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Chapter 4

School organisation and operation in Uruguay

This chapter analyses how school organisation and operation in Uruguay can contribute to the effective use of resources at the school level. It deals with the distribution of responsibilities for school organisation and operation and analyses school quality assurance and development. Furthermore, it discusses the approach to school leadership, the organisation of learning within schools and how school facilities and materials are used to support learning. The chapter places particular emphasis on areas of priority for Uruguay such as the narrow emphasis of school inspection on supporting school development and the limited recognition of the important role that school leadership can play for teaching and learning. The chapter also reviews the role of learning support staff, schools' autonomy over pedagogical processes and the use of resources, school-level strategies to address learning difficulties and the contribution of the school community to schools' activities.

This chapter analyses how school organisation and operation in Uruguay can contribute to the effective use of resources at the school level. Among other things, it considers how responsibilities for school organisation and operation are distributed; how school quality assurance and development are structured (e.g. school self-evaluation, externality in quality assurance); how school leadership is organised, distributed and prepared; how resources in schools are organised to create environments conducive to effective teaching and learning (e.g. organisation of learning, outreach to parents and communities); and how school facilities and materials are used to support such environments (e.g. use of school facilities outside instruction hours).

To provide a comparative perspective, where possible, the chapter draws on results from the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012. PISA 2012 provides information about the performance of 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and science as well as comparative insights about the students' backgrounds, schools and the learning environment across the 65 participating countries. In Uruguay, 41.4% of 15-year-olds sitting the PISA 2012 assessment were enrolled in lower secondary education, and 58.6% in upper secondary education. 41.4% of students were in Year 9, 57.3% in Year 10, and 1.3% in Year 11. Almost all students who sat the PISA assessment followed a general programme (97.3%) (OECD, 2013a, Tables IV.2.4 and IV.2.6).

Context and features

Organisation of human resources

School leadership

The composition of the school leadership team is determined for the different subsystems by the respective councils according to central regulations. These depend on the school type, enrolments and, for general secondary schools, the organisation of classes over the day (e.g. if a school also operates in the evening). Schools are typically led by a school principal, one or two deputy principals, and one or more secretaries. Principals and deputy principals have the same job profile, but secretaries have a different profile and do not need to have a teaching background (in primary education, however, they have a qualification as a teacher). Most schools have two or three school leaders, but the largest schools generally have three or more. For example, in general secondary education, a large school of more than 1 500 students can have one principal, 2 or 3 deputy principals, and various secretaries, while a small school of less than 500 students can operate without a deputy principal. Small rural primary schools may only have one teacher that also fulfils the leadership role according to a special teacher statute (*maestro director*), which requires teachers to devote 25 hours of their time to teaching, and 15 hours to school leadership and management (INEEd, 2015).

The school leadership team in all subsystems is supported by teacher leaders (*maestros adscriptos* and *profesores adscriptos a la dirección*). These teacher leaders fulfil mainly administrative, but also some pedagogical tasks. In primary schools, they may manage the school data in the Unified Management of Records and Information (GURI) and the

settlement of payments and accounts, keep order and discipline, assist support teachers and help low-performing students. In secondary schools, teacher leaders are responsible for a group of classes in one shift (*turno*). They keep order and discipline, manage the beginning and end of the school day and the breaks, and can ask school leaders to sanction students. They are also responsible for registering information about student's history of schooling, attendance, health, and interaction with parents and guardians. In addition, they provide information about students in their groups to teachers and communicate with families about truancy, sanctions and performance. The number of teacher leaders depends on the parameters set by the different councils and generally on the number of groups in a school. In secondary education, schools have about one teacher leader for four groups. For instance, one large secondary school with about 1 400 students offering lower and upper secondary education and classes in the morning, afternoon and evening that the OECD review team visited operated with 10 teacher leaders in the entire school, 2 for lower secondary classes in the morning, 5 for upper secondary classes in the afternoon, and 3 for upper secondary classes in the evening. In a technical school that the OECD review team visited, there was one teacher leader for every nine groups.

School principals are responsible for leadership in three areas: pedagogical, organisational-administrative and communal. School leadership tasks are typically distributed among the entire leadership team, except for some responsibilities that school principals cannot delegate, such as accountability reporting for financial expenses to councils, overseeing the finances of the Support Commission (*Comisión de Fomento*), and leading co-ordination meetings among teachers.

Initial preparation and further training. Under the leadership of the Teacher Training Council (CFE), the Institute for Advanced and Higher Studies (*Instituto de Perfeccionamiento y Estudios Superiores*, IPES), the main provider of teacher professional development and continuing education, also offers courses (*curso de formación en dirección de centros*) to prepare teachers for school leader competitive examinations (*concurso*) and for taking on the role of principal or deputy principal. Participation in the course is free of charge, but places are limited. Completion of the course is required for teachers to take part in the school leader examination. The format of the course is geared towards the exam and may differ from course to course. For primary education, preparation typically consists of 4 modules of theory of 16 hours each (e.g. in pedagogical leadership, administration, legislation and regulations, etc.), and an internship (*práctica docente para directores*) of 120 hours. The internship takes place in a school under the guidance of a school principal and may involve an analysis of the school and the preparation of a related project. Schools and mentors for teachers preparing for a school leadership role are chosen by the departmental inspection. Teachers who act as principals in small rural primary schools do not receive much preparation for their role, but can take part in a one-month teaching practicum in a small rural school during their initial teacher education. Teacher leaders (*maestros adscriptos*) receive initial preparation and continuous training for their role, as the OECD review team learned during its review visit.

In general, there are no targeted opportunities for professional development for school principals and deputy principals once they are in their position and school principals and deputy principals rely on feedback from school inspectors to develop their practice. There are, however, a few exceptions. In primary education, for example, school principals of full-time schools can take part in specialised further training (INEEd, 2015). The University

of the Republic (UDELAR) and some private universities also offer postgraduate courses in educational leadership and management (e.g. *Posgrado en Gestión de Instituciones Educativas* at UDELAR, *Posgrado en Gestión Educativa* at the *Universidad Católica del Uruguay*, *Master en Gestión Educativa* at *Universidad ORT Uruguay*), but these courses typically require the participation in some courses in Montevideo and the payment of tuition fees.

Recruitment, employment and dismissal. The employment framework and conditions of school principals and deputy principals, including decisions about recruitment, dismissal and salaries, are regulated through the teacher statute (*Estatuto del funcionario docente*; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015) as part of the regulations for indirect teaching (within which school leadership falls) and decided centrally for the different subsystems by the respective councils.

School principal and deputy principal positions are divided into permanent positions (*cargo efectivo*) and temporary positions (*cargo interino*). Permanent positions are awarded through school leader competitive examinations. To apply for a permanent position, teachers need to have reached step 3 out of 7 of the teacher salary scale (equivalent to about 9 years of teaching experience), to have successfully completed a school leader preparation course, and to have passed the school leader exam. For principal positions in rural primary schools, only step 2 is required. With the exception of technical-professional education, all school principals need to have a teaching background. In technical-professional education, requirements concerning principals' professional background differ. After taking on a permanent post, school principals and deputy principals are required to stay for at least two years, and can be renewed in their permanent post for three further years, unless the CODICEN has reservations and intervenes. With the exception of technical-professional secondary education, a principal's or deputy principal's right to a permanent post lapses after five consecutive years. In technical-professional secondary education, permanent posts can thereafter be renewed on a five-year basis. In practice, however, school principals and deputy principals can stay in their permanent position for as long as they wish in all subsystems (INEEd, 2015). Principals and deputy principals with positions linked to a department can change schools as long as there is a vacancy at another school. Temporary positions are open for recruitment every year and school principals and deputy principals who would like to stay at a school need to reapply together with other candidates who are interested in a new position.

The recruitment of school principals is a centrally managed process. The matching of a school principal to a school depends entirely on school principals' preferences of where they want to work, the results of their exam and their number of points (*lista de puntaje*, points' list) which is based on seniority in the salary scale (20 points), the inspector's appraisal rating (100 points), and attendance (20 points) and can reach up to 140 points in total. In secondary education, if a school principal position is vacant and cannot be filled, the school's most senior teacher will cover the role, ideally a teacher of step 4 in the salary scale or higher.

School principals and deputy principals are employed on contracts of 20, 30 or 40 working hours a week. In addition to these hours in a leadership position, principals and deputy principals can add teaching hours as long as the total weekly working hours do not exceed 48 hours. Instruction of teacher students in Practice schools and teaching in adult education do not form part of this 48-hour limit.

According to legislation, school principals and deputy principals can be dismissed through the CODICEN on suggestion of the responsible council in the case of ineptitude,

omission or criminal offence, but school principals and deputy principals must have had the opportunity to defend themselves. Individual appraisal can lead to the observation of principals and deputy principals and lead to the process of initiating dismissal.

There is no teacher career that specifies different roles for teachers. Like other school leadership positions, teacher leader positions (*docentes adscriptos*) are regulated as part of the regulations for indirect teaching in the teacher statute (*Estatuto del funcionario docente*; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015). As the OECD review team learned, as a position of trust, teacher leaders in primary schools (*maestro adscripto*) are selected by their school principal and appointment is always on a temporary basis (*cargo interino*). In secondary schools, teacher leader positions (*profesor adscripto*) are allocated through competitions for the allocation of teaching positions (*concursos*). They are assigned to a particular school and shift (*turno*) and are not allowed to teach in that same shift. Teacher leaders in primary and secondary schools are employed on contracts of 24 working hours a week (see Chapter 5 for more details).

School principals and deputy principals are paid according to a separate salary scale that is independent from the salary scale of teachers. Salaries differ depending on the rank (principal or deputy principal) and according to the size of the school. In primary education, there are three steps for three different groups of schools with different levels of enrolment (A, B and C). School principals in a school of size B (medium-sized schools) earn 5% more than principals in a school of size C (small schools), and principals in a school of size A (large schools) earn 5% more than principals in a school of size B. Remuneration can differ depending on the type of school (e.g. higher salaries for principals in full-time schools, *Aprender* schools, and Practice schools). In secondary education, there are four steps for four different groups of schools with different levels of enrolment. As in primary education, each step entails a 5% salary increment. At this level of the education system, salaries can differ depending on the shift (*turno*) that a school offers, i.e. whether the school offers classes in the morning, afternoon and/or evening. With the exception of higher salaries for full-time and *Aprender* schools in primary education there are no incentives for school principals to work in disadvantaged contexts.

Teacher leaders (*docentes adscriptos*) are remunerated according to the employment framework and salary scale for teachers, which do not foresee salary differences for different roles and responsibilities. In secondary education, the employment of teacher leaders differs from the general teaching career in that teacher leaders are allocated to one school and do not need to teach a number of hours in different schools (see Chapter 5) (INEEd, 2015).

Teachers and learning support staff

The 2008 Education Law entrusts the different councils with the management of the teaching workforce in their respective subsystem in line with the teacher statute (*Ordenanza nr.* 45; *Estatuto del funcionario docente*; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015). There is no level of the education system in which schools and principals are involved in the recruitment and dismissal of their staff, decisions about staff salaries, and decisions about teachers' professional development. According to the teacher statute, principals and deputy principals can, however, suggest sanctions of teachers through verbal observation, written observation or reprimand, following a certain administrative procedure and following a final decision of the council. While the employment of teachers is managed centrally, teachers' professional development depends almost exclusively on teachers' own initiative. Depending on the school principals' judgment, professional development for teachers can be organised within regular working hours or during time set aside for co-ordination (INEEd, 2015).

The distribution of teaching resources depends to a great extent on projected student enrolments. Depending on the number of students in each school, central authorities decide the number of groups per school and the number of classroom teachers required. The central level is also responsible for the allocation of support staff (e.g. psychologists and social workers). In pre-primary and primary education, the departmental inspection services provide input into the distribution of teaching hours across schools and the distribution of support staff which is generally tied to decisions about the distribution of targeted programmes. The allocation of resources at this level of the education system can differ between school types (e.g. Full-Time School, *Aprender* School), which influences the number of teachers' teaching hours and the allocation of support staff. In general secondary education, the number of students determines the number of groups in each cycle and orientation. The number of groups then determines the number of teaching hours for the different subjects in each school. The distribution of teacher leaders and learning support staff (e.g. pedagogical counsellor teachers) follows ideal ratios of groups per staff (e.g. one teacher leader for three to four groups). In technical-professional secondary education, central decisions about the distribution of teachers also consider the schools' offer and types of courses and programmes. The distribution of teachers to individual schools in all subsystems is managed at the central level, but depends to a very large extent on the distribution of vacancies, teachers' choice of position and school, and the rank of teachers within the profession that is determined by a set of different criteria (e.g. seniority, salary step, appraisal rating, etc.) (see Chapter 5). Teacher appraisal is the responsibility of the school inspections (see Chapter 5), but school principals are also required to carry out appraisals of the teachers in their schools. Together with the external appraisal by inspections, internal teacher appraisal by the school principal informs the selection of teachers to teaching positions. Since 2014, principals in primary schools take part in the committee that decides the final appraisal rating for teachers without the right to vote (*con voz, sin voto*; with a voice, without a vote) (see Chapter 5 for more details on the management of the teaching workforce) (INEEd, 2015).

When compared to other countries, schools' autonomy for managing their teachers in Uruguay is comparatively low. For PISA 2012, 76% of students were in a school whose principal reported that only the regional and/or national authorities are responsible for selecting teachers for hire, compared to 24% on average across OECD countries (Brazil: 70%, Chile: 20%). 76% of students were in a school whose principal reported that only regional and/or national authorities are responsible for firing teachers (OECD average: 34%, Argentina: 52%, Brazil: 72%, Chile: 31%). School autonomy for establishing teachers' salaries and for determining teachers' salary increases is low in most countries, including Uruguay (OECD, 2013a, Table IV.4.1 and Figure IV.4.2).

