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ATTRACTING, DEVELOPING AND RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

OECD ACTIVITY

COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT FOR GREECE

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AEI	Higher Educational Institute (University).
APYSDE	Supreme Regional Service Council for Secondary Education.
APYSPE	Supreme Regional Service Council for Primary Education.
ASEP	Supreme Council for Selection of Personnel.
ASPAITE	Higher School of Pedagogical and Technological Education.
DE	Secondary Education.
DIKATSA	Interuniversity Centre for the Recognition of Foreign Qualifications.
DOE	Federation of Primary School Teacher Unions.
EAITY	Research Academic Computer Technology Institute.
EAP	Hellenic Open University.
EC	European Commission
EEEEK	Special, Vocational Education & Training.
EIN	National Youth Foundation.
EKKE	National Centre of Social Studies.
ELME	Local union for Secondary Education.
ESDAP	National Council of Quality Assurance and Evaluation.
ESYP	National Education Council.
EU	European Union.
CEDEFOP	Centre Européen pour le Développement de la Formation Professionnelle (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training)
GESEE	General Federation of Workers.
GGEE	General Secretariat for Adult Education.
GGNG	General Secretariat for Youth.
GDP	Gross Domestic Product.
FEK	Government Official Gazette.
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IDEKE	Institute for Continuing Adult Education.
IEK	Institutes of Vocational Training.
IKY	State Scholarships Foundation.
INSET	In-Service Training.
IPEM	Centre for Primary Education Research Studies (of DOE).
ITE	Institute of Technological Education.
KEE	Education Research Centre.
KEG	Centre for the Greek Language.
KEI	Occupational Education Institute (of OIELE – belongs to INE/GSEE)
KEKMOKOP	Centre for Social Morphology and Social Policy.
KEMETE	Centre of Education Research Studies and Documentation (of OLME)
KYSDE	Central Service Council for Secondary Education.
KYSPE	Central Service Council for Primary Education.
MK	Salary Scale.
NSSG	National Statistical Service of Greece.

OAED	Organisation for Manpower Employment
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
OEEK	Organisation for Vocational Education and Training
OESGK	Federation of Parents' and Legal Guardians' Associations of the Athens Prefecture.
OIELE	Federation of Private School Teacher Unions.
OEDB	School Book Publishing Organization.
OEPEK	Organization of the In-Service Training of Teachers.
OLME	Federation of Secondary School Teacher Unions.
OPEIVT	Community Support Framework for Education
OSK	School Buildings Organisation.
PDPE	Pedagogical Department of Primary Education.
PE	Higher Education.
PEA	Substitute Teachers Union.
PI	Pedagogic Institute.
PEK	Regional In-Service Training Centre.
PYSDE	Regional Service Councils for Secondary Education.
PYSPE	Regional Service Councils for Primary Education.
SD-N	Local Union for Primary Teachers.
SE	Special Education.
SEK	School Workshop Centres.
SELETE	School of Teachers of Technological Education.
SIEIE	Association of Private School Owners.
SMEA	Special Education School Unit.
TE	Technological Education.
TEE	Technical and Vocational School.
TEI	Technological and Educational Institute.
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.
YPEPTH	Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs.

GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

<i>All-day primary school</i>	Primary school working on an ‘all-day’ basis, i.e. with an extended timetable of 8-10 hours. All-day primary schools fall under two categories: i) those with <i>compulsory</i> extended timetable for all pupils; and ii) those with <i>optional</i> extended timetable, for pupils whose parents opt for this programme.
<i>Didaskaleio</i>	Institution, associated with a University Pedagogical Department of Primary Education, providing in-service training in general and special needs education to teachers of primary or pre-primary education, who have a two-year degree from the (non-university) Pedagogic Academies and have at least 5 years teaching experience
<i>Eisagogiki epimorfosi</i>	Induction teacher training, consisting of three stages lasting a total of 100 hours.
<i>Eniaio Lykeio</i>	An integrated diversified lyceum, established in 1997 to incorporate all previously existing types of upper (non-vocational) secondary school.
<i>Epetirida</i>	A national candidate list for recruitment of teachers.
<i>Exomiosi programme</i>	In-service teacher training programme, which up-grades the two year (non-university) diplomas of older primary teachers to university diplomas.
<i>Experimental school</i>	Primary or secondary school, which have as main objectives to promote pedagogical and educational research; and to provide practice for teachers during their initial and in-service training.
<i>Frontistirio</i>	Private tutorial institute.
<i>Gymnasio</i>	Lower secondary school.
<i>Intercultural school</i>	School, which provides educational opportunities to young people with social, cultural or learning particularities.
<i>Limited teaching position school</i>	A primary school with a small number of pupils and with up to three mixed-year classes.
<i>Minority school</i>	School for pupils of the Muslim minority of Thrace.
<i>Pedagogic Academy</i>	Public institution, which used to offer a 2-year non-university theoretical and practical initial education to primary and pre-primary teachers. This institution was abolished in 1988.

<i>Public investments budget</i>	State budget for fixed capital expenditures, e.g. purchase of real estate, construction and repair of buildings and facilities, and procurement and maintenance of educational equipment and laboratories.
<i>Regular budget</i>	State budget for recurrent expenditure, e.g. functional expenses for institutions at all levels of education and for all legal entities of public law which provide educational services
<i>Remote school</i>	School in a geographical location, which is difficult to approach (usually in mountainous areas or remote islands).
<i>School Advisor</i>	A person appointed to provide teachers with scientific and pedagogical guidance. School Advisors are together with the School Principals responsible for the evaluation of teachers.
<i>School Principal</i>	Head of a school.
<i>Second chance school</i>	School for young people who are over the age of 18 and have not completed compulsory education.
<i>Service Councils</i>	Councils at central, regional, or local level with particular responsibilities concerning teacher-related matters.
<i>Special education school</i>	School for persons with special educational needs.
<i>Special orientation school</i>	Music, Athletic or Ecclesiastic secondary school. This kind of schools exist in parallel with regular lower and upper secondary schools
<i>Teachers Association</i>	The collective body of all teachers in a school, responsible for drawing up guidelines for improving the implementation of education policy and improving the running of the school. Chair of the Teachers Association is the Principal of the school.
<i>Techniko Epaggelmatiko Ekpedeftirio (TEE)</i>	School of Technical and Vocational Education. The institution of <i>TEE</i> was introduced in 1998 and replaced gradually all the then existing technical and vocational upper secondary schools. <i>TEEs</i> offer two cycles of study: one of two years and one of three.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

National context and the Greek education system

Contemporary Greek society is characterized by accelerated changes in economy, policy and population, which have challenged the education system. Greek economy has been experiencing a gradual recovery in production and an improvement of its macroeconomic ratios. Public expenditure on education, according to the government's EU convergence programme, will progressively increase to reach the EU country mean. The phenomenon of immigration in the last years has slowed down the decrease of the local population and contributed to a cultural diversity of the student population with quantitative and qualitative implications in teacher demand. However, unemployment amongst higher education graduates is relatively high and this has had consequences for the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

Education is highly valued in Greece and in recent years this has led increasingly to a demand for an improvement in the quality of public education. In order to face the new challenges and demands, the educational system has recently been undergoing a series of reforms, which can be outlined as follows: Establishment of a new type of upper secondary school to replace and integrate all the previous types; upgrading of technical and vocational secondary education; establishment of support teaching programmes for lower attaining pupils; strengthening of special education provision; development of policies for multicultural education; emphasis on the introduction of innovations and new technologies at all levels of education; introduction of a new teacher recruitment system; introduction of a contemporary school-based system for the evaluation of educational work; establishment of a new organisation for the further and continuing training of teachers; gradual operation of pre-primary and primary schools on an all-day basis; introduction of improved comprehensive curricula; introduction of new kinds of pupil assessment; enhancement of foreign languages teaching. In addition, a decentralisation policy applied to the school administrative system resulted in the creation of regional directorates of education. These have facilitated the administration and monitoring of primary and secondary education in the region and the budget management for the operation of schools and in-service training.

Regarding the main structural features of the Greek school system, these could be summarised as follows: The number of schools and the number of pupils show an overall decreasing trend over the last decade, especially at the primary education level. The latter decrease however seems to have been halted by the influx of immigrant population in the country. On the other hand, the number of teachers seems to have increased over the same years, resulting in a considerable improvement of the pupil to teacher ratio in schools. In addition, the extension of primary schools' working timetable instigated increased teacher demand and thus led to a massive recruitment of primary school teachers.

The role of stakeholders in the development of educational policies in Greece is very important. Representatives of the main stakeholders (teachers, parents, private school owners) take part in numerous educational committees of an advisory and consultative character as well as in negotiations at every level regarding educational matters. Their latest round of negotiations with the government were concerned with the government's education budget and teacher's salaries; teachers' social security and pensions; initial teacher training; in-service teacher training; teacher selection; and teacher evaluation.

Attracting able people into the teaching profession

In Greece there are no major policy concerns about attracting people into the teaching profession. Teaching has always been considered as a job with a high degree of security, since teachers, at least in the

public sector, are civil servants and thus enjoy tenure as well as set salary structures, automatic promotion and good overall working conditions. These factors coupled with low demand and high unemployment in other professional sectors have meant that the teaching profession in Greece is in great supply, both at the primary and secondary level.

This oversupply of qualified teachers along with absence of government policies to restrict it or failure to satisfy it, resulted in considerable unemployment among qualified teachers in the 1990s. This, together with the relatively low teacher salaries, the bureaucratic climate of the educational framework and the absence of well-coordinated and sustained in-service teacher training programmes seem to have affected the status of the teaching profession and have raised concerns about the attractiveness of the profession for the more able candidates.

Training, developing and certifying teachers

In Greece, the form and length of the initial teacher education an individual has to undergo varies, depending on both their subject specialisation and the level of education (primary or secondary) they wish to teach. Prospective primary school teachers follow a concurrent model of training whereas prospective secondary teachers' initial education remains primarily restricted to the subject of their specialisation, with limited exposure to the sciences of education and to school experience. This absence of significant pedagogic training for most specialisations of secondary school teachers has been an important policy concern. In response to this concern, a new law was passed, which announced the introduction of an additional compulsory year of professional training for all future teachers in secondary education. This law however has not yet been enacted, mainly due to financial and organisational reasons, as well as to social concerns about its implementation.

Fully qualified teachers are selected for admission to the profession on completion of initial education. In the public sector, they are appointed to a post and acquire 'probationary' status (for 2 years) prior to securing permanent tenure. In practice almost all teachers acquire tenure after this probationary period.

Teachers appointed to their first post in the public sector have to go through a series of theoretical and practical training sessions. In addition there are different categories of programmes of various lengths, content, forms (based in school or out-of-school, during or after school hours) and attendance status (compulsory or optional) for the professional development of teachers. However, there are important policy concerns about the quality and co-ordination of teacher induction programmes and in-service education. Many of these programmes lack a systematic evaluation of their effectiveness. Moreover, it is felt that the many different in-service education programmes have not been satisfactorily co-ordinated. These concerns led to the recent establishment of a new organization "The Organization of In-Service Training of Teachers" (OEPEK), to co-ordinate and upgrade in-service education.

Recruiting, selecting and assigning teachers

Teacher selection has been one of the main teacher policy concerns of the last decade in Greece. It takes place centrally and thus allows a high degree of control over the number and quality of teachers appointed to the profession. The combination of an oversupply of qualified teachers, mainly of the secondary school level with an overall high teacher retention in schools has challenged policy makers to find a way to select the most able for appointment. As a result a major reform in the teacher recruitment and selection system was introduced in 1997 and has recently come into full effect. This new system changed the way of entry to the teaching profession from one based solely on the precedence of candidate teachers in a national candidate list to one based mainly (though not exclusively) on their performance in written assessments of their subject and pedagogic knowledge. The new system of recruitment has been however received with strong objections by the teacher unions, which argue that written exams cannot assess in any valid and reliable way a candidate's teaching skills.

The advent of this new teacher selection system has already had some of the intended effects, such as lowering the average age of the new teacher intake. However, it also seems to have created and/or have left unresolved a series of other issues. An example of the former is the creation of a new category of unemployed teachers: those who passed the examinations but still did not secure a teaching post. An example of the latter is the professional prospects of temporary substitute teachers, who constitute a significant proportion of the annual teacher intake and who saw their relative certitude for a 'tenured' appointment (when eventually they would reach the recruitment list's upper places) evaporating, after working for years with fewer financial and other benefits than their 'permanent' colleagues and no chance for promotion. More recent modifications to the recruitment system have attempted to tackle these issues by allowing a fourth of the teacher appointments to take place from lists of substitute teachers as well as from the pass list of the teacher examinations. However, the concerns of the stakeholders point to the fact that there is still ground for improvement in the system.

Having emphasised the oversupply situation of secondary school teachers, it is worth mentioning as well that in the last couple of years, due to a massive recruitment of primary school teachers in the newly established all-day primary schools in the public sector, the also substantial reserve pool of primary school teachers of the '90s seems to have been largely absorbed and there have been accounts of shortages of (mainly) temporary substitute primary teachers in non-urban areas and of primary teachers in private schools. However, the consensus opinion is that this current indication of primary teacher shortage should be considered as a temporary effect and cannot be thought of as an issue of major policy concern. In other words, since this shortage is not linked in any way with the entrance of able teachers to the profession, the attraction of which as a result seems to have increased, the constant supply of primary teacher graduates will soon obliterate it.

Retaining effective teachers in schools

As already mentioned teacher retention does not constitute a policy concern in Greece. On the other hand significant issues seem to arise in relation to how to upgrade a certain number of practicing teachers into effective teachers. Teacher evaluation is one of them and has given rise to many discussions amongst stakeholders and to many relevant policy decisions. Theoretically many procedures have been introduced to evaluate teachers in the last few years, but in practice these procedures have not yet been put fully in effect. These procedures have been met on the whole with great resistance by the teacher unions, deriving to a certain extent from their experience with the rather authoritarian, politically biased and old fashioned form of teacher evaluation that existed two decades ago. This resistance however seems to have weakened lately, especially in view of the government's will to pilot alternative ways of self-evaluation of school units. Teacher unions favour on the whole participative forms of evaluation focused on the evaluation of educational work and not of individual teachers. Moreover, they strongly argue against linking this evaluation with their promotion and salary increase, which are as it stands automatic and based on teaching service years plus additional qualifications for leadership posts.

Although there are opportunities for teachers to be seconded to out-of-school posts (usually administrative and on the whole related to education), and to take paid study leave, these are rather limited and it seems that higher mobility of teachers would be desirable. Even lower rates of retention would be better in order for the teaching workforce to be somehow "refreshed". Recent measures of early teacher retirement adopted by the Greek Ministry of Education seem to be towards this direction.

Finally, one of the government's initiatives towards quality assurance in education has been the project "Monitoring of the Education System at the Level of the School Unit", which is co-funded by the EU. It is the first systematic work towards developing an integrated and comprehensive information framework for the collection of data on school material resources, activities and human potential. It is expected to contribute to the process of tracking the performance of the whole educational system at national level and thus to facilitate corrective interventions.

CHAPTER 1: NATIONAL CONTEXT

1.1 Main objectives of Greek education policy

1. Contemporary Greek society within the EU is characterized by accelerated changes in economy, policy and population. Changes concern matters in expenditure and administration, the increasing diversity in population and the knowledge and information demands of the Greek society. These changes have challenged the education system. Innovations and new technologies had to be introduced alongside with a modernization of all levels of education. In order to meet the new requirements the educational system has been undergoing a series of changes, such as those, which emphasise decentralisation in matters of finance and administration, wider differentiation in educational paths and enhancement of quality of education.

2. More particularly, recent reforms and changes (of the last five years approximately), which affect schools and teachers, are:

- Decentralisation of budget management for the operation of schools and of in-service training.
- Gradual operation of primary schools on an all-day basis ('all-day' schools). Introduction of extra curricular activities on a voluntary basis with emphasis on creativity for pupils. Additional teaching staff of new specialisations is employed.
- Drawing up of a comprehensive curriculum framework for primary and secondary school with emphasis on continuation and progression between the two levels of education. Introduction of new cognitive domains and subject matters, such as information technology, environmental education, consumer education, health education etc., and establishment of new teaching and assessment methods supported by relevant programmes of teacher training. In addition an emphasis on an interdisciplinary approach to teaching is given.
- Introduction of the teaching of a second foreign language as a compulsory subject in lower secondary education. (The teaching of one foreign language – English in almost all cases – starts at the 3rd grade of primary school.)
- Establishment of support teaching programmes for lower attaining pupils in upper secondary schools of general programmes, inside the school but outside standard school hours, staffed by teachers paid on an hourly basis.
- Establishment of the *Eniaio Lykeio*, (an integrated diversified lyceum) to incorporate all previously existing types of upper (non-vocational) secondary school and to upgrade the corresponding educational provision.
- Introduction of new ways of pupil assessment in upper secondary education and of university entry requirements.
- Upgrading of technical and vocational secondary education provision.

- Strengthening of special education provision.
- Development of policies for multicultural education. Establishment of reception classes and language support classes for foreign and repatriated Greek pupils.
- Emphasis on the introduction of innovations and new technologies at all levels of education.
- Provisions for training in new technologies for in-service teachers of primary and secondary education.
- Introduction of a new teacher recruitment system based on criteria of educational merit, to replace recruitment made exclusively from national candidate lists.
- Introduction of a contemporary school-based system for the evaluation of educational work as well as of a new framework for the evaluation of teachers. Emphasis on self-evaluation procedures.
- Establishment of a new organisation (OEPEK) for the further and continuing training of teachers.

1.2 Demographic indicators: Implications for schools and teachers

3. Greece has 10.964.020 inhabitants (according to the 2001 census) of whom 50,45% are female (Table 1.1). Besides the local population there exists an increasing number of immigrants. The increase of legal foreign immigrants to Greece was in the order of 45,43% during the 1985-1996 period, i.e. from 106.900 (1985), it rose to 155.465 in 1996. These figures refer only to registered immigrants. Since early 1990 there has been a significant but unverifiable number of illegal immigrants, mainly economic refugees from neighbouring and other countries. Ethnic Hellenes from the former Soviet Union and Northern Epirus (Southern Albania) constitute a significant part of this wave of immigration. The mass illegal influx of foreign nationals into the country has contributed to the growth of the Greek economy but has also created socio-economic problems such as: frictions in the labour market, evasion of taxes and social security contributions, etc.. In 1998 a process of registering immigrants and granting residence and work permits to illegal immigrants began. According to the data collected the number of these is 375.000. In other words, in the course of the last decade Greece has become an immigrant-receptive country, a fact which has resulted in the considerable participation of immigrants in the educational system (YPEPTH, 2000; Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003).

4. The annual rate of increase of the population of Greece in 1996-97 was 2,1 per 1000 inhabitants - rate expressing only the factor of net migration. Moreover, in 1996 we had the following phenomenon for the natives: 9,6/1000 inhabitants (birth rate) – 9,6/1000 inhabitants (death rate) = net population growth 0. Figure 1.1 shows a significant drop in the birth rate, during the period 1976-1999, resulting to a serious demographic problem of an ageing population in the country. In addition, in the same period the death rate shows an increase, mainly among 75 year-old persons and older (YPEPTH, 2000).

5. The natural changes mentioned above, are reflected in the age composition of the Greek population (see Figure 1.2). During the past three decades, the composition of the total estimated population in terms of age has changed considerably. Specifically, the percentage of children 0-14 years old has dropped from 25,36% of the total population in 1971 to 15,20% of the total population in 2001. The number of people in the 65+ age group (pensionable age) rose from 10,92% in 1971 to 17,08% in 2001. And finally the age percentage of persons in the active population (15-64) increased from 63,72 to 67,71% during the same period.

6. In conclusion, according to the figures presented here, it is expected that the decrease of the local population will be slowed or even halted by the phenomenon of immigration observed in the last few years. This influx of foreign nationals will also affect schools by contributing to a cultural diversity of the student population. In addition, the above changes will have quantitative and qualitative implications for teacher demand.

Table 1.1: The population of Greece by gender and age

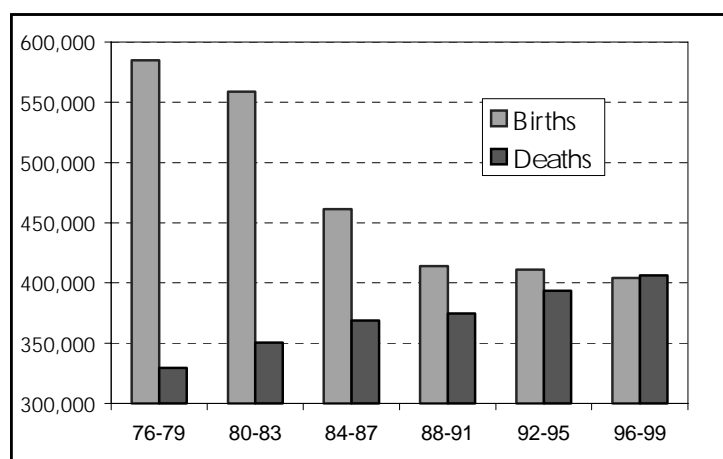
	1971 ⁽¹⁾	1981 ⁽¹⁾	1991 ⁽¹⁾	2001 ⁽²⁾
Total	8.768.372	9.739.589	10.259.900	10.964.020
Male	4.286.748	4.779.571	5.055.408	5.431.816
Female	4.481.624	4.960.018	5.204.492	5.532.204
Age				
0 -14	2.223.904	2.307.297	1.974.867	1.666.888
15 - 64	5.587.352	6.192.751	6.880.681	7.423.889
> 64	957.116	1.239.541	1.404.352	1.873.243

Source: NSSG (2003a).

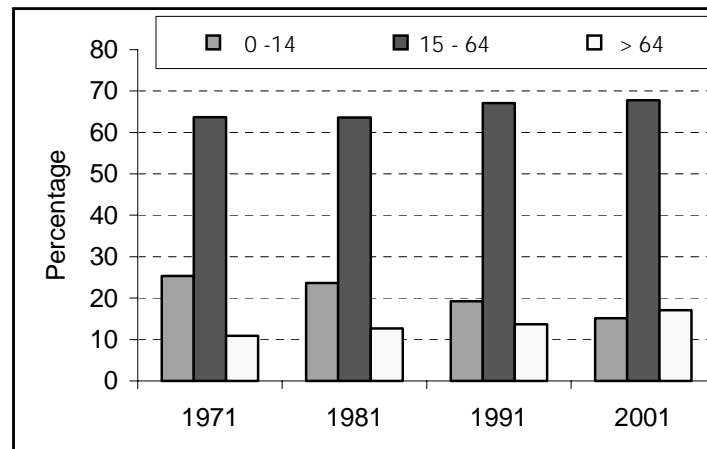
Notes: (1) For the years 1971, 1981 and 1991 25%, 10% and 100% respectively of the census questionnaires were sampled and processed.

(2) Final number for the total population of Greece; provisional numbers for gender and age distribution.

Figure 1.1: Natural Changes in the population of Greece per 4-year period (1976-1999)



Source: NSSG (quoted in Stamelos, 2002).

Figure 1.2: Changes in age distribution of Greek population per decade (1971-2001)

Source: NSSG (2003a).

1.3 Economic indices and labour market trends: Implications for schools and teachers

7. After the international economic recession of the early 1990s, which had also affected the Greek economy, the latter has since been experiencing a gradual recovery in production and an improvement of its macroeconomic ratios. More particularly, since 1994, when the Revised Convergence Programme of the Greek economy (within the EU) went into effect, a relatively high growth rate has been observed, indeed higher than the average European Union growth rate, as measured, first of all, by the increase in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This increase has remained relatively constant during the last three years (Table 1.2), a fact that is due to, amongst other reasons, the positive effects of the 3rd Community Support Framework as well as of the works carried out in preparation for the Olympic Games which will be held in Greece in 2004 (Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003).

Table 1.2: Increase (%) of GDP in the period 1999-2002

	1999	2000	2001	2002
GREECE	3.4	4.1	4.1	3.8
EUROPE 15	2.5	3.4	2.0	1.5

Source: Ministry of National Economy - General Directorate of Economic Policy (June 2002), Six-month Report, v.35 (quoted in Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003)

8. In the course of the last 3 years (2000-2002) inflation has steadily been a little over 3%, a rate higher than the EU inflation rate (roughly 2%) (Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003). In the same years the average unemployment percentage has dropped from 11,1 to 10,0 (NSSG, 2003a), though still remains at relatively high levels against EU standards. Furthermore, this percentage is even higher for young people under the age of 30 and in particular amongst women of this age. It is calculated that unemployment among young people fluctuates around 40-45% of total unemployment. Finally, unemployment among higher education graduates is also relatively high (10% in 2000: 6,2% amongst men and 14,4% amongst women) (Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003), a fact that has consequences for the attractiveness of the teaching profession (see Chapter 3).

9. More specifically, it is often said that a high unemployment rate often leads to high demand for teaching jobs. A relation can often be established between a buoyant employment market for graduates and a disinclination to enter the teaching profession. Labour market conditions help to shape patterns of

teacher supply (Eurydice, 2002a). In other words, one can maintain that low demand in other professional sectors as well as favourable employment conditions make the teaching profession attractive in Greece. On the other hand, the resulting high supply of teachers leads to unemployment in the teaching profession and can thus decrease the attractiveness of teaching as a profession.

1.4 Trends in public and private expenditure for schooling

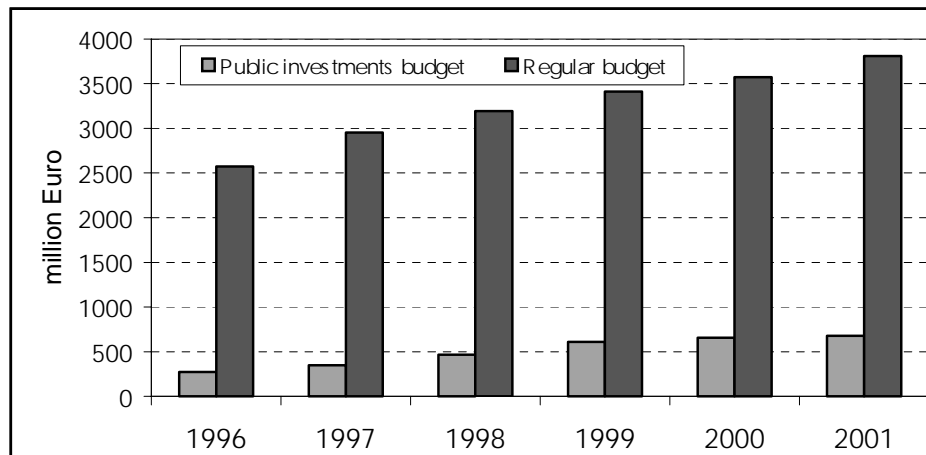
10. Education in Greece, at all levels of public education, is provided free of charge, and is financed primarily by the government through the budgets for both recurrent expenditure ('regular' budget) and public investment, and secondly by non-state sources (e.g. the European Union through the Community Support Framework, private organizations/individuals, etc.). The 'regular' budget covers expenditure related to functional expenses for institutions at all levels of education and for all legal entities of public law which provide educational services. It also covers salaries, social security contributions, benefits and compensations for teaching and administrative staff at all levels of education. Finally, it covers the cost of financial provision and support for school children and university students, including free distribution of textbooks, transport for school children (in remote areas), and the provision of meals and accommodation, grants and loans for university students. The 'public investments' budget covers fixed capital expenditures, i.e. purchase of real estate, construction and repair of buildings and facilities, and procurement and maintenance of educational equipment and laboratories (Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003).

11. Public expenditure for education during the five-year period 1996-2001 presents an increasing proportion of national expenditure trend (Figure 1.3). The percentage increase of total annual public expenditure for education in the years 1997-2001 has been: 16%, 11%, 10%, 5% and 4% respectively, which is higher than the equivalent increase in GDP (see Table 1.2). Moreover, this increase for the years 2003 and 2004 (according to the 2004 public budget) is estimated to be 6,7% and 8% respectively. According to the government's EU convergence programme, public expenditure on education as a percentage of the country's GDP will progressively increase in the years to come to reach the EU country mean. Currently, it is still much lower (3,6% in 1999 according to Eurostat) than the EU15 country mean (5%). Also, total expenditure on education seems to be lower than that of other OECD countries. It is interesting to note that public expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (90,2% of total expenditure for education in 1999) is low compared to the OECD country mean (92,1%), while conversely the respective private expenditure is high (9,8% compared to 7,9%)¹ (OECD, 2002). The largest proportion of these public funds go for teachers' salaries. Private expenditure on education covers the provision of educational services by private schools operating in parallel with public schools. It also covers the cost of services by private tutorial institutes (*frontistiria*) and private teachers employed by families and learners to supplement the education provided by public and private schools.

12. On the whole, the family's contribution to public education is low for primary school and increases as the educational level rises. Relevant contribution for private education in the form of fees depends on the level of education and on the services rendered by the private school, but also by the school's reputation in the education "market" (KEE and YPEPTH, 2003).

13. Social assistance to pupils and students is limited and consists of a small number of scholarships, grants and financial support available through various endowments, citizens and legal entities of private law. The state has also legislated a kind of family benefit which is related to the education of children or young persons. This equals approximately the 1/20 of the average minimum monthly wage and is granted to all salaried or waged employees (public and private), who have children younger than 18 years old or studying in higher education (Universities and Technological Education Institutes) and are under the age of 24 (KEE and YPEPTH, 2003).

¹ Private expenditure includes subsidies attributable to payments to educational institutions received from public sources.

Figure 1.3: Public expenditure budget for education (1996-2001) (in million Euro)

Source: Budget for the fiscal years 2000 and 2001 and Financial Affairs Directorate, YPEPTH, (quoted in Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003 and in KEE and YPEPTH, 2003).

Note: The figures for 1996-99 correspond to expenses in real terms, whereas those for 2000 and 2001 are nominal.

1.5 Public perceptions on education and teachers

14. We are not aware of any research or study on public perceptions about the role of schools and quality of schooling. On the whole, education is valued in Greece (evidenced by the proportion of their income all strata of society spend on *frontistiria* and other forms of private education); it is considered as a social good and is highly associated with social progress. More particularly, general education is thought of as a prerequisite for social and professional advancement. This belief prevails despite the fact that in recent years the link between the acquisition of a school leaving certificate (and even of a university degree) and the attainment of employment has weakened significantly (Kyprianou, 2003). Moreover, the general public believes that in school, teaching should give emphasis not only on specific domain knowledge, but also on social skills, social values and behavioural standards. However, people also believe that primary and secondary schools in Greece do not fully tend to these purposes since the education system is too examination-centred; the president of the Federation of Parents' and Legal Guardians' Associations of the Athens prefecture characteristically says: "*The education system does not educate the children; it wears them out*". The consensus opinion seems to be that the quality of the education provided needs strengthening.

15. With regard to the status of the teaching profession Kelsall and Kelsall (1969, quoted in Cowan and Koutouzis, 1997) state that professional status does not necessary represent a value, but rather the image that a society has developed for a profession and its practitioners. According to them, such an image emanates from the following characteristics: strict procedures of training, certification, recruitment and selection; the difficulty and in general the nature of the work involved; high salaries; relative freedom from outside interference and control; the social origin of the practitioners; and good working conditions. According to Cowan and Koutouzis (1997), but also to KEMETE (2003a), which is the research centre of the Federation of Secondary School Teacher Unions (*OLME*), for the Greek teaching profession the majority of the above characteristics do not apply (Cowan and Koutouzis, 1997).

16. An older research on people's attitudes towards the image of the teaching profession (Pirgiotakis, 1992) showed that only 33% of scientists respect the teaching profession, while among people with high economic profile this percentage drops to 3,4%. Among the professions that show high respect to teachers, are priests, peasants and technicians. A different study (*OLME*, 1995), conducted by *OLME* as part of the EU project 'Educators as pedagogues and professionals', asked 400 secondary

teachers of all over Greece to put a number of professions (senior public officer, bank employee, engineer, doctor, teacher, judge, lawyer, nurse, plumber, flight attendant) in order of social position and status. Only 9,6% of the teachers in the sample did they rate their status higher than that of other professions.

17. Vassilou-Papageorgiou (1992) identified three main characteristics as contributing negatively to the status of teachers in Greece: 1) The majority of teachers originate from the lower social classes. It has been reported that teachers comprise an inhomogeneous class. 2) They constitute a professional body of large size with low salary demands. The size of the educators' body is continuously increasing as the demand for teaching staff and the pressure from unions for employment increases. 3) The moderate prestige is also associated with the bureaucratic climate that characterizes the educational framework, within teachers work. This framework, which limits the teachers' independence and is characterized by state interventions, creates a servant-consciousness in teachers, lowering their self-image. In addition, the state refuses to acknowledge the social offer of the teaching profession. Here, we should also mention that Vassilou-Papageorgiou (1992) notes that teaching is regarded as a more socially prestigious profession for females.

