 - SPENDING ON EDUCATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP BY SECTOR (2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PORTUGAL</th>
<th>Pre-school</th>
<th>Compulsory</th>
<th>Upper-secondary</th>
<th>Compulsory and Upper-secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education at a Glance 2007, OECD