Organisation of physical resources

Educational materials

The different councils manage the purchase of didactic materials and their allocation and distribution to schools (INEEd, 2015). This process is similar across levels of education and typically takes place on an annual basis based on school type and number of students as well as previous allocations. A committee of technical inspectors and school principals decides about the criteria according to which the type and amount of materials is decided (INEEd, 2015). Both general and technical-professional secondary educations do not have a policy for textbooks. Students do not receive school books for free, but all schools do have

a school library for students to consult. Since 2011, the programme ProReading (*Prolee*) provides library facilities (*biblioteca solidaria*) and reading materials for teachers and students to complement work in traditional classrooms and to improve students' reading comprehension, writing and access to knowledge (INEEd, 2015).

The CEIBAL Plan aims to promote digital inclusion and greater and easier access to education and culture by handing out laptop computers to students and teachers in public primary and lower secondary schools for free. The programme started in 2007 and now covers all children in primary and lower secondary education. Since 2013, tablets with educational materials and content have been handed out to teachers and children in pre-primary education and the first year of school. The CEIBAL Plan also supports Internet connectivity for schools and a range of projects to support the use of ICT in classrooms (e.g. support staff, professional development for teachers, development of content, English classes through videoconferencing, online formative assessment and feedback) (see Chapter 3 for further details on the funding of educational materials) (INEEd, 2015).

For PISA 2012, school principals reported their perceptions about the state of educational resources available for their school. According to this survey, 76% of students were in a school whose principal reported that instruction was not hindered at all or hindered very little by a shortage or inadequacy of instructional materials, such as textbooks (OECD average: 80%, Argentina: 62%, Brazil: 86%, Chile: 72%). 72% of students were in a school whose principal reported that instruction was not hindered at all or hindered very little by a shortage or inadequacy of library materials (OECD average: 74%, Argentina: 69%, Brazil: 58%, Chile: 68%). 71% of students were in a school whose principal reported that instruction was not hindered at all or hindered very little by a shortage or inadequacy of computers for instruction or Internet connectivity (OECD average: 66% and 79% respectively, Argentina: 49% and 46%, Brazil: 47% and 52%, Chile: 72% and 72%). 82% of students were in a school whose principal reported that instruction was hindered not at all or only very little by shortage or inadequacy of science laboratory equipment (OECD average: 69%, Argentina: 45%, Brazil: 36%, Chile: 47%) (OECD, 2013a, Figure IV.3.8).

School facilities

Large infrastructure and maintenance needs are decided at the central level by the councils and the CODICEN according to an index of critical infrastructure needs (*índice de requerimiento y criticidad constructiva*) developed by CODICES's Sectoral Infrastructure Directorate (*Dirección Sectorial de Infraestructura*). Each council also has its own resources for maintenance and repair of school facilities as well as small and medium works. In each subsystem, the inspectors together with the council's architecture divisions determine work priorities for the facility requests of schools. In pre-primary and primary education funds for school facilities are assigned to individual departments and the departmental inspections evaluate and prioritise requests of schools, while in secondary education all maintenance requests need to pass through the architecture divisions of the councils (INEEd, 2015).

Schools receive some direct funds from their responsible council for minor repairs and the running of their school (e.g. gas, cleaning staff, catering). The amount of these funds is generally very limited, but schools need to provide receipts for their expenditure.[1] The correct use of these funds is also evaluated as part of the individual appraisal of school principals. The amount of funds available for schools differs across subsystems, and, within subsystems, by school type, enrolment and/or socio-economic context. Occasionally, schools receive additional earmarked funds for some operational costs. In addition, schools can

mobilise funds to finance small repairs and purchases through their Support Commission or parent association (INEEd, 2015) (see Chapter 3 for further details).

In Uruguay, only between 52% and 57% of students were in a school whose principal reported for PISA 2012 that shortages or inadequacy of school buildings and grounds, heating/cooling and lighting systems or instructional spaces, such as classrooms do not hinder at all or hinder very little their school's capacity to provide instruction. Concerns about the physical infrastructure of schools are similar to other countries in the region, including Argentina and Brazil, but stronger than in the OECD area, where 65% to 77% of students were in a school whose principal reported that shortages or inadequacy of physical infrastructure do not or hinder very little instruction in school (OECD, 2013a, Figure IV.3.7).

School evaluation

There is no comprehensive framework for the evaluation of schools and school staff. Each council is responsible for organising its school inspection and devising its own approach to evaluation within the boundaries of some general regulations set out in the teacher statute (*Estatuto del funcionario docente*; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015) (see also Chapter 1). In all subsystems, the inspections focus on the appraisal of individual teachers, school principals and deputy principals rather than the evaluation of the whole school and its processes (see Chapter 5 for more details on teacher appraisal). According to the teacher statute, the appraisal of principals and deputy principals is required on an annual basis and should evaluate capacity for guidance and management, the technical-pedagogical competencies required for the position, initiatives to improve the service, attendance and dedication, the work climate, human relations, equal treatment of staff, capacity for administration and efficiency, work with the community, professional development, scholarships, technical-pedagogical commissions and research. Appraisal results in a rating on a scale of 1-100 points at the end of the school year. This appraisal rating constitutes one part (up to 100 points) of the overall sum of 140 points that influence decisions about school leaders' careers. A low inspection rating of less than 50 points leads to a status of "observation". In the case of two consecutive "observation" ratings, the school inspection can ask the council to terminate a contract, but a committee of inspectors has the final say about such decisions.

In primary education, the school inspection service is organised into district inspectors (*inspector de zona*) who are responsible for the supervision of a number of schools in their area, departmental inspectors (*inspector departamental*) who are responsible for a department or for specific types of schools or programmes, such as the inspection of *Aprender* schools, the inspection of the CEIBAL Plan or the inspection of the Community Teachers Programme, specialised inspectors (*inspector de área/inspector nacional*) who focus on pre-primary education, special needs education, physical education and art education, and practice schools (*escuelas de práctica*), general inspectors (*inspector general*) who are responsible for a part of the country, and the technical inspector (*inspector técnico*) who is responsible for the inspection service as a whole. District inspectors appraise the teachers, principals and deputy principals of the schools for which they are responsible. Appraisals aim to provide guidance and orientation, but also have a function of supervision and control. The appraisal of principals involves at least two school visits per year. The district inspector can combine these visits with the visit to appraise teachers in the same school. District inspectors can use a number of different tools and strategies, such as interviews, documentary analysis, the school principals' analysis of teachers' planning in different years (e.g. one example for

Years 1 and 2, one for Years 3 and 4, and one for Years 5 and 6), joint classroom visits, visits to teacher co-ordination meetings, and data from the school's Unified Management of Records and Information system (GURI). A committee of three inspectors (the school's district inspector, an additional district inspector and the departmental inspector) discusses the final appraisal result for the school principal, which also contains a qualitative appraisal report that discusses a number of items and is published on the website of the CEIP.

In general secondary education, the general inspection (*inspección general*) consists of a technical inspection (*inspección técnica*), a school inspection (*inspección de institutos y liceos*) and a subject inspection (*inspección de asignaturas*). The creation of regional inspections (*inspección regional*) is in process at the time of writing this report and is likely to require inspectors to work some part of their time in the regions and some part of their time in Montevideo. As the OECD review team learned during its visit, the decentralisation process of the inspection envisages that inspectors spend 12 days in the interior, and the rest of the time in Montevideo. The technical inspection is responsible for advice on technical issues (e.g. assessment and examinations, curriculum, etc.). The school inspection is responsible for the supervision of schools and the appraisal of school principals and deputy principals while the subject inspection is responsible for the appraisal of teachers. The school inspection provides orientation and guidance (e.g. about competencies, professional development needs), but also has a summative purpose of control and accountability. School inspectors visit schools at least 4-5 times a year and are required to produce a report for each visit.

In technical-professional secondary education, the inspection is divided across different programme directors.[2] Three of these programme directors are responsible for the technical inspection and teacher appraisal in specific technical-professional specialisations (agriculture, industrial processes, services). These inspections focus on professional development for teachers and relationships with business and industry, for example. One of the programme directors is responsible for the inspection of school principals (*gestión escolar*). The individual appraisal of principals and deputy principals examines areas such as organisational planning and human resource management and involves at least one visit to the school (INEEd, 2015).

The organisational structures and capacity of the inspection differ across the individual councils. In general secondary education, school inspectors who are still mostly based centrally in Montevideo are typically responsible for the appraisal of 20 school principals and are required to produce one report for every school visit, therefore amounting to around 100 appraisal reports per year. In technical-professional secondary education, school inspectors are typically responsible for the supervision of principals in 15 schools.

Evaluation within schools similarly typically does not examine school practices as a whole (e.g. through self-evaluations), but also focuses on the individual appraisal of teachers through the school principal. Internal teacher appraisal is required annually according to the teacher statute and needs to evaluate aspects such as teachers' aptitude and preparation, initiative for improvement of service, commitment and collaboration in the school, contributions to the school community, interest and concern for student problems, contribution to the practical education of future teachers, and attendance of assessment meetings.

Organisation of learning

Learning support staff

In primary education, teachers in classrooms may benefit from the assistance of support teachers (*maestros de apoyo*), teacher leaders (*maestros adscriptos*) and social workers (*trabajadores sociales*). Full-time schools and extended-time schools have the support of specialised teachers to run the different additional activities and workshops (e.g. in arts, music, sports, English). Community teachers (*maestros comunitarios*) and teachers from the Teacher + Teacher (*Maestros más Maestros*) Programme provide additional support in disadvantaged contexts. While community teachers work on improving children's learning outcomes and on strengthening links with families, teachers from "Teacher + Teacher" co-ordinate their work with classroom teachers and offer additional tuition after classes to students with difficulties or support classroom teachers directly in the classroom as a pedagogical team to provide more individualised teaching. CEIBAL support teachers (*maestro de apoyo CEIBAL*) give advice and help teachers to use CEIBAL laptops in their teaching in the best possible way (INEEd, 2015). In addition, the OECD review team learned of integration teachers (*maestro integrador*) who work to develop a positive school climate and to foster social interaction among children in pre-primary and primary schools. Their profile, however, is not yet clearly defined and their number is still limited.

In general secondary education, pedagogical counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador pedagógico*) co-ordinate between staff in schools, strengthen ties with families and communities, and support tutors and educational projects to maximise their impact. They co-ordinate tutorials with timetables and the school lunch, for example. Bibliographic counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador bibliográfico*) support school libraries and multimedia rooms. Lab assistants (*preparador de laboratorio*) manage the lab facilities in schools and ensure that the equipment and materials are in a good state. Technology counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador de tecnología educativa*) may be available to help with the use of IT rooms and materials. Teacher leaders (*profesores adscriptos*) who are part of the school leadership team function as a contact for a group within the school and while they fulfil a range of administrative tasks, they also fulfil some pedagogical tasks. They substitute teachers if needed and provide information about students in teacher meetings, for example. Pedagogical facilitator teachers (*profesor articulador pedagógico*) support the implementation of the Educational Commitment Programme (*Compromiso Educativo*) in schools. They lead the organisation of the mentoring activities with older students and establish links with other institutions, for example. Tutor teachers (*profesor tutor*) may provide additional support for students to manage the transitions across school years.

In technical-professional secondary education, schools typically do not have the range of support staff that support teachers in other subsystems. Technical and agrarian schools have the support of teacher leaders (*profesores adscriptos*) and of multidisciplinary teams which can comprise psychologists and social workers, for example, but these are organised at a departmental level and not based in schools (INEEd, 2015). In addition, the Educational Commitment Programme (*Compromiso Educativo*) also provides support in technical-professional secondary education.

Student grouping

Schools are autonomous to decide how to group students within their school. While schools may group students to accommodate students' special needs, they generally do not

group students based on their abilities (INEEd, 2015). In both primary and secondary education students with learning difficulties are integrated in regular groups, but may benefit from additional instruction and more personalised learning through special programmes (e.g. community teachers in primary schools and tutorials in secondary schools) (INEEd, 2015).

School year repetition

School year repetition is common practice in schools and high rates of year repetition by regional and international standards are a long-standing challenge in Uruguay, also for equity as disadvantaged students are more likely to repeat a year (see Chapter 1). However, teachers' perception of this issue differs and teachers do not believe that year repetition is a tool that is employed too often (INEEd, 2015).

In primary schools, teachers have a large say when it comes to decisions about their students' progression to higher school years. To prevent students from having to repeat a year and to facilitate students' transition in the early years of primary education, some primary schools have begun to try to ensure continuity across Years 1 and 2 by having teachers follow their students from Year 1 to Year 2. In lower secondary education, students have to repeat a year if they fail 7 or more subjects by December or 4 or more subjects by February. Students missing school for more than 25 days per year who show low performance may also have to repeat the year. Decisions about whether students progress to the next year or have to repeat the year are taken in meetings between teachers and the school leader, but the decision whether students pass or fail a subject rest largely with teachers. In upper secondary education, students have the possibility to retake individual subjects in subsequent years as long as subjects in the higher year do not require previous knowledge from other subjects that have not been passed. In Years 10 and 11, students can progress to a higher year and retake up to 3 subjects. To graduate from upper secondary school, students must have passed all subjects (INEEd, 2015).

Support for students with learning difficulties and for disadvantaged students

Schools have some autonomy to establish strategies for students with learning difficulties together with their autonomy to group students within their schools. In general secondary education, schools and principals are now responsible for deciding on the best measures to support students with learning difficulties that can include exemptions (*tolerancias*) which were previously decided centrally. Exemptions can include additional time and alternative formats for assessments and examinations as well as additional support for learning to develop students' understanding of concepts, logical reasoning and comprehension. However, additional support for students with learning difficulties in all subsystems largely depends on a school's participation in special programmes. The allocation of these special programmes is decided at the regional level in the case of pre-primary and primary education and at the central level in the case of secondary education (see Chapter 3 for the funding of targeted support for disadvantaged students) (INEEd, 2015).