18. Finally, the secondary teachers themselves, through the research institute of their trade union (KEMETE, 2003a), identify the following factors as affecting negatively the status and prestige of their profession and therefore its attractiveness as well: a) The relatively low teacher salaries; b) The long-term unemployment of secondary teachers; c) The simplistic and one-dimensional nature of the teacher selection mechanism; d) The strengthening of teacher monitoring and control mechanisms, as this is expressed through state regulations on the delivery of the curriculum, the assessment of pupils, the evaluation of teachers' work, etc.; d) The reduction of the role and responsibilities of the Teachers Associations in schools; e) The weakening of teachers' employment status, as this is expressed by the increase in the number of teachers who are employed on short-term contracts; f) The absence of well-coordinated and sustained in-service teacher training programmes.

CHAPTER 2: THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND TEACHING WORKFORCE

2.1 Structure of the Greek school system

19. Education is provided at three successive levels (see Figure 2.1):

- Primary education^{*}: which includes pre-primary and primary schools. In primary schools schooling lasts six years and entrance age is the sixth year. ‘All-day’ primary schools operate alongside ‘regular’ primary schools; the former have an extended timetable and enhanced curriculum (see below). Today close to half of all primary schools work on an all-day basis (see below) and there is a plan for their number to increase gradually.
- Secondary education: which includes the three-year lower secondary school (*Gymnasio*), the lyceum (*Eniaio Lykeio*) and the school of technical and vocational education (*Techniko Epaggelmatiko Ekpedeftirio – TEE*). The institution of *Eniaio Lykeio* was introduced by Law 2525/97 and replaced gradually all the then existing types of upper secondary school of general education. Studies in *Eniaio Lykeio* last for three years. Similarly, the institution of *TEE* was introduced by Law 2640/98 and replaced gradually all the then existing technical and vocational schools. *TEEs* offer two cycles of study: one of two years and one of three. Reciprocal transfers from one type of upper secondary school to the other are allowed. In addition to the above, there also exist specialised lower secondary schools and lyceums for Music, Sports and Religion Education and schools for Special Education.
- Tertiary education: which includes Universities (*AEI*), Technological Education Institutes (*TEI*), the Higher School of Pedagogical and Technological Education (*ASPAlITE*) and the Hellenic Open University (*EAP*).

20. Besides the education establishments mentioned above there exist other type of institutions offering education or training to pupils of post-compulsory schooling age which do not correspond to any specific level of education (ungraded or unclassified institutions). These are:

- OAED (Organization for Manpower Employment): Provides courses of specialized training of various lengths.
- IEK (Institutes of Vocational Training): Provides post-secondary vocational training.

21. Besides the conventional (‘regular’) schools there exist the following other types of schools:

- All-Day Schools: They were first established by law in 1997 as a response to social and educational demands and in order to promote creative work in primary education. All-day primary schools fall under two categories: i) those with *compulsory* extended timetable (formally called ‘experimental all-day schools’); and ii) those with *optional* extended timetable (called ‘all-day’ schools). The former have a compulsory daily timetable of eight hours (and another two hours as optional) for all pupils, compared to six hours of a ‘regular’ primary school. Teachers in

* The term ‘primary education’ is used in the rest of the report to refer solely to primary schools and not to pre-primary schools.

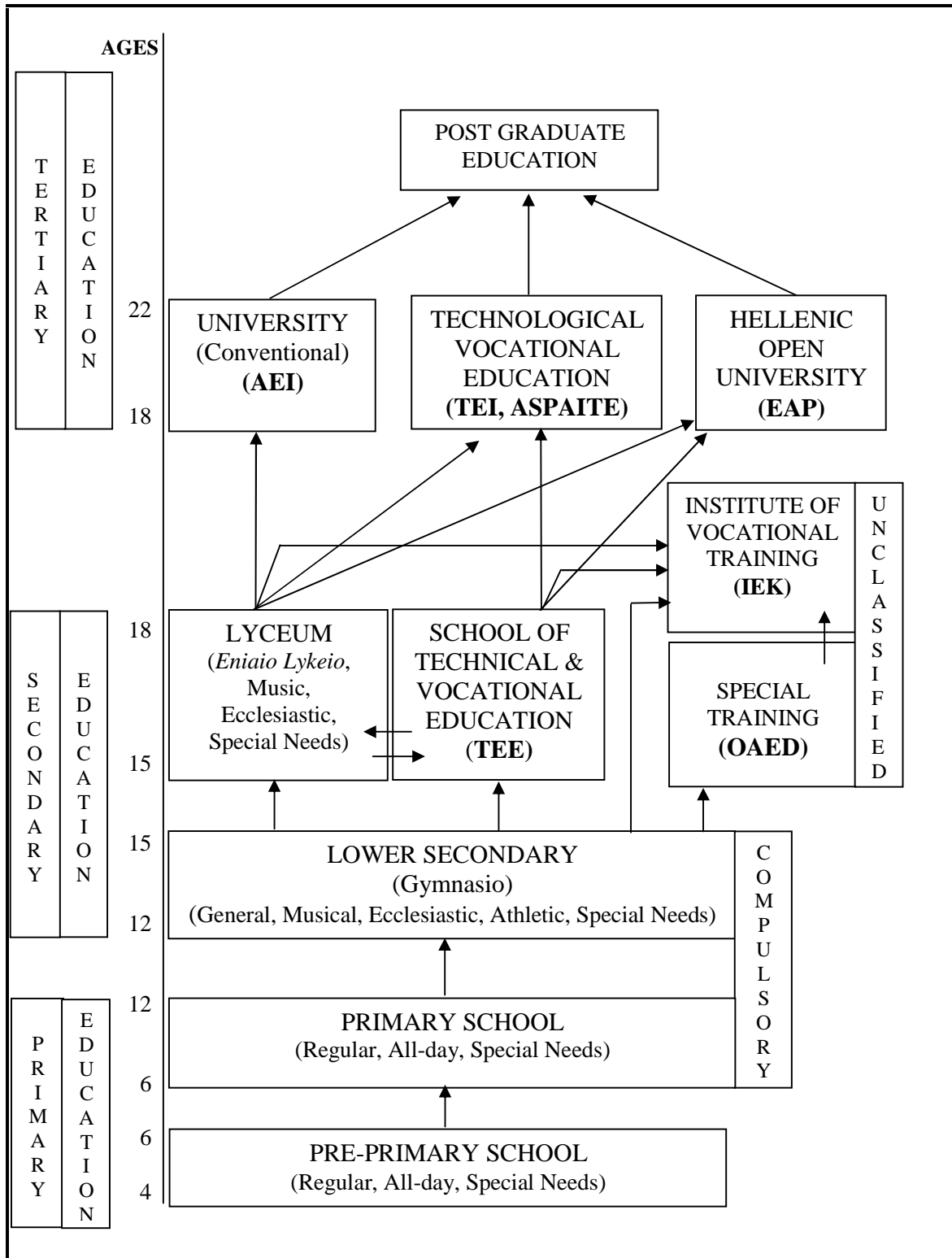
these schools have the flexibility to choose the extra-curricular subject matters to be taught and/or activities to be carried out in the extra hours, in agreement with the Pedagogic Institute (PI). All together there are 28 experimental all-day schools. The other type of all-day schools, which is the most common one, offers the option of an extended timetable to pupils whose parents opt for this programme. In these schools, the selection of extra-curricular activities is limited and differs depending on the pupils' age-group. Compulsory subjects/activities include study time, physical education, English language and Information Technology (provided that the school has suitably qualified teachers); and optional subjects/activities include art, drama, music and dance. Close to half of all primary schools work on this basis.

- Limited Teaching Position Schools and Remote Schools. In Primary Education, a school may include classes for all six years of attendance, but where there are few pupils it may function autonomously with up to three mixed-year classes, thus being characterized as Limited Teaching Position Schools. In general, in primary schools the number of permanent teaching positions can be anything from one to twelve: this number is determined by the ratio of twenty-five (25) pupils to one teacher for schools with up to fifty (50) pupils, i.e. for one- and two-position schools, whereas for schools with more than fifty (50) pupils this ratio is thirty (30) pupils to one teacher. A Limited Teaching Position School follows the regular curriculum for primary education, but with different arrangement of teaching time for every subject due to the mixed-age composition of classes. In secondary education (lower and upper) schools with low student population can be considered remote, due to their geographical location, being difficult to approach and usually in mountainous areas or remote islands. This does not mean that all schools with few classes are remote. In 2000 there were 237 remote schools (KEE and YPEPTH, 2003).
- Special orientation schools (i.e. Music, Athletic and Ecclesiastic) exist in parallel with regular lower and upper secondary schools. All together in lower and upper secondary education there are 60 Music schools (34 lower and 26 upper secondary schools respectively) and 114 Athletic schools (103 lower and 11 upper secondary schools respectively) (www.ypepth.gr, 12.09.2003). There are also Experimental (primary and secondary) schools. The main objectives of these schools are: to promote pedagogical and educational research; and to provide practice for teachers during their initial and in-service training (YPEPTH, 2000). There are 89 Experimental schools (49 primary, 23 lower secondary and 17 upper secondary schools) (www.ypepth.gr, 12.09.2003). All Experimental schools in primary education and nine in secondary education are under the supervision of the Pedagogical Departments of the associated Universities.
- Intercultural Schools: Schools for Intercultural Education emerged in 1996 from the reform of former schools for repatriated pupils of Greek origin. Teaching in these schools is carried out in two languages: Greek and English in Attica, and Greek and German in Attica and Thessaloniki. Intercultural schools provide educational opportunities to young people with social, cultural or learning particularities. School curricula of the respective level of education are applied, adapted to the students' special needs. There are 26 Intercultural schools (13 primary, 9 lower secondary and 4 lyceums) (www.ypepth.gr, 12.9.2003).
- Minority Schools: Schools for pupils of the Muslim minority of Thrace. In these schools teaching takes place in the Greek and Turkish language and is offered by teachers of Muslim and Christian faith. There are 235 minority schools (229 primary, 2 lower secondary, 2 lyceums and 2 lyceums of religious education) (www.ypepth.gr, 19.1.2004).
- Special Education Schools: Special Education is intended for persons with special educational needs; in particular those with significant learning difficulties and adjustment problems due to physical, cognitive, psychological and social differences. After the mid '80s in Europe, the integration of special needs pupils in mainstream schools has prevailed, offering extra support in

relation to school staff and equipment. In Greece, educational policy is in this direction. The percentage of pupils attending special (that is, separate) classes or schools is less than 1%, and the pupils considered having special needs are not more than 2% (see also Meijer, Soriano and Watkins, 2003). A prerequisite for the incorporation of special needs children in regular schools is mainly the school's ability to cover the needs of the integrated pupils while preserving the educational standards for the rest of the pupils. Special Education is part of the initial theoretical training of all teachers in addition to visits to special schools during the period of initial training. Special education needs pupils may attend: a) a regular school class with parallel support by a special education teacher; b) specially organized and properly staffed inclusion classes, functioning in schools of general and technical-vocational education. When attendance of pupils with special education needs is particularly difficult in regular schools or integration classes due to the type or gravity of the problem, special education is available at: 1) Separate special education schools; 2) Schools or classes operating separately or as parts of other schools in hospitals, rehabilitation centres, adult training institutions or institutions for persons suffering from chronic diseases; 3) At home, in extremely special conditions where a tele-education system may be in use. For the diagnostic evaluation and scientific description of the children as "special needs" pupils 22 Centres for Diagnostic Evaluation and Support were established in 1999 and have been providing service since. The teachers appointed in Special Education schools for 1999-2000 were 1.877. Additionally, 294 Supporting Technical Staff were appointed, making up a total of 2.171 in special education. Of those 831 have a specialty training, 398 hold other degrees, 52 hold a Master's and 11 a PhD degree (KEE and YPEPTH, 2003)

- Second Chance Schools. According to the prevailing legislative framework, primary and lower secondary education is compulsory. Second Chance schools were set up (Law 2525/1997) for young people who are over the age of 18 and have not completed their compulsory education. The total duration of their programme is 18 months. Up to 2002-03 there were 5 Second Chance schools with a total of approximately 500 students (www.polites.gr, 12.9.2003). In the school year 2003-04 twelve (12) more are scheduled to operate. There is scope for their number to increase gradually and reach one per prefecture.

Figure 2.1: Structural characteristics of the Greek Education System.



Note: In the Greek Education System the term 'Primary Education' refers to both primary and pre-primary schools. However, in the rest of the report this term is used to denote solely primary schools.

2.2 Administration of the Greek school system

22. The administration of primary and secondary education (see Figure 2.2) is conducted hierarchically by (YPEPTH, 2000; Eurydice/CEDEFOP, 2002; Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003):

1. The Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH)
2. The Regional Education Directorates (Law 2986/2002)
3. The Directorates of Education (Prefecture)
4. The Education Offices (District) and
5. The School Unit.

23. Responsibility for national education policy lies with the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH). The basic functions and responsibilities of this Ministry consist in defining, evaluating and creating the conditions for meeting educational needs. In particular, it proposes legislation in the field of education, and is responsible for implementing the laws and the associated administrative decisions. It coordinates and evaluates the regional services and schools, and provides financial support for educational activities. Some functions and responsibilities have been delegated to public organizations and other bodies which report directly to the Ministry (Figure 1 in Appendix 1 describes in detail the administrative structure of education at national level). The administrative structure of the Ministry (YPEPTH) includes departments, directorates, general directorates and administrative sections (Figure 2 in Appendix 1 shows the internal organization of YPEPTH). More particularly, for primary and secondary education the directorates which operate at central level are: the Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education Personnel, the Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education Curriculum, the Directorate for School Vocational Guidance and Vocational Activities, the Special Education Directorate, the Physical Education Directorate, the Directorate of Administrative Affairs for Primary and Secondary Education, the Financial Affairs Directorate, the Private Education Directorate, the Directorate for Foreign and Minority Schools, the Directorate of Education for Greek Expatriates and Intercultural Education, and the Directorate for Ecclesiastic Studies and Religious Education. (For responsibilities of each directorate see Appendix 1). Furthermore, at central level there operate the Central Service Councils for Primary and Secondary Education (KYSPE and KYSDE respectively). Their role is mainly consultative and in few cases decisive with respect to matters affecting the service status of all educational personnel. They are comprised of: three Heads of Directorates (at the prefecture level) and two elected representatives of teachers.

24. In addition to the above, by Law 2817/2000 the National Education Council (*ESYP*) was established as an independent administrative authority (under the supervision of YPEPTH) with a consultative and advisory role on matters of education policy. Representatives of ministries, political parties represented in Parliament, professional and trade union organizations, and representatives of all levels of education take part in the plenary sessions of *ESYP*. Responsibilities of the plenary session include: planning the education system, outlining the general policy on education and making proposals on matters referred to it by the Minister for National Education and Religious Affairs. However, *ESYP* has only very recently formed itself into a body and its first plenary session took place in October 2003.

25. At regional level administration is exercised by the Regional Education Directorates. This is a new institution established by Law 2986/2002. There are 13 Regional Education Directorates. The head of each Regional Directorate comes directly under the Minister of Education and is based at the capital of the region. Each Regional Education Directorate consists of three departments: Administration; Scientific-Pedagogic Guidance for Primary Education; Scientific-Pedagogic Guidance for Secondary Education. They are responsible for the administration and monitoring of primary and secondary education in the region and more particularly of the operation of the various Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education of the corresponding prefectures. In addition, they oversee the work of the: Regional Centres for Further Education; Centres for Diagnosis, Assessment and Support; Regional

Centres to Support Educational Planning; Centres of Environmental Education; Youth Counselling Centres; School Advisors of Pre-primary, Primary, Secondary and Special Education. The latter provide teachers with guidance on issues of pedagogical and scientific nature and participate in their evaluation (see Chapter 6). Furthermore at the headquarters of each Regional Education Directorate there operate the Supreme Regional Service Council for Primary Education (APYSPE) and the corresponding council for Secondary Education (APYSDE). They are responsible mainly for matters related to the service status of the heads of Education Offices. Each of these councils consists of a committee of five-members: the Head of the Regional Education Directorate, the Head of the Scientific-Pedagogic Guidance, a Head of a Directorate of Education from one of the corresponding prefectures, and two elected representatives of teachers. (Presidential Decree 1/2003; Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003).

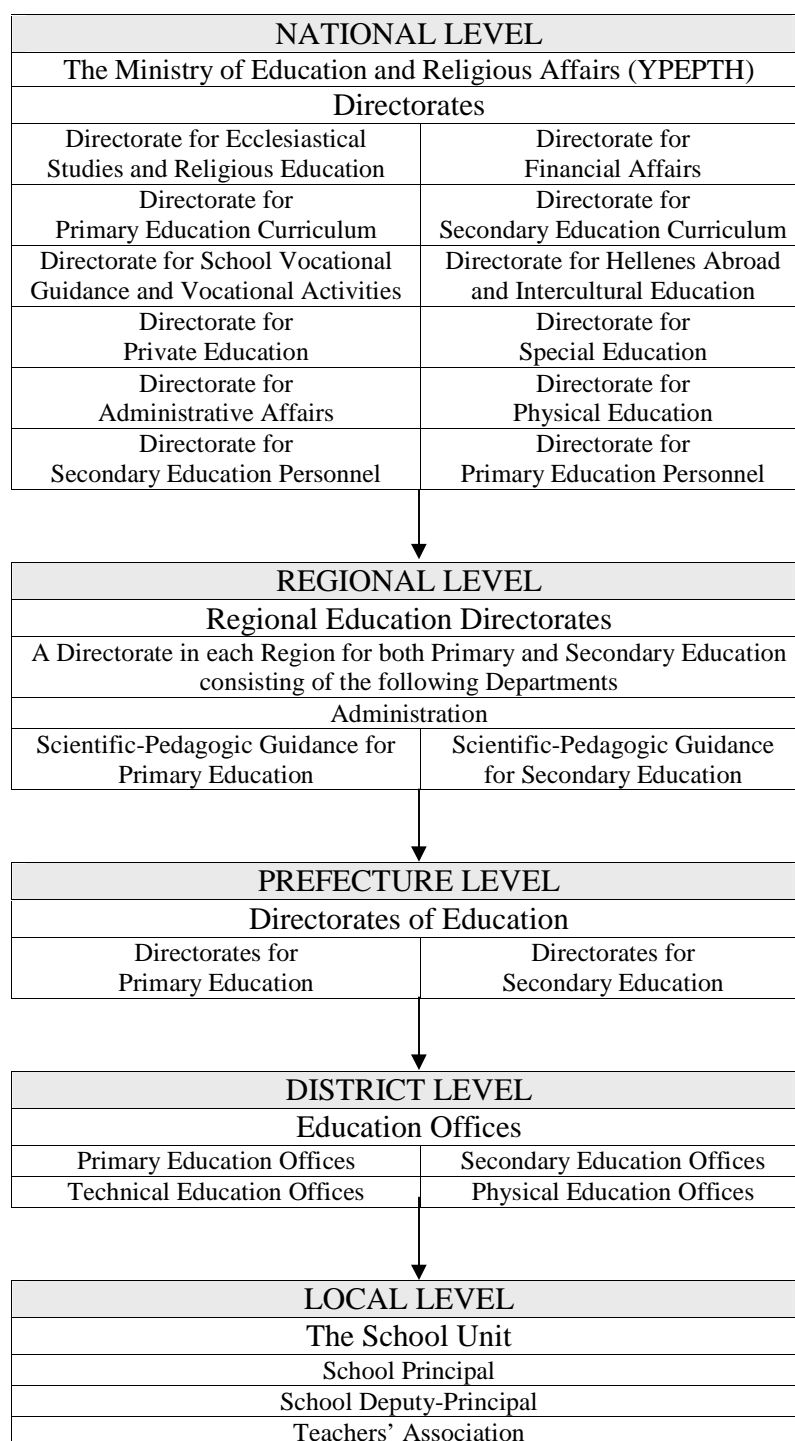
26. At prefecture level there are Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education, supervised by the Prefect and responsible for the administration and monitoring of the education system in the prefecture. There are 58 Directorates of Primary Education and another 58 of Secondary Education (Stamelos, 2002). Their offices are located in the capital of the prefecture. Depending on the size of the prefecture, there is a number of Education Offices under each Directorate. The Directorates supervise the Education Offices of the corresponding districts. In case where the prefecture is small and it consists of one district, then the Head of the Directorate is simultaneously the Head of the Education Office. The Heads of the Education Directorates and Offices are responsible for the operation of their administrative units respectively. They are also the administrative and disciplinary superiors of the teachers and administrative staff working in these units, the teachers working in schools and the Principals of the schools. Also at prefecture level, there are the Regional Service Councils for Primary and for Secondary Education (PYSPE and PYSDE respectively), set up by the Prefect and responsible for matters related to the service status of teachers. These councils consist of five members: the Head of the Directorate, two Heads of Education Offices and two elected representatives of teachers.

27. At district level the administration of the school system is the responsibility of the Education Offices, which come under the Directorate of the corresponding prefecture. There are 141 and 70 Education Offices for primary and general secondary education respectively (Stamelos, 2002). In addition, in some prefectures there are Education Offices for technical secondary education and one for physical education. In 2000-01 there were 15 Technical Education Offices in the whole country (Stamelos, 2002). The Heads of the Offices administer and monitor the operation of the schools in their district; they are also the administrative and disciplinary superiors of the teachers and administrative staff serving in these offices.

28. At school unit level: Each primary and secondary school is directed by the Principal, the Deputy Principal and the Teachers Association in the school. The schools in each prefecture, both public and private and at all levels, are administered by the Head of the Directorate of Education. A Principal is appointed to schools that have at least four teaching positions. The school Principal is responsible for: the smooth running of the school; coordination of all school activities; compliance with legal regulations; circulars and official orders; and implementation of the decisions of the Teachers Association. The Principal participates in the evaluation of teachers and cooperates with the School Advisors. In schools with ten positions and more, a Deputy Principal is also appointed, who acts as deputy to the Principal when there isn't one or when s/he is absent or prevented from carrying out his/her duties. The Teachers Association, chair of which is the Principal of the school, comprises of all teachers in a particular school and is the collective body for drawing up guidelines for improving the implementation of education policy and improving the running of the school (Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003; Eurydice/CEDEFOP, 2002).

29. In addition to the above there is a number of collective bodies – at local, prefecture and national level – operating in the field of primary and secondary education, with the participation of school representatives (teachers, parents, pupils) (see Appendix 2). Their role is mainly consultative with limited executive power.

Figure 2.2 Organisation of Educational Administration



The private sector

30. Private primary and secondary schools come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH) and more particularly of the Directorate for Private Education, which supervises and inspects them by means of the same regional bodies that inspect public schools. Control is exercised mainly in matters of the curriculum (content and timetable), the competence of teaching staff and school premises, number of pupils per class, composition of the examination boards that conduct the upper secondary school-leaving examinations, issue of school leaving certificates and financial control, especially in connection with fee collection and increases in fees. There are also private schools which belong to the category of legal entities of a non-profit nature and are recognized as equivalent to state schools. Teachers of such schools receive pensions from the state, while teachers of 'ordinary' private schools may receive pensions from the Social Security Fund. There is no difference between private and public schools as far as the curriculum and administrative structure is concerned; that is private schools are recognized as providing equivalent services to public ones. Moreover, private school teachers enjoy the same service status, including salary structure, promotion and evaluation procedures as their colleagues in public education. Both the relevant laws (Laws 682/77 and 1566/85) and regulations governing the working and professional status of private teachers present stability over years, and enjoy political and social recognition. Finally, private schools are financially independent organizations, and do not receive any state subsidies. They charge tuition fees, the level of which is regulated annually by the government in consultation with the Association of Private School Owners. In fact one of the major issues of negotiations between this association and the government is the freeing of tuition fees from state control. A thousandth of the tuition fees goes to a special fund managed by YPEPTH and is used to cover the expenses for in-service training and educational leave of private teachers.

2.3 Distribution of responsibilities for teacher-related matters

31. The division of responsibilities among the various levels of government, individual schools and teachers is as follows (Eurydice/CEDEFOP, 2002):

- Teacher selection and employment: The central Directorates for Primary and Secondary Education Personnel (at YPEPTH) are responsible for the selection and employment of teachers in public schools. Their competencies include: appointments, transfers, reclassifications, secondments, maintenance of personnel files, leave for educational staff, support for cases before the administrative courts, disciplinary matters and matters related to the selection, appointment and public service status of School Advisors and Heads of Education Directorates and Offices. For matters related to teacher employment the Service Councils for Primary and Secondary Education at prefecture (PYSPE and PYSDE), regional (APYSPE and APYSDE) and national level (KYSPE and KYSDE) play mainly an advisory and consultative role and have limited executive jurisdiction. Responsibility for the selection of teachers in private schools rests with the owners of the schools, whereas their employment is overseen by the Directorate for Private Education at national level.
- Financing: The Financial Affairs Directorate at national level is responsible for drawing up the final draft and implementing the regular budget and the special accounts having to do with primary, secondary and tertiary public education. The remuneration of teaching staff is part of its responsibilities. Local authorities at prefecture and municipal level relay financial resources to public schools. They receive central government allocations earmarked for a particular category of educational resource. They do not supplement them from their own resources and they are responsible for distributing them among the various schools. Additional funding for schools with pupils comprising special target populations (e.g. foreign pupils, children whose parents are

travelers, children of Islamic background, repatriated Greek children) is awarded by the central government.

- Teacher promotion: All teachers (public and private) are promoted by decision of the Head of the Directorate of Primary or Secondary Education (at the prefecture level) on the basis of the promotion list for teachers drawn up annually by the respective Regional Service Council (PYSPE or PYSDE). These lists are compiled in alphabetical order and include all those who are found to be eligible for promotion on the basis of their professional qualifications and departmental status. Teachers' rank starts from level C and raises to B after two years of service and finally to A after another eight years of service. Promotion from level C to level B is associated with the acquisition of tenure for a teacher and is conditional on a positive evaluation of the teacher's work. Further promotion on the other hand is automatic, i.e. it is not yet linked to teacher evaluation (see Chapter 6). Deputy Principals in public schools are selected every four years by the respective Regional Service Councils (PYSPE or PYSDE) based on recommendations from the corresponding school's Teachers Association. The Regional Service Councils are also responsible for drawing up the lists of candidates for the position of public school Principal, who are however selected by special committees formed for this purpose every four years (or earlier if needed) at the prefecture level. These committees consist of the Head of the corresponding (Primary or Secondary) Directorate, a Head of one of the corresponding Education Offices, a School Advisor and two elected representatives of the teacher unions. Principals and Deputy Principals of private schools are selected every year by the school owners. On the whole, teachers have to be at the promotion level A to qualify for the position of school Principal. The Head of the relevant prefectural Directorate is responsible for ensuring that this condition is met in the case of private schools.
- Curriculum Development: This is the responsibility of the Directorates of Primary Education Curriculum and of Secondary Education Curriculum (at national level) respectively, whose competencies through their individual sections include: deciding on curricula and timetables; monitoring their application; dealing with matters concerning teaching methods and vocational guidance for all schools (public and private, Greek, foreign and minority); pupil-related matters (registrations, transfers, duration of studies, certificates); approving textbooks and distributing them to public schools through the School Book Publishing Organisation (OEDB), and implementing new programmes. Issues related to curricula and textbooks are carried on upon proposal by the Pedagogic Institute (PI). (More about the role and responsibilities of the Pedagogic Institute can be found in Appendix 1 and also in section 2.4 on the development of teacher-related policies).
- Teacher evaluation: The evaluation procedures for teachers and heads of education offices at all administrative levels are described in Law 2986/2002 (see Chapter 6). The responsibilities for these evaluations are held respectively by: the School Principals and School Advisors (who evaluate teachers both in public and private schools); the Head of the Education Office (at district level) or of the Directorate of Education (at prefecture level) and the responsible School Advisor (who evaluate the school Principal); the Head of the Directorate of Education and the Head of the Scientific-Pedagogic Guidance Department of the Regional Directorate of Education (who evaluate the Head of the Education Office); the Head of the Regional Education Directorate and the Advisor or permanent President of the Pedagogic Institute (who evaluate the Head of the Directorate of Education); the Head of the Regional Education Directorate and the Head of the competent Department of Scientific-Pedagogic Guidance (who evaluate the School Advisors); and the Head of the Regional Education Directorate and the Pedagogic Institute's Advisor (who evaluate the Heads of the Scientific-Pedagogic Guidance departments, who are also School Advisors). Evaluation reports are notified to those evaluated, who are entitled to appeal to Appeal

Commissions, operating in each Regional Education Directorate and one at the Pedagogic Institute. This evaluation system has not been put fully into action.

- School Accountability: The main responsibility for school accountability lies with the Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education at the prefecture level, which oversee the operation of schools and maintain a very close cooperation with them on all matters. The evaluation of the educational work of schools at national level is the responsibility of the Education Research Centre (KEE) and the Pedagogic Institute (PI) (Law 2986/2002). (More about the role and responsibilities of these bodies can be found in Appendix 1 and also in section 2.4 on the development of teacher-related policies)

2.4 Data on the Greek school system

32. Data concerning the Greek school system are collected annually by YPEPTH and the National Statistical Service of Greece (NSSG). For a thorough evaluation of the system, these data are insufficient and many times incomplete. Towards quality assurance in education, KEE was assigned the task to develop and install a countrywide indicator system for monitoring school performance. The related project 'Monitoring of the Education System at the Level of the School Unit', which began in March 2001 and is funded by the 3rd Support Community Framework, is the first comprehensive attempt to create a complete 'educational map' of the country. The 'Monitoring Grid' constitutes the main instrument developed in the framework of this project and aims to record, relate and analyse the principal facets that compose the identity of Greek schools. The data collected can be grouped in three categories, which concern respectively: the identity and infrastructure of schools; the human resources and the operation of schools; and the financial resources and expenditure of School Committees. Data on the identity and infrastructure of a school include the school's location, buildings, number of classrooms and laboratories, library facilities, number of computers and audiovisual aids. Data on human resources and school operation refer to: teachers; support personnel; pupils; innovative activities undertaken by the school; and relationships between stakeholders. It is expected that this project, due to run until 2006, will help raise the quality of the educational work provided in schools by both contributing to a more rational administration of public education provision, and by offering a support framework for the process of self-evaluation of schools (see chapter 6) (<http://hercules.kee.gr/html/appschoolmon.php>, last visited 3/12/2003).

2.4.1 Number of Schools

33. This report concerns primary, secondary (general and technical/vocational) and special education. Table 2.1 depicts changes in the number of schools for selected years during the period 1990-2002. In the years 1990-99, we observe a decrease (about 19%) in the number of public primary schools. For the last three years 2000/01-2002/03 (provisional data), the decreasing trend continues. This could be attributed to the Kapodistrian Plan, which concerns the regional unification, and/or to the decline in the number of pupils due to demographic reasons (i.e. the decrease of the population's birth-rate). On the other hand, the number of private primary schools in the same period has remained relatively constant (or shows much smaller decrease). Note that the majority of private schools are in urban areas.

34. On the other hand, the number of lower secondary schools (public and private) has increased by about 5%. A bigger increase (of about 12%) is observed in the number of upper secondary schools (public and private, general and technical-vocational programmes). Another interesting observation is the significant decrease (about 34%) in the number of private technical and vocational schools from 1995/96 to 1999/2000; their number remains quasi-constant thereafter. In interpreting the changes observed in the numbers of upper secondary schools after 1998 we need to take into consideration the effects of the 1997 reform of the upper secondary education (see the establishment of the institutions of *Eniaio Lykeio* and *TEE* in section 2.1 and in Appendix 3).