In pre-primary and primary education, the CEIP has implemented two programmes to support students with learning difficulties and disadvantaged students. The Community Teachers Programme (*Programa Maestros Comunitarios*) allocates one to two community teachers to disadvantaged schools depending on the size of the school. Schools are identified by the inspection depending on their socio-cultural context based on data from the CODICEN's Research, Evaluation and Statistics Division. This programme aims to prevent

students from falling behind and having to repeat a year by supporting children who show low performance, arrive late or skip school and classes, who have problems integrating at school or who are already repeating a year. It has two pedagogical elements that aim to support students in their learning, and two family-oriented elements that aim to involve parents in the education of their children and to provide parents with the tools to do so. Schools can decide what areas to focus on depending on their context. For example, in one school that the OECD review team visited as part of the review visit, the community teacher described her work as supporting children's integration in school by working in small groups and through games, art and sports, supporting students who are repeating a year to advance in school, visiting families if children fail to come to school, working with families to raise their self-esteem, organising workshops for parents, and motivating students in Year 6 for further study and providing orientation and guidance about opportunities and tracks in secondary education (e.g. through visits to general or technical secondary schools). Participation in this programme is limited to 20 students per semester in a school, but teachers in individual schools decide the precise number of children who can participate (INEEd, 2015). The Teacher + Teacher Programme (*Maestro más Maestro*) seeks to reduce year repetition in the first and second year of primary education by improving students' oral and written expression and by introducing new and innovative ways of teaching in schools. This programme offers two formats: in some schools, a teacher works with students after the end of the school day to offer additional learning opportunities in a longer school day; in other schools, two teachers work together in one classroom at the same time to provide more individualised attention to children with the greatest learning difficulties.

In general lower secondary education, the CES has created the Tutorials Project (*Liceos con tutorías y profesor coordinador pedagógico*) to provide additional and targeted support for schools with the greatest socio-economic challenges and to improve the learning outcomes of students in these schools. The programme consists of tutorials for students at the greatest risk of repetition or drop-out who are selected by schools and additional resources for school meals, uniforms and utensils for all students in the school. For the additional resources, schools receive a fixed amount of money depending on their enrolment numbers which they distribute across all types of materials. Participation in this programme is compulsory for schools with more than 400 students and a year repetition rate higher than 25% for the entire general lower secondary cycle.

In general and technical-professional upper secondary education students can benefit from additional support through the Educational Commitment Programme (*Compromiso Educativo*) that is managed by the CODICEN, CES, CETP, CFE, MEC, the University of the Republic (UDELAR), the Ministry of Social Development (MIDES), the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU) and the National Youth Institute (INJU). Students can sign up on line and are selected according to an index of critical needs of the MIDES. The selection process may also involve interviews with family and teachers. Some of the students sign an educational commitment agreement on performance and behaviour together with their family and the pedagogical facilitator teacher (*profesor articulador pedagogico*) of the school and receive a small stipend of UYU 8 000 per year. Other students sign an educational commitment agreement, but receive special support in school instead of the stipend. The Educational Commitment Programme also provides mentoring by tertiary education students who volunteer to work with students on a weekly basis on different projects and topics. All students in a school participating in the Educational Commitment Programme can take part in these weekly activities.

The programme Uruguay Studies (*Uruguay Estudia*) aims to support students above 14 years of age at all levels of the education system to complete their studies. It is managed by the CES and the CETP, the MEC, the Bank of the Republic, the National Co-operation for Development, the Ministry of Economy and Finance, the Office for Planning and Budget and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. This programme offers scholarships for students from the end of primary to upper secondary education and tutorials to help students complete lower secondary and upper secondary education. Also, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) provides small scholarships for students in lower secondary and upper secondary education to continue their studies (*becas de acceso a la continuidad educativa*). The Departmental Co-ordinating Commissions for Education are responsible for selecting students based on their performance and household income. Schools have one member of staff (*referente*) who follows students' progress, provides support, and keeps track of school and class attendance.

Parental, student and community involvement

The 2008 Education Law makes a number of provisions about the involvement of parents, students and the community at a national as well as at the level of departments and schools. For students, this includes, among others, the right to a quality education and to specific support in case of disability or illness, the right to form student committees and the right to participate in the running of the school by voicing views about the quality of education and school management. Each council is responsible for regulating how students can participate in practice. Students also have duties, such as the completion of programme requirements and respect for the rights of everyone in the school community, such as teachers, peers and parents. In secondary education, Pedagogical Advisory Councils (*Consejo Asesor Pedagógico*) discuss student behaviour in school and can praise as well as sanction students (Secondary student statute, Act no. 47, Resolution no. 2). They are made up of three teachers who are selected at the beginning of a school year by the principal, teachers and students.

For parents and guardians, the law stipulates the right to children's education, the right to participate in school activities and to elect members of participation councils (see below) and education councils' Advisory Commissions (see Chapter 1) as well as the right to information about children's learning progress. Parents are also required to ensure that children regularly attend school and meet compulsory schooling requirements, to support children in their learning and to respect children as well as everyone in the school community. In schools, parents have the opportunity to participate through specific associations. In primary schools and technical secondary schools, parents have a say through the Support Commission (*Comisión de Fomento*) of their school. In general secondary schools, parents can organise themselves in an Association of Parents and Friends of the School (*Asociación de Padres y Amigos del Liceo*). Traditionally, these parent groups have focused on raising additional funds and resources for the operation of their school, by organising raffles and fundraising events and by collecting donations, for example. The additional funds may be used to buy additional supplies or to help with the maintenance of the school infrastructure. However, this can create inequities between schools as parents from disadvantaged backgrounds have less means to contribute (Peters, 2015). According to the 2008 Education Law, schools may organise academic, cultural and social activities and events to involve parents and the community in the life of the school and establish links with other institutions, but all activities and events need to be approved by the school's respective council.

To strengthen the participation of parents, students and the community in schools, the 2008 Education Law foresees the implementation of participation councils (*Consejos de Participación*) in all schools. These councils bring together students, parents and guardians, teachers and educators and community representatives, and must meet at least three times a year. The individual councils determine the regulations on membership and running of the participation councils. In both general and technical-professional secondary education, the Law stipulates that at least one-third of the members of participation councils must be students. Participation councils have the right to make suggestions to the school leadership on the education project and the running of the school, a school's collaboration with external institutions, social and cultural activities in schools, a school's infrastructure, donations, and the use of resources. Participation councils have the right to file information requests from their responsible council, and to receive annual reports of the school leadership and their council. Participation councils should participate in school self-evaluations and provide their views on the development of programmes, the quality of teaching, the school climate, and the commitment of teachers and staff. Participation councils may also be requested by the Departmental Co-ordinating Commissions for Education (*Comisión Coordinadora Departamental de la Educación*) (INEEd, 2015) to provide a contribution in specific issues concerning the education policies of the Department.

Strengths

School inspection services provide a crucial link between central policy and local practice

Considering the high level of centralisation of decision-making in Uruguay, the school inspections constitute a crucial link between the councils at the central level and schools and principals across the country in all subsystems of the Uruguayan education system. First, while the inspections have very limited decision-making powers, they bring insights and knowledge from their work at the local level and can provide advice and suggestions for their respective council based on this knowledge. For instance, in pre-primary and primary education, departmental inspections provide input into the central decisions about the distribution of staff positions in schools, and decide about the distribution of targeted programmes to individual schools. In general secondary education, the inspection provides advice on the organisation of the school offer, among others. Proposals for the definition of the school offer are sent to the central teacher department which, then, determines the teaching hours that are available for the process of distributing teaching hours among teachers (*elección de horas*, see Chapter 5). The inspection in general secondary education also suggests the maximum number of students in a school. In technical-professional secondary education, the types of courses offered at a school are similarly developed jointly between schools and the inspection. Concerns about infrastructure needs can be passed on from schools through the inspection to the central level. Secondly, inspections play an important role for the implementation of the decisions about the organisation and operation of schools taken at the central level (INEEd, 2015).

Considering the general lack of other support structures for schools and professional development opportunities for principals and deputy principals, the inspection services provide an invaluable source of feedback and external perspectives through the individual appraisal process and the inspections' contact with individual schools. Research on the effects of individual appraisal is still relatively limited, but a small number of studies suggest that appraisal can constitute one tool for developing school leaders' competencies and for influencing their behaviours and practices (Pont et al., 2008; OECD, 2013b; Radinger, 2014), so

the individual appraisal process in Uruguay has the potential of strengthening school leadership in schools across the country. While the extent to and quality with which inspections provide support for principals and deputy principals may differ, also across subsystems, various principals interviewed as part of the review visit valued their contact with the inspection and described their interaction as relatively continuous and frequent. This is consistent with information from the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) that, in pre-primary and primary education, appraisal should involve one to two visits per year, and, in general secondary education, four to five visits per year. While research is limited, a cyclical process and regular interaction between school principals and evaluators can be beneficial for creating a formative appraisal process (OECD, 2013b).

The decentralisation initiatives in secondary education (e.g. the creation of regional inspections in general secondary education and the creation of regional campuses in technical-professional education), provide an important opportunity for strengthening the supportive role that the inspection can play by establishing a closer link between inspections and schools. In pre-primary and primary education, the organisation of the inspection into district inspections already offers good preconditions for a supportive role of the inspection for principals, deputy principals and schools.

The school leadership employment framework provides a good basis for developing the school leadership profession

While there is limited awareness of the importance of school leadership and while the school leadership structures in Uruguay are limited in a number of ways (see further below), the employment framework for school principals and deputy principals entails a number of valuable elements and provides a good basis for strengthening the school leadership profession.

School principals are required to take part in initial preparation before taking the school leader examination and before assuming a leadership role

Although some stakeholders interviewed as part of the review visit raised concerns about the quality of the initial preparation of school principals, participation in a preparatory course is mandatory before taking part in the school leader competitive examination. School principals, therefore, receive some preparation for their role, which also includes a practical element. The evidence base on the impact of school leadership training is small, but as an OECD study on school leadership argued, practitioners, researchers and policy makers agree that training can improve school leaders' knowledge and competencies (Pont et al., 2008).

The recruitment and appointment of school principals and deputy principals includes a performance-based element

Concerning employment, it is positive that the distribution of principals and deputy principals to schools entails a performance-based element as it takes the inspection's appraisal rating into account as one element in the calculation of the number of points (*lista de puntaje*) that determines the allocation of positions. Low performance detected by the inspection can also initiate a process of observation and, ultimately, dismissal through the CODICEN, even if it is unclear how often this is applied. The effects of this summative function of appraisal that influences appointment decisions, however, depends on an effective appraisal process that school leaders value as fair and transparent (OECD, 2013b).

Principals and deputy principals benefit from a separate salary scale

In terms of remuneration, principals and deputy principals benefit from a separate salary scale that is detached from the salary scale for teachers, although, as in many other countries, there are concerns about the level of compensation, also in relative terms when compared to teachers. The salary scale distinguishes between principals and deputy principals and takes principals' greater level of responsibilities into account. It also provides a small incentive for working in larger schools through salary increments that are linked to school size and, in pre-primary and primary schools, a small incentive for working in disadvantaged contexts through salary increases for positions in full-time and *Aprender* schools, and a small incentive for working in rural primary schools. In addition, the possibility to move into the inspection service provides a career development opportunity for school leaders. This opportunity is also open for teachers who have reached step 4 or higher of the salary scale (*Estatuto del funcionario docente*; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015).

There are some opportunities for teacher leadership and teachers have a channel for providing their opinion to school management

The organisation of school leadership provides an opportunity for teachers to take on a leadership role as teacher leaders (*docentes adscriptos*), even if these roles are not part of a teacher career framework. Teacher leaders fulfil an important supportive role both for principals and deputy principals and for other teachers. They can support school leaders in their administrative tasks and help create a school climate that is conducive for learning (e.g. by working to reduce disruptions and truancy). Teacher leaders can also supplement for absent teachers and avoid lost learning time as they are familiar with students' learning progress and classroom routines. Teacher leaders receive some preparation for their task. One teacher leader in a common urban primary school whom the OECD review team visited, for instance, reported professional development opportunities being offered on an annual basis and of meetings among teacher leaders within the district. In addition, teacher leader positions can be attractive for teachers in secondary schools as teacher leaders are a separate category within the teacher statute (indirect teaching), are allocated to one school and do not necessarily need to teach a number of hours in different schools (as is the case with a good proportion of secondary teachers, see Chapter 5). As research suggests, the distribution of school leadership can contribute to greater overall leadership capacity in schools, help foster change and sustain improvement over time (Bennett et al., 2003; Mulford, 2008).

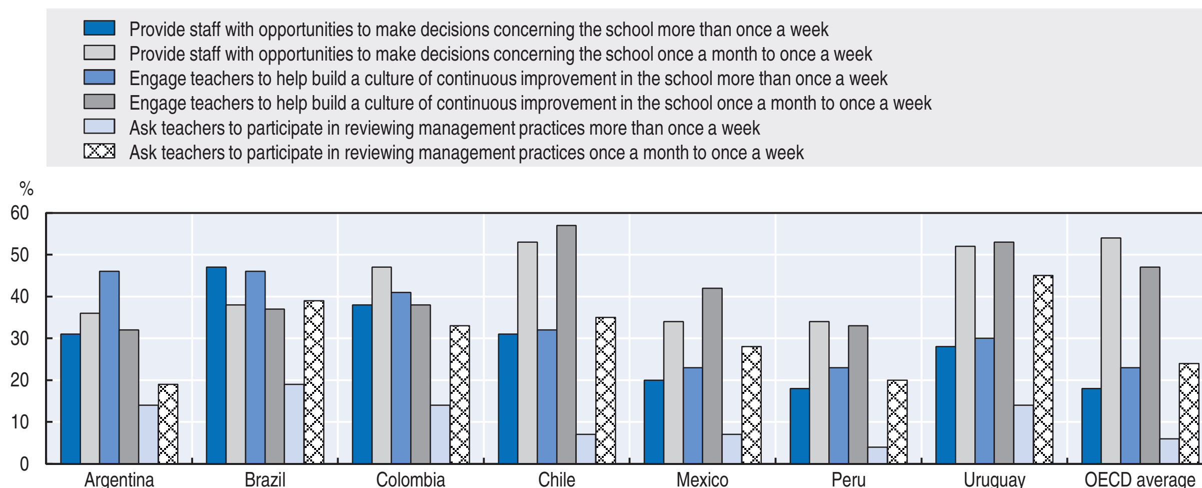
In addition, the 2008 Education Law requires schools to organise Teachers Technical Assemblies (*Asambleas Técnico Docentes*, ATD) that have a consultative role towards school leadership and the principals questionnaire of PISA 2012 suggests that teacher participation in school management is comparatively high, both compared to the OECD average and countries in the region (see Figure 4.1).

Schools offer support for students with learning difficulties and collaborate with formal and non-formal education initiatives to reintegrate out-of-school youth in the education system

Uruguay has recognised the considerable challenges of high year repetition and drop-out rates, and student truancy and absenteeism, and since 2005 implemented a number of targeted prevention programmes that provide schools with additional resources so they can support students with learning difficulties. These programmes are generally directed towards disadvantaged schools, which can be beneficial considering the large disparities in

Figure 4.1. **Principals' views on teacher participation in school management**

Percentage of students in schools whose principals reported that they engaged in the following actions:



Source: OECD (2013a), *PISA 2012 Results: What Makes Schools Successful: Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV)*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264201156-en*.

learning outcomes between students and higher rates of year repetition and drop-out among disadvantaged students, but which also risks stigmatising schools and students (Peters, 2015; INEEd, 2015). Programmes target both the pedagogical needs of children and the links between schools and families. In addition, Uruguay has developed various compensation initiatives to re-engage out-of-school children and youth in the education system. However, while there has been some monitoring or reporting on the implementation or impact of some of these programmes, their evaluation has generally been limited. Programme evaluation has not been systematic, part of the programme design, and paid no attention to costs and benefits (INEEd, 2015).

Pedagogical support is provided through learning support staff and mentoring schemes

In pre-primary and primary education, community teachers (*maestros comunitarios*) work with low-performing children in disadvantaged contexts to help them from falling behind or repeating a year. Depending on a school's needs, they can focus on instruction to support the children in their learning. As the OECD review team learned during the review visit, community teachers receive preparation and training for their role. In 2012, this programme reached 15 608 children, i.e. 5% of primary school enrolments. The Teacher + Teacher Programme (*Maestro más Maestro*) targets children in their first and/or second year of primary education. As part of this programme, a teacher provides a child with additional instruction after the end of the school day or supports another teacher in a classroom to provide more individualised teaching. This programme seems well-targeted as year repetition rates in primary education are highest in the first and second years (13.4% and 7.2% in 2013, compared to 5.4% on average across primary education). In addition, support teachers (*maestros de apoyo*) provide additional support for students with learning difficulties and help teachers identify children with the greatest difficulties. While the distribution of support teachers depends on the decision of the departmental inspection, their assignment typically favours the most disadvantaged contexts.

In general lower secondary education, the Tutorials Project (*Liceos con tutorías y profesor coordinador pedagógico*) provides additional instruction for students at the greatest risk of repetition or drop-out. Similar to the programme Teacher + Teacher, this initiative seems well targeted as participation for schools with more than 400 students and year repetition rates higher than 25% is compulsory. Also, the project addresses regional differences through higher participation in Montevideo, where year repetition rates are also higher. In 2013, 25 150 students took part in tutorials, i.e. 20% of students enrolled in public general lower secondary education. In general and technical-professional upper secondary education, students can benefit from additional support and mentoring through Educational Commitment Programme (*Compromiso Educativo*). Tertiary education student volunteers work with participating students on a weekly basis on projects and topics of their choice. Pedagogic advisors (*profesor articulador pedagogico*) identify low-performing students that would benefit from these activities and encourage them to participate. As the OECD review team learned during its visit, the development of these mentoring activities can, however, be challenging as it can be difficult to find volunteer mentors in some areas of the country (e.g. outside of Montevideo and departmental capitals). In 2013, 5 304 students of general and technical-professional upper secondary education, i.e. 4% of enrolled students took part. Both these programmes target low-performing schools in disadvantaged contexts. The programme Uruguay Studies (*Uruguay Estudia*) supports students who are older than 14 at all levels of the education system with tutorials to complete lower secondary and upper secondary education. In 2013, the programme reached 8 791 students. In addition to these targeted programmes, schools may organise tutorials and support classes for low-performing and disadvantaged students on their own initiative, as the OECD review team saw in its school visits.

To support students with their transition from primary to secondary education, the Educational Transition (*Tránsito Educativo*) programme accompanies children at risk of drop-out and disengagement, targeting children from disadvantaged backgrounds.[3] Teachers from primary and secondary schools provide additional support to children in the second semester of Year 6 in primary schools, during the summer, and in the first semester of the first year in lower secondary school. However, as some stakeholders commented to the OECD review team, the lack of stability within schools among teachers (see Chapter 5) may reduce the impact of this initiative.

The evidence base on the impact of learning support staff is mixed, but there is some evidence that learning support staff can help create more flexible learning environments (e.g. through flexible creation of groups) and more personalised teaching and learning. Support staff can also have an impact on teachers and reduce their workload and stress levels while increasing job satisfaction. However, the impact that learning support staff can have depends on their preparation and training to support students in a range of ways (e.g. one-on-one, in small groups, in whole classes) and to work in teams with other teachers as well as the time they have for planning, preparation and co-ordination. It is also important that students who receive additional support are not singled out and stigmatised (Masdeu, 2015).

There is good policy attention to establishing links between schools and families

Parental involvement in education is essential for student learning, but disadvantaged parents often have fewer resources to support their children's learning and/or less awareness of the importance of their involvement (OECD, 2012). Uruguay has recognised these issues

and designed some programmes in early childhood education and pre-primary and primary education that aim to strengthen links between schools and families. In early childhood education, Childcare and Family Centres (*Centros de Atención a la Infancia y la Familia*, CAIF) start working with families and mothers already before a child's birth from a rights-based perspective. Workshops for pregnant women provide advice on issues such as parenting and childcare, nutrition, education, and gender-based violence. These institutions also reach out to parents and families while a child is enrolled in the institution. The centres typically prioritise families and children from the most disadvantaged backgrounds. In pre-primary and primary education, the Community Teachers Programme (*Programa Maestros Comunitarios*) entails two elements that focus on parental involvement. To give a concrete example, community teachers call and visit families and parents if a child fails to come to school, and organise workshops for parents. In addition, pre-primary and primary schools may have social workers (*trabajadores sociales*) available.

There are considerable efforts in engaging with out-of-school youth through formal and non-formal education

The councils of the secondary subsystems (CES and CETP) recognise the challenge of school drop-out and, sometimes together with other actors, have designed some initiatives to re-engage out-of-school children and youth in secondary education.

A number of study options enable older students to finish their lower secondary education and combine their studies with work commitments. Plan 2009 allows students older than 21 who have not finished lower secondary education and who have work commitments or health problems to complete this cycle through three consecutive modules in semesters over one and a half years. Plan 2012 provides the same opportunity for young people between 15 and 20 without lower secondary education, but to complete the semesters (practical seminars) in the order of their choice. Plan 2013 targets students above age 15 who are in employment. Students following this study programme can select semester courses or annual modules, on a full-time or a part-time basis.[4]

In general secondary education, the Community Classrooms Programme (*Programa Aulas Comunitarias*) targets youth between 12 and 17 who have never begun or dropped out of secondary education before completing the first year of lower secondary education. The programme seeks to reintegrate students in the first year of general lower secondary education, to introduce students to life at a general secondary school, and to accompany young people's transition from community classrooms to general secondary schools. It is run jointly by the CES and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). While an NGO typically provides the physical space and a team of co-ordinators, social workers, educators and workshop leaders, the CES is responsible for the provision of subject teaching. The community classroom can, however, also be based in a school. In 2013, there were 25 community classrooms across the country. Community classrooms can work in different ways and target young people at risk who are already in lower secondary school, or raise young people's interest and motivation to re-enrol in school and prepare them for this step. All community classrooms are linked with a contact school (*liceo referente*), but collaboration between institutions depends on the leaders of schools and community classrooms, as stakeholders reported during the review visit. In 2012, 2 026 young people took part in the community classrooms programme, i.e. 1.6% of all students enrolled in general lower secondary education. In 2016 educational authorities announced the intention to gradually discontinue this programme.

In technical-professional secondary education, schools offer young people 15 years or older who have dropped out of lower secondary education the option to study basic professional training (*Formación Profesional Básica*, FPB). After two to three years of study, depending on the student's previous education, students gain lower secondary education and a vocational qualification (*Operario Práctico*) and can continue to upper secondary education. Students can complete their subjects as modules that run over the course of one semester and specialise in a professional area through participation in a weekly workshop. Regional co-ordinators (*referente territorial*) from the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU) and the Ministry of Social Development (MIDES) work with schools and social workers to identify out-of-school youth and engage them in this programme. In schools, psychologists support students studying for the basic professional training and work with their teachers and parents to help students complete this programme and continue their studies. Basic professional training can also be offered in a community programme option (*Programa de Formación Profesional Básica Experiencias Comunitarias*).[5] Similarly to community classrooms, basic professional training in the community is organised in community centres together with civil society organisations and has a more practical focus. Technical-professional schools contribute with subject teaching and help define the educational offer.

The National Education and Work Programme (*Programa Nacional de Educación y Trabajo*/PNET-*Centro de Capacitación y Producción*/CECAP) under the leadership of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) offers a flexible and integrated non-formal educational experience for disadvantaged youth between 15 and 20 who are neither in employment nor in education and training to facilitate their reintegration in the education system and to prepare them for the world of work.[6] The programme offers experimental and practical workshops (e.g. in carpentry or construction), training in foundational skills (e.g. in mathematics and calculus), and sports and arts activities. Participants have the opportunity to finish lower secondary education and to continue in the formal education system. One technical school visited as part of the OECD review, for example, worked with its departmental CECAP to support young people taking part in the programme to continue their education at the school, for example in the FPB programme. The Rediscover programme (*Redescubrir*) seeks to strengthen the collaboration between technical schools and CECAPs and formal and non-formal education.[7]

In 2006, the Ministry of Social Development (MIDES) introduced inter-institutional social policy roundtables (*Mesas Interinstitucionales de Políticas Sociales*, MIPS) to co-ordinate the development of social policies at a local level and to articulate national with local policies (*Decreto del Poder Ejecutivo Número 336*). These roundtables can convene committees on different areas, including education, and theoretically provide a platform to strengthen links between education and broader social policy initiatives, and relations between schools and other non-formal education offers. Participation of education actors is the responsibility of the different councils and the OECD review team learned of this platform in its meeting with a Departmental Co-ordinating Commission for Education (*Comisión Coordinadora Departamental de la Educación*). An analysis of the work of the MIPS between 2011 and 2013 reveals that throughout this period education has featured among those issues with the highest number of meetings together with housing, internal organisation of the MIPS and priority programmes (MIDES, 2014). Issues discussed include high year repetition, school infrastructure, and the difficulty to meet the needs of young people. In the first nine months of 2013, education was the issue with the highest number of meetings. Following the government's decision to withdraw child benefits (*Asignaciones*

Familiares) from children and young people who dropped out of formal education, the MIPS provided a channel for discussing strategies and interventions to re-engage young people in education. However, this MIDES report also pointed out that education actors were among those participating less in the MIPS meetings (MIDES, 2014).

The education system takes up innovations introduced by civil society

Several of these initiatives to support disadvantaged students and to help young people who have dropped out of education to return to education have been inspired by innovative approaches in civil society. The Community Teachers Programme, for instance, was originally developed by a non-governmental organisation, *El Abrojo*. The Community Classrooms Programme was similarly first created by a non-governmental organisation and has since evolved into a joint programme run by the education authorities (CES) and civil society organisations.

School principals, teachers and students are encouraged and supported to use ICT in schools and classrooms

In public pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, the CEIBAL Plan provides laptop computers to students and teachers free of charge and provides Internet connectivity and support (e.g. support staff, professional development for teachers, development of content, English classes through videoconferencing, online formative assessment and feedback, involvement of parents through the *aprender tod@s* element of CEIBAL). While evaluations of this programme indicate that ICT is used in schools and classrooms, and that this is appreciated by families and the community, they also indicate that ICT is typically not used in innovative and effective ways that improve learning, and that school principals and teachers need further competencies to integrate ICT in teaching and learning. Still, the introduction of ICT in primary education has enabled schools to participate in regional or national courses and meetings through videoconferencing and has somewhat eased the administrative tasks of school leaders (e.g. through the Unified Management of Records and Information, GURI). In general and technical-professional secondary education, ICT is also being increasingly used in schools and classrooms, but, similarly to pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, there are concerns about whether they are effectively used for pedagogical purposes (INEEd, 2015).

Some school facilities are shared or used outside of the regular school day to create further learning opportunities

Schools in Uruguay offer their facilities for a range of purposes and activities outside of regular instruction. At all levels of the education system, schools may use facilities to organise activities with parents and the community (e.g. festivals, shows and workshops).