**Table 2.1: Number of Schools for selected years in the period 1990-2002.
All levels of education.**

Level of Education		1990/91	1995/96	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Primary	Total	7.653	6.928	6.233	6.212	6.074	6.018
	Public	7.259	6.524	5.847	5.825	5.684	5.632
	Private	394	404	386	387	390	386
Lower Secondary	Total	1.808	1.893	1.901	1.925	1.948	1.919
	Public	1.729	1.792	1.799	1.817	1.839	1.811
	Private	79	101	102	108	109	108
Upper Secondary General programmes	Total	1.158	1.256	1.295	1.292	1.296	1.243
	Public	1.095	1.174	1.200	1.197	1.192	1.145
	Private	63	82	95	95	104	98
Upper Secondary Technical and Vocational programmes	Total	547	663	619	641	649	660
	Public	484	535	535	556	563	574
	Private	63	128	84	85	86	86

Source: NSSG (1997, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003b, unpublished data)

Notes: a. Ecclesiastic (lower and upper) secondary schools are not included in the above count.
b. For school years 2000/01 – 2002/03, data refer to numbers of schools at the beginning of the school years, whereas for 1990/91, 1995/96 and 1999/2000 they refer to the end of the school years

35. Finally, the most significant increase (about 82%) appears (Table 2.2) in the number of special education school units and integration classes in the period 1999-2001. This should be attributed to the considerable upgrading of special education provision in the last decade. Table 2.3 shows the number of school units and integrated classes per level of education for the school years 1999/2000 and 2001/02.

**Table 2.2: Special Education: School Units and Integration Classes
for selected years in the period 1990-2001.**

	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
Total	643	706	802	918	1.017	1.169
Special schools	183	186	200	190	197	285
Inclusion classes	460	520	602	728	820	884

Source: YPEPTH, Special Education Directorate

Notes: Pre-primary schools are included in the above count.

Table 2.3: Special Education: School Units and Integration Classes, per level of education for 1999/2000 and 2001/02.

Level of Special Education	1999/2000	2001/02
Total	918	1169
Pre-primary	40	96
Inclusion classes (infants)	18	58
Primary	138	146
Inclusion classes (primary)	702	802
Lower/Upper Secondary (general programmes)	7	9
Inclusion classes (Lower/Upper secondary – general programmes)	8	14
T.E.S.E.A.*	5	4
EEEEK**	-	30

Source: YPEPTH, Special Education Directorate

Notes: *Technical Vocational School of Special Education.

**Special, Vocational Education & Training.

2.4.2 Pupil population

36. Table 2.4 depicts changes in the number of pupils at all levels of education for selected years during the period 1990-2002. In the years 1990-99 the pupil population decreases (about 21%) in primary schools. This decrease seems to have been reversed in the last three years (1% increase), most likely due to the rise of enrolments of foreign and repatriated Greek pupils. A similar decrease (about 18%) is observed for the number of lower secondary school pupils in the 90's and it seems to continue in the last three years (6% decrease). The effect of the enrolment of foreign pupils has not yet been noticeable at this level.

37. In the same period the decrease in number of pupils is significantly less pronounced (about 9%) in upper secondary schools of general programmes (public and private), whereas in upper secondary schools of technical/vocational programmes there is an increase of pupils (about 6%). This latter trend is even more noteworthy in *public* upper secondary schools of technical and vocational programmes: the number of their pupils increases by about 14%, whereas the equivalent number of pupils in the *private* sector decreases by a dramatic 56%. These observations might indicate a pupil transfer from general to technical education and from private to public schools. Having said this, it should be also noted that the pupil population of upper secondary technical and vocational education shows a great volatility over the decade. The drop in pupil numbers between 1995/96 and 1999/2000, which is subsequently reversed, could be seen as a first response to the 1997 reform of upper secondary education (see Appendix 3), i.e. to the establishment of the two new upper secondary kinds of schools *Eniaio Lykeio* and *TEE* and to the introduction of a new university entrance system. On the other hand, the big difference (increase of about 13%) between the number of pupils who remained registered in technical and vocational schools at the end of 1999/2000 and those who registered at the start of 2000/01 suggests that a number of these pupils may drop their studies in the course of the year.

38. The percentage of the total pupil population (incl. pupils in pre-primary schools) with special education needs was 0,88%, but only 0,2 % of pupils were in segregated settings, i.e. separate special schools or classes, while the rest were in inclusion classes, which are regular school classes with parallel support (when needed) by a special education teacher. Table 2.5 shows the number of pupils with special education needs per level of education in 1999-2000. Data for previous years are not reliable, since there was no systematic recording of the number of pupils with special needs who attended regular schools.

**Table 2.4: Number of Pupils for selected years in the period 1990-2002.
All levels of education.**

Level of Education		1990/91	1995/96	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Primary	Total	813.353	679.288	642.077	641.368	647.041	647.642
	Public	755.903	631.237	596.482	594.476	598.701	598.445
	Private	57.450	48.051	45.595	46.892	48.340	49.197
Lower Secondary	Total	442.815	421.640	363.870	360.248	349.397	338.355
	Public	425.361	404.277	345.439	341.379	331.255	319.651
	Private	17.454	17.363	18.431	18.869	18.142	18.704
Upper Secondary General programmes	Total	273.589	274.291	249.242	244.164	240.272	238.258
	Public	260.564	259.702	232.804	227.791	223.565	220.999
	Private	13.025	14.589	16.438	16.373	16.707	17.259
Upper Secondary Technical and Vocational programmes	Total	130.143	156.009	137.993	156.077	160.042	153.063
	Public	115.749	145.868	131.687	148.967	153.220	146.536
	Private	14.394	10.141	6.306	7.110	6.822	6.527

Source: NSSG (1997, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003b, unpublished data)

Notes: a. Pupils in ecclesiastic (lower and upper) secondary schools are not included in the above count.

b. For school years 2000/01 – 2002/03, data refer to numbers of pupils at the beginning of the school years, whereas for 1990/91, 1995/96 and 1999/2000 data refer to numbers of pupils at the end of the school years.

Table 2.5: Special Education: Number of Pupils per level of Education for 1999-2000.

Level of Special Education	Number of pupils
Total	13.595
Pre-primary	234
Inclusion classes (infants)	60
Primary	2.882
Inclusion classes (primary)	9.874
Lower/Upper Secondary	242
Inclusion classes (lower/upper secondary)	101
T.E.S.E.A *	202

* Technical Vocational School of Special Education.

Source: YPEPTH, Special Education Directorate.

Note: The total national number of students is 1.552.342.

39. Overall, the pupil population in 1999/2000 appears to have decreased by about 16% compared to 1990/91 (Table 2.4). In Eurydice (2002b) the trend in pupil enrolment in schools is measured by an indicator, which is derived from demographic projections. The trend in pupil enrolment for 2005, based on pupil enrolment in 2000, corresponds to the ratio of the number of young people who will be of lower

secondary school age (i.e. 12-14) in 2005, to the number of those who reached this age-range in the year 2000. This indicator for 2005 is estimated to be -0,10. The corresponding value for 2010 is -0,12. This fall in pupil enrolments might indicate that teacher demand is tending to drop, thus contributing to the existing oversupply of teachers.

40. An important issue is the increasing number of immigrant and repatriated Greek pupils. According to data provided by YPEPTH (<http://news.pathfinder.gr/index.php?page=43&view=263>, last visited 15/10/2003) in the school year 2002-03 from a total of 1.460.464 pupils in the whole country, 130.114 (i.e. 9%) were foreign and repatriated Greek pupils: 67.149 (10,6%) in primary education, 33.385 (10,17%) in lower secondary education and 18.497 (5,13%) in upper secondary education (general and technical-vocational programmes). It should be noted that the percentage of foreign and repatriated Greek pupils in compulsory education is almost twice that in upper secondary education. This may indicate that the increase in the number of these pupils has not yet worked its way through the system and/or that a number of them do not continue or abandon their studies at the post-compulsory level in order to work. The biggest concentrations of foreign and repatriated Greek pupils in primary and lower secondary education are recorded in Attica (11,92%) and the Ionian Islands (11,31%). The proportions in other regions are (in order of decreasing percentages): Central Macedonia (9,82%); Southern Aegean (8,59%); Peloponnese (8,32%); Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (7,53%); Epirus (6,82%); Central Greece (6,64%); Crete (6,40%); Western Greece (4,97%); Thessaly (4,93%); Northern Aegean (4,90%) and Western Macedonia (3,94%). At the municipality level, the schools of Athens have seen a rapid increase in the numbers of foreign and repatriated Greek pupils in the last four years. According to data provided by the Directorate for School Welfare of the Municipality of Athens (http://www.kathimerini.gr/4dcgi/_w_articles_politics_483142_12/08/2003_73192, last visited 15/10/2003), in the school year 1999-2000 the foreign pupils amounted to 18,57% of the total number of pupils in all nursery, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools of Athens; in 2000-01 this percentage was 20,05%, in 2001-02 22,85% and in 2002-03 25,93%. Finally, the large majority of all foreign and repatriated Greek pupils come from Albania and the former USSR. More specifically, in 1999/2000, 66% of these pupils in primary education were nationals of Albania and 25% of the former USSR. In secondary education these two groups represented 55% and 33% of the totals respectively. (Stamelos, 2002).

41. Problems that arise from the increasing proportion of foreign pupils are basically associated with a possible social racism, but mainly concern directly the inadequacy of teachers' training and their capability to deal with classes of a multicultural character. Research conducted in 2002 on behalf of the Greek Section of UNICEF for the Discriminations, Racism and Xenophobia in the Greek Education System showed that 7 out of 10 teachers consider themselves inadequately trained to teach foreign students (<http://www.in.gr/news/article.asp?lngEntityID=367946&lngDtrID=244>, last visited 16/10/2003).

2.4.3 Trends in school staff

42. Table 2.6 shows the number of teachers at all levels of education for selected years during the period 1990-2002. We observe that in the years 1990-99, there was on the whole an increase (of about 29%) in the number of teachers at all levels of education (see Table 2.6). This increase was partially determined by the interplay between real educational needs and the social pressure for employment. Note that during this period the number of unemployed teachers increased dramatically (see Chapter 5). Teacher vacancies in Greek schools most commonly arise due to teacher retirements or temporary leave or secondment to educational services outside schools (see Chapter 6). Resignation from the teaching profession is a rare phenomenon. No teacher shortage has yet been reported. The opposite is true: on the whole there is a great surplus of teachers of all specializations. There is an indication that this situation may have recently changed in the case of primary teachers, due to the late mass recruitment of primary

education teachers to new positions opened in all-day schools (see section 2.1 and discussion in Chapter 5).

43. Looking more closely at Table 2.6 we note that the above-mentioned increase in teacher numbers occurs more or less at each educational level and in both public and private sectors. There are at least two interesting points one can make: The largest increase proportionally (about 91%) was observed in the number of public teachers in upper secondary technical/vocational programmes between 1990/91 and 1999/2000. On the other hand, from 1995/96 to 1999/2000 there was a decrease (of about 20%) in the number of private teachers in upper secondary technical/vocational programmes. The latter is consistent with the previously noticed massive decrease in corresponding pupil numbers (see Table 2.4). For the last three years 2000/01 – 2002/03, it is obvious from the provisional data that the number of teachers at all levels of education continues to increase. Public technical-vocational education continues to present the largest increase proportionally and this can be explained in the framework of the government's effort to upgrade technical-vocational education provision. The number of teachers in primary education has also increased significantly in the last three years, specially given the fact that the number of primary pupils increased only slightly in the same years (see Table 2.4). This is due to the massive recruitment in primary education to cover the needs of the rapidly increasing numbers of all-day primary schools, which have augmented requirements in teaching staff compared to 'regular' primary schools.

**Table 2.6: Number of Teachers for selected years in the period 1990-2002.
All levels of education.**

Level of Education		1990/91	1995/96	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Primary	Total	43.599	48.840	50.524	48.852	49.842	52.788
	Public	41.035	45.714	47.414	45.840	46.615	49.522
	Private	2.564	3.126	3.110	3.012	3.227	3.266
Lower Secondary	Total	29.571	31.642	39.037	33.640	32.897	35.789
	Public	28.939	30.950	36.968	32.206	31.316	34.035
	Private	632	692	2.069	1.434	1.581	1.754
Upper Secondary General programmes	Total	20.231	20.104	25.225	21.079	21.226	22.325
	Public	19.532	19.353	23.318	19.725	19.686	20.501
	Private	699	751	1.907	1.354	1.540	1.824
Upper Secondary Technical and Vocational programmes	Total	10.328	14.542	18.945	15.046	13.748	17.227
	Public	9.175	12.788	17.537	14.079	13.013	16.428
	Private	1.153	1.754	1.408	967	735	799

Source: NSSG (1997, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003b, unpublished data)

Notes: a. Teachers in ecclesiastic (lower and upper) secondary schools are not included in the above count.

b. The number of primary teachers includes the number of foreign language, art and physical education teachers who teach in primary schools.

c. For school years 2000/01 – 2002/03, data refer to numbers of teachers at the beginning of the school years, whereas for 1990/91, 1995/96 and 1999/2000 data refer to numbers of teachers at the end of the school years.

44. The number of teachers in special education follow the general trend – between 1990 and 1999 it increases by 67%. More specifically in 1999-2000 there were 1.877 teachers working in special education: 87 in nursery schools, 1.327 in primary education and 463 in secondary education (KEE and YPEPTH, 2003).

45. Overall, comparing Tables 2.4 and 2.6 we note that while the total number of pupils decreases, that of teachers increases. This is consistent with the decrease in the pupil-teacher ratio shown in Table 2.7. As a consequence the pupil-teacher ratio achieved has placed Greece in a high position on international reports (see for example OECD, 2001).

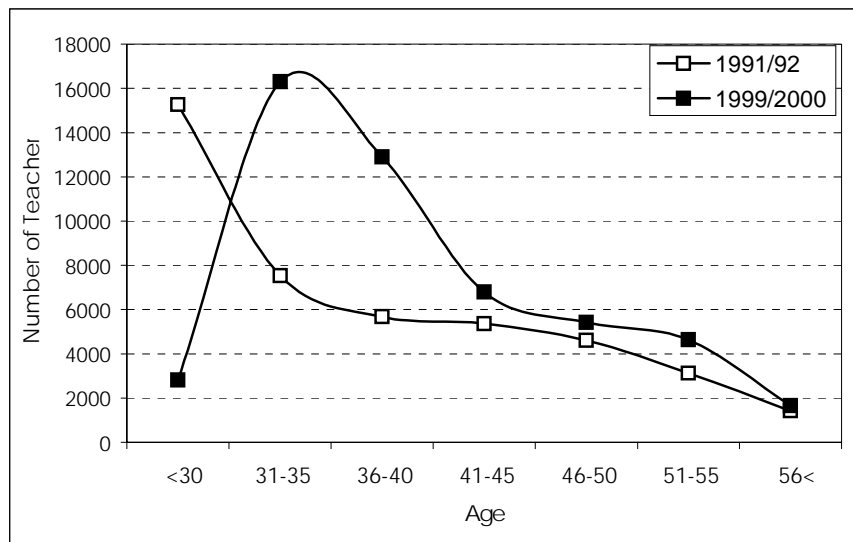
Table 2.7: Pupil-Teacher ratio in Primary and Secondary Education 1992-93 and 2001-02.

Level of Education	1992-93	2001-02	Improvement rate
Primary	15 : 1	11 : 1	26,7%
Lower Secondary	14,7 : 1	10,2 : 1	30,6%
Upper Secondary	13,2 : 1	9,9 : 1	25,0%

Source: YPEPTH (quoted in KEE and YPEPTH, 2003)

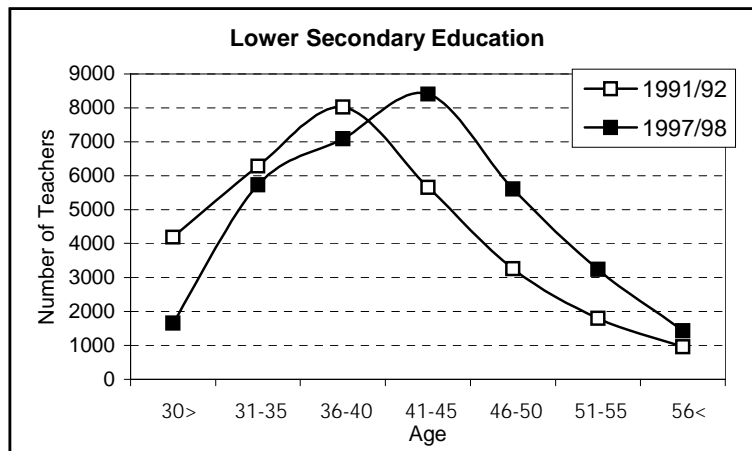
46. Figure 2.3 shows the age distribution of primary teachers (private and public) in 1991/92 and 1999/2000. The noteworthy point here is the shift of the distribution maximum from ages younger than 30 years old (in 1991/92) to ages between 31-35 years old (in 1999/2000). This shift could be an indirect consequence of the system of teacher recruitment, which was then based on candidate lists: the appointment rate was lower than the rate of enrolment in these lists and this led to appointing teachers from older age categories. Analogous changes are observed in the age distribution of teachers in lower and upper secondary education (see Figures 2.4 and 2.5) between the years 1991/92 and 1997/98. In both cases, the distribution maximum shifts from the age group 36-40 (in 1991/92) to the group 41-45 (in 1997/98). This could also be attributed to the lag in the appointment of qualified teachers.

Figure 2.3: Age Distribution of Primary Teachers in 1991/92 and 1999/2000.



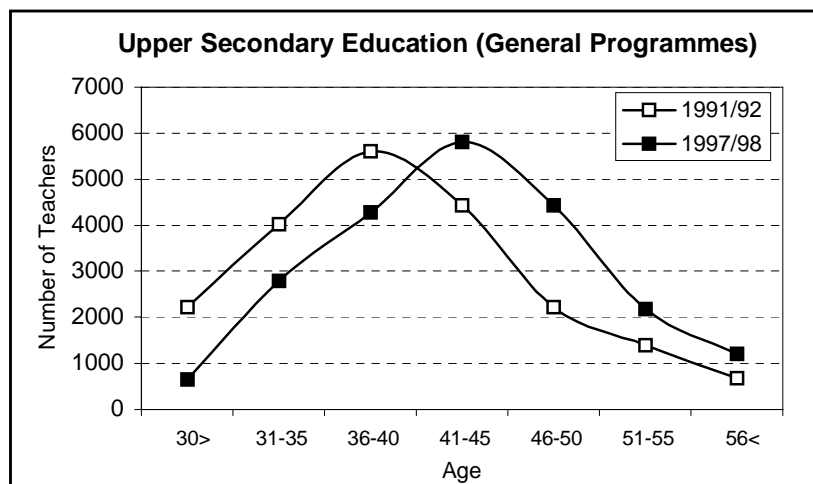
Source: NSSG (1997, unpublished data)

Figure 2.4: Age Distribution of Lower Secondary Teachers in 1991/92 and 1997/98.



Source: NSSG (1997, 2000)

Figure 2.5: Age Distribution of Upper Secondary (General Programmes) Teachers in 1991/92 and 1997/98.



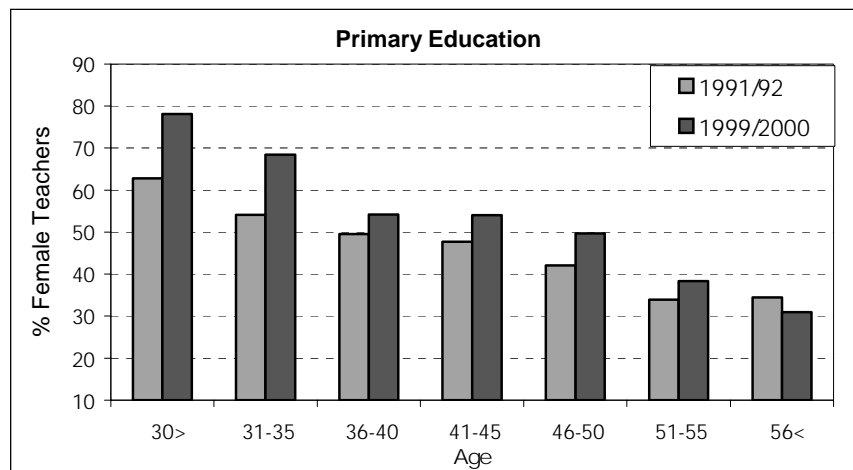
Source: NSSG (1997, 2000)

47. The gender distribution in the teacher population in the period 1991/92-1999/2000 differed across the various levels of education (Table 2.8). In compulsory education, the majority of teachers were female: their percentage over this period varied between 52% and 57% in primary and between 62% and 64% in lower secondary education. On the other hand, in upper secondary education (general programmes) there seem to have been as many male as female teachers. Finally, in upper secondary technical and vocational education the female percentages were noticeably lower, varying from 35% to 44%.

Table 2.8: Teacher gender distribution for selected years and all levels of education during the period 1990-1999.

Level of Education		90/91	95/96	99/00
Primary	Teachers	43.599	48.840	50.524
	Female	52,2%	55,9%	57,4%
Lower Secondary	Teachers	29.571	31.642	39.037
	Female	62,3%	63,2%	63,9
Upper Secondary, general programmes	Teachers	20.231	20.104	25.225
	Female	49,0%	49,1%	49,7%
Upper Secondary, technical and vocational programmes	Teachers	10.501	14.695	19.198
	Female	35,4%	41,2%	43,9%

Source: NSSG (1997, 2000, unpublished data).

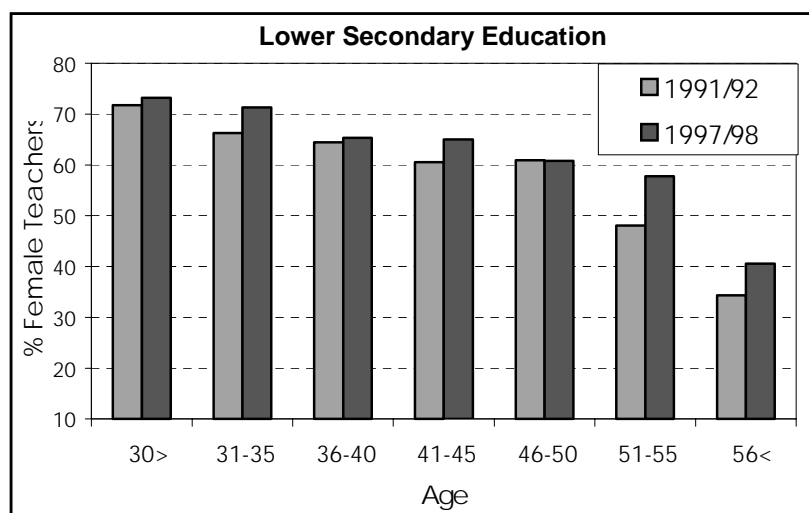
Figure 2.6: Age and Percentage Distribution of Primary Female Teachers in 1991/92 and 1999/2000.

Source: NSSG (1997, unpublished data).

48. Concerning the age distribution of female teachers Figure 2.6 gives us some interesting information for the years 1991/92 and 1999/2000. In both years, it is noteworthy that the percentage of female teachers is lower in the older age categories and especially in the older than 56 category, while the opposite holds true in the younger age categories. This may reflect law restrictions in the appointment of female primary teachers, which existed prior to 1982 (Antoniou, 2002). An additional factor contributing to this lower percentage of older female teachers might be the preferential regulations regarding the early retirement of women employed in the public sector prior to 1983 (DOE, 2002). On the other hand, the greater percentage of younger female teachers reflects the high female/male ratio that exists in the population of graduates from primary teacher education programmes (see Figure 3.6 in section 3).

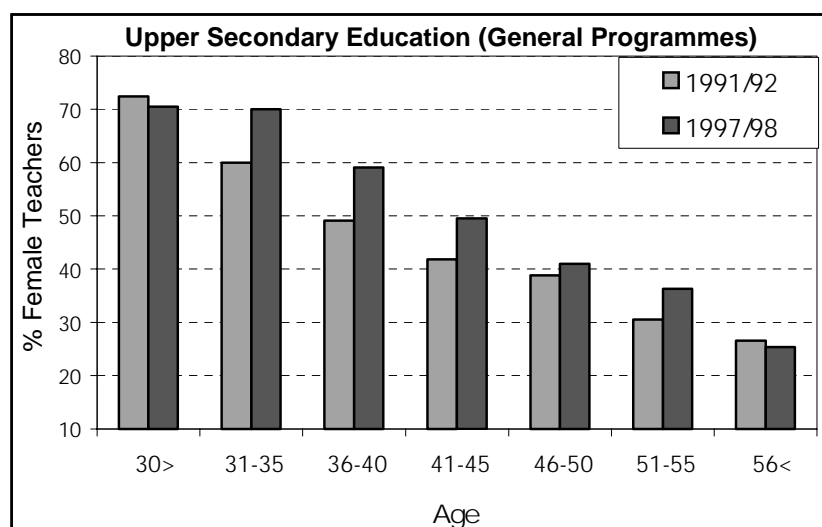
49. Figures 2.7 and 2.8 depict the corresponding distributions for lower and upper secondary female teachers. These graphs show an analogous decline in the female percentage at the older age categories, though considerably less pronounced in the case of lower secondary teachers.

Figure 2.7: Age and Percentage Distribution of Lower Secondary Female Teachers in 1991/92 and 1997/98.



Source: NSSG (1997, 2000).

Figure 2.8: Age and Percentage Distribution of Upper Secondary Female Teachers in 1991/92 and 1997/98.



Source: NSSG (1997, 2000).

50. Finally, in a small number of primary and secondary schools, besides teaching staff there exist other types of specialist personnel, such as secretaries, psychologists and school guards. In 1997/98 there were in total 6.555 non-teaching employees: 307 as administrative personnel, 388 psychologists/physicians and 5.860 employees working in school maintenance (NSSG, 2000). In 2001 the Ministries of Public Order and Education together with the Organisation for Manpower Employment (OAED) and local authorities established a programme to provide non-teaching job opportunities to unemployed people. These concern mainly school security, that is pupil safety and protection of school property. In addition in urban areas, part-time jobs for school-traffic guards have been created in recent years. Their responsibility is to regulate the traffic around the school in order to help pupils at arrival and departure time.

2.5 Development of teacher-related policies: The role of stakeholders

2.5.1 An overview of the social partners

51. Social partners, bodies representing employers or employees associated with education, contribute to the development and implementation of educational policies. The social partners in Greece are mostly federations representing unions of teachers at all levels, in the public and private sector, associations of parents and legal guardians and associations of private school owners. Representatives of these bodies take part in numerous educational committees of an advisory and consultative character as well as in negotiations with the government or the competent authorities at every level regarding educational matters. These negotiations usually concern fundamental educational issues, such as employment of school staff, changes in school regulations, teacher recruitment and appointment, teacher evaluation and promotion, in-service teacher training, teacher salaries and often the education budget itself. It is customary to hold informal meetings first, in which the proposals for negotiation are presented; these proposals are then studied carefully by all sides and are eventually discussed in the formal meeting(s) which follow. The impact of these negotiations on the development of educational policy cannot be easily assessed. However, it is on the whole smaller than the social partners would wish it to be.

52. The most active of the social partners involved with teacher-related issues are: 1) The Federation of Primary School Teacher Unions (*DOE*); 2) The Federation of Secondary School Teacher Unions (*OLME*); and 3) The Federation of Private School Teacher Unions (*OIELE*). Elected representatives from these bodies participate in all the Service Councils for Primary and for Secondary Education at the various administrative levels of the education system (*KYSPE* and *KYSDE*, *APYSPE* and *APYSDE*, *PYSPE* and *PYSDE*), as well as in the selection committees for school principals and school advisors.

53. The above teacher federations are structured in a similar way: Each teacher can be registered in a local union, named *SD-N* for primary teachers, *ELME* for secondary teachers and *SIEL* for private (primary and secondary) teachers. The members of each local *SD-N*, *ELME* or *SIEL* elect a council, which has a president, a vice-president, a secretary and a treasurer. In addition, they elect representatives to the General Assembly of the Federation (*DOE*, *OLME* or *OIELE*), who in turn vote for the council of the Federation, which also has a president, a vice-president, a secretary and a treasurer. Proposals on fundamental educational issues and/or for general mobilizations of the teachers (e.g. strikes, protest rallies, etc.) are usually communicated by the federation to the local unions, so that they get approved and/or amended before they become the object of negotiation with the Ministry of Education. In addition, the Federations have established research centres/institutes, which conduct studies and provide relevant advice to the federation on educational issues. These centres/institutes are: *IPEM* of *DOE*, *KEMETE* of *OLME*, and *KEI* of *OIELE*. This latter is supported by the General Federation of Workers (*GESEE*) and its educational research orientation concerns mainly educational policy.

54. The enrolment-level of teachers in the unions is high: about 95% for primary teachers and about 55 % for secondary teachers (Source: *DOE* and *OLME*). However, the active participation of teachers in the unions and thus the unions' influential power has varied during the last decades. More precisely, in the 80's secondary teachers participated massively (80-90%) in all industrial actions/mobilizations undertaken by *OLME*, whereas in the 90's their participation decreased significantly. Indicatively, according to *DOE* and *OLME* in their latest 48-hour industrial action (November 2003) the participation of teachers was 60% and 50% respectively. However, the Ministry of Education reported even smaller participation (32% and 24% respectively) (Newspaper *ELEFTHEROTYPIA*, November, 4th, 2003, p45). Furthermore, a study carried out by *OLME* (*OLME*, 1995), which investigated amongst other things secondary teachers' attitudes and opinions related to their union (*OLME*), showed that 58% of them participated in their local unions (*ELME*), while only 13,3% were satisfied with the actions of *OLME*.

This weakening of teachers' unionization was interpreted to be mainly due to phenomena such as disappointment, apathy and loss of trust in the leadership of the Federations.

55. Besides the above three teacher unions, there are other stakeholders, which are involved in the development of teacher-related policies. These are: 1) the Association of Private School Owners (*SIEIE*); 2) the Confederation of Parents' and Legal Guardians' Federations; 3) the Association of School Advisors (which is a relatively new scientific body); 4) the Union of Substitute Teachers (*PEA*); as well as 5) a number of professional and/or academic scientific organizations concerned directly or indirectly with education (e.g. Association for Science Education, Association of Teachers of Greek Language, Associations of Physicists, Chemists, Biologists etc.). Of these the Union of Substitute Teachers and the Association of School Advisors are more directly involved with teacher-related policies, since they represent subsets of public school teachers, with around 10.000 and 300 members respectively.

2.5.2 The views of stakeholders about the main educational policies.

56. In the preparation of this report, the views were requested of a number of the above stakeholders (DOE, OLME, OIELE, PEA, SIEIE, Association of School Advisors and the Federation of Parents' and Legal Guardians' Associations of the Athens prefecture (*OESGK*)) on the main educational policies. More precisely, we asked them to identify what they regarded as the major priorities for policy development in relation to schools and teachers and to mention the key issues at stake during the latest round of negotiations between their union/association and the government. Their responses were collected either through personal interviews with representatives from these organizations and/or through documentation (DOE, 2003; KEMETE, 1999; 2003a; 2003b; OESGK, 2003; OLME, 2003a; 2003b; 2003c) made available to us.

57. The highest priority identified by the teacher unions was an increase in the public expenditure for education from 3,5% of the GDP, which it is today, to a minimum of 5%, that is to 15% of the total annual budget. They also mentioned the absence of reliable educational planning and of an effective framework to promote dialogue among the main stakeholders on key educational issues. Regarding the organization and quality of education provided, they believe that: compulsory schooling should be increased to twelve (12) years as opposed to the current nine (9); the role of upper secondary education should change from being one of preparing pupils for and filtering their access to tertiary education through continuous exams, to one of providing equal educational opportunities to pupils, promoting their wholesome development and cultivating their personal interests and inclinations; and the provision of technical-vocational education should be upgraded in terms of resources, teaching staff and curricula, so that it is considered as an equivalent alternative to general education. This latter issue seems also to be a concern of parents (*OESGK*). Finally, the secondary school teacher unions call for the maximum number of pupils per class to be reduced to 25 in lower and upper secondary schools (general programmes) and to 20 in upper secondary schools (technical-vocational programmes).

58. A major issue for DOE and *OESGK* is the all-day school. Their demands include: enhancement of its curriculum, construction of new school buildings, and additional appointments of teacher of various specializations, such as foreign languages and physical education.

59. Regarding the administration of education and the role of stakeholders in it, the teacher unions call for the strengthening of the role of the Service Councils at all levels (*KYSPE*, *KYSDE*, *APYSPE*, *APYSDE*, *PYSPE* and *PYSDE*) (see section 2.2, about the administration of the Greek school system). *PYSPE* and *PYSDE* in particular should become more independent with an increased participation of the unions' representatives from two to three members. Moreover, all the teacher unions and *OESGK* asked for an increased participation in the decision making process at school level.