In pre-primary and primary education, schools can offer educational and recreational activities through the Summer School Programme (*Programa Educativo de Verano*). For participation in this programme, schools develop and propose an educational project that lasts for 28 days during summer. Summer schools are typically organised and co-ordinated among schools within districts. Summer schools can also work with students of the first and second years to improve their written and oral expression and may be allowed to progress to the next year of school if they failed to do so by December (*Experiencia del Primer Ciclo*). They generally offer lunch to students through the Meals at School Programme (*Programa Alimentación Escolar*). Such programmes can be useful to support disadvantaged

students that may fall behind in their learning during school holidays considering their often less supportive home environment (OECD, 2012; Gromada and Shewbridge, forthcoming). In 2012, 29 707 children attended a Summer School Programme, i.e. almost 9% of children attending pre-primary and primary education.

In secondary education, schools often make good use of their facilities by offering educational programmes throughout the day in different *turnos* or shifts, including for older students who may need to combine their studies with work commitments (*turno nocturne* or night shift), although one needs to bear in mind that this involves low instruction time within individual *turnos* which allows schools to use multiple *turnos*. These different shifts may be led by the same school principal or by different school principals. Schools within a neighbourhood may also share some facilities with each other (e.g. gym and sports facilities). The sharing of facilities between *turnos* or individual schools requires effective collaboration and co-ordination and challenges may arise, as some school principals reported during the review visit.

As part of the +School programme (*+Centro*), general and technical schools can offer activities (e.g. sports, arts and culture, health) for young people on weekends (INEEd, 2015). This initiative aims to increase young people's self-esteem and social competencies and to develop their sense of belonging to their school and community. A local co-ordinator of the school (e.g. a teacher) supports the planning of activities which should be developed with the input of students and young people and which should be co-ordinated with the curricular and extracurricular activities that take place during the week.[8] Similar to Summer School Programmes, this use of facilities is not only efficient, but also provides additional learning time through extra academic and social activities that can raise motivation and learning outcomes of disadvantaged students provided that they have easy access to these activities and are engaged in them (OECD, 2012; Gromada and Shewbridge, forthcoming).

Challenges

The Uruguayan model of school inspection does not support school development

Individual appraisal does not communicate that school development is the responsibility of the whole school community

The school inspection services of all councils focus on the individual appraisal of school principals, deputies and teachers (see Chapter 5). While these are important mechanisms for the management of human resources in schools to provide individual feedback and support and to hold individuals accountable for their performance, they do not take a comprehensive view of the quality of education in a school, as has been a trend in various countries that have moved from the evaluation of individual teachers to the evaluation of the teaching quality across the school, for example. Individual appraisal processes alone may communicate that school development is the sole responsibility of school principals and not of the entire school community. In addition, in the case of principals and deputy principals, individual appraisals with a summative purpose bear the risk of holding individuals accountable for outcomes that lie beyond their control (OECD, 2013b; Radinger, 2014).

Individual appraisal does not focus on the improvement of professional competencies and practices

The current approach to the individual appraisal of school leaders does not ensure that all principals and deputy principals are subject to a process that helps them improve. While appraisal in Uruguay is meant to fulfil both a summative and a formative purpose,

and while relatively frequent interactions between inspectors and those being appraised provide a platform for formative feedback, interviews with various stakeholders and during school visits suggest that inspectors tend to focus more on control and compliance.

By design, appraisal ratings are used primarily to inform decisions about career and appointments to schools and not to provide feedback for improvement and to identify professional development needs, even if the appraisal criteria do specify professional development as one aspect of appraisal. In any case, professional development opportunities are generally very limited. As the analysis for the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) highlights, most principals are rated as excellent. This also suggests that appraisal does not provide differentiated and useful feedback on strengths and weaknesses that would be necessary for improvement. Considering that principals are responsible for appraising the teachers within their school, it is important to bear in mind that this summative focus may influence the focus with which principals carry out the internal teacher appraisal process (OECD, 2013b).

Individual appraisal procedures lack clarity, transparency and objectivity and do not clearly focus on pedagogical leadership

Beyond the very general guidelines in the teacher statute (*Estatuto del funcionario docente*; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015), councils do not provide an appraisal framework that specifies procedures and criteria more into detail and that communicate what inspectors should evaluate and how. There are also no school leadership standards that would communicate coherently to all stakeholders what should be expected of school principals and their deputies. In addition, the appraisal criteria which are set out in the teacher statute cover a wide range of responsibilities, but fail to go into detail and to focus explicitly on pedagogical leadership which research has identified as essential for the quality of teaching and learning (Day et al., 2009; Leithwood et al., 2004; Louis et al., 2010).

As far as the procedures are concerned, with the exception of pre-primary and primary education where a group of inspectors discusses the annual appraisal rating, appraisal is carried out by a single inspector. The quality of the appraisal process, therefore, depends largely on the competencies of individual inspectors and the appraisal judgment can be influenced by the personal relationship between inspectors and those being appraised. As various stakeholders stressed during the review visit, appraisal can be perceived as highly subjective. Considering the weight that the appraisal judgment carries for employment decisions, this subjectivity can, furthermore, lead to inequities between appraisees.

School development planning and self-evaluation practices are rare and do not inform appraisal

The 2008 Education Law (e.g. Article 41 of Law No. 18.437) makes some implicit reference to school projects and self-evaluation and the involvement of the school community in these practices, but there is no specific requirement for schools to engage in these practices. Individual councils may provide funding for co-ordination meetings (*sala docente*) for schools to develop school projects (e.g. Circular No. 41 of the Pre-primary and Primary Education Council in March 2015 provided funding for the development of projects to improve written language and/or mathematics). The OECD review team also heard of some local practices of goal-setting and school development planning in schools (e.g. one school had developed a plan to improve school climate in one year and reading in another year, another school had developed a strategy to reduce year repetition and school

dropout). However, in line with the analysis of the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) the OECD review team gained overall the impression that these practices are not common in Uruguay and that schools and principals do not usually engage in school development planning that involves the school community and the monitoring and evaluation of goals and objectives. This may potentially be linked to a lack of implementation of legislation as well as a lack of capacity. Appraisal, for instance, does not require school principals or deputies to engage in these practices that could form the basis for strengthening the school community, for developing approaches to improve education in the school and for discussing what progress has been achieved from one appraisal cycle to another.

The "For improvement" project (*ProMejora*) constitutes an attempt at introducing strategic school planning into school operation. The project is led by the CODICEN and seeks to improve school management, school climate, and learning outcomes. Schools participating in the project need to develop a three-year school project with short- and medium-term goals and engage in self-evaluation. They receive guidance, professional development and additional financial resources for materials and teachers. However, it is still very limited in scale and only 10 pre-primary and primary schools, 15 general secondary schools and 9 technical schools have participated so far. Furthermore, the process is not led by the school inspections of the different councils, but managed separately within the CODICEN (INEEd, 2015).

School inspection is fragmented across levels of education, the evaluation of teaching and school leadership, and between subject specialisations

School inspections are organised for the different subsystems within the respective councils. This fragmentation does not facilitate exchange of experiences and good evaluation practices across levels of education. Within the different councils, the inspection services are also split. In pre-primary and primary education, the district inspection appraises principals and teachers, and may combine their visits, but there are separate inspections for specific types of schools, specific programmes and specific subjects, such as physical education and arts. In general secondary education, inspection is split into a school inspection that appraises principals and a subject inspection that appraises teachers. In technical-professional education, inspection is split into teacher appraisal in three different specialisations and the evaluation of school management. While there are valid grounds for dividing some responsibilities across different inspections, this fragmentation creates potential inefficiencies, requires co-ordination across the different inspections and makes it difficult for inspectors to form a view of all educational processes in a school.

There is limited recognition of the important role that school leadership can play for teaching and learning

While the 2008 Education Law (Article 41) states that the state commits itself to the strengthening of school management, the transformative role of school leadership is not yet fully recognised in practice. The different councils have neither developed a vision of the role that school leadership can play in the education system nor devised a systematic strategy of how to develop sustainable school leadership. There are no school leadership standards that communicate the role and responsibilities of principals, deputies and teacher leaders, and that could guide the development of the school leadership profession from recruitment and initial preparation to career progression, appraisal and further professional development.

And there is no professional school leadership association that could represent the interests of school principals, inform education policies, and contribute to the development of the profession (e.g. through networking and training).

School principals are poorly paid for their responsibilities and when compared to teachers

Salaries of school principals are generally lower than salaries for teachers for the same amount of working time at all levels of the education system. For a full-time working load, a primary school principal earns between 78% and 86% of a teacher's salary in the highest grade, depending on the size of the school. In secondary education, a school principal's salary amounts to between 73% and 84% of a teacher's salary in the highest grade (see Table 4.1). Considering that teacher remuneration in Uruguay is already low when compared to similarly educated workers, even if teacher salaries have been increasing since 2005 (also see Chapter 5), financial compensation for school principals does not reflect the high level of responsibility with which they are entrusted.

Table 4.1. **Statutory salaries of principals in primary and secondary education, 2014**

Position	Salary (UYU in constant values, base 2013)	Salary compared to full-time teacher (40 hours) (%)
Primary education		
Principal, urban common school, level A, 2 shifts, 40 hours	44 108	86.1
Principal, urban common school, level B, 2 shifts, 40 hours	41 974	81.9
Principal, urban common school, level C, 2 shifts, 40 hours	39 956	78.0
Full-time teacher, permanent position, 40 hours (step 7, 25 years of teaching experience)	51 229	100.0
Secondary education		
Principal, category 1, 40 hours	48 727	84.1
Principal, category 2, 40 hours	46 348	80.0
Principal, category 3, 40 hours	44 108	76.1
Principal, category 4, 40 hours	41 974	72.5
Teacher, first cycle, extended time, permanent position, 40 hours (step 7, 25 years of teaching experience)	57 930	100.0

Source: INEEd (2014), *Informe sobre el estado de la educación en Uruguay 2014* (Report on the state of education in Uruguay 2014), *http://ieeuy2014.ineed.edu.uy/*.

The low level of remuneration also creates a challenge in attracting teachers to school leadership roles. While there are no data on the average number of applicants for school principal positions, interviews for the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) suggest that this constitutes a challenge at all levels of the education system. In some secondary schools, it has already been difficult to fill principal positions and positions have had to be covered temporarily by a senior teacher in the school who lacks preparation for this task. Teachers interviewed during the review visit were generally not keen to take on a leadership role and principals stressed the non-financial rewards of their job. Various teachers had, in fact, already taken part in initial school leader preparation, but were reluctant to take on an actual position as this would imply a reduction in salaries. The teacher salary scale is relatively flat at the beginning of the teaching career (progression from grades 1 to 4 carries a 16.5% salary increase), but increases with growing experience (progression from grades 4 to 7 carries a 42% salary increase). In addition, after 25 years of service, teachers receive a 20% bonus on their basic salary. This creates a considerable financial disincentive for experienced teachers to move into school leadership roles. As teachers need to have reached the 3rd grade of the

salary scale to be able to take a school leadership course and the related exam, teachers are only incentivised in the middle of their career to take on a leadership role. Nevertheless, it is attractive for teachers to take part in school leadership training as this implies additional merits for teacher competitions, which can create inefficiencies if these teachers never assume a leadership role. Considering that there is a lack of sufficient numbers of qualified new teachers, particularly in secondary schools, the interior and disadvantaged schools (see Chapter 5), the challenge of attracting teachers to school leadership may worsen in the future.

In addition, low levels of remuneration create an incentive to take on additional roles to supplement the salary. In some schools visited as part of the review visit, principals and deputy principals worked in private schools, teacher education institutions, or adult education in addition to their leadership role or even distributed the time in their school so they could take on additional employment outside of their school. This can, in turn, have a negative impact on schools as school leaders may dedicate less time to their school and be less committed to their school.

The recruitment process of school principals is based on a limited set of criteria, provides almost no financial incentives to work in disadvantaged contexts, and can create instability in schools

The recruitment process of school principals is a centrally managed process that relies solely on the candidates' exam results and number of points composed of seniority/step in the salary scale, appraisal ratings and attendance. However, this process does not entail an interview with all interested candidates to assess candidates on a set of clear selection criteria and the presentation of a school development plan or project. Furthermore, the central process does not provide an opportunity for representatives from the school community, such as parents or teachers, to provide their input and to ensure that candidates fit the local context.

The selection and recruitment process for school principals, which essentially depends on candidates' choice of school, also generally fails to provide financial incentives for candidates to apply for positions in disadvantaged contexts. Salaries only differ by school size, but, except for full-time, *Aprender* and small rural schools in primary education, there are no increments for working in challenging contexts. Some incentives do exist, but these are related to the number of working hours that are attached to a school leadership position (e.g. 30 hours or 40 hours) and work in practice schools that carries additional remuneration for additional working hours. As the appraisal rating influences principals' standing in the hierarchy that determines allocation to schools, good school principals are theoretically able to choose schools that are easier to manage. Considering that strong leadership is important to communicate effectively with the school inspection about concerns and needs of a school and to raise additional funds within the school community in the Uruguayan context, the lack of an incentive structure to attract candidates to difficult schools and the risk of good school principals not choosing to work in these contexts is a also an equity concern.

The possibility for principals to only be appointed to their position temporarily (*cargo interino*) creates unnecessary instability and turnover. Principals in a temporary post need to compete on an annual basis for the same position with other interested candidates. This is particularly problematic in technical secondary schools as principals in this subsystem have not had the opportunity to participate in competitions to become permanent (*cargo efectivo*) for about ten years.

Initial preparation could prepare school principals better for their role and there are no further development opportunities for school principals

While teachers interested in becoming school principals are obliged to take preparatory training before taking part in a principal exam, various stakeholders in all subsystems consulted as part of the work on the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) and as part of the review visit raised concerns about initial preparation and continuous development for school principals. There is no clear policy of how to develop future principals and of how to develop principals further once they are in their role. Various stakeholders voiced concerns about the quality of preparation and questioned if initial training in its current form prepares teachers well for their future role. As already stated, the content of initial preparation is not structured according to a vision of effective school leadership, but oriented towards a particular upcoming principal exam. The quality of initial training can, therefore, differ from year to year. Considering the lack of school leadership standards, different stakeholders hold different expectations of what initial training should prepare participants for (e.g. infrastructure management, fire safety, or pedagogical leadership). In general, even though initial training includes a practicum in a school, initial training is perceived as being too theoretical. Principals of small rural primary schools (*maestro director*) may also lack preparation for their role as part of teacher education and in technical-professional education, principals may also not benefit from training as this is not necessarily a requirement.

Once principals have passed the exam and taken up a position, there are generally no further professional development opportunities and principals face time constraints to take part in professional development. Structured professional development is only available in some circumstances, e.g. for school principals of full-time schools, and the only feedback that school principals receive comes from inspections and meetings with other principals, and, in technical-professional education, from the regional campuses.

The administrative responsibilities of principals and the lack of a stable teaching body may make it difficult for principals to develop learning communities

The role of school principals encompasses pedagogical leadership, management and administration, and community relations. As stakeholders highlighted for the work on the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) and during the review visit, administrative responsibilities such as the running of the school canteen, timetabling, checks on children's vaccinations in primary education, liaison with the Social Insurance Bank (*Banco de Previsión Social*, BPS) and the General Tax Directorate (*Dirección General Impositiva*, DGI), and responses to requests from the councils, however, can make it difficult for principals to devote sufficient time to pedagogical leadership. School principals as well as teachers in schools visited as part of the review visit stated that principals do not have the time they should to manage and appraise their teachers, to visit classrooms and to provide feedback and guidance on teaching practices or on participation in professional development. Reports on the usefulness of internal teacher appraisal, for example, were mixed (also see Chapter 5).

The working conditions of teachers (see Chapter 5 for more details) also negatively affect school principals' capacity for pedagogical leadership, particularly in secondary schools. Teachers in secondary education are required to apply for teaching hours on an annual basis (*elección de horas*). Even though this was not the impression the OECD review team gained during its visit, statistics highlight that this can lead to high teacher turnover (from one school to another) and to teachers only taking up their position well into the school

year. As teachers in secondary schools are not assigned to one school, this distribution of hours also means that teachers teach in different schools to make up their working hours. This may affect teachers' ability to be present and involved at school beyond instruction. The lack of a stable teaching body that can devote itself fully to teaching and learning in one school and has time for collaboration may make it more difficult for principals to turn a school into a learning community, to develop a common school vision and project, and to encourage teacher participation in school management. In primary education, teachers' working hours are conceived as teaching hours only and, except for full-time and *Aprender* schools, do not include time for preparation or collaboration beyond the two teacher meetings and two Teachers Technical Assemblies (*Asambleas Técnico Docentes,* ATD) that all schools are required to organise per year. This can have similar effects and create difficulties for principals to foster collaboration in school and to encourage teachers to work in teams.

School principals could require further support from teacher leaders and the high degree of centralisation makes it difficult for principals to build a leadership team

While there are some opportunities for teachers to take on leadership responsibilities (teacher leaders [*docentes adscriptos*]) and while teachers receive training for their role, stakeholders interviewed for the preparation of the Country Background Report (INEEd, 2015) and during the review visit considered these as insufficient in terms of roles and responsibilities. The teacher career structure is primarily based on seniority and does not foresee different responsibilities, such as leadership and management, as teachers progress through the career. As remuneration is based on instruction time, school leadership responsibilities also do not involve a salary increase or supplement for teachers (see Chapter 5).

With a few exceptions for positions of trust (e.g. teacher leaders in primary schools), school principals do not have the power to make decisions about the composition and selection of their school leadership team. The number and types of school leadership positions are defined centrally according to enrolments and type of school, deputy principals and teacher leaders are recruited centrally through exams and competitions, and secretaries are chosen according to their ranking in the teacher hierarchy. This makes decisions about school leadership positions less political, but it potentially limits school principals' ability to build a leadership team and to distribute tasks and responsibilities to trusted colleagues.

There is also some concern about the distribution of teacher leaders across schools. The proportion of public urban common schools with at least one teacher leader or deputy principal has increased from 54.7% in 2003 to 74% in 2013 (INEEd, 2015). However, even though the difference has decreased over time, these positions are not distributed progressively. In 2013, the difference between the 1st and the 5th socio-cultural quintile still amounted to 6 percentage points in favour of the most advantaged schools (down from 10.4 percentage points in 2013).

There are a range of concerns about learning support staff

First, while schools, and particularly disadvantaged ones, have the support of various learning support staff, the benefits that learning support staff bring to schools, teachers and students depend on the training they receive and the time they have to plan and to co-ordinate their work with other teachers before and after classes (Masdeu, 2015). Teachers in various schools across the education system in Uruguay do have time for co-ordination and planning, but this is not the case for all teachers (also see Chapter 5). While the OECD

review team gained the impression that principals, teachers and parents appreciated the presence and work of learning support staff, some stakeholders consulted during the review visit also raised concerns that children's need for additional support may not be identified early enough. Together with other factors, such as preparation and training, this could also be linked to a lack of co-ordination.

In pre-primary and primary education, only teachers in *Aprender* schools and in full-time schools receive time for planning and co-ordination as part of their working hours.[9] The allocation of learning support staff through the Community Teachers (*Maestros Comunitarios*) and Teacher + Teacher (*Maestro más Maestro*) programmes is targeted at disadvantaged schools and *Aprender* schools, in particular. Learning support staff and teachers in these schools will, therefore, have time available to work together and to plan their work. However, in other schools, such as Common Urban Schools, schools and teachers may have more difficulties to make the most of the learning support staff that they are allocated (e.g. support teachers and community teachers).

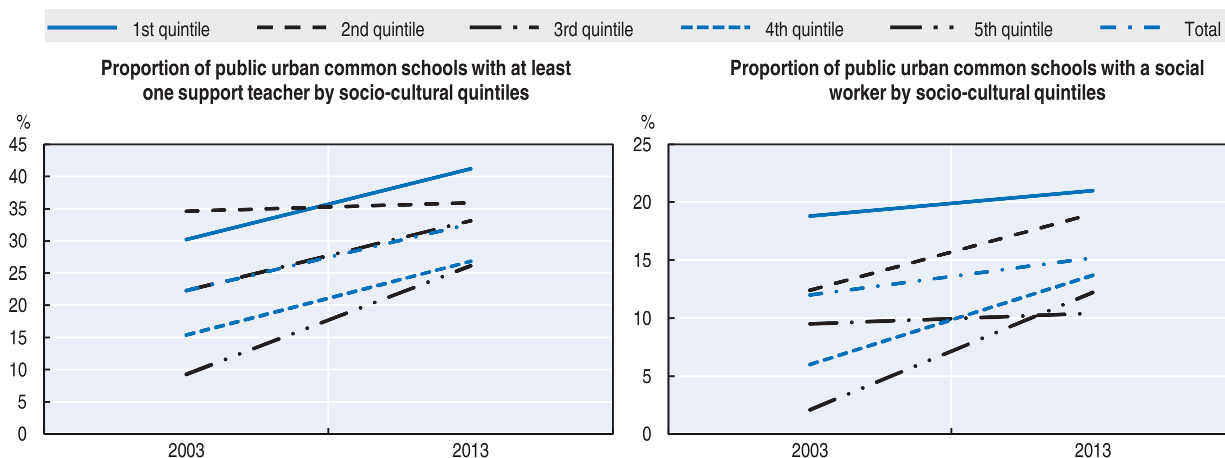
In general and technical-professional secondary education, teachers' working time includes time for preparation and collaboration. However, the large proportion of teachers who have to teach in different schools as a consequence of the process of allocating teaching hours (*elección de horas*) limits teachers' ability to make use of this time to collaborate with other teachers and to participate in co-ordination meetings.[10] This is also likely to affect the work of tutors in general lower secondary schools taking part in the Tutorials Project (*Liceos con tutorías y profesor coordinador pedagógico*) and secondary schools taking part in the programme Uruguay Studies (*Uruguay Estudia*) as well as the work of general tutors. General secondary schools do, however, have pedagogical counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador pedagógico*) who co-ordinate between staff in schools and support tutors to maximise their impact.

Second, school principals lack autonomy to make decisions about the recruitment of learning support staff and, therefore, lack flexibility to decide which kind of staff would be most useful. Teachers in various schools visited as part of the review visit, for instance, reported that the school would need a school psychologist. However, schools had no autonomy to react directly to this need.

Third, some needs for learning support staff are unmet. Most importantly, this concerns the need for learning support staff to facilitate the inclusion of young people with special needs in secondary education, even though this is required by law (also see Chapters 2 and 5). In technical-professional secondary education, learning support staff is organised in multidisciplinary teams that are not based in schools. Support is, therefore, not always available in the day-to-day work of teachers.

Fourth, while the availability of learning support staff has been increasing in some subsystems, this increase has not been targeted at the most disadvantaged contexts. While the difference in the proportion of public urban common schools with at least one permanent support teacher (*maestro de apoyo*) between the most disadvantaged quintile and the most advantaged quintile still amounted to 15.2 percentage points in 2013, this difference decreased from a 20.9 percentage point difference in 2003. The overall increase in support teachers in urban common schools between 2003 and 2013 has been concentrated in the highest quintiles. The same holds true for the availability of social workers (*trabajadores sociales*) in schools. The availability of social workers is still targeted at disadvantaged schools, but the difference in the proportion of advantaged and disadvantaged public urban primary schools with a social worker has decreased between 2003 and 2013 (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2. **Trend in the distribution of support teachers and social workers by socio-cultural quintile**



Source: INEEd (2015), *OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Uruguay*, *www.oecd.org/education/schoolresourcesreview.htm*.

Schools have limited autonomy to take ownership over curriculum content, but also lack guidance in pedagogical areas in which they have more autonomy, such as assessment

Schools' limited autonomy to modify curricula limits schools' ownership and may hinder their ability to make their curricular offer interesting and relevant for all students to keep them engaged in education and to prevent them from dropping out (Peters, 2015). At the same time, while schools and teachers do have some autonomy to make decisions about which content to cover and how to assess students, schools, teachers, parents and students lack orientation in the form of expected learning outcomes and learning goals or progressions. While the lack of clarity of national curricula enables teachers to make their own professional judgment and to innovate in classrooms, teachers may also find it difficult to develop concrete lesson plans, learning goals and assessment strategies that are in line with national expectations. The lack of clarity can also lead to large variations in how schools and teachers implement curricula and assess their students (OECD, 2013b; Nusche, forthcoming). The 2014 report about the state of education in Uruguay of the National Institute for Educational Evaluation (INEEd) identified such differences in summative assessment practices between primary and secondary teachers and schools resulting from differences in teacher education, but also curricular instructions, as a challenge for the transition of children from primary to secondary education (INEEd, 2014).

With the exception of a recent initiative in pre-primary and primary education to support teachers in formative assessments, schools and teachers also lack guidance in the use of formative assessments. Formative student assessment has large potential to shape teaching and learning and to create a learner-centred learning environment (OECD, 2013b; Nusche, forthcoming). While PISA 2012 suggests that schools and teachers in Uruguay do use assessments to monitor progress and to identify aspects of instruction or the curriculum that could be improved,[11] schools and teachers may benefit from additional guidance on how to best do so.

Opportunities for schools to work together and to share good practices are limited, particularly in secondary education

There is considerable evidence, for example from England in the United Kingdom, Finland and Sweden, that school-school partnerships, clusters and networks can provide mechanisms for sharing effective leadership as well as effective practice in a way that contributes to raising performance (Pont et al., 2008). In Uruguay, there are some practices and platforms where school principals can meet, particularly in pre-primary and primary education, but the OECD review team gained the impression that these practices are generally not systematic and available on a larger scale.

In pre-primary and primary education, principals from a department or area can meet through the organisation of co-ordination meetings. The inspection can also link two schools and encourage them to share experiences and innovative approaches. In addition, the growing availability of videoconferencing facilities in schools increasingly enables schools and teachers to co-operate and exchange ideas.

In general and technical-professional secondary education the exchange of experiences between schools is less common and systematic and depends largely on the initiative of individual schools. Local practices do, however, exist, as the OECD review team saw during its country visit (INEEd, 2015).

Two initiatives may provide more formal possibilities for networking between schools in the future. The formation of Departmental Co-ordinating Commissions (*Comisión departamental de educación*) under the leadership of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) may provide one platform for schools to collaborate and to develop networks within their department, also for schools from different levels of the education system. In technical-professional education, the process of regionalisation through the transfer of responsibilities to regional campuses constitutes another opportunity for school leaders to come together. The board of directors (*junta de directores*) that is led by a campus leader also includes the school principals of the schools within the region and the regional inspectors.

Parents' opportunities to contribute to school improvement are still in their infancy, and schools find it difficult to get parents involved

While parents have opportunities to participate in school affairs as required by national legislation in all levels of the education system according to the formats defined by individual councils (e.g. through Support Commissions in primary and technical schools and Parents and Friends Associations in general secondary schools), the activities of these bodies mostly relate to financial support of schools and social events, but not in terms of feedback and involvement in the management of the school. This limits their impact on school development. It also limits parents' opportunity to hold schools accountable.