60. Finally, concerning the issues that affect teachers more directly, the teacher unions identified the following as being of key importance: teacher's salaries; teachers' social security and pensions; initial

teacher training; in-service teacher training; teacher selection; and teacher evaluation. Teachers' salaries according to the unions (DOE, OLME and OIELE) are relatively low compared to other professionals of similar qualifications. This contributes negatively to their social status (see also Chapter 3). They also point out the lack of pedagogic training for secondary teachers and consider that initial teacher education overall is inadequate concerning in particular matters such as new technologies and multicultural education. These shortcomings should be compensated with targeted in-service training. In addition the curricula for initial teacher training should be reformed to meet the new demands placed on teachers. Further training of teachers should be annual and decentralized at regional level, with an increased participation of local authorities. Additionally, the number of paid educational leaves granted to teachers should be significantly increased (see also Chapter 4). Attention should also be paid to criteria employed for teacher selection and appointment; the unions identify deficiencies in the current system of teacher selection (see also Chapter 5). Teacher and school evaluation should be of collective concern, where the teacher association plays the main role and teachers are trained in self-assessment. The role of school advisors should be restricted to scientific and pedagogic guidance. External incentives for the enhancement of teacher efficiency, such as financial bonuses should be avoided (see also Chapter 6).

61. Most of the above issues were also brought up in the latest round of negotiations between the teacher unions and the government.

CHAPTER 3: ATTRACTING ABLE PEOPLE INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

3.1 Main policy concerns

62. In Greece overall there are no major policy concerns about attracting people into the teaching profession.

63. More specifically in secondary education, there is a great surplus of qualified teachers (see chapter 5 for evidence and discussion on this surplus). Some of the factors that may account for this surplus are:

- Low demand and thus unemployment in other professional sectors;
- A high degree of job security (tenure), as well as relatively satisfactory salary structures and working conditions in the teaching profession;
- Wide access to a teaching qualification, since a university first degree in a school discipline is in most cases a sufficient requirement to qualify for employment as a teacher.

64. In this chapter we will present the main pathways into the teaching profession and describe the profile of the people who enter the primary teacher education programmes and the technological teacher education programmes. The questions that we will try to answer concern the quality of these people: Is there any trend regarding the academic ability of the students entering those programmes? Does this raise any specific concerns about the future quality of the teaching workforce?

65. In other words, we will investigate the possibility that attracting ‘able’ people into the teaching profession might be a policy concern, even though attracting people on the whole is not.

3.2 Data, trends and factors

3.2.1 Pathways into the teaching profession

66. Given that the law in Greece stipulates that the only people allowed to teach lessons in a specific subject are those qualified to teach the subject in question, the way in which teachers become qualified is an important consideration. Therefore the main pathways into the teaching profession depend on both the teachers’ subject specialism and the level of education (primary, secondary) they wish to teach. A detailed account of these pathways and of recent or envisaged changes in them is given in chapter 4. In summary:

67. Primary education: the main route into teaching in primary schools is to take a (nominally) four-year degree in a university department of education. There are some exceptions to this rule for teachers of music, physical education, and foreign languages, who are trained in the corresponding university

departments for their specializations (departments of music or their equivalent²; physical education and athletics; and foreign languages).

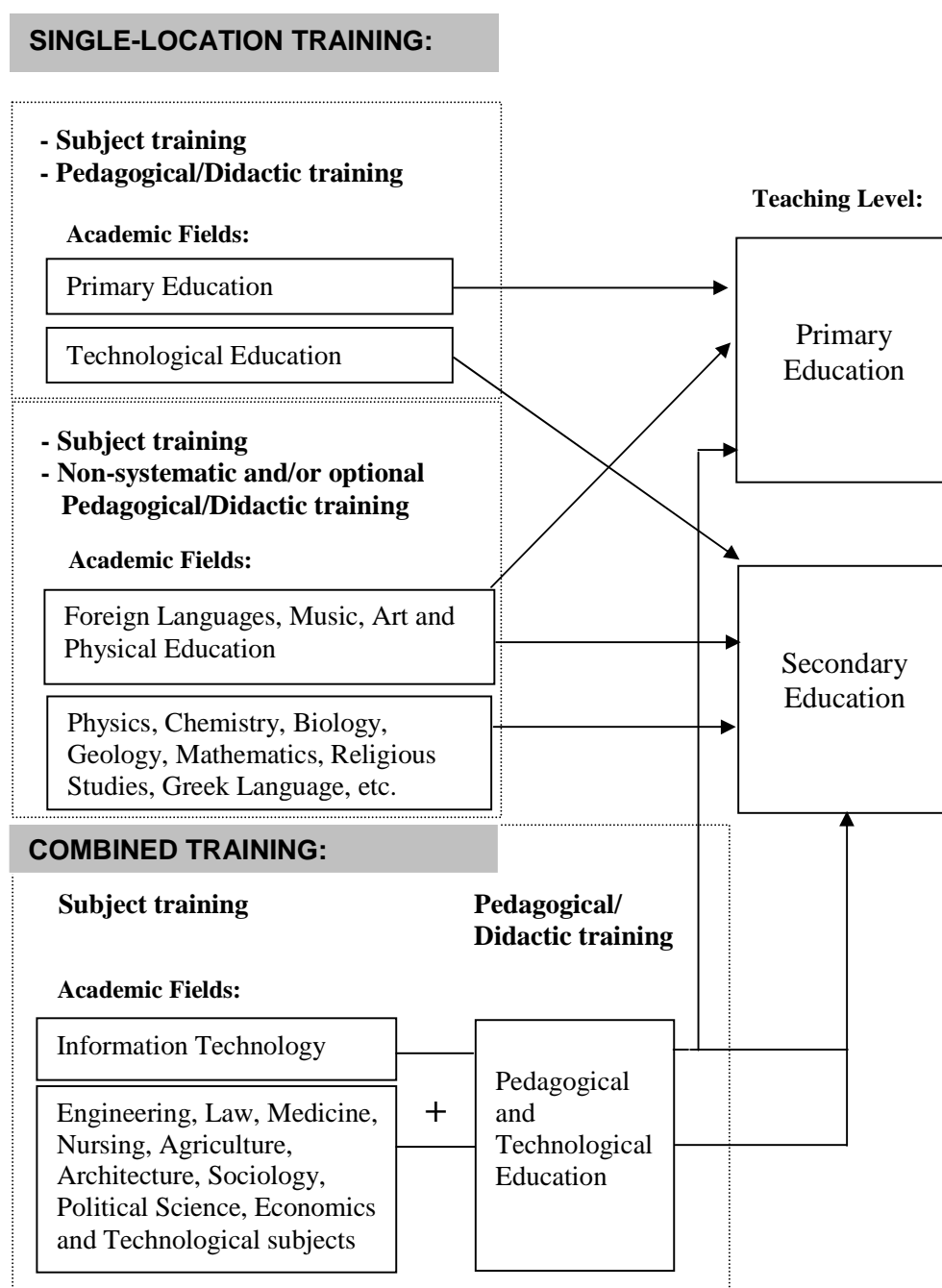
68. Secondary education: the main route into teaching in secondary schools is to take a (nominally) four or five-year subject-based degree in e.g. mathematics, chemistry, physics, Greek language, etc. from the relevant university department, or in technological education from the Higher School of Pedagogical and Technological Education (ASPATE), formerly called 'School of Teachers of Technological Education' (SELETE). In only a few cases (as in engineering, economics, sociology) as well as for graduates of Technological Education Institutes (TEI) is it an additional prerequisite that this subject-based education is followed by a further year in ASPATE.

69. Figure 3.1 shows the main qualification pathways for teachers in primary and secondary education (see also Fig. 4.1).

70. Overall, all teachers in primary and secondary education have to be higher education (PE) graduates. Moreover, according to their teaching specialisations they belong to the following field categories: PE1 Religious Studies, PE2 Greek Language and Literature, PE3 Mathematics, PE4 Science, PE5 French Language, PE6 English Language, PE7 German Language, PE8 Art, PE9 Economics, PE10 Sociology, PE11 Physical Education, PE12 Engineering, PE13 Law and Political Science, PE14 Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacology, Agriculture, Forestry and Natural Environment, Nursing, PE15 Home Economics, PE16 Music, PE17 Technology, PE18 other TEI departments, PE19 Information Technology (AEI degree), PE20 Information Technology (TEI degree), PE32 Theatrical Education, PE70 Primary Education Teachers.

² Some music teachers enter primary education by finishing other type of music schools (ωδείο) and then passing related examinations.

Figure 3.1: Main qualification pathways for teachers in primary and secondary education



3.2.2 Characteristics of student teachers

71. Given the above-described complex pathways into the teaching profession, it is not possible to know with any exactitude the number of student teachers, at least for most teaching specialisations of secondary education, since the number of enrolments in the relevant university departments does not give us any indication of whether these people wish to enter the teaching profession. Consequently, in the following sections of this chapter we will limit the discussion to students of University Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education (PDPE) and of the School of Teachers of Technological Education

(SELETE) (now called ASPAITE), since only in regard to those would any observed trends (e.g. in the number of student enrolments and composition) have a real significance for our purposes.

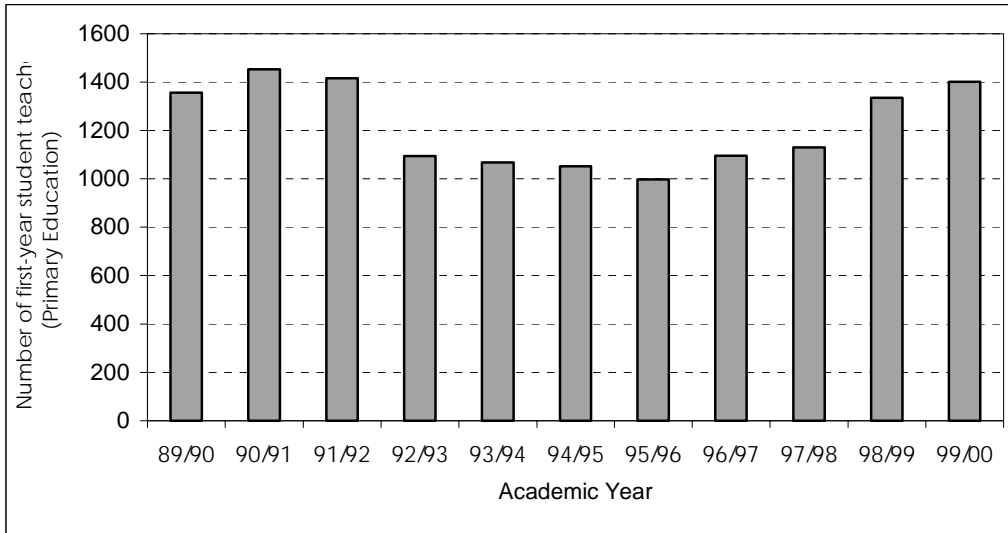
Student teachers of primary education

72. Figures 3.2-3.8 describe the total number of enrolments and composition of those studying to enter primary teaching over the past 10 years in terms of gender, age and academic ability.

73. Examining these figures we can observe the following:

- There is approximately 20% drop in the number of students entering primary teacher education programmes in the academic year 1992-93 compared to the average of the three preceding years (Figure 3.2). This drop however should not be interpreted as reflecting the choice of candidates, since there is a numerus clausus policy regarding the number of university entrants. Since this drop is more than twice the one (approx. 9%) observed in the total number of first-year enrolments in all Greek universities of the same year, it could possibly be interpreted as a policy makers' reaction to the then increasing surplus of qualified primary teachers (see chapter 5). On the other hand, the increase observed in first-year student numbers after 1998 can be attributed to the overall education policy at the time, as can also be seen in Figure 3.3. This latter shows the numerus clausus set for entrants in (initial) primary teaching programmes (Fig.3.3a) in comparison to the overall numerus clausus concerning all university (AEI) programmes (Fig. 3.3b) (excluding technological universities) in the last 6 years.
- Figure 3.4 suggests that the great majority (close to 85% in 1999/2000) of people entering primary teacher education programmes are women. This result confirms the general trend of female interest in primary education (see also Fig. 3.7). However, very interestingly, this suggestion is not equally supported by the overall data on serving primary teachers. As we have seen in chapter 2 (Table 2.8) in the academic year 1997/98, from the total number of serving primary teachers 'only' 57,1% were women. On the other hand the female presence in primary teaching (see Fig. 2.6) is clearly more dominant (72,3% in 1997/98) than this of men in the younger age category (under 30 year-olds), consistently with Fig.3.4. The reduced presence of women primary teachers in the older age categories has also been commented upon by other researchers (Varnava-Skoura, Vassilou and Georgakakos, 1995; Vassilou-Papageorgiou, 1995; Varnava-Skoura *et al.*, 2000). Varnava-Skoura, Vassilou and Georgakakos (1995) suggest that it might be attributed to preferential regulations concerning the early retirement of women. In their most recent report Varnava-Skoura *et al.* (2000) point out that the overall number of women primary teachers, though still lower than the equivalent number in other OECD countries (see also OECD, 1990), has slightly increased in the last 10 years. Vassilou-Papageorgiou (1995) complements this observation by drawing attention to the still low presence of women in management and control mechanisms of primary education, i.e. in senior management posts.

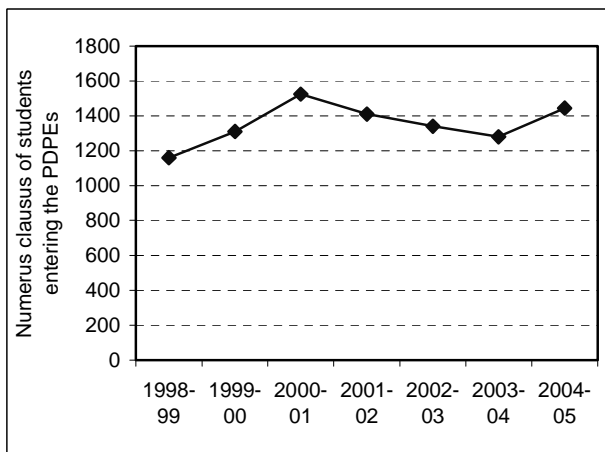
Figure 3.2 Number of students entering (initial) primary teacher education programmes per academic year (1989/90-1999/2000)



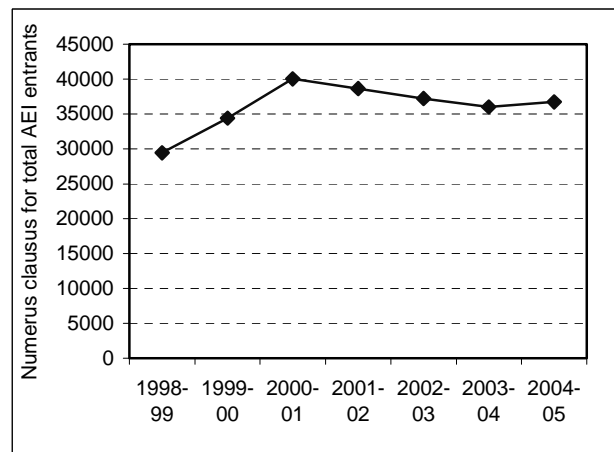
Notes: a) For the years 89/90 & 90/91 the numbers of student teachers refer to *first semester* enrolments; b) for the years 91/92-98/99 the numbers refer to *first year* enrolments; c) for the year 99/00 the number refers to *second semester* enrolments.

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

Figure 3.3 Numerus clausus in university programmes per academic year (1998/99-2004/05)



a) Numerus clausus for entrants in primary teaching programmes

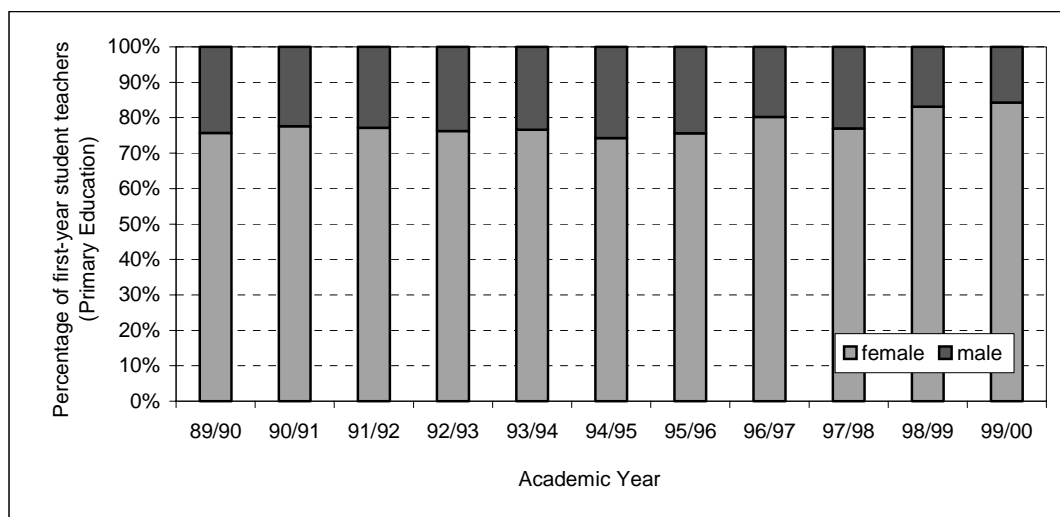


b) Numerus clausus for entrants in all university programmes

Notes: Data in Fig. 3.2b do not include students in technological education institutes (TEI).

Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs.

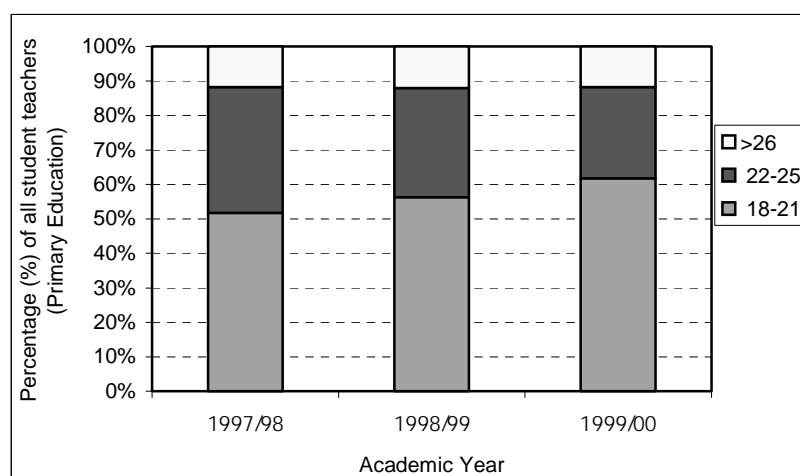
Figure 3.4 Gender composition of students entering (initial) primary teacher education programmes per academic year (1989/90-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

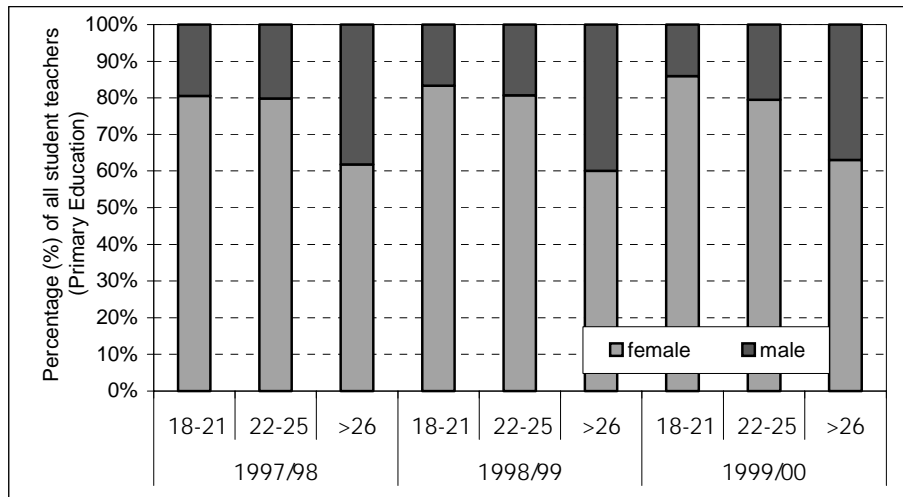
- Figures 3.5 and 3.6 refer to the age composition of people studying to become primary teachers. At least two related observations can be made: In the last 3 years there is an approximately 10% increase in the younger category of students (18-21 years old), which however still is at just over 60% of the total. This can be interpreted by the fact that in Greek universities even though studies are of 4-year duration, there is no compulsory graduation deadline and thus students may remain registered for a much longer period of time if they wish to. A second observation is that the proportion of men in the older age category of students (>26 years old) is almost twice each of the proportions in the two younger age categories. This needs to be interpreted in relation to the regulations concerning conscription to the military service, which in Greece is compulsory for all men over the age of 18.

Figure 3.5 Age composition of students in (initial) primary teacher education programmes per academic year (1997/98-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

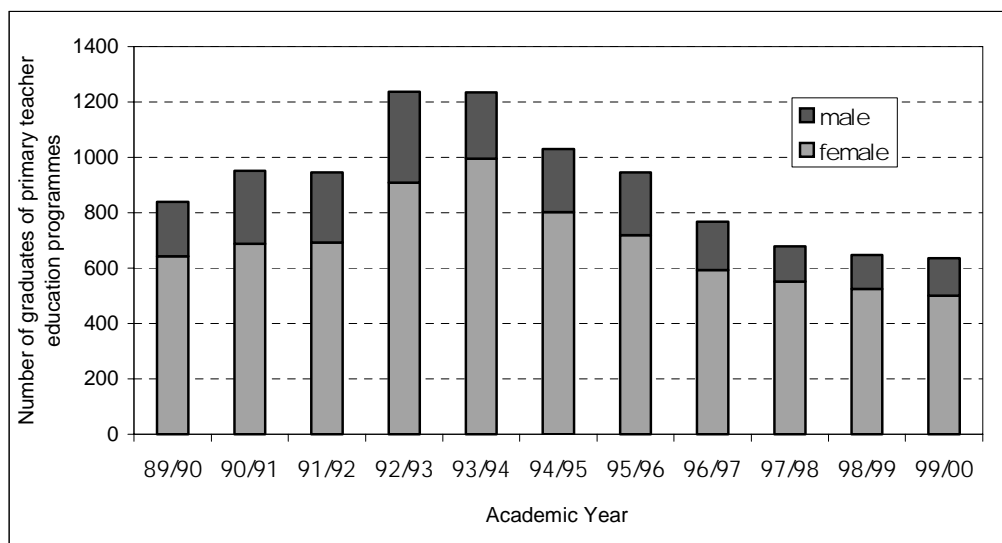
Figure 3.6 Age and gender composition of students in (initial) primary teacher education programmes per academic year (1997/98-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

- Finally, figures 3.7 and 3.8 refer to the number of student teachers graduating from primary education programmes, their gender and their academic ability over the last 10 years. The big drop in numbers of graduates in the academic year 1996/97 and onwards is consistent with the drop in the number of first-year student teachers already discussed in relation to Fig. 3.2. Similarly, the increase in people entering primary teacher education programmes from 1998/99 is likely to cause a corresponding increase in the number of potential primary teachers from the academic year 2002/03 onwards. Concerning their academic ability this seems to be overall very good (Fig. 3.8) and without great variations over the last 10 years.

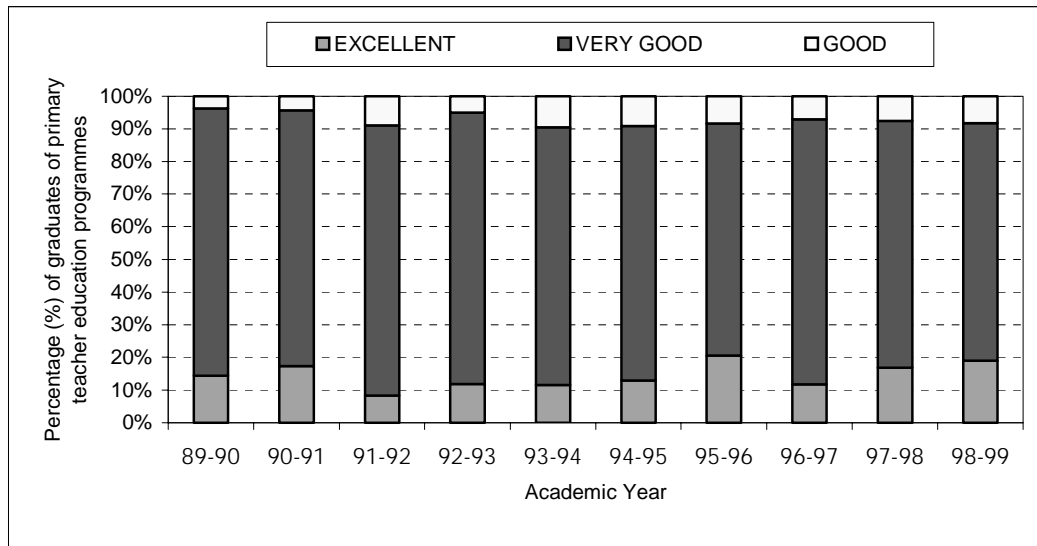
Figure 3.7 Number and gender of graduates from (initial) primary teacher education programmes per academic year (1989/90-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

Note: For academic year 1992/93, data on Univ. Patras graduates are missing

Figure 3.8 Academic ability of graduates from (initial) primary teacher education programmes per academic year (1989/90-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

Note: The categories 'Good', 'Very Good', 'Excellent' characterise the grade received on completion of the programme. This is calculated as the average of the grades (in absolute terms) obtained for all courses attended in the programme. In particular, with 10 being the maximum possible grade, 'Good' corresponds to the average grades 5,00-6,49, 'Very good' to the average grades 6,50-8,49 and 'Excellent' to the average grades 8,50-10,00.

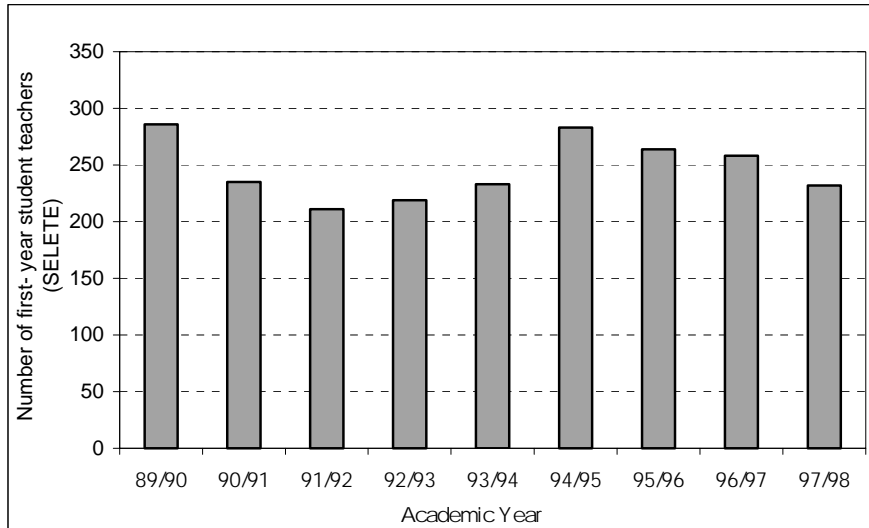
Student teachers of SELETE

74. Figures 3.9-3.13 describe the total number and composition of those studying in SELETE to become teachers in technical-vocational upper secondary education over the past decade in terms of gender and age. Note that this represents only a subset of prospective teachers in technical-vocational education, since the largest number of them comes from other routes as explained in the previous section.

75. Examining these figures we can observe the following:

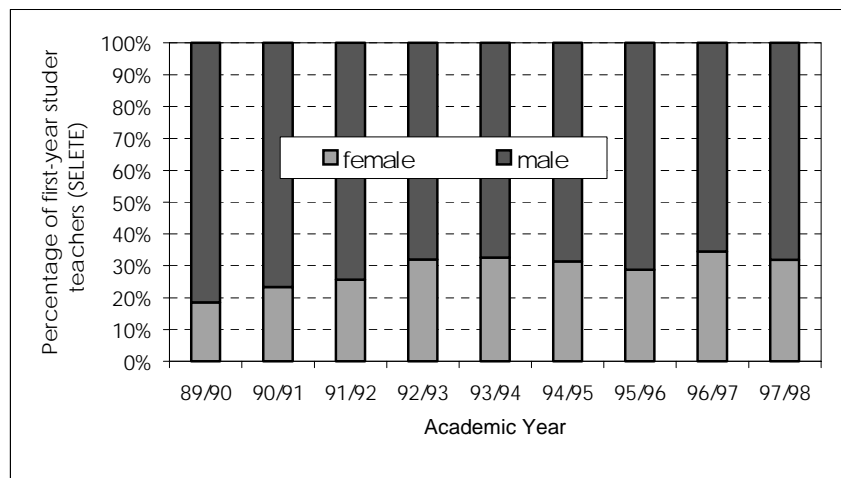
- The number of students entering SELETE (Figure 3.9) seems to fluctuate over the period 1989/90 – 1997/98, reaching maximum figures in 1989/90 and in 1994/95.
- Figure 3.10 suggests that the great majority (percentages vary between 66% and 81% in the period 1989/90-1997/98) of students entering SELETE programmes are men. This result confirms the general trend of male interest in technological education (see also Fig. 3.13). Moreover, the proportion of women student teachers entering these programmes, after an increase of more than 10% in the first four years of the reporting period, seems to remain quasi-constant at a little more than 30% of the total.
- Figures 3.11 and 3.12 refer to the age and gender composition of all student teachers of SELETE. Interestingly, the observations that one can make in relation to these figures are very similar to the ones made for the student teachers of primary education programmes, namely that in the period 1997/98-1999/2000: a) there is an increase (of about 15%) in the younger age category of students (18-21 years old), and b) the proportion of men in the older age categories of students tends to be bigger than in the younger age category.

Figure 3.9 Number of students entering technological teacher education programmes (SELETE) per academic year (1989/90-1997/98)



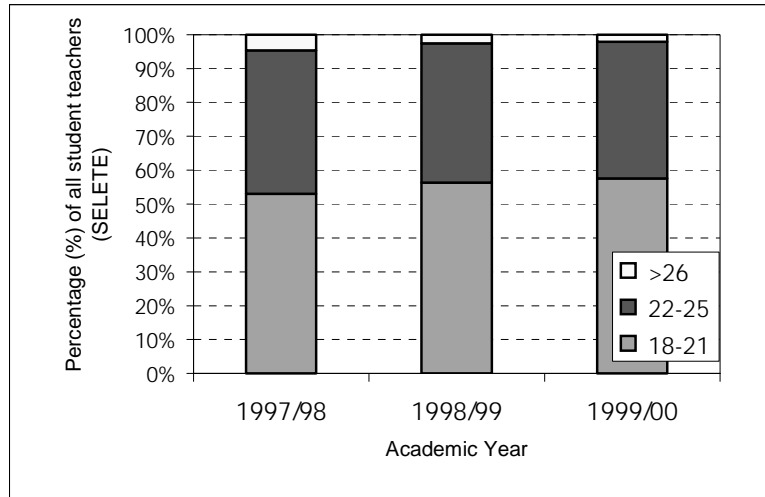
Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

Figure 3.10 Gender composition of students entering technological teacher education programmes (SELETE) per academic year (1989/90-1997/98)



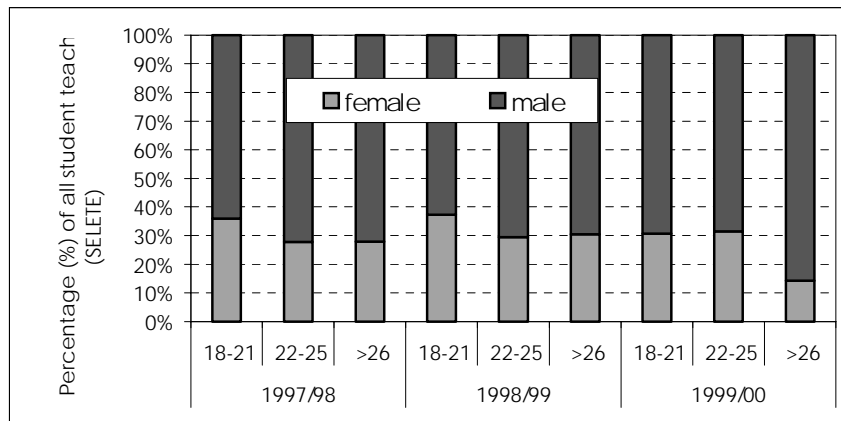
Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

Figure 3.11 Age composition of students in technological teacher education programmes (SELETE) per academic year (1997/98-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

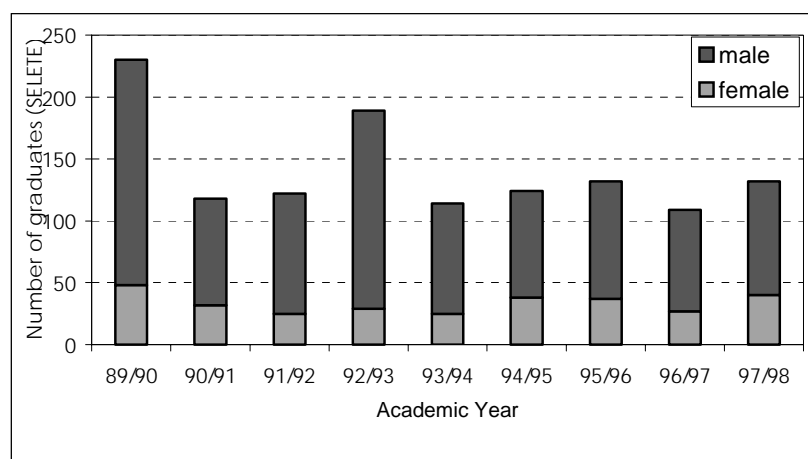
Figure 3.12 Age and gender composition of students in technological teacher education programmes (SELETE) per academic year (1997/98-1999/2000)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

- Finally, figure 3.13 shows the number and gender of student teachers graduating from technological education programmes in SELETE. This number seems to reach maximum figures in 1989/90 and in 1992/93, but remains quasi-constant for the rest of the academic years. Moreover, its comparison with the number of student teachers entering the same programmes (Fig. 3.9) might indicate a significant drop out from these studies.

Figure 3.13 Number and gender of graduates from technological teacher education programmes (SELETE) per academic year (1989/90-1997/98)



Source: National Statistical Service of Greece.

3.2.3 Factors influencing students' enrolment in teacher education programmes

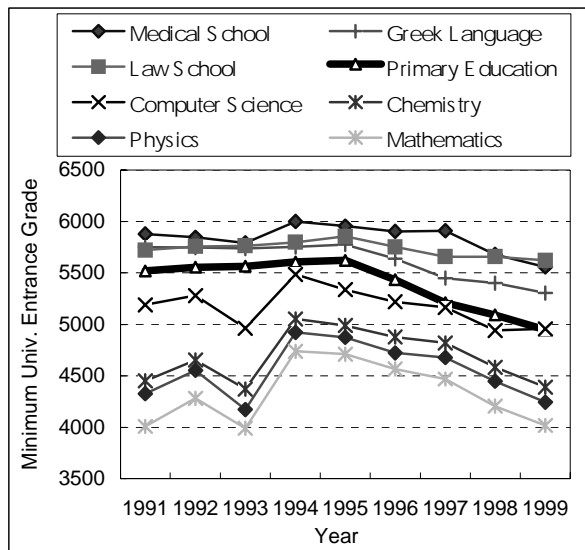
76. Cowan and Koutouzis (1997) have investigated the factors that influence students to study in Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education (PDPE) of Greek universities. Although this research based on data collected in 1993 is an old one, there do not seem to exist any recent ones and thus it is still important in shedding some light in this direction. Cowan and Koutouzis proceeded in examining various characteristics of the PDPE students in Greece, such as the socio-economic background of the students, as well as their schooling and the broad areas of disciplines they choose to follow in their last year of schooling. Their results regarding the socio-economic background of the PDPE students in Greece, based on questionnaires distributed to a sample representing 20,65% of the total number of first year students undertaking primary teaching in Greek universities in 1993 and an average of 59,4% of first year students in the three institutions targeted, make apparent that the Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education "are fed, to a very large extent, by very specific parts of Greek society: small, urban 'working class' families, with both parents having relatively low educational levels." (Cowan and Koutouzis, 1997, p57). The authors conclude that "despite future unemployment prospects, primary teaching is seen as one way of rising from the lower social echelons" (ibid, p60). This assumption is consistent with claims made by sociologists of education (Frangoudaki, 1985; Kassimati, 1991) that higher social groups 'favour' studies that lead to more 'free' professions (such as managerial and scientific occupations), whereas lower social classes are oriented towards studies that lead to either the civil service or other state employment. "It seems, thus, that educational and therefore occupational decisions are strongly influenced by social parameters, with the family being the most dominant" (Cowan and Koutouzis, 1997, p57).

77. Another significant factor determining the number of people who enter initial teacher education is the university selection procedure. Due to the existing *numerus clausus* policy for entrance in the university, for a great number of educators the teaching profession was not the result of personal choice, but the consequence of their participation in highly competitive entrance examinations (Vamvoukas, 1982).

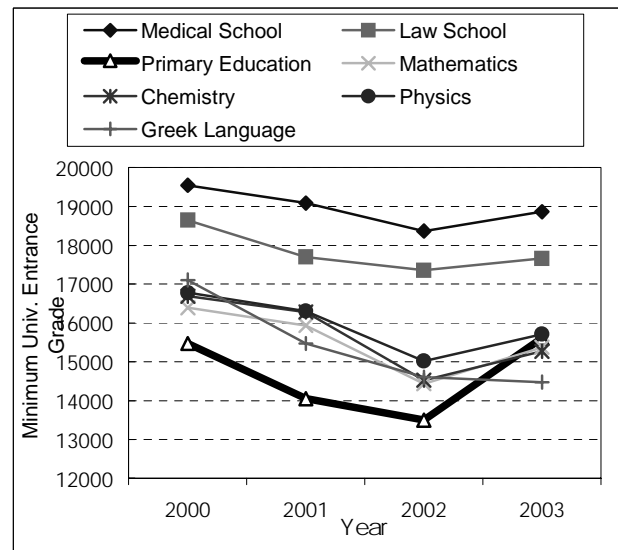
78. A research conducted in 1995 (Stamelos, 1996) showed that the percentage of successful university entrants who declared as first choice one of the PDPEs was very low: from 0% to a maximum of 7,27% in the PDPE of Thessaloniki. This seems to indicate that in their great majority, prospective primary teachers did not study in the PDPEs out of preference, but only because they had not succeeded

in entering the school of their first preference. The university entrance system, which is based on comparative performance in examinations, seems to have borne the responsibility for this situation, since candidates from any 'curriculum' route could access the PDPEs. Another consequence, a positive one, of the same system seemed to be that the academic ability of the school graduates entering in the PDPEs was relatively high, since candidates from very competitive 'curriculum routes', such as the one leading to medical schools, failing to enter their school of preference, entered the PDPEs instead. This situation has been partly altered since the university entrance examination system changed in 2000. Since then access to the PDPEs has varied according to the curriculum routes followed by the school graduates, favouring the routes that lead primarily to studies in humanities and sciences. More specifically, graduates from other than the humanities and sciences curriculum routes may still access the PDPEs, but with their total entrance grade reduced comparatively by 7%. This change has potentially affected the ability intake of the PDPEs. As Figure 3.14 shows, the PDPEs entrants in the years 2000-2002 had lower minimum grades in the university entrance examinations than those of the corresponding entrants of universities which give teaching qualifications to secondary school teachers (i.e. physics, chemistry, mathematics and language university departments). However, as Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show, the concern still remains that only a minority of prospective primary teachers have chosen their career as one of their first three preferences. More particularly, Table 3.1 shows the percentage of entrants in each PDPE in 2000 who had declared this PDPE as one of their three first choices for study, and Table 3.2 shows the percentage of pupils who declared each of the PDPEs as one of their three first choices for study in their applications for university placement (prior to the exams) in 2000 and 2003. The problem identified in this assertion is very important and must be thought of as worrying for the future of the teaching profession, since it is well-known that love for one's profession plays a decisive role both for effective pursue of it and for one's personal happiness. Similar remarks have been also made by other authors and not only in relation to the students of the PDPEs (Vassilou-Papageorgiou, 1992; Kassotakis and Papageli-Vouliouri, 1995; Antoniou, 2002).

Figure 3.14 Evolution of minimum grades for entrance in universities (1991-1999 and 2000-2003)



a) Old university examination system



b) New university examination system

Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs.

Note: The minimum entrance grade for each of the university faculties mentioned is calculated as the average of the corresponding grades for all the universities in Greece.

Table 3.1 University Entrance Exams: Number of entrants in Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education and their order of preference (2000)

Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education	Number of Entrants	Total "1-3" preference	% successful entrants with "1-3" preference
PDPE of Athens	216	74	34,3
PDPE of Thessaloniki	176	47	26,7
PDPE of Patra	166	26	15,7
PDPE of Thessalia	90	12	13,3
PDPE of Kriti	200	24	12,0
PDPE of Ioannina	210	24	11,4
PDPE of Aegean	195	13	6,7
PDPE of Florina	115	7	6,1
PDPE of Thraki	160	9	5,6
	1.528	236	15,45%
Special Education Dept of Thessaly	91	24	26,4%

Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (Stamelos, 2002).

Table 3.2 University Entrance Exams: Preferences of candidates per Pedagogical Department of Primary Education (2000 and 2003)

Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education	2000			2003		
	Number of Preferences	Total "1-3" preference	% "1-3" preference	Number of Preferences	Total "1-3" preference	% "1-3" preference
PDPE of Athens	14.990	1.042	7,0	15.348	3.794	24,7
PDPE of Thessaloniki	14.337	741	5,2	16.239	4.485	27,6
PDPE of Patra	13.384	432	3,2	14.964	2.317	15,5
PDPE of Thessaly	11.606	257	2,2	13.851	2.359	17,0
PDPE of Kriti	9.081	193	2,1	11.608	1.024	8,8
PDPE of Ioannina	12.789	235	1,8	15.098	1.999	13,2
PDPE of Aegean	7.928	131	1,7	11.801	802	6,8
PDPE of Florina	7.876	108	1,4	11.239	983	8,7
PDPE of Thraki	8.873	126	1,4	2.813	735	26,1
Total	100.864	3.265	3,2	112.961	18.498	16,4
Special Education Dept of Thessaly	6.786	233	3,4	5.260	500	9,5

Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. (Stamelos, 2002)
Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (published in the education supplement *Exetaseis* of the newspaper *Eleytherotypia*, No 80, 24/11/2003).

3.2.4 *Attractiveness (or not) of the teaching profession in general*

79. Even if teaching is not perceived as an attractive option by university candidates, it has always been considered as a job with a high degree of security, since teachers, at least in the public sector, are civil servants and thus enjoy tenure as well as set salary structures, automatic promotion and good overall working conditions.

80. These factors coupled with high unemployment in other professional sectors have meant that the teaching profession in Greece has been on the whole in great supply, both at the primary and secondary level. This supply could be measured directly from the number of qualified teachers who applied to be included in the candidate lists for recruitment (until this system was abolished in 1998). Whereas there is no data about the number of such applications per year, it is strongly believed that almost all graduates upon receiving their teaching qualification made such an application.

81. Supply along with absence of government policies to restrict it or failure to satisfy it, resulted in considerable unemployment increase among candidate teachers in the 1990s (see discussion in Chapter 5). Whereas this high unemployment is still a reality for secondary school teachers, this reality has significantly changed, even if temporarily, for primary teachers in the last two years. The political will to accelerate the conversion of many 'regular' primary schools into 'all-day' schools (see section 2.1), has resulted in the creation of many new teaching posts and as a consequence has led to the appointment of a large number of primary teachers, bringing thus unemployment of this category of teachers to a temporary halt. Furthermore, looking back at Figure 3.14b and at Table 3.2 for 2003, this prospect of employment seems to have fuelled a considerable increase in the attractiveness of studies in primary education, as this can be illustrated by the sudden relative increase both in the entrance grades (Figure 3.14b) achieved and in the declared preference shown for the PDPEs by the university student-candidates (Table 3.2) in the university entrance examinations of 2003.

82. In a discussion about the attractiveness of a profession, one necessarily needs also to address the issue of the associated salary and benefits, an issue considered of prime importance by the teacher unions for the upgrading of the profession. (See more about factors affecting the attractiveness of the teaching profession according to the teacher unions in section 1.5).

83. A Greek teacher's salary is that of a civil servant and is comparable with other government occupations with broadly equivalent qualification levels. There are cases of higher teacher salaries in the private sector but this is not the norm. However, the law (Law 682 of 1977) provides that private teachers are paid at least as much as the equivalent scale teachers in the public sector.

84. Tables 3.3 and 3.4 show Greek teachers' salaries in primary and secondary education in 2000 and 2004 (in accordance with Law 3205 of 23/12/2003), at starting salary level, after 15 years of teaching and at the top of the salary scale, i.e. after 33 years of service.

85. The first thing we notice is that primary and secondary teachers' salaries are comparable. Secondly, that the teachers' minimum salary is routinely more than 1,24 times the per capita GDP (Table 3.3). Moreover, the ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita seems to have increased in the period from 1994 to 2000 (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Greek teachers' annual salaries in primary and secondary education (2000)

Teachers' gross salaries (2000) <i>Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions at starting salary, after 15 years of experience and at the top of the salary scale, by level of education, in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs</i>							
	Starting salary / min. training	Salary after 15 years' experience / min. training	Salary at top of scale / min. training	Ratio of starting salary to GDP per capita	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to starting salary	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita (1994)
Primary education	20.065	24.336	29.358	1,24	1,21	1,50	1,27
Lower and upper secondary education	20.387	24.658	29.680	1,26	1,21	1,52	1,27

Source: OECD (2001)

Table 3.4 Greek teachers' annual salaries in primary and secondary education (2004)

Teachers' gross salaries (2004) <i>Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions at starting salary, after 15 years of experience and at the top of the salary scale, by level of education and teachers' professional status, in Euro</i>						
	Teacher category (professional status)	Starting salary / min. training	Salary after 15 years' experience / min. training	Salary at top of scale / min. training	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to starting salary	Ratio of top salary to starting salary
Primary education		16.736	20.572	24.898	1,23	1,49
Secondary education	Higher education (PE)	16.736	20.572	24.898	1,23	1,49
	Technical education (TE)	16.246	19.914	24.044	1,23	1,48

Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs

86. Nominally a teacher's salary is calculated from the base salary, which is the same for all civil servants with equivalent qualifications, plus a number of allowances/benefits. The kinds of allowances prescribed by Law 3205/2003 are:

- Allowance of graduate studies for holders of a doctoral degree or other post-graduate degrees of at least one year's duration.
- Family allowance.
- Performance incentive allowance (see more below).

- Allowance for work done outside teaching, e.g. administrative work, supervision in end-of-the-year examinations, etc.
- Allowance for serving in ‘disadvantaged’ (i.e. in limited teaching position schools and remote schools) or/and frontier regions.
- Allowance for serving in minority schools and special education schools.
- Allowance of special occupation and allowance for position of responsibility for teachers serving in leadership and management posts in education (e.g. school principals, school deputy principals, school advisors, heads of education offices, directors of prefectural directorates of education).
- Allowances for Christmas, Easter and holidays.

87. It needs to be noted that in practice all teachers (including private teachers) receive the allowance for work done outside teaching, the performance incentive allowance and the allowances for Christmas, Easter and holidays. In the calculation of the annual teachers’ salaries in Table 3.4 these allowances have been taken into account. In some private schools teachers get an extra allowance, called ‘special school allowance’, which however varies from school to school. In considering the above figures one has also to take into consideration that these are gross figures; in actual terms an approx 20-27% is deducted for tax and social insurance contributions.

88. This component-structure of a teacher's salary, i.e. made up of a base salary plus allowances, is similar to other employees' in the public sector and has been a point of contention with the teacher unions (KEMETE, 2003b). One of their objections is that this structure allows the government to modify the different salary components independently and in this way differentiate the earnings of civil servants of equivalent qualifications, in favour of an individual or/and an occupational group. Moreover, they object to the fact that on the whole the allowances are neither inflation/index linked nor are taken into account in the calculation of pensions. Finally, they oppose the performance incentive allowance, since they see it as a move towards a performance-related pay scheme, in which a teacher's salary would be linked to the outcome of an evaluation of his/her work. Indeed the criteria for a performance-related award, as these are specified in the most recent law on salary regulations of civil servants (Law 3205/2003), include both a qualitative and quantitative assessment of the performance of the employee and require a positive evaluation of his/her work. In addition, the law refers to a reduction or abolition of the allowance when the criteria for its award are not met. In practice however this has not yet been implemented and all teachers receive this allowance.

89. The same law provides for temporary substitute teachers’ earnings, which correspond to the starting salary scale in their field calculated pro rata for the duration of the school year as opposed to the calendar year. They also receive pro rata allowances for Christmas, Easter and holidays on the same terms and conditions as their permanent colleagues. The earnings of temporary substitute teachers hired on a reduced timetable are calculated pro rata accordingly (YPEPTH, 2000).

90. Finally, long service in the teaching profession is rewarded both with salary increments and reduced teaching time. More particularly, teachers are promoted in terms of salary scale (MK) from the entry level of MK 18 (or of MK 17 and MK 16 for graduates of 5-year and 6-year university degrees respectively), to the last level of MK 1, and receive the base monthly salary of the scale held at any point. The first salary scale corresponds to one year of service, while the remaining salary scales to two years of service each. It should be noted that, in the determination of a teacher’s salary scale, the teaching service in the private sector or as a temporary substitute teacher is taken into account (pro rata).

3.3 Policy initiatives

91. This chapter argues that in Greece the process of appreciation of the teacher's role has been a slow one. *"Stereotypes abound and negative forces influence the attitude of potential student teachers, their selection and treatment."* (Cowan and Koutouzis, 1997). Teaching is still perceived as a non-prestigious occupation, no matter how fundamental for the development of society it might be. This image of the profession, along with the fact that as in many countries teachers traditionally come from lower-middle classes *"present the teaching profession as one which one would not choose to enter unless other professional avenues were closed."* (Vassilou-Papageorgiou, 1992). Therefore, any policy which would aim at increasing the number of 'able' people entering the teaching profession, should have as its foremost goal to raise the prestige of the profession and the social status of the teacher.

92. We have also asserted that despite the profession's poor image, an increasing number of students enter initial teacher education programmes. The sense of job security (tenure), satisfactory salary structures and good overall working conditions, which characterize the profession, seem to be the main factors for this increase. Additional factors, which have been identified, are related to the university selection procedure and the perception that primary teaching is a way of rising from the lower social echelons.

93. The combination of these factors coupled by weaknesses in national planning of teacher policies have led to the current imbalance between teacher supply and demand and to long-term unemployment for an increasing number of qualified teachers.

94. There are consequent policy initiatives to consider: There is clearly a need for a more flexible university entrance exam system, which would offer secondary school students both opportunities and choice and help them achieve their full potential by guiding them to enter the universities of their preference. Some attempts have been made by policy makers in the last two years to improve the match between performance in the exams and choice of university; students are now asked to order the universities they wish to enter only after finding out about their results in the exams and not vice-versa (i.e. before the exams) as it used to happen. Restricting the number of universities students may apply for might be a way to help them narrow down their choices and thus pursue the studies they have more aptitude for. However, no such policy initiative is being currently considered.

95. A complementary way to increase the academic ability of people entering the teaching profession (at least at primary level) might be to allow candidates from all curriculum routes to apply for studies in the PDPEs, as was the case in the past (until 2000). This, together with a restriction on the number of university applications per student, might ensure both that primary teachers come from a variety of backgrounds and have different academic interests and that they chose the profession out of love for it. Such a broadening in the access to primary teacher education programmes seems to have been the consensus wish of the Board of the Primary School Teachers Union (DOE) expressed in a related telegram to the Minister of Education on March 16th, 1984³ (Antoniou, 2002).

96. Finally, another interesting issue which has arisen from the study of the composition of student teachers of primary education is that women seem increasingly to dominate the primary teaching profession, mainly its younger age categories however. Their failure to penetrate the older age categories and also the senior management posts of primary education should be looked upon with skepticism and concern, towards the social structures that determine who reach the higher levels of the teaching profession.

³ *Didaskalikon Vima, No.950, April 1984, p16*

CHAPTER 4. TRAINING, DEVELOPING AND CERTIFYING TEACHERS

4.1 Main policy concerns

97. There is a major policy concern about initial teacher education and certification in secondary education. In principle trainee secondary teachers receive neither sufficient school experience nor exposure to the sciences of education such as pedagogics and didactics, resulting in an initial teacher education which (in most cases) remains primarily restricted to the subject of their specialization, i.e. language, mathematics, physics, etc.

98. Other important policy concerns are the quality and co-ordination of teacher induction programmes and in-service education. In particular, it is felt that the great number of different in-service education programmes, some of which have been subsidized by the Community Support Framework for Education, have not been satisfactorily co-ordinated. These concerns seem to have been the motivating factors which led to the establishment in 2003 of a new organization “The Organization of In-Service Training of Teachers” (OEPEK), to co-ordinate and upgrade in-service education.

4.2 Data, trends and factors

4.2.1 Teachers' initial education

99. In Greece, the form and length of the initial teacher education an individual has to undergo varies, depending on both their subject specialisation and the level of education (primary, secondary) they wish to teach.

Description of initial teacher education pathways

100. Up to 1984 prospective teachers of primary education were trained only in the Pedagogic Academies, public institutions which offered a 2-year non-university theoretical and practical education. As of 1984 (in accordance with Law 1268 of 1982) the primary teacher programmes were brought into the 4 years of study university sector (AEI). The two systems co-existed until 1988, when the Pedagogic Academies were abolished. Consequently, from 1989 onwards, there have been two pools of primary teachers eligible for recruitment. The selection procedure up to 1994, based exclusively on candidate lists (see chapter 5) did not differentiate between these two pools of teachers for recruitment purposes. Moreover, since these lists were compiled according to priority order by the date of submission of candidacy applications and due to the great surplus of primary teachers, the new recruits in that period were more likely to originate from the older pool of teacher-graduates, i.e. from the graduates of the 2-year Pedagogic Academies. Responding to pressure exerted by the new teacher-graduates of the university Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education through the primary teachers' union, this situation changed in 1994, when two separate candidate lists were compiled for the recruitment of primary teachers, corresponding to their two qualification pathways. A percentage was set for recruitment from each list, which recognised both the needs to have all formerly qualified teachers (who had applied for appointment in primary schools) eventually appointed and to open the recruitment option to the newly and better-qualified teachers. As of 2002, when the selection procedure changed to one based mainly on competitive examinations, teachers from both pools are equally eligible to take part in these examinations.

101. To become a secondary school teacher in what can be considered as the 'core' school disciplines, i.e. of language (including foreign languages), mathematics, science, religious studies, art, physical education, home economics and music – it is sufficient for one to obtain a first degree in the relevant field of specialization by the corresponding university department (AEI). Minimum attendance for the award of such a university degree is 4 years. A reform proposed in 1997 (Law 2527/97) stipulated the need to improve the quality of teacher training and thus announced the introduction of an additional compulsory year of professional training for all future teachers in secondary education. This reform, originally planned to come into effect in 2003, has not yet been implemented.

102. Graduates in the fields of economics, engineering, sociology, agriculture, law, political science and medicine in order to become teachers they need to have, in addition to a university first degree in their area of specialisation, a second qualification which can establish that they have received some kind of pedagogic training. This is most often a one-year certificate in pedagogic studies offered by the Higher School of Pedagogical and Technological Education (ASPAITE, former SELETE), but it can also be a second university degree, either in the 'core' school disciplines (see above) or in primary education, or a postgraduate degree in education studies. The possession of this second qualification from being an essential prerequisite for entrance in the teaching profession has featured as desirable but optional (for most of the above categories of graduates) in the most recent round of competitive examinations for recruitment (ASEP 26/2Π/2002 – FEK265 bulletin ASEP, 12.8.2002 and ASEP 27/3Π/2002 – FEK265 bulletin ASEP, 14.8.2002). This relaxation in qualifications could possibly be interpreted as a reaction to a perceived increase in demand (or decrease in offer) for these teaching specialisations.

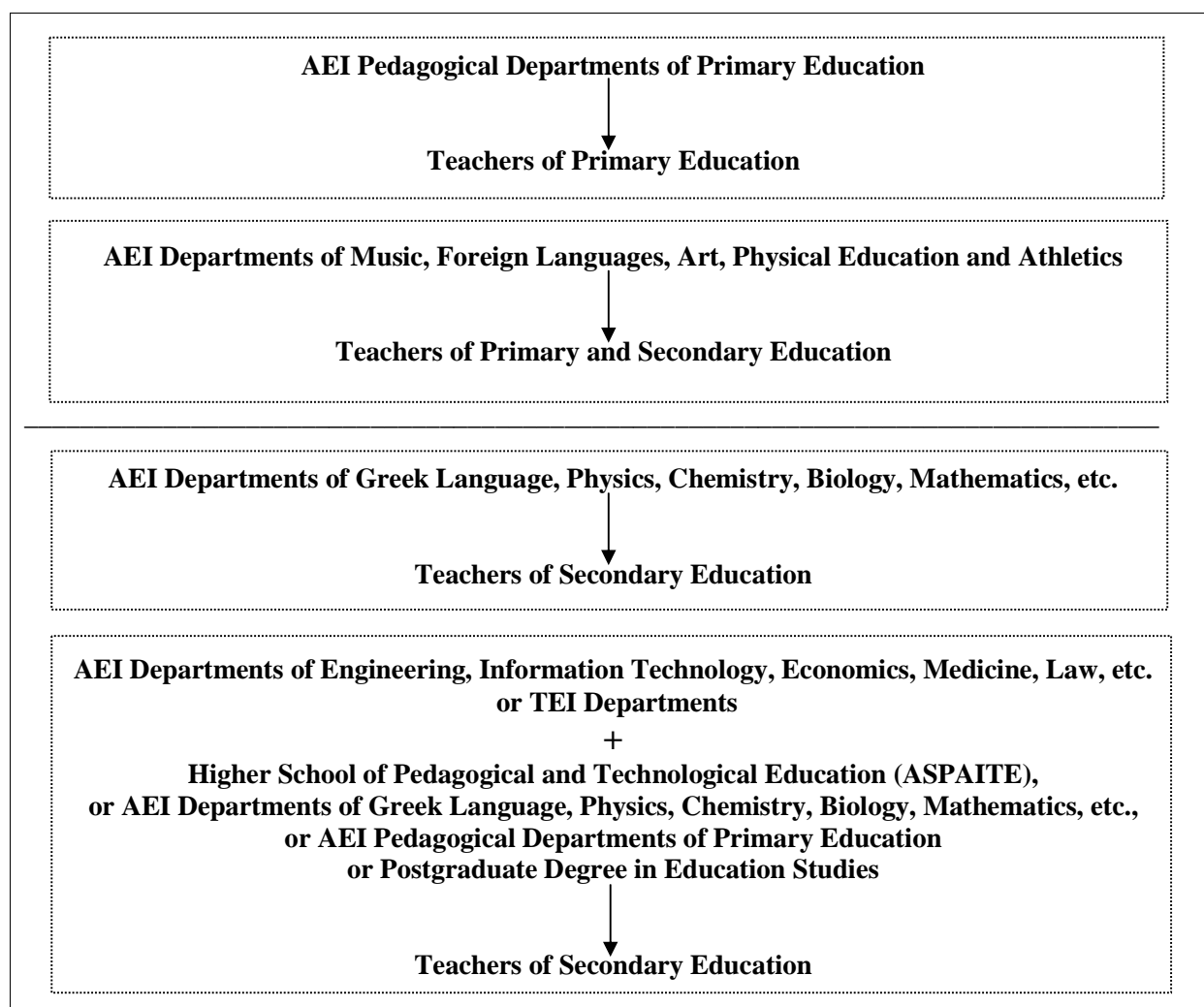
103. To become a teacher of technical subjects (in technical-vocational upper secondary schools) there are two main pathways. One is similar to the pathway described above, i.e. involves the acquisition of a first degree from a technological university (TEI) (4 years of study) plus a second qualification in studies related to education (see above). This is the most common and applies to most technical subject teachers. The requirement of an additional qualification in education studies has been waived as before in recent regulations on recruitment, though still remains a desirable one to have. The other pathway applies mainly to people who want to become teachers of engineering and electronics; these, as an alternative to the previous pathway, have the option of attending a 4-year teacher-training course (offered by ASPAITE) on the corresponding vocational discipline.

104. Finally, the pathways to become an information technology (ICT) teacher show great variation and originality, perhaps as a response to the increased initial demand for and low availability of such teachers. In addition to a pathway similar to the ones described above, i.e. which involve a first degree in ICT, from either a 4-year university (AEI) or a 4-year technological university course (TEI), and a second qualification in education studies, access to the profession is also allowed to graduates of other (than ICT) university departments (of AEI, TEI or ASPAITE), provided that they possess sufficient knowledge in ICT, either via a relevant postgraduate degree or through their prior professional experience in ICT education. Having said this, this latter access pathway exists only for teachers who gained this professional experience prior to 1997 (Law 2454 of 1997), whereas the requirement for a second qualification in education studies lost its compulsory (but not its preferential) status in 2000 (Law 2834 of 2000).

105. Significant variation is also met in the pathways that lead one to become a special needs teacher. Possession of a first degree or a postgraduate degree in Special Needs Education is a standard prerequisite. However, certain years of experience in teaching special needs children are also considered as sufficient requirement for transfer or secondment to special needs schools. Finally, qualified teachers of other disciplines who themselves have special needs are also eligible to teach in special needs schools, up to a set percentage.

106. Figure 4.1 shows the main initial teacher education pathways for teachers in primary and secondary education (see also Fig. 3.1).

Figure 4.1: Initial teacher education pathways for teachers in primary and secondary education



Models of initial teacher education

107. The education of primary teachers can be described by the *concurrent model*, in which pedagogical and practical training for teaching occurs at the same time (EC/Eurydice/Eurostat, 2000). The education of secondary teachers does not follow this model⁴. It is mainly of a general nature in the field of specialisation and does not include any systematic, sufficient or well-organized pedagogical training. According to Eurydice (2002a) Greece has been somewhat unusual in providing initial training to teachers of an exclusively general nature, for most of the last 30 years.

⁴ There are few exceptions in the case of language teachers.

108. However, as noted above, law 2525/1997 requires that from 2003 onwards, an additional year of professional teacher training will be compulsory for all future teachers of secondary education. This training would be provided by the university faculties in which they have received their initial subject degree and lead to a 'Certificate of Pedagogic Training'. The aim of the proposed reform was to improve the quality of teacher training by giving it a more professional focus (with theoretical and practical teacher training occupying a more prominent position). This move towards more professionally-oriented training (as opposed to academically oriented) has to be seen against the background of radical changes in secondary education in recent decades, namely its 'massification' and the fresh challenges facing teachers in terms of the range of pupils with whom they have had to deal. They are increasingly expected to assume a new role calling for skills other than the ability to know a particular subject. However, the implementation of this regulation has been postponed. It seems that this is due to financial and organizational reasons, as well as to social concerns that such a regulation will reduce the scope of the first-degree university studies, to providing solely academic qualifications with no explicit professional prospects.

109. Admission to initial teacher training is restricted by a selection procedure (based on performance in upper secondary education including performance in school leaving examinations and on performance in a tertiary education entrance examination) that supplements possession of the upper secondary school leaving certificate. This selection does not relate exclusively to teacher training, but governs access to tertiary education in general (see chapter 3).

110. The number of places available for initial teacher training are defined centrally after recommendations made by the institutions (*numerus clausus*). This move towards a more centralized selection procedure, observed in the 1970s and 1980s, aimed at regulating the growing demand for study places in general. Alternative routes to initial teacher training do not exist.

111. Institutions (universities) are entirely free to decide how the training they provide will be organized in terms of both curricular content and/or time to be allocated to both general and professional training (total autonomy).

112. Provision of training in ICT skills in initial teacher training is at the discretion of individual training institutions, which may decide to arrange for it as a compulsory subject, a core curriculum option or an optional subject. The trend seems to be towards the increase of training in ICT skills.

113. Training for special needs education and work with multicultural groups of pupils is either compulsory or a core curriculum option during initial training of primary teachers. Recently (in 1998), a new initial teacher education programme began at the University of Thessaly to qualify teachers to teach primary-age children in special needs schools.

114. The funding of all initial teacher training is the responsibility of the public sector.

115. In-school experience of prospective teachers is obligatory only in departments of primary education and the Higher School of Pedagogical and Technological Education (ASPATE). In the university departments of education there is a variety in both the quantity of time devoted to in-school experience and the approach used. In ASPATE it takes different forms such as micro-teaching (Koutouzis *et al.*, 2003).

116. There does not seem to exist a strong direct involvement of the employers, professional organizations or teacher unions in the specification of the content in any of the establishments which prepare prospective teachers. Teacher unions do however sometimes seem to play an indirect role, for example they were influential in the transformations of the two-year (non-university level) initial training

of primary teachers (Pedagogic Academies) to four-year (university-level) during 1984. Nevertheless because of commitment to university autonomy it is rather difficult for stakeholders out of the university community to impose courses, methods of teaching etc.