In this respect, the ongoing implementation of participation councils (*Consejos de Participación*) constitutes a promising initiative to strengthen the involvement of parents, but also students and the wider community in school development and to strengthen horizontal accountability. As set out in the 2008 Education Law, councils can make suggestions on the school project and the general operation of the school as well as more specific areas, such as the use of funds and the organisation of social activities. They also have the right to be involved in school self-evaluation, even if these practices are still rare.

On the other hand, parents also have the duty to be involved in their children's education by law. While schools organise outreach activities to get parents involved,[12]

interviews with principals, teachers and also parents during the review visit suggest that it is often difficult for schools to involve parents, particularly as children grow older. Data from PISA 2012 paint a similar picture, particularly in as far as parents' involvement in their child's behaviour or academic progress is concerned. Parental involvement according to PISA is low, both compared to other countries in the region as well as the OECD average (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. **Parental involvement in their children's education**

Percentage of students' parents who participated in the following school-related activities during the previous academic year, according to school principals' reports for PISA 2012

	Argentina	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Mexico	Uruguay	OECD average
Discussed their child's behaviour with a teacher on their own initiative	22.4	23.9	29.3	37.3	27.9	10.1	22.8
Discussed their child's behaviour on the initiative of one of their child's teachers	42.9	41.0	58.0	59.4	45.4	22.6	38.2
Discussed their child's progress with a teacher on their own initiative	20.2	24.9	28.5	38.7	29.3	18.1	27.3
Discussed their child's progress on the initiative of one of their child's teachers	44.2	42.4	58.6	58.3	47.8	27.3	47.1
Volunteered in extracurricular activities, e.g. book club, school play, sports, field trip	11.2	6.2	14.1	15.7	17.5	5.4	8.3
Participated in local school government, e.g. parent council or school management committee	17.8	21.4	33.8	50.6	34.0	9.8	10.8
Assisted in fundraising for the school	17.5	4.7	29.5	28.3	25.2	8.3	9.9

Source: OECD (2013a), *PISA 2012 Results: What Makes Schools Successful: Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV)*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264201156-en*.

Pressure from parents for high academic standards in Uruguay is also comparatively low. 49.9% of 15-year-olds were in a school whose principal reported for PISA 2012 that pressure for high academic standards came only from very few parents, compared to 33.1% on average across OECD countries (see Table 4.3) (OECD, 2013a, Table IV.4.18).

Table 4.3. **Parents' expectations of high academic performance, according to school principals' reports for PISA 2012**

Pressure on the school to meet high academic standards comes from:

	Many parents (%)	A minority of parents (%)	Very few parents (%)
Argentina	7.8	32.6	59.6
Brazil	14.7	46.5	38.7
Colombia	14.0	30.4	55.6
Chile	30.3	42.5	27.2
Mexico	20.3	45.9	33.8
Uruguay	6.4	43.7	49.9
OECD average	21.2	45.8	33.1

Source: OECD (2013a), *PISA 2012 Results: What Makes Schools Successful: Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV)*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264201156-en*.

The challenge of involving parents tends to be greater in urban and disadvantaged schools than in small rural communities, as interview partners pointed out. In this regard, the implementation of the Community Teachers Programme (*Programa Maestros Comunitarios*) in primary schools constitutes a promising initiative to reach out to disadvantaged parents.

Opportunities for student involvement in school are inadequate

The 2008 Education Law clearly establishes the participation of students in their learning as one of the core principles of the education system in Uruguay, but the definition of formal opportunities for student involvement is the responsibility of the individual councils. While the OECD review team heard of local initiatives, it also gained the impression that student involvement is rare in practice. In one secondary school visited as part of the review visit, students elected classroom delegates to represent their views, in another secondary school, students organised extracurricular activities, such as a choir and a musical group. In various other schools, however, students did not organise student associations or committees within their school (INEEd, 2015). In addition, there is no national student organisation in Uruguay that could support students to participate in school affairs.

Nevertheless, PISA 2012 suggests that schools in Uruguay are more likely to seek written feedback from students than in many other countries (OECD, 2013a, Table IV.4.33). 6.3% of 15-year-olds were in a school whose principal reported that there was no internal nor external evaluation, but written feedback from student was sought (regarding lessons, teachers or resources), compared to an OECD average of 1.9%, while 4.5% of students were in a school whose principal reported that this was not the case (OECD average: 6.3%). However, as part of internal or external evaluations, written feedback from students is sought to a lesser extent. Only 46% of 15-year-olds were in a school whose principal reported that there are internal or external evaluations and that written feedback from students is sought (OECD average: 58.6%), and 43.2% of students were in a school whose principal reported that no written feedback from students was sought in these processes.

Policy recommendations

Strengthen the capacity of the school inspection to contribute to school improvement

Given the crucial role that the inspection plays in the highly centralised governance framework of the Uruguayan education system as a link between central policies and school organisation and operation and as the main supervision and support structure for schools, the OECD review team suggests to reconsider the inspection model and to improve individual appraisal so that the inspection fulfils these two functions more effectively.

Decisions about frameworks of evaluation and assessment in school systems depend on the overall system of governance and the balance between autonomy and accountability. In France, for example, school evaluation has not been considered as necessary considering the limited autonomy of schools (OECD, 2013b). The future development of the role of the school inspection, therefore, depends on the way that school autonomy and accountability in Uruguay evolve and the rethinking of the current approach to the evaluation of schools should be part of a broader reflection on school autonomy and accountability. For instance, improvements to the school inspection system could provide the basis for gradually giving schools greater autonomy (see Chapter 2).

Consider the introduction of comprehensive school evaluations and the reorganisation of the inspection

The lack of a comprehensive school evaluation process is a major challenge for the Uruguayan education system as the sole reliance on personnel appraisal risks to focus on the performance of individuals only and to lose sight of the ways in which individuals can contribute to the improvement of the whole school. While research on the impact of school

evaluation is limited, and while school evaluation can have undesired effects (e.g. preparation for evaluation, compliance, hindering innovation in teaching and curriculum experimentation) there is some evidence that school evaluation can promote improvement through professional influence, fair and accurate reporting and informed analysis and comparisons, depending on the form that evaluation takes (e.g. the kind of feedback that schools receive, the expectations that are communicated to schools in terms of follow-up, the reporting of findings to the school community) (OECD, 2013b).

In the long-run, Uruguay should, therefore, consider the introduction of a comprehensive school evaluation process. This requires a reflection of how school evaluation will be aligned with teacher appraisal and, in particular, school leader appraisal to create synergies and to avoid duplication and misconceptions. Poland and Portugal provide two interesting examples for ways in which school evaluation and school leader appraisal can be linked. In Poland, school evaluation and school leader appraisal are aligned through the requirement that the evaluators of individual school leaders need to take the results of school evaluations into account when carrying out an individual appraisal. In Portugal, the appraisal of school principals in public schools consists of two separate processes. School leaders are appraised individually by a general school council. In addition, school leaders are evaluated by the Inspectorate as part of the school evaluation process. The results of both processes are taken into account to different degrees. The result of the individual appraisal counts for 60%, the result of the school evaluation process for 40%.

The introduction of a comprehensive school evaluation will also involve a reflection about the purpose of this process. This is of critical importance in deciding: who should be responsible for undertaking the evaluation, which procedures should be used and how the results of the evaluation will be used. Consideration should be paid to which elements of school evaluation best serve accountability purposes and which best serve development purposes.

School evaluation will need to contribute towards school improvement and not simply be an exercise in compliancy. The approach to school evaluation, the criteria and questions governing judgments and the methods employed should, therefore, focus directly on the quality of teaching and learning and their relationship to student learning experiences and outcomes rather than the simple relationship between policy, planning and outcomes. The quality of teaching is central to the quality of student’s learning and the key variable which a school can influence. School evaluation that is meaningful should also involve: an accurate assessment of the effectiveness of schools; an assessment of strengths and areas for development, followed by feedback, coaching, support and opportunities for development; an opportunity to celebrate, recognise and reward the work of schools and to identify best practice; and an opportunity to identify underperforming schools (for further elements of effective school evaluation, see Box 4.1).

The introduction of school evaluations will require time and resources to build up the capacity of the inspection as well as schools, school leaders and teachers and to adjust to this new form of evaluation. The adequate resourcing and capacity of the inspection body and support and acceptance by schools will play a crucial role for the implementation of the new school evaluation. In France, for instance, certain school organising bodies implemented school evaluations during the 1990s, but these proved to be time consuming and demanding in terms of human resources and were not always appreciated by school principals, so they were abandoned. A similar attempt was made in the 1990s by the

Box 4.1. OECD recommendations on procedures for school evaluation

Develop nationally agreed criteria for school quality to guide school evaluation

The coherence of school evaluation is considerably enhanced when based on a nationally agreed model of school effectiveness. This national model should draw on both international and national research that has identified the factors generally associated with the quality of teaching and learning. This would provide clear criteria for effective schools and provide a robust, research-based foundation for school evaluation.

Ensure a strong evidence base for external school evaluation and appropriate analysis tools

Credible external school evaluation should be based on reliable and relevant evidence rather than opinion. Acceptance of external school evaluation results can be secured through systematic gathering, analysis of and reference to relevant evidence. An effective way to pull together key information is to compile a school profile, comprising key school quality indicators. Also, evidence should be collected during the course of external school evaluation, including the identification and analysis of documentation, the collection of feedback on school quality via stakeholder surveys, and interviews with a representative sample of stakeholders. A further key part of external school evaluation is the observation of classroom teaching and learning.

Ensure transparency in external school evaluation procedures

The principle of transparency is increasingly perceived as an integral part of effective external school evaluation. Such transparency in the methodology, process and results of external school evaluation is perceived as being fairer to those evaluated and a way to promote the integrity, rigour and impact of external school evaluation. The approach, procedures and instruments used in external school evaluation should be publicly available and the evaluation team should actively encourage the school to examine this documentation in advance. Another important aspect of transparency is to include processes allowing schools to comment on their experience with external school evaluation. To ensure that external school evaluation results are taken seriously by schools, there should be clearly defined procedures on how evaluation results will be followed up.

Ensure the credibility of external evaluators and enhance their objectivity and coherence

The selection and recruitment of external evaluators is of key importance in building capacity within the external school evaluation body. The criteria used to select evaluators should be demanding to ensure that those recruited have the skills and attributes necessary for a credible approach to external school evaluation. The range of individuals who are part of external school evaluation teams should be broad. The use of highly credible school principals and leading practitioners in external school evaluation would both heighten the credibility of the evaluation teams and build capacity in the school system as a whole.

Promote the wider use of the results of external school evaluation

The publication of all external school evaluation reports is associated with many benefits. The school community can use this information to feed into school development planning. External school evaluation reports should not be too technical and should be readable to a non-specialist audience. It is also important to develop a communication strategy that capitalises on the wider dissemination of school evaluation results (e.g. production of specific summaries for parents within the external school evaluation reports, publication of results for a group of schools within a particular area or educational group). There is also a role for schools to be proactive in promoting external school evaluation results to staff and parents.

Box 4.1. **OECD recommendations on procedures for school evaluation** *(cont.)*

Ensure the systematic follow-up of external school evaluations

To heighten the impact of school external school evaluation on school improvement there needs to be systematic follow-up by the external evaluators and/or appropriate authorities or support agencies. Such follow-up should include both a monitoring and support function. External school evaluation should result in a good amount of feedback to schools, including a useful and practical level of detail on required improvements. In turn, this needs to be accompanied by the appropriate investment in strategies to ensure that schools effectively use the feedback they receive. There should be clear procedures in place for the further follow-up of schools that are judged not to have made adequate improvement upon a second external school evaluation.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en.*

national inspection, but evaluations were typically not followed up and were, therefore, equally abandoned (OECD, 2013b).

The introduction of school evaluations will also require a rethinking of the current structure of the inspection that is fragmented across levels of the education system, the individual appraisal of school leaders and teachers and different subjects or programmes. This fragmentation could hinder the introduction of comprehensive school evaluations. To strengthen the role that school evaluation can play for school development through a focus on teaching and learning, the school inspection could be united under the responsibility of the CODICEN and organised at the level of departments and within areas. An integration of the inspection across subsystems would ensure that the inspection of all subsystems has sufficient capacity and that best practices are shared effectively. Alternatively, the school inspection structures within councils could be integrated building on current experiences and experimentations with integrated inspections. The current decentralisation and reorganisation of the inspections in general and technical-professional secondary education should provide a window of opportunity for a broader rethinking of the inspection in these two subsystems. The reorganisation of the inspections should also involve thinking around the inspections' links with the National Institute for Educational Evaluation (INEEd) and the Research, Evaluation and Statistics Division (DIEE) of CODICEN. This is important to ensure that data and research are used effectively for improvement at the local level and that the local knowledge gathered through the inspection informs research and monitoring at the central level.

Encourage and support schools to develop school development planning and self-evaluation processes

While school development planning and self-evaluation require time for co-ordination and planning, they can be ways for school principals to provide direction and leadership, to develop strategies for constant improvement, and to engage the school community in a process of collective learning (OECD, 2013b). In Uruguay, there are some references in national legislation, some programmes and provision of funding (e.g. *ProMejora* project), and some local practices, but there is large scope to increase the profile and use of both school development planning and self-evaluation.

As a recent OECD review of evaluation and assessment in education suggested, one way to strengthen school development planning and self-evaluation lies in establishing requirements for schools that promote strategic planning, for example, the drawing up of a four to five year strategic plan and regular updates of school progress on this plan, or the development of annual school reports about their achievements, challenges and strategies for improvement (see Box 4.2 for an example). The process of meeting specified strategic planning requirements can be a stimulus for schools to further their self-evaluation practices and to promote school improvement, if: the reporting and planning pays sufficient attention to key processes of teaching and learning and a broad range of outcomes; the process of reporting and planning adequately engages the school community; and the school community takes keen interest in school progress towards its strategic goals.