117. Greece could be considered as a country with almost total autonomy of its institutions concerning initial teacher education (Eurydice, 2002a) with regard to the organization of their curricula. However it seems that certain policies of the EU which support evaluation of the universities or the strengthening of the ties between universities and business are going to influence the existing situation. For instance a new law (<http://pasp-patras.portland.co.uk/a3iologisi.htm>, last visited 30/12/2003) for the evaluation of universities is in preparation (there is a dialogue in process with the universities). This is also expected to influence the departments which prepare future teachers. According to this proposal: "The National System for Quality Assurance and Evaluation of Higher Education" aims to assure the terms and preconditions for the maximum possible qualitative level of operation of the higher education establishments. This National System refers to all the mechanisms and processes of quality assurance and evaluation in higher education, which are developed at a national level as well as locally by each higher education establishment.

118. In the same text there is a description of the National Council of Quality Assurance and Evaluation (ESDAP) for higher education which aims to:

- Plan, coordinate and supervise the processes for the quality assurance and evaluation of higher education in Greece;
- Inform the state and the establishments of higher education on the contemporary international developments and trends in relevant issues;
- Promote research in the domain of quality assurance and evaluation in higher education.

119. Within the framework of its aims ESDAP has a supportive role for the establishment of higher education and advisory for the government.

120. There is no programme for the re-integration of ex-teachers to the teaching profession.

121. On the whole, there are no teacher assistants in Greece. Thus there is no prediction for their upgrading to teachers. However, in certain cases there is the possibility for school technical assistants in laboratories in technical-vocational upper secondary schools to become teachers though participation in (intermittent) programmes of the Higher School of Pedagogical and Technological Education (ASPATE).

4.2.2 Induction and in-service training programmes

122. There is no final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase for teachers in Greece. Fully qualified teachers are selected for admission to the profession on completion of initial education. In the public sector, they are appointed to a post and acquire 'probationary' or temporary status (for 2 years) prior to securing permanent tenure. In practice all teachers acquire tenure after this probationary period.

123. Teachers appointed to their first post in the public sector have to go through a series of theoretical and practical training sessions. This was introduced in 1999 with a presidential decree on initial teacher training. This induction teacher training is undertaken by the Regional In-Service Training Centres (PEK) and is known as *eisagogiki epimorforsi*. It consists of three stages lasting a total of 100

hours. For the academic year 2003-2004 according to the regulations (proposed by OEPEK and approved by YPEPTH) the three stages of eisagogigi epimorfosi consist of the following:

- Didactical methodologies, educational administration and organization, teaching practices, evaluation methods (60 hours to be completed in the first month of the academic year);
- Practical exercises - Model teaching (30 hours);
- Evaluation of processes - Re-planning - Effectiveness (10 hours).

124. The foregoing arrangements have not been followed by any ‘qualifying’ assessment, in the strict sense, of progress achieved by teachers so far. However, according to the existing legislation for the academic year 2003-2004, evaluation is will be realised by OEPEK.

125. In addition there is a big number of full-time teachers who work on a one-year contract or teachers with contracts based on the hours they teach (see chapter 5). In this case as well as in the private sector teachers do not follow the path of eisagogiki epimorfosi.

126. There are different categories of programmes for the professional development of teachers. Some of them have a fixed structure and are provided by institutions, called ‘didaskaleia’, which are related to PDPEs of universities. They provide two-year programmes for teachers of primary education⁵ who have a two-year degree from the (non-university) Pedagogic Academies and have at least 5 years teaching experience. Entrance to these programmes is through examinations. These programmes are full-time – so teachers who follow them do not work at schools the period of their training – and often prepare the teachers to take leading posts as principals, etc..

127. Didaskaleia are specialised in general and special needs (primary) education. In Table 4.1 the number of teachers admitted into in-service training in each didaskaleio of primary education in 2003 is shown.

Table 4.1: Number of teachers in didaskaleia for in-service training in primary education (2003)

Didaskaleia	Teachers
Didaskaleio of Athens	89
Didaskaleio of Thessaloniki	70
Didaskaleio of Rethymnon	55
Didaskaleio of Patras	50
Didaskaleio of Ioannina	46
Didaskaleio of Aegean	31

Source: Ministry of Education (YPEPTH)

128. In Table 4.2 the number of teachers admitted into in-service training in each didaskaleio of primary education (special education) are shown.

⁵ There are also didaskaleia for pre-primary education teachers.

Table 4.2: Number of teachers in didaskaleia for in-service training in special needs education (2003)

Didaskaleia	Teachers
Didaskaleio of Athens	43
Didaskaleio of Thessaloniki	35
Didaskaleio of Aegean	31
Didaskaleio of Rethymnon	30
Didaskaleio of Ioannina	21

Source: Ministry of Education (YPEPTH)

129. Another in-service programme, which has played and continues to play an important role, is that which up-grades the two-year (non-university) degrees of older primary teachers to university diplomas thus enabling them to continue in full-time teaching. The courses on this programme are taken mainly at weekends (*exomiosi* programmes) and focus on: pedagogics, contemporary teaching approaches, psychology, social sciences, international and European studies in education, Greek language, history and civilization, mathematics, science and informatics (Antoniou, 2002).

130. Table 4.3 shows the number of primary teachers who participated in this programme as it was organized by the different Pedagogical Departments of Primary Education the period 1997-1999 (Antoniou, 2002):

Table 4.3: Number of primary teachers in exomiosi programmes (1997-1999)

School of Education	Number of Centres	Number of Teaches		
		Enrolled	Attended	Graduated
University of Athens	15	7.072	6.944	5.724
University of Thessaloniki	7	3.116	2.564	2.337
University of Patra	0	200	167	151
University of Ioannina	7	1.750	1.462	1.296
University of Florina	2	870	869	719
University of Thessaly	5	1.700	1.670	1.457
University of Aegean	10	931	727	692
University of Thraki	13	625	625	482
University of Crete	2	295	228	111
Total	61	16.559	15.256	12.969

131. There is not clear evidence for the efficiency of these programmes although it is obvious that they have an important influence on the status of teachers because they provide new possibilities for existing primary teachers to access postgraduate studies, and give them better access to leading posts, etc.

132. Short term in-service education for both primary and secondary teachers is provided by the 'Regional In-Service Training Centres' (PEK). These programmes are addressed to all types of teachers or can be specialized for certain level of education or specialization. Each PEK provides programmes in the area of their responsibility (Stamelos, 2002).

133. During the academic year 2000/01 there were 16 PEK with 214 programmes. 5.578 teachers from public schools and 131 from private schools participated and 767 persons taught in these programmes (see Table 4.4) (Stamelos, 2002).

Table 4.4: Number of programmes, trainees and trainers in each PEK (2000/01)

PEK	Programmes	Trainees		Trainers
		Public	Private	
Athens, 1 st	20	542	8	77
Athens, 2 nd	19	485	56	98
Athens, 3 rd	15	382	7	60
Piraeus	15	404	18	61
Thessaloniki, 1 st	14	317	15	34
Thessaloniki, 2 nd	13	339	3	29
Heraklion	11	288	3	38
Larissa	12	327	14	38
Ioannina	12	345	0	48
Patra	11	292	4	43
Lamia	12	288	0	49
Tripoli	12	308	3	56
Mytilini	12	299	0	35
Kavala	12	329	0	36
Kozani	12	341	0	24
Alexandroupoli	12	292	0	41
Total	214	5.578	131	767

134. During the academic years 1997-2000, 1.242 short-term programmes (40 hours) were realized in PEK (Source: YPEPTH). These programmes belonged to various thematic units and their objectives were that teachers should:

- Get informed on recent developments in specific scientific, pedagogic, technological, politico-economic domains related to their work;
- Acquire the appropriate methodological tools for the better understanding and critical consideration of the developments that would render them capable of making conscious choices and organising their teaching more effectively;
- Get informed on topics related with school life, such as: organization and administration of the school unit, running of student communities, management of problematic situations, multicultural issues, etc.
- Become familiar with: the use of computers and multimedia; management of European programmes; the establishment and development of counselling services/mechanisms in the school unit, etc.
- Renew their pedagogic and technical knowledge, in the light of the rapid development of technology and the resulting changes in the labour market.
- Become familiar with life-long learning issues.

135. There are many more other possibilities for in-service teacher training through seminars and activities organised by the school advisors and the people at prefecture level responsible for environmental education, health education, cultural activities, etc. Moreover, there are many more possibilities through a great number of various programmes for professional development based on national initiatives, on the Community Support Framework for education as well as on other European programmes (Comenius, Leonardo, etc.) (Stamelos, 2002). It is worthwhile mentioning very big programmes subsidized by the Community Support Framework for education, such as for school based in-service teacher training, intercultural education, ICTs, all-day schools, teacher mobility, etc.. Some of these programmes are organized by the scientific organizations of teachers (e.g. the Association for Science Education, Association of Teachers of Greek Language, Associations of Physicists, Chemists, Biologists etc.), and by the research centres of teacher unions (e.g. IPEM, KEMETE, etc.).

136. The following table (Table 4.5) provides data on the first phase (from 1/1/2002 to 20/6/2002) of the programme 'In Service Teacher Training in the Use of Information and Communication Technologies in Education'. This is one of the major in-service training programmes currently being carried out in Greece, which aims to train around 76.000 primary and secondary teachers in the use of ICTs.

Table 4.5: First phase of the programme 'In service Teacher Training in the Use of ICTs in Education' (2002).

Total number of Directorates in preparation for INSET	40
Number of participating Directorates	18
Total number of teachers in schools of participating Directorates	47.195
Number of applications for training	25.982
Number of teacher-trainees	11.638
Total number of programmes	1.104
Total number of applications of prospective trainers	7.567
Number of trainers certified	3.820
Total number of applications from prospective CSIT*	2.286
Total number of CSIT* certified	1.928
*CSIT= Centre for Support of In-Service Training	

Source: Ministry of Education (YPEPTH)

137. There is some kind of evaluation in certain programmes of in-service training particularly in those subsidized by the funds of Community Support Framework or other EU funds. However this practice is not widespread.

138. As noted above, all programmes for teacher professional development will be co-ordinated and supervised by the newly-established organization for in-service training in Greece (OEPEK). This is expected to improve the quality of the existing in-service education as well as the effectiveness of the institutions which provide it.

139. More particularly, according to the law 2986/2002 which refers to the in-service training and the establishment of OEPEK this organization is supervised by the minister of education and is responsible for the following:

- The planning of the in-service training policy for teachers of primary and secondary education.
- The coordination of all forms and types of in-service training as well as of the application of in-service activities.
- The development of in-service training programmes, which after the approval by the minister of education are delivered by the in-service training establishments/ institutions.
- The allocation of in-service training to appropriate organizations.
- The distribution and management of the funds allocated to in-service training of teachers.
- The accreditation of organizations and certifications in the domain of in-service training.

140. Until the establishment of OEPEK, the main decisions in regards to teachers' in-service training needs were taken mainly centrally in the Ministry of Education. However, no sufficiently defined policy seems to have existed in this domain, with the exception of proposals made by the Pedagogic Institute. Other decisions were taken at a regional or local level particularly concerning the available programmes provided. Up to the establishment of OEPEK, there were no links between the evaluation of teachers and their participation in professional development programmes.

4.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

141. The implementation of a policy on better pedagogical preparation of secondary teachers remains an open issue. Although a law requiring an additional year of pedagogical orientation for prospective secondary teachers was passed it remains inert and this seems to be caused by financial and organizational reasons, as well as by social concerns about its implementation. Interestingly however the Association of Private School Owners (SIEIE) does not share the view for the urgency of the introduction of this additional pedagogical training for secondary teachers. They consider their initial training as satisfactory and argue that teaching experience is more important than any kind of theoretical pedagogical training. Teaching experience is one of the essential criteria they use to select secondary teachers, who, according to SIEIE, acquire it in most cases from teaching in private tutorial institutes (*frontistiria*).

142. The establishment of OEPEK could be a catalyst for the rationalization and upgrading of in-service training. Although this organization is in its very first steps, there are significant indications that it will coordinate the many independent in-service training programmes which run at the moment. Moreover the research direction of this organization can provide a better orientation of in-service training which could be better related to the teachers' in-service needs. Certainly, Greece has a long way to go in this domain because at the moment there seems to be no significant and systematic research and evaluation of in-service training programmes on which to found future policy.

143. There is a need for better rationalization of initial teachers' education through a greater coordination with the job market. There are university departments (mathematics, physics, languages, etc.), which currently prepare a great surplus of potential secondary teachers who according to the existing data will never find a job as school teachers (see chapter 5); on the other hand there is a potential shortage of primary teachers. The above better coordination could be accompanied by more information

concerning the labour market (this is a domain where there are many initiatives in secondary education the last years concerning students carrier orientation).

144. A more practical orientation of initial education and in-service training towards on-the-job qualifying could facilitate the education, development and certification of effective teachers.

145. Some of the demands of the teacher unions of primary (DOE) and secondary (OLME) school teachers focus on the modernization of INSET methods towards more participative and active directions, transparency and equality of opportunities for all teachers, as well as reduced working hours for the teachers who participate in INSET courses (KEMETE, 1999). OLME in particular emphasises the value of *eisagogiki epimorfosi* for all new teachers before they start teaching; insists on the introduction of a one-year paid leave to be used for INSET for all teachers after their first 5 years of teaching; and asks that teachers are given more opportunities for self-training, for example by their participation in educational research programmes. It also identifies the need for short-term INSET courses to take place at the level of the school unit on a variety of issues of professional interest to teachers and argue for the improvement of PEK. Finally, according to teachers, the implementation of participative forms of school evaluation could also facilitate their professional development. (KEMETE, 1999).

146. The Association of Private School Owners (SIEIE) also emphasises the value of INSET for teachers. They argue that education providers should have more autonomy to offer relevant and school-based INSET, and express concerns that whereas according to law private teachers should participate in INSET courses on equal terms with their colleagues in the public sector, this is often not the case.

147. Finally, the Association of School Advisors stresses the need for the training of school advisors on issues that apt to their role as providers of pedagogic and scientific guidance to teachers, that is to issues related to school leadership, teacher evaluation, teacher training, etc.

148. A permanent substantial dialogue with the stakeholders in order to articulate a long-term educational policy for teachers, which would deal comprehensively with the issue of their professional development, is a *sine qua non* for all stakeholders.

CHAPTER 5: RECRUITING, SELECTING AND ASSIGNING TEACHERS

5.1 Main policy concerns

149. Teacher selection has been one of the main teacher policy concerns of the last decade in Greece. The oversupply of qualified teachers, mainly of the secondary school level, has posed the challenge to policy makers of how to select the most able for appointment.

150. This has led to a major reform in the teacher recruitment system, which will be discussed in this chapter.

5.2 Data, trends and factors

5.2.1 Recruitment procedures in the public sector

151. In Greece, the teacher selection mechanism is centralized and thus allows a high degree of control over the number of teachers appointed to the profession. On the other hand, it insures lifetime tenure for those teachers.

152. Recruitment of teachers takes place through a mixed system of competitive examinations and national candidate lists (*epetirida*). This system has only now (2003) come into full effect after a 5-year transitional phase from a system based solely on candidate lists to one based mainly (though not exclusively) on competitive examinations.

153. More particularly, up until the end of 1997 separate national candidate lists were drawn up for each curriculum area by the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. Candidates were ranked on the list on the basis of the date of application (and of further qualifications they might have). These lists were closed on 31 December 1997.

154. For the years 1998-2002, a progressively decreasing percentage of appointments was made from the lists of candidate teachers, according to the order in which they were entered on these lists, and the remaining appointments were made from among those who successfully participated in public, centrally organized competitive examinations announced and held by the Supreme Council for Selection of Personnel (*ASEP*) (Law 2525 of 1997). Candidates wishing to be admitted to the competitive examination must, in addition to meeting general eligibility criteria, possess full teaching qualifications. Successful candidates must have obtained a total final average of 60% in the competition. If this average is obtained, then candidates are ranked on the basis of additional criteria, including the grade obtained in the university degree and any postgraduate qualifications and/or previous teaching experience. However, not all successful candidates are guaranteed a teaching post. This depends on the availability of posts open for recruitment and on the candidates' rank in the pass lists, which remain valid for 2 years. From 2003, teachers are appointed at a 75% from these pass lists and at a 25% from new candidate lists (created under Law 2725 of 1999), which include all the qualified teachers who have worked as temporary substitute (or supply) teachers for a total period of at least 16 months prior to 30.6.1998 (Law 3027 of 2002).

155. The same law (Law 3027 of 2002) also stipulates that in 2005, the teachers of the so called '16 months' list will be given priority of recruitment over all categories. The wish of the policy maker here is clearly to dispense of this list by gradually recruiting all its candidates. In addition, s/he announces the creation of yet a new list, renewed on a yearly basis, which will encompass all the teachers who have got some teaching experience from working as temporary substitute staff (in the public sector) as well as all

the successful candidates of the most recent competitive examination who were not appointed. This new list will eventually replace the '16 months' list when this is exhausted. Temporary substitute/supply teachers are also recruited from these latter two lists. The creation of this new list addresses some of the demands of the teacher unions for the state to recognize and reward previous teaching experience.

156. Eligibility criteria for teacher recruitment are:

- To hold EU citizenship.
- Proficiency in the language of instruction (Teachers who are not nationals of the country or do not hold an initial teacher training qualification from its education system are required to provide evidence of language proficiency, usually by means of a language exam.)
- Evidence of personal integrity: to demonstrate that they do not have a criminal record.
- To pass a medical check-up.
- Age restriction on teachers. Recruitment by *epetirida* was open to teachers aged between 21 and 40 years (45 years with previous teaching experience), whereas recruitment by the National Competitive Exam is now open to teachers aged between 21 and 45 years of age. The age limit can be extended to 50 years under certain circumstances, but never beyond that age.

'Permanent' tenured teachers

157. As already mentioned, in Greece teachers are part of the civil service. The rules governing recruitment to the civil service are therefore applicable to teachers. Appointment to the civil service implies that teachers' conditions of employment are guaranteed under public law provisions and that their appointment to a teaching post is secure until retirement. Tenure is obtained formally only after a two-year full-time probationary period (only for newly-appointed teachers), by decision of the Prefect, if the Regional Primary or Secondary Education Service Council (PYSPE or PYSDE) deems them suitable for 'permanent' (tenured) status. According to Law 2986/2002, the acquisition of tenure is associated with a positive evaluation of the teacher's work. However, this law is not yet fully implemented and thus, with very rare exceptions, *all* newly-appointed teachers acquire permanent status after two years of full-time teaching. It should be noted that in the discussion that follows in this chapter teachers in their probationary years are considered and counted as 'permanent' teachers.

Temporary substitute teachers

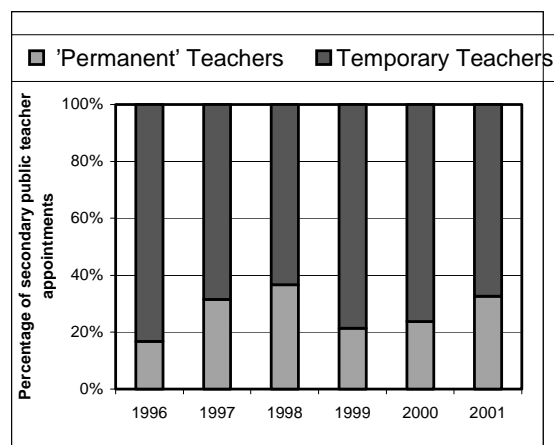
158. Temporary employment contracts are offered to substitute/supply teachers. Substitute teachers are offered a fixed-term contract corresponding to the period during which they are required to replace the absent teacher(s). Maximum duration of a substitute contract is until the end of the school year. Substitute teachers may be hourly wage teachers or temporary replacement teachers, depending on the hours of replacement they are asked to do as this is prescribed by the Directorate of Education (in consultation with schools) and endorsed by the Deputy Minister of Education. More particularly, substitute teachers are contracted annually either on a full teaching timetable in one or more schools within the same Directorate (at the prefecture level), or on a reduced teaching timetable up to 11 hours per week on an hourly wage basis.

159. In general terms, teaching staff vacancies in public schools are filled annually by appointments made after the vacant positions are advertised, as the law provides. Applications for 'permanent' appointment are submitted before the end of the previous school year to the Directorates of Education (at

the prefecture level). In applying candidate teachers are asked to rank the prefectures, which have teaching vacancies, in order of preference for appointment purposes. All applications are then sent to the competent Directorate of the Ministry, which decides the placement of teachers in a certain prefecture, based on their rank in the respective recruitment list (see section 5.2.1) taking into account the candidate's declared preferences. This decision is then communicated to the corresponding Directorates, which further decide the assignment of teachers to the schools of the prefecture, upon a proposal by the Regional Primary or Secondary Education Service Council (PYSPE or PYSDE).

160. There are two kinds of teacher vacancies: *structural vacancies (organikes theses)* and *functional vacancies (litourgikes theses)*. 'Structural' vacancies are the ones that are created by the permanent leave of a teacher (through retirement, death, etc.) or by the increase in student numbers or teaching disciplines; these are filled by permanent staff via the recruitment procedure described above. The decision for the creation of new permanent posts is taken by the Ministry of Education (at central level). 'Functional' vacancies are the ones that are created by absent teachers or teachers on leave of absence (see chapter 6 for categories of leaves). The duration of the absence determines the type of replacement. A distinction is made between short and longer-term replacements. The use of existing resources is given priority over employing a substitute cover in short-term replacements, e.g. for absent teachers. That is, before bringing in new staff (a task which is undertaken at central level), efforts are made at the prefecture level to identify teachers who are under-employed in other school units in the area or the local authority and therefore available to replace an absent teacher. For longer-term replacements, substitute/supply teachers are recruited (as also explained above) from several groups, with priority given to teachers from the '16 months' list, as well as to teachers from the pass lists of the competitive examinations. It is also possible, when no teachers from these lists are available, to call upon teachers with or without previous experience who are not on these lists, or who have not sat for the competitive examination (but are on the *epetirida*). These longer-term vacancies are usually allocated shortly before the beginning of every school year; they are advertised, as the above and eligible teachers have to apply for them. Having said this, often a number of longer-term vacancies are advertised at various periods after the beginning of a school year and this creates serious problems for the smooth operation of schools, especially in non-urban areas.

Figure 5.1: New appointments of secondary teachers in public education: 'permanent' vs temporary teachers (1996-2001)



Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH)

161. Temporary substitute teachers comprise a significant proportion of the teaching force in Greece. Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 exemplify this by showing respectively the number of new appointments of

secondary teachers in public education and the relationship between ‘permanent’ and temporary appointments, in the years 1996-2001.

Table 5.1: Number of new Secondary Teacher Appointments in public education per year (1996-2001)

Code	Subject Area	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
PE01	Religious Studies	111	100	221	112	121	103
PE02	Greek Language and Literature	350	696	1037	479	476	517
PE03	Mathematics	205	160	587	229	152	124
PE04	Science	252	263	388	165	78	334
PE05	French Language	78	350	357	107	44	32
PE06	English Language	36	270	310	280	150	100
PE07	German Language	20	105	143	105	80	50
PE08	Art	71	80	71	41	6	18
PE09	Economics	37	80	117	94	29	44
PE10	Sociology	42	36	76	35	17	12
PE11	Physical Education	45	43	137	145	180	74
PE12	Engineering	62	123	0	0	145	241
PE13	Law, Political Science	39	60	87	55	21	27
PE14	Medicine, Agriculture, etc.	57	61	0	0	86	75
PE15	Home Economics	20	36	51	27	18	42
PE16	Music	17	80	51	56	2	242
PE17	Technology (TEI)	148	331	0	0	328	446
PE18	TEI-other	99	238	0	0	212	310
PE19	Information Technology (AEI)	148	413	236	223	641	552
PE20	Information Technology (TEI)	99	7	93	96	167	245
TE01	Laboratory Technicians	38	50	0	0	82	115
DE01	Other technicians	14	30	0	0	17	20
	Total ‘PERMANENT’	1.988	3.612	3.962	2.249	3.052	3.723
	Total TEMPORARY	9.860	7.847	6.863	8.272	9.792	7.700
	TOTAL	11.848	11.459	10.825	10.521	12.844	11.423

Source: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH)

Note: TE01 and DE01 categories include graduates of upper or lower technical and vocational secondary schools, which have now been abolished.

162. Figure 5.1 clearly shows that temporary teaching appointments annually constitute in the worst of cases little over 80% and in the best little over 60% of the total new secondary appointments in public

education. The same is true for primary education. The vast number (proportionally) of these appointments points to a body of temporary substitute teachers of considerable size, which thus constitutes a significant stakeholder of teacher-related policies.

163. The need of such a big number of temporary appointments is a matter of debate between the government and the teacher unions (DOE, OLME, PEA)⁶. The government claims that the number is justified because the vacancies the appointments are meant to cover are *functional (litourgikes theses)* and thus unforeseeable. The teacher unions, on the other hand, argues that a number of these appointments, such as those for members of the school leadership, for senior staff in the regional directorates and for teachers who have been seconded to Greek schools abroad are entirely predictable. Also the appointments covering teachers on study leave and teachers seconded to educational offices outside schools amount to a number which may vary but which can be directly controlled by the policy makers. Therefore, they conclude that “*in the Greek education system there are fixed (as opposed to unexpected) needs in teaching personnel and that these needs are addressed by substitute teachers, who thus help in the smooth running of the system*” (Andreou and Koutouzis, 2002). If this is the case for at least a proportion of the appointed temporary teachers, then the issues of their professional prospects, as well as of their professional status and recognition become more imminent.

164. The first of these issues, that is the professional prospects of temporary teachers, has been significantly aggravated (at least until the most recent law 3027 of 2002) with the introduction of the ASEP competitive exams and the abolition of *epetirida*, which put an end to a relative certitude that ‘at one point’ these teachers would be offered a ‘permanent’ appointment in the public sector. This is further discussed in section 5.3. As to the second issue, their professional status is substantially demoted in relation to the one of ‘permanent’ teachers, since they receive significantly fewer financial and other benefits and no chance for promotion (see section 3.2.4).

165. More particularly, on this latter issue some of the relevant demands of the substitute teachers’ union include (Andreou and Koutouzis, 2002):

- extension of their working contract until the end of August, as opposed to the end of the school year (see above);
- recognition of their temporary teaching experience in the: a) assignment of a salary scale to them (both in their temporary job and when/if they are permanently appointed), b) calculation of the long-service allowance (when permanently appointed) (see chapter 3) and c) determination of their teaching time responsibilities;
- participation in in-service training programmes; etc.

5.2.2 *Recruitment procedures in the private sector*

166. In the private sector the procedure for teacher recruitment is somewhat simpler than in the public sector. First of all, teachers who wish to work in a private school have first to apply to register in the *epetirida* of private teachers, a centrally kept list, by submitting the necessary proofs of qualifications. This procedure plays the role of further accreditation by the state, a control of legitimacy, so that only qualified teachers may be appointed in private schools.

⁶ Temporary substitute teachers are members of DOE or OLME accordingly. In addition there are members of the Union of Substitute Teachers (PEA).

167. Schools may advertise their vacancies, but most often unemployed qualified teachers send their CVs and letters of application to them as a matter of course. Schools then usually choose the ones to interview and based on how well teachers do in the interview they decide whom to appoint.

168. On what basis however are teachers employed in private schools? On their first appointment in a private school, teachers are offered a two-year fixed term contract (Law 2986 of 2002). At the end of this contract, as well as after the first year of service, the school owner has the right to give the teacher notice of termination, without providing any reason for it, but after awarding him/her compensation equal to two months salary. If the notice is not given, then the contract is automatically renewed for a further 4-year period. A dispensed teacher, if employed by a different private school, will get a six-year fixed term contract. At the end of either the 4-year renewal period or the 6-year one, the school owner is allowed to terminate the contracts of only 33% of the teachers (who have completed 6 years of service). The compensation then awarded is equal to six months of salary. The remaining teaching contracts are converted into indefinite-term contracts (kind of tenure) (Law 682 of 1977 and 2986 of 2002). Naturally, teachers can always be fired for physical or mental inaptitude which has been certified by the relevant authorities; retirement, disciplinary, ethical reasons or professional inadequacy. If an indefinite-term contract is broken, the teacher is awarded compensation equivalent to as many months as were the years of service in that school and up to 25 years. The Association of Private School Owners (SIEIE) has voiced objections to this quasi-permanent status of private teachers.

169. Law 2986 of 2002 also stipulates that private teachers both in primary and secondary education, who are fired, are employed immediately in public education provided that they had been appointed in the private school before December 31st, 1997 and that they had completed 6 years of service in that school. For their appointment, in this case, their order in the old (now closed) public *epetirida* plays no role, which in practice means that they could be appointed prior to other qualified teachers of the same graduation year. The same regulation applies to private teachers who become unemployed when a private school closes down.

170. Moreover, if the appointment in the private school took place after December 31st, 1997, dismissed teachers, with 6 years of service, may register in the new annual list (of past substitute teachers and teachers from the exam pass list) (see above). This regulation does not apply to private teachers who have resigned from their post.

171. Finally, dismissed private teachers, who have been working in a private school until the school year 2001-2002, can be appointed in public education, with an 'indefinite' term contract, provided that their contemporaries in the 'old' *epetirida* have already received a teaching appointment.

172. The above regulations have been gains/successes of the private teachers' movement to secure their positions against unfair dismissal.

5.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

173. Perhaps one of the most radical educational reforms concerning teachers in Greece has been the introduction of a new system of teacher recruitment based on criteria of educational merit. That is the move from a list-based system of entry to the profession, to one which incorporates assessment of suitability to teach by competitive examinations on both subject and pedagogic knowledge.

174. To understand the reasons that led to this reform, one has to go a step back and review the situation of impasse that had been created with the list-based system of recruitment. By 1997, due to the fact that the number of teacher trained graduates is not equivalent to the numbers of teaching posts open for recruitment nor to the numbers of teachers already on the lists and awaiting a permanent teaching

position (see chapter 3), a great surplus of both primary and secondary teachers (in most subjects) had been created. This surplus situation was compounded by the fact that teachers, who have a high degree of job security together with satisfactory conditions of service (relative both to other public sector occupations and to the private sector), tended to remain in the profession until they reach retirement age. The resulting consequence was that persons with teaching qualifications were often required to spend a considerable period of time on the candidate list before obtaining a post. This time varied from about 10 years for nursery and primary teachers to 14-8 years for various secondary teachers (YPEPTH, 1997). Exceptions were the secondary teachers of certain specialized subjects, such as art, ICT, doctors, etc., who were appointed almost immediately.

175. An interim report composed by the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH, 1997) argued that given the average number of yearly teacher appointments, in the years 1994-1996, the number of years needed for all teachers in the *epetirida* to be appointed would be for each subject area, as shown in Table 5.2. Moreover, Table 5.3 shows, as an example, the time needed to obtain a post as a secondary teacher in 1996 and Table 5.4 shows the number of secondary teachers registered in the *epetirida* still awaiting recruitment in November 2002. From these tables one can see that the system of *epetirida* had resulted in greater unemployment for the teachers of the traditional disciplines, that is of languages, mathematics and science.

Table 5.2: Years needed for all teachers in the reserve pool (*epetirida*) to be appointed (estimated in 1997)

Code	Teachers of	Years
PE60	Pre-Primary Education	58
PE70	Primary Education	15
PE01	Religious Studies	53
PE02	Greek Language and Literature	46
PE03	Mathematics	69
PE04	Science	85
PE05	French Language	33
PE06	English Language	38
PE07	German Language	46
PE09	Economics	21
PE10	Sociology	130
PE11	Physical Education	162
PE12	Engineering	12
PE13	Law & Political Science	42
PE15	Home Economics	18
PE17	Technology	12

Source: YPEPTH (1997)

176. The negative consequences of this situation were significant for the quality of education provided. Some of the main ones can be cited as being:

- The creation of a large reserve pool of qualified but unemployed teachers, with all the social problems that this entails.
- The creation of an ageing teaching workforce. According to Kallén (1996) the average age of teacher recruitment in Greece was over thirty. Moreover, some of the teachers got their first teaching appointment after they had passed the maximum age that the law provided at which recruitment in the public sector was possible.

- The loss of the initial enthusiasm and zeal that new qualified teachers usually have for working at schools.
- The distancing of many ‘unemployed’ teachers from the subject knowledge of their studies. While waiting to be employed in a school, many ‘teachers-to-be’ were forced to take up jobs in fields outside education and even in fields outside their own specialisation and as a result often lost touch with new developments in their discipline.
- Working in fields outside education, also meant that prospective teachers were possibly exposed and accustomed to professional ethics potentially unsuitable for their future educational work.

Table 5.3: Time needed to obtain a post as a Secondary Teacher in 1996

Code	Subject area	Number of Teacher Appointments	Years awaiting for recruitment
PE01	Religious Studies	111	9
PE02	Greek Language and Literature	350	8
PE03	Mathematics	205	13
PE04	Science	252	13
PE05	French Language	78	12
PE06	English Language	36	13
PE07	German Language	20	11
PE08	Art	71	1
PE09	Economics	37	7
PE10	Sociology	42	3
PE11	Physical Education	45	9
PE12	Engineering	62	4 to 1
PE13	Law, Political Science	39	7
PE14	Medicine, Agriculture, etc.	57	2 to 1
PE15	Home Economics	20	7
PE16	Music	17	1
PE17	Technology (TEI)	148	7 to 5
PE18	TEI-other	99	7 to 1
PE19	Information and Communication Technology (AEI)	148	1
PE20	Information and Communication Technology (TEI)	99	1

Source: YPEPTH (1997)

177. Possible solutions to this situation included the increase of the rate of teacher recruitment, the creation of new schools, the reduction of the pupil/teacher ratio, the lowering of teacher retirement age, etc. Teacher unions strongly advocated for these solutions. However, the country’s demographic problem, the reduction in numbers and merging of primary school units in rural areas, which have become increasingly underpopulated and a move towards more open access to tertiary education, powered by social demand, are factors opposing these solutions, which would therefore not bring the desired effect.

178. Moreover, the lack of any selection mechanism in teacher recruitment weakened the main advantage of this over-supply of qualified teachers, which was the potential of ensuring that only the applicants with the greatest potential entered the teaching profession. The last Eurydice report on ‘The

teaching profession in Europe' (Eurydice, 2002b) concludes: "The situation in Greece illustrates that the way in which teachers are selected is perceived as triggering teacher surplus, to the detriment of the quality of education."

Table 5.4: Number of Secondary Teachers awaiting recruitment (on November 15th, 2002)

Code	Subject area	No. of Teachers
PE01	Religious Studies	6.099
PE02	Greek Language and Literature	20.958
PE03	Mathematics	12.851
PE04	Science	21.141
1	Physics	9.787
2	Chemistry	5.594
3	Natural Sciences	27
4	Biology	3.108
5	Geology	2.625
PE05	French Language	4.659
PE06	English Language	4.947
PE07	German Language	1.529
PE08	Art	377
PE09	Economics	862
PE10	Sociology	3.462
PE11	Physical Education	15.830
PE12	Engineering	927
PE13	Law, Political Science	911
PE14	Medicine, Agriculture, etc.	363
PE15	Home Economics	314
PE16	Music	36
PE17	Technology (TEI)	1.817
PE18	TEI-other	1.454
PE19	Information and Communication Technology (AEI)	1.427
PE20	Information and Communication Technology (TEI)	241
TOTAL		100.205

Source: YPEPTH

179. A radical reform of the teacher recruitment system was thus an urgent demand. The abolition of *epetirida* and consequent introduction of competitive examinations as a selection mechanism for teacher recruitment (progressively implemented between 1998 and 2003) was the new policy on recruitment (Law 2525/1997), brought about to resolve this situation.

180. The new system of recruitment was not however well received by all the teacher unions - the Federations of Primary and Secondary School Teacher Unions (DOE and OLME), the Substitute Teachers Union (PEA) and the Federation of Private School Teachers Union (OIELE). They objected strongly to its introduction and rallied for the boycotting of the first round of competitive examinations, which took place in 1998. Their objections included arguments about the validity and reliability of these exams to select the most able candidates. These arguments are shared by the Association of Private School Owners (SIEIE). No doubt the exams test the candidates' subject and pedagogic knowledge. There

is no assessment however of the candidates' teaching skills, e.g. his/her classroom management skills. These skills cannot be tested with conventional paper and pen exams.

181. Strong reaction to the new system was also expressed by the temporary substitute teachers, who felt their professional prospects at danger, since the 2525/1997 Law did not include any regulations for the appointment of teachers with previous teaching experience. According to this law, from 2003 teacher recruitment would take place exclusively based on the ASEP examinations results. *“Until the end of the 1980s a teacher graduate who wanted to work as a teacher, would start his/her career for 2-3 years as a temporary substitute teacher and then would be appointed as ‘permanent’ teacher. When the time lag between graduation and ‘permanent’ appointment started to get bigger, many graduates began to work in out of school teaching jobs and accepted their appointment only for tenured teaching posts. They however did not lose their order in the *epetirida*. [...] With the change of recruitment system [...] all these remained with no prospect of appointment, after having worked for years as substitute teachers, mostly in remote areas.”*(Andreou and Koutouzis, 2002).

182. Following intense negotiations between the government and the Substitute Teachers Union and after the first round of ASEP examinations had taken place, the recruitment system has been modified (Laws 2725/1999, 2942/2001 and 3725/2002), allowing for a 25% of the appointments to take place from lists of substitute teachers (as well as from the pass list of the ASEP exams) (see section 5.2).

183. Today, already 5 years after the introduction of the reform and on the verge of its full implementation, the following are some of the issues that remain unresolved:

- The oversupply of secondary teachers: It is exemplified by Table 5.5, which shows that the supply (measured by the number of successful candidates) still exceeds the demand (positions open for appointment). As a result, a new category of unemployed teachers has been created: the ones that passed the exams but still did not secure a teaching post.
- The integration of the ‘Certificate of Pedagogic Training’ as one of the teacher qualification requirements (see chapter 4). This certificate has been announced by the same law that introduced the new recruitment system. The law however does not stipulate how the two will be combined.

Shortage of Primary Teachers?

184. In addition to exemplifying the overall oversupply of secondary teachers, Table 5.5 can provide information regarding potential teacher shortages. More particularly, the ratio of the number of applicants to the examinations over the number of ‘structural’ vacancies in the public sector may be used cautiously as an indicator of teacher shortage. For the sake of our discussion, we will consider that if this ratio is smaller than 2 (so as to allow for teachers needed to cover ‘functional’ vacancies and vacancies in the private sector), there are indications of potential teacher shortage. This ratio was calculated for 2002 and is shown in Table 5.5 under the column ‘Indication of Supply over Demand’. Accepting this reasoning as valid, there seems to be a shortage of teachers of home economics, ICT and primary education. This corresponds to the reported shortage of teachers in these subjects. We will focus our discussion on the available indicators of a shortage of primary teachers, since they constitute a bigger proportion of the teaching profession than the other shortage groups and the reported shortage is greater.

185. In the last couple of years, due to a massive recruitment of primary teachers in the newly established all-day primary schools in the public sector (see chapter 2), the large reserve pool of primary teachers identified in 1997 (see Table 5.2) seems largely to have been absorbed and there have been accounts of shortages of (mainly) temporary substitute primary teachers in non-urban areas and of primary teachers in private schools. Indicatively, the Association of Private School Owners (SIEIE),

through its representative, in an interview granted to us, talked about an unprecedented high attrition of primary teachers in private schools during the last school year (2002/03): *“For the first time [primary] teachers left in the middle of the year to become substitute teachers in public schools. [...] There were [private] schools that lost 1/3 or 1/4 of their [primary] teachers in the middle of the school year.”* Moreover, he acknowledged that it has been very difficult to find teachers to fill the vacancies that resulted from this teacher exit. However, he also believes that this shortage is artificial rather than real, since there is a number of unemployed secondary teachers of relevant disciplines (e.g. language, mathematics, science) who would be very, if not more, suitable to teach the respective school subjects in the last two years of primary school, if there was such legal provision. SIEIE has been canvassing the Ministry of Education and the Federation of Secondary School Teacher Unions (OIELE) to this effect. Both agreed to consider this demand and reserved the right to respond. A similar suggestion has been put forward by OIELE only in a different direction, namely that in case of shortage of primary teachers, pre-primary teachers could be used to teach in the first two years of primary school.

186. Having mentioned the stakeholders’ suggestions for dealing with a potential primary teacher shortage, all of them (SIEIE, OIELE and DOE) agree that the current indication of primary teacher shortage should be considered as a temporary effect of the creation of the all-day primary schools and cannot be thought of as an issue of major policy concern. In other words, since this shortage is not linked in any way with the entrance of able teachers to the profession, the attraction of which as a result seems to have increased (see discussion in chapter 3), the constant supply of primary teacher graduates will soon obliterate it.

187. To return to and summarise the introduction of the reform on recruitment and selection of teachers: It is unquestionable that a new system of teacher recruitment for both permanent and temporary staff was urgently needed. The implemented reform expressed the wish of the policy makers to enhance the teacher selection procedure and upgrade the overall quality of education provided in the public sector. However, the concerns of the stakeholders point to the fact that there is still ground for improvement in the system.

Table 5.5: Results of 2002 ASEP examinations

Branch Code	Subject area	Vacancies (Demand)	Number of Applicants to the Exams (Indication of supply)	Candidates in the exams (Real supply)	Successful Candidates (Successful supply)	Teachers Appointed	Indication of Supply over Demand	Real Supply over Demand	Successful Supply over Demand	% Appointment from successful candidates
PE01	Religious Education	178	3.969	3.027	657	178	22,3	17,0	3,7	27,1
PE02	Greek Language	1.102	15.680	11.302	2.727	1.102	14,2	10,3	2,5	40,4
PE03	Mathematics	483	5.241	3.888	1.640	483	10,9	8,0	3,4	29,5
PE04	Science	470	6.927	4.470	736	470	14,7	9,5	1,6	63,9
PE05	French Language	149	2.505	1.834	637	149	16,8	12,3	4,3	23,4
PE06	English Language	637	3.768	3.308	2.962	637	5,9	5,2	4,6	21,5
PE07	German Language	33	1.280	1.063	506	33	38,8	32,2	15,3	6,5
PE08	Art	166	496	395	163	163	3,0	2,4	1,0	100,0
PE09	Economics	237	724	404	26	17	3,1	1,7	0,1	65,4
PE10	Sociology	43	1.307	641	42	42	30,4	14,9	1,0	100,0
PE11	Physical Education	335	10.569	8.045	2.737	335	31,5	24,0	8,2	12,2
PE12	Engineering	130	1.718	763	143	86	13,2	5,9	1,1	60,1
PE13	Law, Political Science	46	250	137	50	44	5,4	3,0	1,1	88,0
PE14	Medicine	47	1.822	665	181	47	38,8	14,1	3,9	26,0
PE15	Home Economics	184	113	99	58	58	0,6	0,5	0,3	100,0
PE17	Technology (TEI)	397	3.694	2.299	149	149	9,3	5,8	0,4	100,0
PE18	TEI-other	174	7.870	3.462	493	150	45,2	19,9	2,8	30,4
PE19	ICT (AEI)	913	1.930	1.449	961	961	2,1	1,6	1,1	100,0
PE20	ICT (TEI)	607	622	513	262	262	1,0	0,8	0,4	100,0
PE60	Nursery Education	684	7.029	5.850	4.304	684	10,3	8,6	6,3	15,9
PE70	Primary Education	3.180	4.913	4.081	1.923	1.923	1,5	1,3	0,6	100,0

Source: ASEP (www.asep.gr)

CHAPTER 6: RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS

6.1 Main policy concerns

188. Due to high overall teacher retention, there are no major policy concerns about retaining effective teachers in schools. However, a great number of teachers with postgraduate qualifications seem to apply for secondment to out-of-school positions in education (universities, research centres, administrative positions etc.). The main issue for Greece does not seem to be on how to retain teachers. More significant issues seem to be how to upgrade a certain number of practicing teachers into effective teachers and how to assure the appointment of effective teachers.

6.2 Data, trends and factors

189. There is a lack of data and relative studies on the numbers of teachers who leave the profession each year and on the extent of teacher absenteeism.

6.2.1 Leave

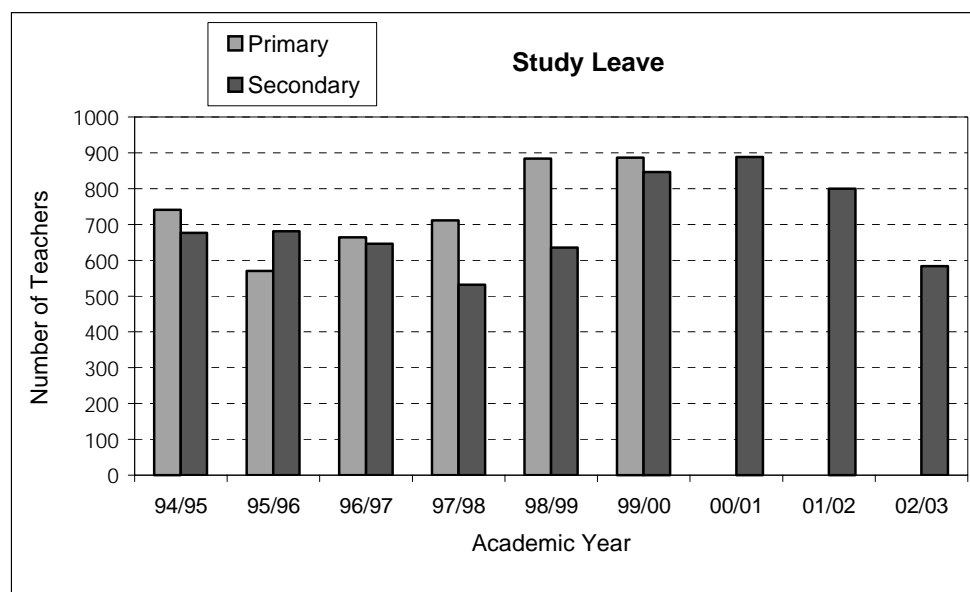
190. Normally leave is not granted to teaching staff. During the academic year, for exceptional reasons, leave can be granted for up to ten working days a year. Leave is also granted:

- without pay for:
 - up to three school years, when there are serious reasons (pregnancy, maternity, completion of post-graduate studies, treatment of serious illnesses, temporary move abroad);
 - leave of absence of up to two years for mothers with children under six years old.
- with pay⁷ for:
 - pregnancy, maternity, child rearing and convalescence;
 - up to four days a year, to follow the school progress of children under 16 years of age;
 - participation in examinations (programmes for degree equivalence, university exams);
 - participation in trade union activities, as well as leave to all those who are elected officials in local government organizations and prefectural governments;
 - up to four years, for post-graduate studies and on condition that these teachers have been appointed for at least 4 years.

⁷ Although it seems controversial that for the same reason (e.g. pregnancy) a leave can be provided with and without pay, it refers to different cases or duration of leave.

191. Figure 6.1 gives some indicative data concerning study leave for teachers of primary and secondary education.

Figure 6.1: Teachers in primary and secondary education on study leave



Source: YPEPTH.

- Notes: a. Teachers of pre-primary education, as well as teachers of foreign languages, physical education and music working in primary schools are included in the count of primary teachers.
 b. Primary and pre-primary teachers on study leave in didaskaleia are included.
 c. 2001-03 missing data for teachers in primary education

192. The above figure depicts the overall trends in the number of study leaves granted to teachers in primary and secondary education over the past nine academic years. Comparisons, however, between the two levels of education, or across the years in relative terms are not possible, since the numbers of teachers on study leave are expressed in absolute terms and not as a percentage of total teachers. Such a statistic however cannot be calculated with accuracy with the data available – for the total teacher population after the years 1997/98 only unpublished and/or provisional data are available. Rough estimations reveal that these percentages vary between 1,1% - 1,7% for primary education and between 0,8% - 1,3% for secondary education. A decreasing trend in the percentages of teachers on study leaves for the last three years is also observed. These percentages are considered relatively low by the teachers' federations, OLME and DOE. The increase in the number of study leaves is one of the first priority issues in the unions' claims.

6.2.2 Evaluation

193. Although there are many discussions, conflicts and policy decisions on the issue of teacher evaluation, it remains both crucial and unresolved. Theoretically many procedures have been introduced to evaluate teachers in the last few years, but in practice these procedures have not yet been put in effect. Officially the laws exist but they have not yet been fully implemented.

194. After a long period of a rather authoritarian and very frequently politically biased form of evaluation of teachers, which lasted in Greece up until the beginning of 1980s' teacher evaluation was

abolished. The development and implementation of an alternative and contemporary form of teacher evaluation remains problematic in practice, although almost all the ministers of education belonging to different political parties and governments since mid 1980s have tried to find solutions.

195. There has been strong resistance from the teacher unions on the implementation of proposed teacher evaluations although recently this resistance seems to have been weakened.

196. Experimental alternative ways of self-evaluation of school units have recently appeared, which although applied in a very limited number of schools seem to be influential in the teachers community and rather positively accepted (Solomon, 1999; 'Carpe Vitam Leadership For Learning': <http://www.kee.gr/html/appschoolmon.php#igesia>, last visited 2/12/2003).

197. According to the existing law for teacher evaluation (Law 2986/2002), which is not yet in effect the aims of teacher evaluation are:

- to strengthen teachers' self-knowledge regarding their scientific and pedagogical constitution and teaching ability;
- to constitute an evidence-based image concerning their work efficiency;
- to endeavour improvement of their teaching skills by profiting from the results of the evaluation and the guidance of the evaluators;
- to identify the weaknesses in their didactical work and attempt to eliminate them;
- to satisfy teachers with the recognition of their work and provide motivation for those who wish to be promoted and work in education executive positions;
- to recognize in-service training needs and to define the content of this training;
- to cultivate a climate of reciprocal respect and trust.

198. According to this law, the evaluation of school teachers is regular and concerns all teachers of primary and secondary education. Each teacher will be evaluated after the first two years of service. In the next 12 years of service she/he will be evaluated every 3 years and thereafter every 4 years, for the remaining 12 years of service. Priority for evaluation is given to the following categories of teachers who:

- are going to acquire tenure in the public sector (after the two years of probationary service);
- are going to apply for executive positions in education, such as for the posts of school principal or deputy school principal;
- have executive positions in education;
- want to be evaluated.

199. There is a hierarchy of evaluation responsibilities. This hierarchy is described in detail in section 2.2 (Distribution of responsibilities for teacher-related matters). In summary:

- Teachers are evaluated by the school principals and school advisors.

- The principal of a school unit is evaluated by the head of the Education Office (at district level) or of the Directorate of Education (at prefecture level) and the appropriate school advisor, and so on.

200. As far as teachers are concerned, the school advisor⁸ will evaluate:

a. The teacher's scientific expertise and activity:

- His/her scientific constitution and knowledge of the scientific domains;
- His/her scientific activity (studies, scientific interventions, in-service training, writing of books and articles).

b. The teacher's pedagogical and didactical ability and activity:

- The planning and the structure of his/her teaching;
- Flexibility in the deployment of didactical action;
- The allocation of the teaching time and audio-visual media;
- The adoption and application of innovative activities;
- The correct management and exploitation of assignments;
- The quality of learning;
- The pedagogical climate;
- The teacher's assessment of students.

201. On the other hand, the principal of the school will evaluate the teacher's pedagogical organisation and professional work. That is:

- The undertaking of initiatives;
- The pedagogical behaviour;
- The collaboration with students, parents and other teachers.

⁸ According to the existing legislation (Law 1304/1982) school advisors should "collaborate with school principals, teachers and students of each school in the area of their responsibility, aiming at the normal and unhindered process of the pedagogical and didactical work, as well as to forward new ways and proposals to accomplish the aims of education". Thus, they organize seminars, visit schools, observe teaching, inform teachers, enforce research attempts, evaluate and report to the Ministry of Education. School advisors are selected by special educational committees of the Ministry of Education and are appointed for 4 years. Principal criteria for their selection are: Their scientific and pedagogical training and constitution, their service status and didactical experience and their experience in leadership and administration [Presidential decree 25 (FEK 20A/7-2-2002)]. The Association of School Advisors questions the way in which these selection criteria are realised in practice and asks that school advisors have tenure positions.

202. In general, before the evaluation report is written, a personal self-evaluation of the person who is going to be evaluated is optionally submitted to the appropriate evaluation body, which refers to the evaluation elements without numerical marking.

203. Those evaluated are given notice of the evaluation reports, and are entitled to appeal to commissions, operating both in each regional education seat and centrally at the Pedagogical Institute. The appeal commissions issue a justified verdict which may: reject the appeal; amend some of the features and conclusion of the evaluation report; or appoint two evaluators of the same rank with the first evaluator to re-evaluate the individual concerned.

204. Concerning teacher evaluation there are still resistances and reservations from the teacher unions. They see the type of evaluation proposed in the recent reform as a top-down controlling mechanism, which reduces the autonomy and self-regulation of the teacher's work. They propose more participative forms of evaluation focused on the evaluation of educational work and not of individual teachers. In these evaluations the teachers' association of the school units would play a crucial role. The teacher unions strongly argue against linking this teacher evaluation with their promotion and salary (KEMETE, 1999). On the other hand, the Association of Private School Owners (SIEIE) on the whole views positively the association of teacher evaluation to teacher promotion, but argues for cautiousness in its implementation. According to them, the evaluation of teachers in private schools could take place "more freely", for example by a 3-member committee consisting of the school principal, the head of the relevant department and a teacher of the same discipline chosen by the evaluated teacher.

6.2.3 Promotion

205. There are not many official/recognised opportunities for promotion and career diversification within classroom teaching. The main possibilities are the positions of deputy principal or principal.

206. Moreover, there is the possibility for teachers to move to non-classroom teaching posts such as to become: responsible for Environmental Education, Health Education, Information Technology, School Vocational Guidance in a Directorate of Education (at the prefecture level); or head of a directorate or of an education office. Another possibility is to become school advisor for a certain specialization in secondary education (such as mathematics, physics, language) or more general advisor in primary education.

207. In all the promotions or diversifications referred to above, a prerequisite is experience in the teaching profession plus additional qualifications for each type of position. The selection for these positions is decided by committees in which specialists, people from administration and teachers' representatives participate (see also section 2.2: Distribution of responsibilities for teacher-related matters).

208. More concretely according to Eurydice/Eurybase (2003) teachers are promoted by decision of the prefect on the basis of the promotion list drawn up annually by the competent Regional Education Service Council (PYSPE and PYSDE), during the month of April. These lists are compiled in alphabetical order (according to fields of expertise) and include all those who will have completed the necessary time for promotion by 30th April of the following year, and who are found to be promotable on the basis of their professional qualifications and departmental status. Promotion is not currently related to the outcome of a teacher's evaluation.

209. There are currently 3 levels of automatic promotion: A', B' and C'. Teachers are appointed at the initial level of C' and a salary scale (MK) (see chapter 3). For promotion from level C' to B', two years are required, and from level B' to level A', six years are required. For holders of either a post-

graduate degree of at least one year's duration, or a university doctorate related to the subject they are teaching, the time required for promotion is reduced by a year for promotion to level B'. For promotion to level A', the time is reduced by one year for the holders of a post-graduate (e.g. master's) degree, and by two years for the holders of a doctorate. In the public sector promotion from level C' to B' is associated with the acquisition of tenure and, on implementation of Law 2986/2002, with a positive evaluation of the teacher's work

6.2.4 School management

210. The framework of the school management is defined in chapter 2 (administration of the Greek school system at the school unit level). The principal, the deputy principals (their number depends on the size of the school) and the school teachers' association play the main role in school management (Andreou, 1999). There are also other bodies of mainly advisory and consultative character (see Appendix 2) which contribute to school management in matters related to school-parents communication (school council) and to the management of the school's funds (school committee).

211. According to the existing law the main responsibilities of the school principal are to: provide leadership and oversee the smooth running of the school; represent the school outside the school; chair the school's teachers' association; and participate in teacher evaluation. The selection procedure for the post of school principal is described in section 2.2 (Distribution of responsibilities for teacher-related matters). The main selection criteria are: the candidate's pedagogical training and constitution, his/her service status, his/her didactical experience as well as his/her experience in leadership and administration [Presidential decree 25 (FEK 20A/7-2-2002)].

212. The teachers' association is mainly responsible for developing the school's policy and overseeing its implementation, as well as for the allocation of responsibilities among teachers.

213. In principle teachers play a significant role in determining school policy and its implementation. However, this role seems to vary among schools, sometimes depending on the type of school (public, private) or level of education (primary, lower secondary, upper secondary). Moreover, many differences can be identified among schools concerning the extent of teachers' participation in the school management, which to a certain extent can be associated with the personality and managerial capabilities of the principal as well as the personalities and dispositions of the teachers.

214. The support staff of schools is limited (see section 2.3: Trends in school staff) to secretaries (only in secondary education), cleaners, caretakers (only in secondary education), school security guards (only in secondary education), school-traffic guards (in urban areas). In technical-vocational upper secondary schools laboratory assistants can also be found. There are no teaching assistants in Greek schools. There are differences among schools concerning support staff. This means that there are schools without school security guards, secretaries etc.

6.2.5 Class size

215. In the last decade there has been more than 25% improvement in the pupil-teacher ratio at all levels from primary to upper secondary education (see Table 2.7 in chapter 2). In the academic year 2001-2002 the ratio was: 11,1 in primary education, 10,2:1 in secondary education and 9,9:1 in upper secondary education.

216. Table 6.1 describes the average class size, by type of institution and level of education for Greece in the year 2000 (OECD, 2002).

217. However, teacher unions claim that this average class size does not depict the reality in the majority of urban schools, since its calculation is affected by the situation in small non-urban schools with few pupils. According to the law, the maximum class size is 30 pupils in primary schools and 35 pupils in secondary schools. The primary and secondary school teacher unions call for the maximum number of pupils per class to be reduced to 25 in primary, lower and upper secondary schools (general programmes), to 20 in upper secondary schools (technical-vocational programmes) and to 10 pupils per teacher for school laboratory work at all levels of secondary education.

Table 6.1: The average class size, by type of institution and level of education

Primary education			Lower secondary education		
Public institutions	Independent private institutions	Total: Public and private institutions	Public institutions	Independent private institutions	Total: Public and private institutions
17,7	21,3	17,9	24,1	27,4	24,2

Source: OECD (2002)

6.2.6 Workload

218. The organisation of teachers' working time in the year 2000 is shown in Table 6.2 (OECD, 2002):

Table 6.2: Number of teaching weeks, teaching days, net teaching hours, and teacher working time over the school year (2000)

Number of weeks of instruction		Number of days of instruction		Net teaching time in hours		Working time required at school in hours		Total statutory working time in hours	
Primary education	Secondary education	Primary education	Secondary education	Primary education	Secondary education	Primary education	Secondary education	Primary education	Secondary education
40	38	195	185	780	629	1000	798	1500	1425

Source: OECD 2002

219. We observe that the number of teaching hours per year is 780 for primary and 629 for secondary teachers. The number of hours worked per week by full-time primary and secondary teachers for both teaching and non-teaching activities is 37,5.

220. The maximum mandatory number of lessons taught per week is 25 (of 48 mins each) at primary school, and 21 lessons at lower and upper secondary school. Teaching hours are reduced with length of service.

221. In particular, Eurydice/Eurybase (2003) gives the following information on primary teachers' timetables:

- In accordance with article 9 of law 2517/97, teachers who serve in 1-position, 2-position or 3-position primary schools have a compulsory timetable of 25 teaching hours per week.

- Teachers who serve in primary schools with four positions and more will teach for at least 24 hours a week if they have up to 10 years of service, 23 hours with 10-15 years of service, 22 hours with between 15 and 20 years and 21 hours if they have more than 20 years of service.
- Principals of primary schools teach for 12 hours in schools with between six and eight teaching positions, for 10 hours in 9-position and 10-position schools and 8 hours in 11- and 12-position schools.

222. Eurydice/Eurybase (2003) also gives the following information on the number of hours secondary teachers spend per week on teaching and conducting practical exercises:

- Heads of lower secondary schools and upper secondary schools (general programmes) have:
 - 8 hours, when the school has 3 to 5 classes in each grade;
 - 7 hours, when the school has 6 to 9 classes in each grade;
 - 5 hours, when the school has 10 to 12 classes in each grade;
 - 3 hours, when the school has more than 12 classes in each grade.
- Deputy Principals of secondary schools, 14 hours.
- Teaching Staff of fields PE1 to PE20 (see section 3.2.1):
 - 21 hours with up to 6 years of service;
 - 19 hours with 6 to 12 years of service;
 - 18 hours with 12-20 years of service;
 - 16 hours with more than 20 years of service.

223. During working time, non-teaching hours must be spent within the school. It should be mentioned that the conditions under which teachers have to work in school outside their classrooms are not particularly encouraging. Few schools have comfortable, quiet and well-equipped premises for teachers to work, outside teaching hours. Moreover, there are usually very few computers available for the exclusive use of teachers.

224. According to Eurydice (2002a) teachers working extra hours (i.e. beyond the hours stipulated in their contract) receive overtime pay. However, there is a maximum number of hours by which teachers can increase their teaching load, calculated on a weekly basis (+10 hours). In contrast, there is no maximum period for which teachers can work overtime. This is left to the discretion of the school principal.

6.2.7 School security

225. School security is considered as an important factor for school life but does not seem to influence significantly the conditions of teachers' work. Teachers' personal security does not seem at the moment as an important issue in Greek schools (public and private).

226. According to Artinopoulou (2001): *“In Greece the social recognition of the phenomenon of school violence has not ripened yet. It is a research object and intervention “under construction”. [...] School violence has not yet been a theme in the political agenda as an autonomous object of study and intervention. Even the references of the media are sporadic and isolated”.*

227. The discipline of students is considered a significant factor influencing the conditions of teachers’ work. Measures to improve school security currently being implemented in some areas include an increase in the number of school guards, and greater protection and use of alarm systems in sensitive and expensive areas of schools, such as computer rooms, science laboratories, libraries etc..

6.2.8 Teacher transfers and secondment to other schools

228. Teaching staff in the public sector may, upon application, be transferred as follows (Presidential Decrees 50/96 and 100/97) (Eurydice/Eurybase, 2003):

- to and from experimental schools;
- to and from special education schools (SMEA);
- to satisfy applications for reciprocal transfers;
- from one region to another;
- from one school to another in the same region;
- to experimental schools, schools for Hellenic children abroad, EU schools and SMEA.

229. Applications for transfer are submitted to the Offices and Directorates of Education. Applications for transfer within the prefecture are examined by the Regional Service Council (PYSPE or PYSDE) after the transfers from one prefecture to another have been effected. Criteria for transfers include: total length of service; family reasons; living conditions; local residency; first preference.

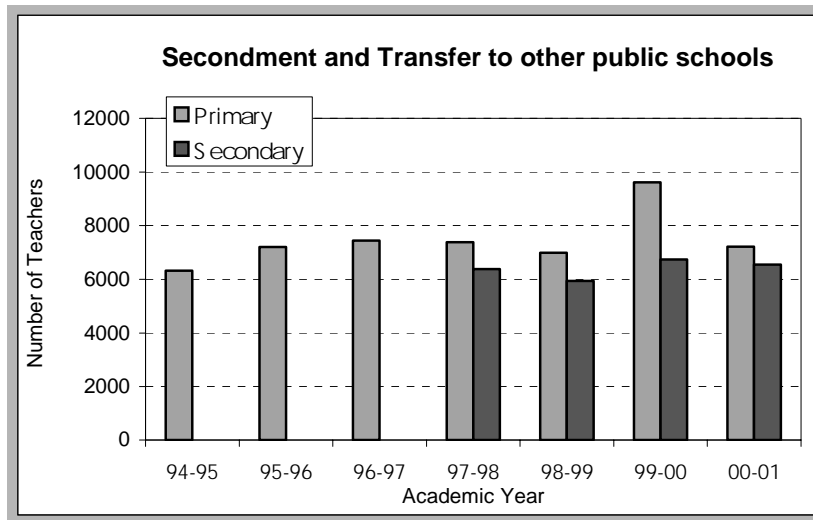
230. Also, teachers may, upon application, be seconded for exceptional reasons (serious disease, keeping couples together, family reasons) from one prefecture to another and from one school to another in the same prefecture and also to legal entities of public law (e.g. universities) or private law (e.g. KEE, OEPEK) within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH), in conformity with the provisions of article 16 of Law 1566/1985. They may also, upon application, be seconded to recognized Hellenic schools abroad.

231. Figure 6.2 shows the secondments and transfers of primary and secondary teachers to other public schools. It depicts the overall trends in the number of these secondments and transfers over seven academic years (1994/95-2000/01). Comparisons however between the two levels of education, or across the years in relative terms are not possible, since the numbers are expressed in absolute terms and not as a percentage of total teachers. Such a statistic however, as mentioned previously, cannot be calculated with accuracy with the data available – for the total teacher population after the years 1997/98 only unpublished and/or provisional data are available. Rough estimations reveal that these percentages vary between 11,8% - 18,4% for primary teachers and between 7,8% - 10,6% for secondary teachers.

232. In addition to the above, teachers may be seconded and render their services to the Offices of the President of the Republic, the Speaker of Parliament, Cabinet Ministers, General Secretaries (of ministries or general secretariats) and posts in ministries (Law 2469/1997).

233. Figure 6.3 shows the secondment of teachers in primary and secondary education to other organizations over seven academic years (1994/95-2000/01). As before, direct comparisons between the two levels of education, or across the years in relative terms are not possible. Rough estimations show that the percentage of teachers seconded to other organizations varies between 2,1% - 4% for primary education teachers and between 3,3% - 6% for secondary education teachers.

Figure 6.2: Teacher secondment and transfer to other public schools

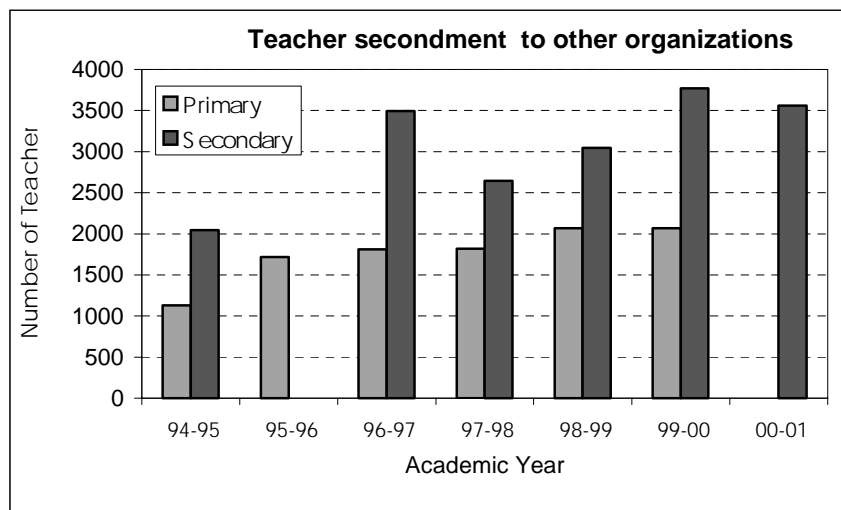


Source: YPEPTH.

Notes: a. 1994-97 missing data for secondary teachers.

b. Teachers of pre-primary education, as well as teachers of foreign languages, physical education and music working in primary schools are included in the count of primary teachers.

Figure 6.3: Teacher secondment to other organizations



Source: YPEPTH.

Notes: a. 2000-01 missing data for primary teachers.

b. Teachers of pre-primary education, as well as teachers of foreign languages, physical education and music working in primary schools are included in the count of primary teachers.

6.2.9 Retirement

234. Concerning teacher retirement, the legislative framework in effect for other civil servants is applicable. In this framework there are different ways for the estimation of the retirement age, depending on the year of appointment in the service. According to law, teachers appointed after 1-1-93 are entitled to a state pension:

- If they have served for 15 years and are 65 years old upon leaving service. Also if they are mothers who are 55 years old and have either underage or grown-up children who are incapable of earning their own living. For mothers who have at least three children and 20 years of service, the retirement age is reduced by three years, with minimum retirement the age of 50.
- If they are dismissed because of either physical or mental inability which has not resulted from their service, and have five years of service, irrespective of their age.
- If they are removed from service because of any physical or mental inability which undoubtedly arose from their service, the period of service and the age are not take into account.

235. Teachers can retire with full benefits at the age of 65, provided that they have completed 35 years of service. With 37 years of service a teacher can retire with full benefits irrespective of age limits. Teachers appointed from 1/1/83 to 31/12/92 may retire from the age of 58 onwards with full benefits, provided that they have completed 35 years of service.

236. There are recent regulations for the retirement age in a new law which facilitates early retirement for teachers. According to these, teachers may retire at the age of 60 after 30 years of service, but will receive reduced benefits (30/35 of the total pension). Teacher unions press the government to provide full pension after 30 years of service.

237. Regulations in Greece make it compulsory for teachers to retire upon reaching the official retirement age, which is 65. That is, the official retirement age coincides with the maximum retirement age. However, teachers who have not completed 35 years of service at the age of 65 can work until the age of 67.

6.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

238. In principle there is not a problem with teacher retention in Greece. There are potential problems with the identification, development and retention of *effective* teachers, which have to be further researched.

239. An interesting question to be investigated is whether the good retention of teachers reflects a satisfaction with their job and is not mainly due to the fact that the teaching profession offers comparative good working conditions in a period of high unemployment. This question is not easily tackled because addressing it presupposes a very well elaborated and functional strategy for teachers with potentially significant political and financial cost.

240. Higher mobility of teachers would be desirable. Even lower rates of retention would be better in order for the teaching workforce to be somehow “refreshed”. The measures of early retirement adopted for teachers by the Greek Ministry of Education seem to be towards this direction. (see relevant paragraphs in this chapter).

241. A very relevant issue to the retention of 'effective' teachers, which perhaps precedes it in time, is the development of 'effective' teachers. The new policies and initiatives undertaken regarding in-service teacher training (described in Chapter 4) are ways in which this issue is being addressed. An evaluation of these policies could possibly clarify their efficiency and effectiveness.

242. Moreover, the Ministry of Education (YPEPTH) claims that the implementation of the new law and initiatives for the evaluation of teachers, school units and the school system will improve the effectiveness of teachers. As one of these initiatives towards quality assurance in education, it is worth mentioning the national project called '*Monitoring of the Education System at the Level of the School Unit*' (<http://hercules.kee.gr/html/appschoolmon.php#apotiposi>, see also chapter 2.4) commissioned to KEE by YPEPTH. This lengthy and extensive research project is expected to be completed by 2006 and it will be the first systematic work towards developing an integrated and comprehensive information framework for the collection of data on school material resources, activities and human potential. The project's outcomes will significantly contribute to the process of tracking the performance of the whole education system at national level. Specifically, they will: facilitate efficient use of available resources; provide a constant flow of information regarding the operation of the educational system at all levels; support a systematic policy of corrective interventions at school and regional level; indicate aspects that could be or need to be improved; help develop and reinforce cooperation and solidarity among school participants; and finally encourage schools to develop action plans, innovative interventions and initiatives. Overall, they will contribute to the improvement of teaching-learning practices.

243. Concerning the new law on teacher evaluation, there is strong resistance, as already mentioned, to its implementation. In the following extracts from an interview of a member of the executive council of the Federation of Primary School Teacher Unions (DOE) with a researcher of the Education Research Centre (KEE), in November of 2002, there are characteristic indicative views and suggestions about teacher evaluation in Greece, which in many ways reflect the official position of a key stakeholder:

"...In the educational system there is a pyramid system of hierarchy and evaluation, where everybody is evaluated by his director. The teacher by the educational advisor and the principal, the principal by the educational advisor for his pedagogical work, the director of the directorate for the administrative work...."

As we have said, we agree with evaluation towards a level of improvement of the teacher and of the educational system. However, through my personal study of the criteria of evaluation and grades from the evaluators' side, I am afraid that we will have a 'dry' education system. It is possible that in the future evaluation will be connected with salary promotion or even administrative promotion.

...As far as I know from texts on teachers' evaluation, those teachers who get low grades in the evaluation should take in-service training. Some others with very low grades should change to other public services ... How objective will these grades be? On which criteria will they be based? On scientific criteria or will other elements be introduced in the evaluators opinion?"

244. Similar ideas are often expressed by the Federation of Secondary School Teacher Unions (OLME).

245. It is also important to mention that the recognition and rewarding of effective teachers is a very high priority for future policy. However, although there are laws which support these directions, they have not been implemented yet.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: ADMINISTRATION OF THE GREEK EDUCATION SYSTEM AT NATIONAL LEVEL

Appendix 1.1 General Structure

The initial planning and application of government policy in the field of education, approved by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, as well as the responsibility for administering the educational system in all its sectors, services and levels, is held by the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH). The Minister, through the ministry's services and advisors, draws up the bills and presidential decrees on educational issues and publishes the relevant Ministerial Decisions. One or two Deputy-Ministers assume the responsibilities for the particular branches of the Ministry assigned to them at any time by decision of the Prime Minister and the Minister of Education. It is common for one Deputy-Minister to be assigned the fields of primary and secondary education and the other the field of higher education. The minister may retain some of the duties assigned to the Deputy-Ministers as his/her exclusive domain, while others can be performed jointly with the Deputy-Ministers. Finally, the General Secretary of the Ministry, who, after the Minister and Deputy-minister(s), is in charge of all the Ministry services, performs the functions assigned to him/her by the Minister and the Deputy-Ministers.

The General Secretariat for Youth (*GGNG*) and the General Secretariat for Adult Education (*GGEE*) (under which is the Institute for Continuing Adult Education (*IDEKE*)) also come under the Ministry of Education.

- The **General Secretariat for Youth** (*GGNG*) has the task of helping to secure and promote the rights of young people in life through its activities, such as: with the cooperation of the competent agencies, designing programmes, studies, seminars and conferences that will help young people become integrated promptly into the country's development process (employment) and into education, and assist them in finding ways to utilise their leisure time and to deal with the social, educational and cultural issues that affect them. Also, the GGNG is interested in linking Hellenic youth with young people all over the world and with international agencies (UN, UNESCO, EU, etc.) to promote the ideals of peace, the self-determination of the peoples, freedom and cooperation.
- The **General Secretariat for Adult Education** (*GGEE*) is responsible for implementing general further education policy on a national scale on the basis of the country's developmental programmes, and bears the total responsibility for all matters related to a better organisation, administration and operation of this policy. In particular, it is responsible for applying government policies in the field of further education, both domestically and abroad, wherever Hellenes reside, study or work. The GGEE is engaged in implementing further education programmes, both long- and short-term, for large categories of the population who need them, e.g. repatriated Hellenes, migrants from abroad, gypsies, socially excluded groups, etc. Also, the GGEE promotes the development of further education relations with counterpart agencies in other countries.

Some educational functions and responsibilities have been delegated to public organisations and other bodies which report directly to the Ministry.

More specifically, these organisations and bodies are:

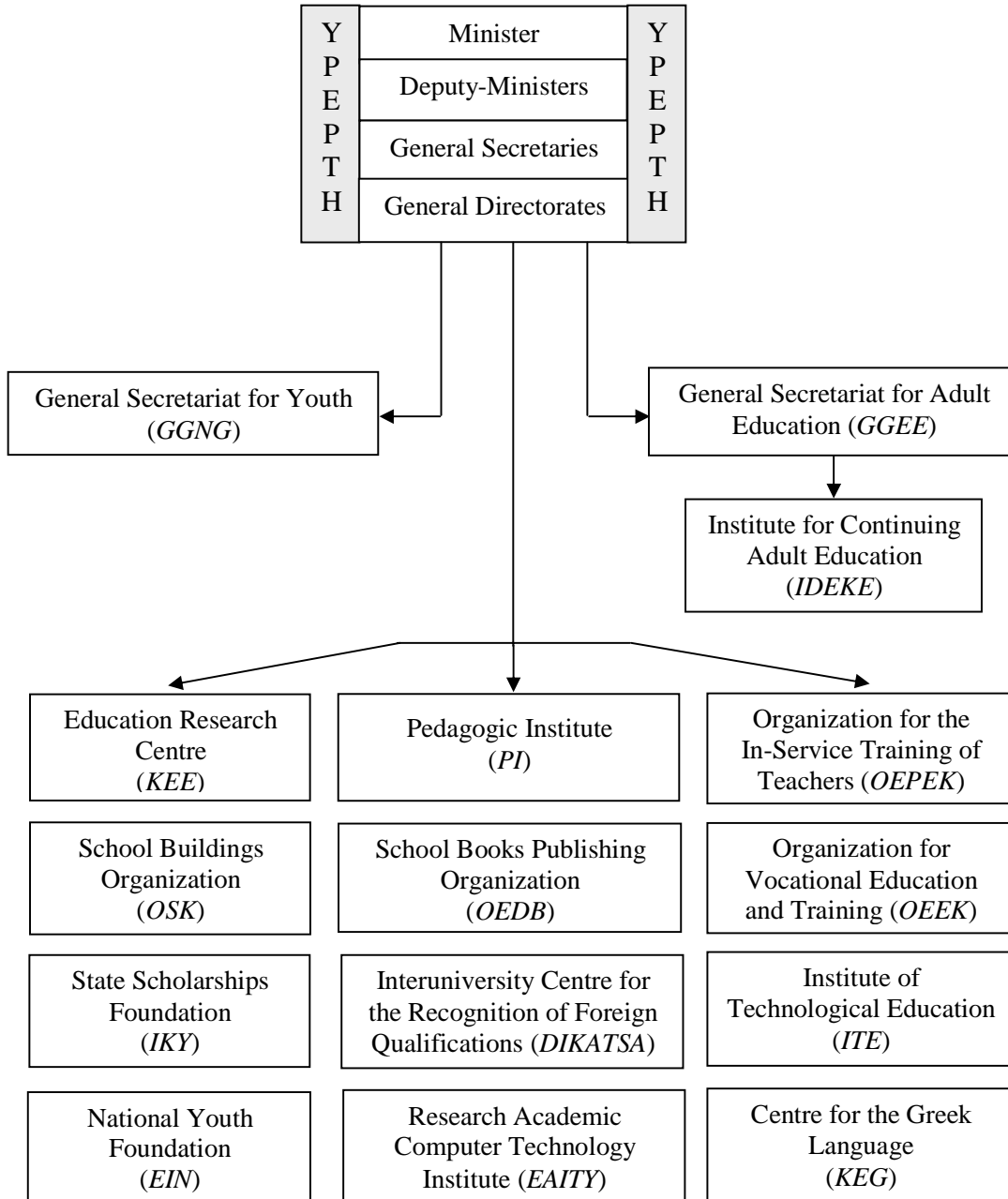
- The **Pedagogic Institute (PI)**. This is an autonomous public body, established by Law 1566/85 (as supplemented by Law 2525/97), and operating under the supervision of YPEPTH. Its field of responsibility is primary and secondary education and more particularly: the formulation of guidelines, the preparation of timetables and curricula, the commissioning and approval of textbooks, the application of vocational guidance, the introduction of new subjects, the application of new teaching methods, the provision of in-service training for teachers, etc.
- The **Education Research Centre (KEE)**. This is a self-governing legal entity of private law, established by Law 2327/95. Its purpose is to promote research on aspects of education, particularly on questions of the organisation of education, teaching methods and further education and training; and to make surveys and keep documentation on these topics, etc. In addition, jointly with the Pedagogic Institute (PI), KEE is responsible for the evaluation of the educational work of schools (Law 2986/2002).
- The **Organisation for the In-Service Training of Teachers (OEPEK)**. This organization, established by the Law 2986/2002, is supervised by the Ministry of Education and is responsible for the development of in-service teacher-training policies for both primary and secondary education. OEPEK is responsible for the allocation of in-service training programmes and funds to appropriate institutions. Moreover, this organization is responsible for the coordination and application of all forms of in-service training programmes delivered by other in-service training establishments or institutions. Finally, OEPEK is responsible for the accreditation of organizations and qualifications in the domain of in-service training of teacher.
- The **School Buildings Organisation (OSK)**. This is a public-sector *société anonyme* responsible for the design, construction, equipping and layout of buildings to be used for primary and secondary education.
- The **School Books Publishing Organisation (OEDB)**. This is a self-governing organisation responsible for the publication of schoolbooks and other educational books, and for their free distribution to public schools.
- The **Organisation for Vocational Education and Training (OEEK)**. This self-governing body was established by Law 2009/1992 for the purpose of organising and running the public Institutes of Vocational Training (IEKs), which are under the authority of YPEPTH. It also supervises private IEKs. In addition, its tasks include: examining and assessing the necessary qualifications for specialised personnel in each sector of the economy in collaboration with other competent bodies; recognising and accrediting the education and training provided by the IEKs; recognising the certificates awarded by other Greek organisations responsible for vocational education and training, and establishing the equivalence of corresponding foreign certificates; defining professional rights at all levels of vocational education and training, in collaboration with the relevant ministry in each case and with the social partners; managing all the European Community funds intended for technical and vocational education and training; and carrying out research, making surveys and keeping statistics and documentation related to vocational education and training.
- The **State Scholarships Foundation (IKY)**. This is the national (self-governing) scholarships body (LD 4434/64) and also the management body for the Socrates programme. Its purposes are: to issue scholarships (for pupils, undergraduate and post-graduate students), loans and awards to

Greek expatriates and foreign nationals; to issue scholarships and financial support within the framework of European cooperation programmes; to gather and distribute information on all the scholarships and financial support offered to Greek citizens.

- The **Interuniversity Centre for the Recognition of Foreign Qualifications (DIKATSA)**. This is a self-governing legal entity of public law, whose functions are: to recognise foreign universities and the qualification they award as equivalent to Greek ones; and to recognise qualifications from foreign universities as equivalent to qualifications from Greek universities in cases where there is no corresponding specialisation in Greece.
- The **Institute of Technological Education (ITE)**. Its task is to rule on the equivalence of degrees from schools abroad with those from counterpart Greek Technological Education Institutes (*TEI*).
- The **National Youth Foundation (EIN)**. This is a legal entity of private law of the broader public sector, self-governing and supervised by YPEPTH. It funds university and other students' halls of residence, and pupils' halls of residence and centres; promotes cultural events, excursions and camping programmes; and implements special programmes of the General Secretariat of Youth.
- The **Research Academic Computer Technology Institute (EAITY)**. This is a self-governing legal entity of private law, whose functions are: to conduct research on hardware and software technology, networks and the Information Society's socio-economic impact; to design and develop technological products and services; to support all kinds of ICT education and training; to consult YPEPTH on matters related to the Information Society.
- The **Centre for the Greek Language (KEG)**. This legal entity of private law was established in 1994 as a co-ordinating, advisory and strategic agency of the Ministry of Education on matters of language education and policy.

The above description of the administrative structure of education at national level can be seen schematically in Figure 1. It is based at a large extent on information published in the reports on the Greek education system by Eurydice/CEDEFOP (2002) and Eurydice/Eurybase (2003).

Figure 1: Administration of Education at National Level.



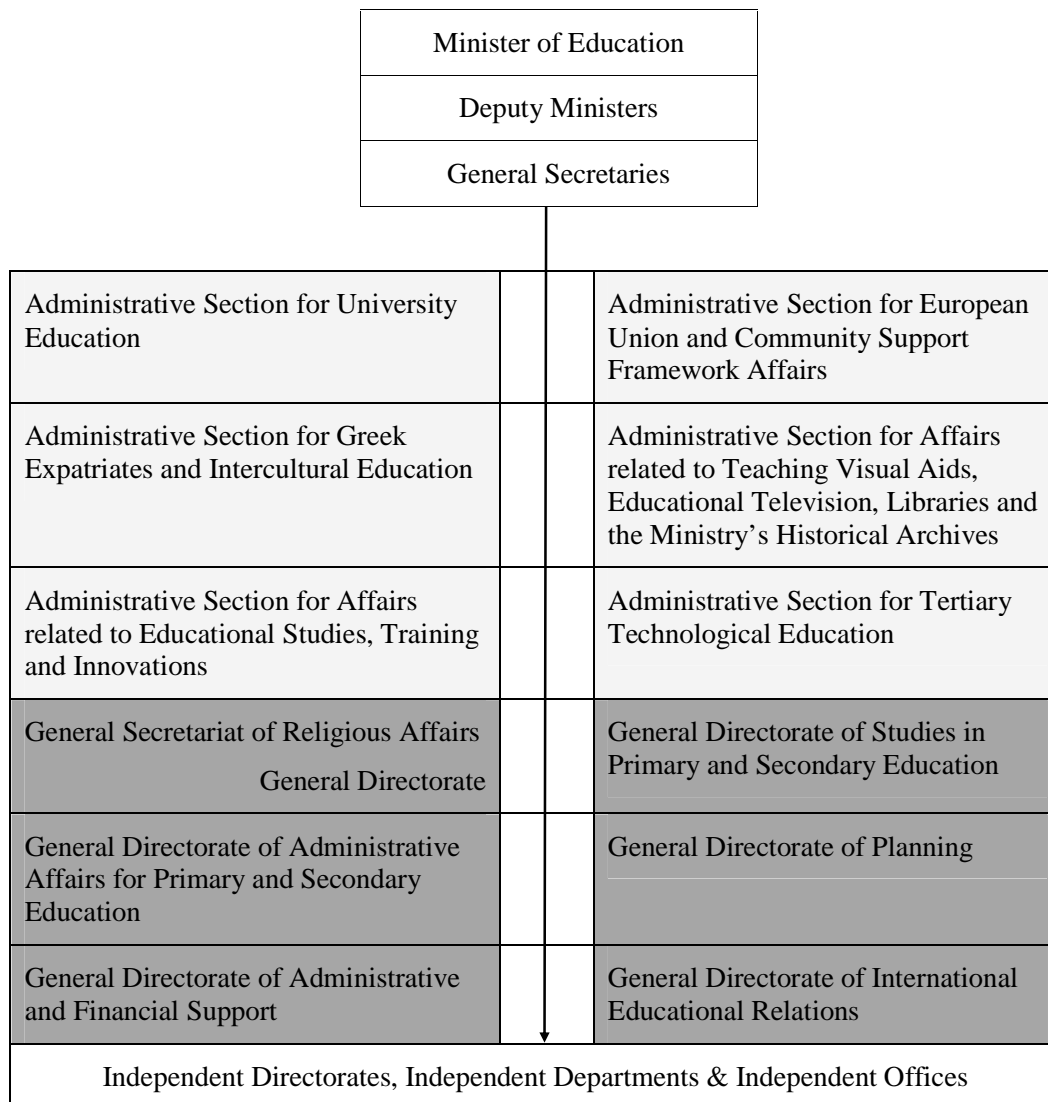
Appendix 1.2: Administrative Structure of the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH).

The administrative structure of the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH) includes administrative sections, general directorates, directorates and departments. Figure 2 shows this structure at the level of general directorates and administrative sections.

The administrative sections are headed by Special Secretaries who are appointed by joint decision of the Prime Minister and the Minister; the general directorates are headed by General Directors selected from among the permanent administrative officials by a Special Service Council. They are responsible for planning activities, coordinating the operation of the directorates under them, evaluating the policy pursued in their sphere of competence and drafting proposals to be sent to the political leadership of YPEPTH.

The general secretary, special secretaries, general directors, and heads of directorates and departments exercise the competencies assigned to them by the Minister and Deputy-Minister(s).

Figure 2: Administrative Structure of the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH).



Source: www.ypepth.gr (last visited 15/10/2003)

Appendix 1.3 Administration of Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education at National Level

Primary and secondary education are administered by the following directorates, which include various departments with specific fields of responsibility:

- The *Directorate for Primary Education Personnel* and the corresponding *Directorate for Secondary Education Personnel* come under the General Directorate of Administrative Affairs for Primary and Secondary Education. Their competencies include: appointments, transfers, reclassifications, detachments, maintaining of personnel files, leaves for educational staff, support for cases before the administrative courts, disciplinary matters, and matters related to the selection, appointment and public service status of School Counsellors and Heads of Education Directorates and Offices.
- The *Directorate of Primary Education Curriculum* and the *Directorate of Secondary Education Curriculum* come under the Administrative Section for Affairs related to Educational Studies, Training and Innovations. Their competencies, through their individual departments, include: drawing up curricula and timetables, monitoring their application, dealing with matters relative to teaching methods and vocational guidance for all schools (state-run and private, Hellenic, foreign and minority), pupil-related matters (registrations, transfers, duration of studies, certificates), drafting and approving textbooks and distributing them to the schools through the School Book Publishing Organisation (OEDB), and implementing new programmes. Issues related to Curricula and Textbooks, are carried on upon proposal by the Pedagogical Institute.
- The *Directorate for School Vocational Guidance and Vocational Activities* comes under the Administrative Section for Affairs related to Educational Studies, Training and Innovations. It includes the departments of School Vocational Guidance, Health and Environmental Education, Innovative Activities, Aesthetic Education, Additional Teaching Support and Corroborative Teaching.
- The *Special Education Directorate* comes under the General Directorate of Studies in Primary and Secondary Education. Its field of responsibility comprises implementing curricula and timetables, further education and training programmes for special education teachers, information programmes for parents; establishing, organising and operating special schools and classes; hiring and dealing with matters relative to the service status of special education personnel.
- The *Physical Education Directorate* comes under the General Directorate of Studies in Primary and Secondary Education. Its responsibilities include the introduction and implementation of the appropriate educational framework in order to support the development of physical education at all levels of education.
- The *Directorate of Administrative Affairs for Primary and Secondary Education* comes under the General Directorate of Administrative Affairs for Primary and Secondary Education. It is responsible for setting up and organising public schools and kindergartens and their administrative services; deciding on staff posts, running school snack bars and any other matter related to school administration. This directorate also oversees the organisation and operation of pupils' camping sites.
- The *Financial Affairs Directorate* comes under the General Directorate of Administrative and Financial Support. It is responsible for drawing up the final draft and implementing the regular budget and special accounts in relation to primary, secondary and higher education.

- The *Private Education Directorate* comes under the General Directorate of Studies in Primary and Secondary Education. It is responsible for approving the establishment of private primary and secondary schools, as well as for supervising and monitoring their operation.
- The *Directorate for Foreign and Minority Schools*. It comes under the Administrative Section for Greek Expatriates and Intercultural Education. It is responsible for matters related to foreign and minority schools.
- The *Directorate of Education for Greek Expatriates and Intercultural Education* comes under the Administrative Section for Greek Expatriates and Intercultural Education. It is responsible for matters related to Greek schools abroad: pupils and staff, and the writing and distribution of school textbooks (in cooperation with OEDB) in these schools. This directorate is also responsible for the organisation, selection process and placement abroad of School Advisors.
- The *Directorate for Ecclesiastical Studies and Religious Education* comes under the General Secretariat and the General Directorate of Religious Affairs at the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. This directorate has the administrative supervision of ecclesiastic schools at all levels.

APPENDIX 2: ADVISORY AND CONSULTATIVE COLLECTIVE BODIES

Prefectural or District Education Committee: in the center of each prefecture or district. This is made up of the prefect or sub-prefect and representatives of: the school councils, the educational administration, local government, the parents' federation, industry, scientific bodies and teachers trade union organizations. This committee drafts proposals and makes suggestions to the Prefectural Council and prefect on the basis of the proposals of the municipal and communal councils, concerning the distribution of loans, the founding or closure of schools and the general running of public schools in the prefecture.

Municipal Education Committee: this operates in each municipality and its membership comprises representatives of: the municipality, the Parents Association, school principals, representatives of industry and teachers' trade union organizations. This committee makes proposals to the Mayor and to the municipal or communal council as the case may be, on matters concerning improvements in the running and organization of schools in the area, the distribution of loans and the closure or merging of schools.

School Council: this operates in each school and its membership comprises the Teachers Association, the members of the governing body of the Parents' Association, representatives of the Pupils Community and a representative of local government. The task of this council is to support the running of the school.

School Committees: Each committee covers one or more schools and the participants in its administration are the schools principals of the schools concerned, a representative of the Parents Association, two representatives of local government and in secondary schools a representative of the Pupils Community. The task of the committee is to manage the funds allocated by the Ministry of Education to cover the running costs of the schools (heating, lighting, telephones, consumables, etc.). These committees also manage funds for remuneration of cleaning staff, carrying out school maintenance and repair, and ordering equipment; they manage revenues from the possible operation of snack bars and take every measure necessary to support the administrative operation of schools.

Parents Association: comprises the parents of the pupils in each school. The Parents (and Legal Guardians) Associations of the schools in a single community or municipality or municipal department form a *Parents Union*, in which each association is represented by at least one representative for every 40 pupils. The Parents' Unions of each prefecture or prefectural department form a *Parents Federation*, in which each union is represented by one representative for every 400 pupils. The Parents Federations of the nation form a *Parents Confederation* (the '*Confederation of Parents and Legal Guardians Federations*'), in which each federation has at least one representative.

Pupils Communities: which enable pupils to take initiatives and contribute to the smooth running of the school.

Professional Councils: central and regional – which give their opinion on matters of the professional status of teachers, and in which the teachers are represented by their elected representatives.

Source: Eurydice/CEDEFOP (2002)

APPENDIX 3: THE EDUCATIONAL REFORM OF 1997

The educational reform of 1997 can be described as ground-breaking for the Greek education system. The scope of this reform was the updating of the Greek education system and its preparation to face the challenges of the 21st century (YPEPTH, 1997)

The main principles of the rationale underlying the changes envisaged by the reform can be summarized as follows:

- All citizens should have access to high quality and internationally competitive education on an equal basis and free-of-charge.
- Upper secondary education should be considered as self-contained and independent and not as a precursor to tertiary education. It should aim to develop pupils' skills, critical thinking and initiative.
- Teachers are the principle actors of the education process. With the help of modern and continuous training they will be able to follow the new developments, capitalize on their strengths and capabilities and thus fulfill their crucial role.
- Tertiary education and training should be accessible to all interested citizens, independently of age.
- A tertiary education degree should aim to equip the citizens with a broad range of skills and capabilities rather than secure them professional status.
- The effective realization of an education reform necessary involves the active participation and cooperation of all stakeholders involved in the education process: pupils, parents and especially teachers who are called to implement the changes.

The main changes this reform envisaged to take place by the year 2000 are:

Pre-primary Education

- Establishment of the all-day pre-primary school. This would upgrade the pre-primary education provision and meet the needs of working parents.

Compulsory Education: Primary and Lower Secondary

- Establishment of a common curriculum frame for both primary and lower secondary education, which would allow a better organization and attainment of educational objectives.
- Gradual operation of primary schools on an all-day basis.
- Introduction of support teaching programmes for lower attaining pupils and of programmes for the enhancement of pupil creativity.
- Modernisation of the curricula in lower secondary education; introduction of the subject matter of 'Technology'; introduction of new textbooks and teaching material; and fostering of new teaching and assessment methods.

- Establishment of the “second chance” schools for people who have not completed compulsory education.

Upper Secondary Education

- Establishment of *Eniaio Lykeio* to replace gradually all the existing types of upper secondary school of general education.
- Introduction of new courses of general education, such as political science, and history of civilizations, as well as of courses or activities which would prepare future informed citizens, such as Health or Environmental Education.
- Establishment of three directions of specialisation (*Theoretical, Scientific and Technological*), in addition to the lessons of general education, in the 11th and 12th year of *Eniaio Lykeio*.
- Introduction of regional and national examinations in the 11th and 12th year of schooling respectively. The results of these examinations would be combined at different weights to determine the grade of pupils’ school leaving certificate.
- Changes to the basic philosophy of pupil assessment, which would focus more on pupils’ critical thinking and higher order cognitive skills.
- Establishment of *Techniko Epaggelmatiko Ekpedeftirio* (TEE) to replace gradually all types of existing technical and vocational schools. *TEEs* would offer two cycles of study: one of two years and one of three. Reciprocal transfers from one type of upper secondary school to the other would be possible.
- Upgrading of provision of technical and vocational education in terms of curricula, textbooks and material infrastructure.

Teachers

- Gradual abolition of the candidate-list system of teacher recruitment. Introduction of competitive examinations for teacher recruitment.
- Introduction of the ‘Certificate of Pedagogic Training’.
- Introduction of a new evaluation system for teachers and schools.
- Introduction of new in-service teacher training programmes.

Tertiary Education

- Abolition of university entrance examinations. Access to tertiary education would be determined on the basis of the grade of the school-leaving certificate.
- Creation of new university departments, so as to accommodate all school leavers who wish to continue their studies at the tertiary level.
- Establishment of the Hellenic Open University to enhance life-long learning and distance learning.

- Introduction of new evaluation procedures for tertiary education institutions.
- Re-constitution of the National Education Council.

Brief Discussion of the 1997 educational reform

The changes proposed by the 1997 educational reform were radical and covered a great number of educational issues. However, in retrospect they appear to have been rather rushed, not well elaborated and top-down. As a consequence some of them were never realized, at least not in their proposed form. Moreover, the absence of extensive dialogue with and thus wide consensus amongst the stakeholders regarding these changes meant that the reform was met with strong resistance by the educational community and the teacher unions. Their reactions forced the following minister of education in 2000 to make several amendments to a number of these changes, while maintaining many core elements of the reform.