Box 4.2. **Introducing school development planning and self-evaluation: the case of Austria**

As part of the Quality in Schools project (QIS), an Internet platform supplied schools with information and tools for both evaluation and data analysis and provided a forum for presenting the results. In autumn 2012, the Austrian Federal Ministry of Education and Women's Affairs replaced the Q.I.S model with the School Quality in General Education process (*Schulqualität Allgemeinbildung*, SQA) which aims to foster individualisation and competence orientation in teaching and learning. This new key tool for general primary and secondary education built on a similar initiative for vocational education and training (*Qualitätsinitative Berufsbildung*, QIBB) and has strong links to the educational standards which were introduced in 2012 as well. The 2014 reform of the Federal Law on School Inspection (*Bundeschulaufsichtsgesetz*) made school development and self-evaluation compulsory. Based on law, a national quality framework for schools was developed and is being implemented by SQA.

As part of the SQA process, schools establish clearly defined development plans which have to cover several years and need to be updated every other year. The school principal is responsible for the development of the plan together with the teachers. This process includes self-evaluation, whereby the results of education standards provide one important input, but schools are also encouraged to seek external advice on their own initiative. For example, external guidance can be requested from specially trained school development advisors. In periodical dialogue, the school principal and the responsible school inspector (in principle every year) conclude binding targets and performance agreements for the school (*Ziel- und Leistungsvereinbarungen*). These must be in line with the regional, provincial and national SQA-targets and country-wide budget framework targets. The underlying principle is dialogue-based leadership to induce a culture of trust, feedback and consensus. External inspection is still possible, but limited to case, where such an intervention appears the necessary intervention tool. The implementation of the SQA process has been supported by training programmes for principals, school inspectors and managerial staff and information and comprehensive support are also available on line.

The compulsory implementation of SQA and the shift in the role of the school inspection from external supervision to regional quality management can be seen as a true change of paradigm in the Austrian system of school quality development. The impact of SQA is currently being evaluated by the Federal Institute for Education Research, Innovation and Development of the Austrian School System (BIFIE).

Source: Bruneforth, M. et al. (forthcoming), *OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Austria*, Bundesministerium für Bildung und Frauen, Vienna.

The school inspection can also play a role in promoting school development planning and self-evaluation, both through existing individual appraisal and possibly through a future comprehensive school evaluation. School leaders are key for managing, stimulating and ensuring the effective implementation of school development planning and self-evaluation. Individual appraisal should, therefore, pay adequate attention to school leaders' responsibilities in this area, together with their responsibilities for evaluation and assessment more broadly (e.g. for a future school evaluation process and internal teacher appraisal, also see Chapter 5). A future comprehensive school evaluation also has the potential to build capacity in schools for school-based self-evaluation: schools may be motivated to engage in self-evaluations if faced with an external school evaluation requirement and external evaluation can increase evaluation literacy in schools.

It is equally important to provide school leaders with the opportunities to develop the necessary competencies to implement school planning and self-evaluation (e.g. through school leadership competency standards and development programmes that include aspects such as how to develop school improvement plans; how to analyse data; how to involve teachers, students and parents in school self-evaluation). Access to consistent, comparable, reliable and broad-based self-evaluation tools and examples of effective use of these in school policy making can give school leaders a better picture of what school self-evaluation looks like when it is working well (see Box 4.3), and the creation of new evaluation roles within the school for different staff can provide additional support for school leaders for their new role. School development planning and self-evaluation should, however, not remain an exercise for the school leadership team, but should engage the school staff and students, as is already recognised in legislation (Articles 41 and 78 of the 2008 Education Law). In the Uruguayan context, the effective implementation of participatory school development planning and self-evaluation will depend on a more stable assignment of teachers to schools than is currently the case and more time for co-ordination, planning and preparation as part of teacher's paid working time (see Chapter 5).

The implementation of stronger school development planning and self-evaluation requirements should build on the experience of the *ProMejora* project and integrate this pilot into a broader scheme under the reorganised inspections.

Box 4.3. **Examples of initiatives to support school self-evaluation**

Ireland

Ireland has strengthened support for school self-evaluation in 2012 through the publication of Guidelines for School Self-Evaluation in primary and secondary schools and a dedicated school self-evaluation website. The Inspectorate supports all schools and teachers and provides seminars for school principals. In 2003, the Inspectorate developed two frameworks for self-evaluation in primary and secondary schools (*Looking at our Schools*). Since 1998, professional development for teachers has been offered in the context of School Development Planning.

Luxembourg

The Ministry accompanies schools in their school development planning by offering data, assessment tools, advice, training and analytical expertise. Methodological support is offered to schools throughout the process of drawing up and implementing their School Development Plan by the central Agency for the Development of Quality in Schools (ADQS).

Box 4.3. **Examples of initiatives to support school self-evaluation** *(cont.)*

Mexico

Mexico has developed self-evaluation guidance since the early 2000s, including an adaptation of the Scottish evaluation and quality indicator framework (2003) and a publication on key features of the top performing schools (2007). Further a collection of guides, support materials and instruments for self-evaluation was distributed to all primary and secondary schools in 2007 (System for School Self-evaluation for Quality Management). The National Educational Evaluation Institute (INEE) also develops a series of applications for use in self-evaluation, e.g. tools for evaluating the overall school, the school environment, school staff, etc.

Scotland (United Kingdom)

Education Scotland, the external evaluation body, has developed a central web-based resource which provides schools and school leaders with a comprehensive set of tools which they can use to structure school self-evaluation. This resource, known as *Journey to Excellence*, has grown and developed over two decades and can be traced back to the publication of *How Good is our School?* in the late 1980s. The Framework for school self-evaluation (*How good is our school?*) includes quality indicators in five key areas. Education Scotland also runs good practice conferences on different themes.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en*.

Develop a coherent framework for individual school leader appraisal so appraisal contributes to the improvement of school leaders' practices

The existence of an individual school leader appraisal process is a great strength in the Uruguayan education system as this provides the basis for improving the competencies and practices of key actors in the education system. However, to realise the potential of this tool, the OECD review team suggests a number of improvements to the current system.

Appraisal in Uruguay focuses on both accountability and development. The combination of both functions within a single appraisal process may lead to significant differences in the perceptions of the purposes of an appraisal between evaluators and school leaders. It may not be clearly understood that the goal of appraisal must be improvement and, ultimately, contribute to better teaching and learning for all students. This needs to be communicated more clearly. There are also ways in which the two functions can be combined more effectively. For example, school leaders can be appraised over several years through a purely formative appraisal cycle. At the end of the formative appraisal cycle, appraisal can inform summative decisions, such as a school principal's career progression and appointment to schools. In the Northern Territory, Australia, for example, school principals are generally employed on a fixed-term contract of four years. School principals are appraised in a formative process over a period of 18 months that includes coaching conversations between school principals and evaluators after 6 and 12 months. At the end of the formative appraisal period, results of appraisal inform decisions about a school principal's future career, including the contract renewal process.[13] Similar procedures are in place in the Australian state of Victoria and in the Western District in the province of Prince Edward Island, Canada.

To maximise the impact of appraisal, appraisal needs to go beyond employment-related decisions, such as school leaders' appointment to schools as is currently the case. Appraisal

is unlikely to improve school leaders' practices if school leaders do not experience the process as meaningful and useful for improving their practices and behaviours and if appraisal is not linked to professional development. School leader appraisal itself should provide effective and useful feedback that school leaders can use for improving their practices and behaviours. Appraisal procedures should, furthermore, not only take professional development into account as an appraisal aspect as already required by law, but directly feed into the planning of professional development and result in the preparation of an individual development plan that is related to wider school goals developed as part of school development planning. Professional development opportunities also need to be more widely available, however (see recommendation below).

In light of research on effective school leadership and school leader appraisal, appraisal in Uruguay should focus more clearly on the evaluation of practices and behaviours which research has identified as the core of pedagogical leadership than is currently the case and specified in legislation. A focus on pedagogical leadership is essential to encourage school leaders to take direct responsibility for the quality of learning and teaching in their school. However, successful school leadership always depends on a school leader's choice on which areas to spend their time and efforts, and when. The appraisal of a core set of leadership practices that form the basis of pedagogical leadership, therefore, needs to be balanced with scope for local flexibility. Scope for the local selection of appraisal aspects and criteria in line with central guidance that emphasise the importance of pedagogical leadership and/or the collaborative setting of objectives at a local level may help make appraisal manageable and relevant for the work of individual school leaders.

All these elements of the new appraisal approach should be consolidated in a central appraisal framework that guides the systematic appraisal of school leaders. Such a central framework would address some of the concerns around clarity, transparency and objectivity, but also have a number of further benefits. It would help ensure that appraisal is geared towards the improvement of school leadership, that appraisal fulfils the required properties (e.g. validity, reliability, utility and fairness), that school leaders and evaluators have clear expectations, and that appraisal is based on the latest research evidence.

However, school leader appraisal can always only be one element of more comprehensive approaches to develop the school leadership profession (OECD, 2013b, Radinger, 2014).

Develop the school leadership profession so it can provide pedagogical leadership and make a difference to teaching and learning

Research has highlighted the importance of school leadership for teaching and learning, the transformation of low-performing disadvantaged schools as well as successful policy implementation (Pont et al., 2008; Day et al., 2009; Louis et al., 2010; OECD, 2012). This provides a strong rationale for implementing policies that ensure the effective recruitment, development, appraisal and retention of school principals and deputy principals. Considering the potential impact of a relatively small, but central, group of actors in the education system, policies that target school leadership constitute highly cost-effective measures for improving education (Louis et al., 2010). The development of policies that strengthen school leadership and that build the capacity of principals and deputy principals in Uruguay should go hand in hand with wider deliberations about the autonomy of schools which influences the scope that school principals have to shape the operation of their school (see Chapter 2). In this context, it is also worth bearing in mind

the small size of many schools in pre-primary and primary education, which limits school principals' room for leadership.

The CODICEN and the individual councils should develop and implement policies to develop the school leadership profession, as already set out in the Education Law (Article 41). This could involve the development of a comprehensive school leadership development strategy (see Box 4.4 for country examples). As Darling-Hammond and Rothman (2011) argued, policies for the development and support of both teachers and school leaders require a balanced approach including the recruitment of qualified individuals, their preparation, induction, professional development, appraisal, career development and retention over time. Initiatives to develop the school leadership profession should take into account some key aspects of research on school leadership: the overall benefits of pedagogical leadership for the improvement of teaching and learning, the highly contextual nature of school leadership, such as the particular circumstances of small rural schools, and the danger of heroic visions of school leadership (OECD, 2013b). The development of the school leadership profession could also involve the creation of a specific unit responsible for this task within the CODICEN and the individual councils (UNESCO, 2014).

Box 4.4. **Comprehensive school leadership development strategies**

Chile

In Chile, Congress passed the Quality and Equality of Education Law in January 2011 which introduced a wide range of policies to improve the quality of education. While this Law introduced policies related to teachers, it also recognised the importance of school leadership for effective schools through measures that aim to strengthen the professional status of principals in Chile. These include, among others, policies related to the selection and recruitment of principals (*Alta Dirección Pública*), the remuneration of principals (higher salaries according to school size and the number of underprivileged students enrolled), and greater autonomy for principals to organise leadership teams and to replace underperforming teachers. In addition, in 2011, Chile implemented a School Principals of Excellence training programme (*Programa Formación de Directores de Excelencia*). This programme aims to support principals in their work and to develop skills for better school leadership among current and aspiring school principals through the provision of grants and scholarships to participate in high-quality, flexible and pedagogically-centred professional development programmes (e.g. through Master's programmes, Diploma programmes, and internships). Between 2011 and 2012, the Chilean government granted over 1 600 scholarships to fund the needs of teaching professionals keen to develop their school leadership skills. For 2013, 1 000 scholarships were approved.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en; www.formaciondirectores.mineduc.cl.*

Peru

Peru has recognised the importance of school leadership for teaching and learning and taken steps to improve school leadership as part of its reform agenda which also aims to increase decentralisation, participation, transparency and results-oriented management in Peruvian schools. The relevance of school leadership is recognised and promoted in both the teacher reform (*Ley de Reforma Magisterial*) and the strategic multiannual plan for education (*Plan Estratégico Sectorial Multianual de Educación*, PESEM, 2012-16) and has resulted in a comprehensive school leadership development system (*Sistema de Dirección Escolar*) in 2014. As a cornerstone of this new system, Peru has developed professional school leadership

Box 4.4. **Comprehensive school leadership development strategies** *(cont.)*

standards (*Marco de Buen Desempeño del Directivo*) that seek to promote a vision of pedagogical leadership, to revalue the role of the principal and to guide the remaining elements of the school leadership development system (selection, appraisal, and preparation and professional development). The new school leadership system involves a selection process which allows principals to take on their role for a specified period of time and to be reappointed following an appraisal process, a national school leadership development programme (*Programa Nacional de Formación y Capacitación de Directores y Subdirectores*) which entails an induction, specialisation, and further development, and steps to increase the attractiveness of the profession (*Asignaciones e incentivos*) through public recognition, training that leads to qualifications, adequate remuneration, and networking through a new consultative committee of school leaders (*Comité Consultivo de Directores Líderes*). The whole initiative is structured around a vision of schools defined through pedagogical leadership, a democratic and intercultural school culture, and strong links between schools, families and communities.

Source: Ministry of Education of Peru (2014), *Marco de Buen Desempeño del Directivo: Directivos construyendo escuela* [Good Performance Framework for Principals: Principals Making School], *www.minedu.gob.pe/n/xtras/marco_buen_desempeno_directivo.pdf*.

New Zealand

New Zealand has invested considerably in developing school leadership competencies across its education system. New Zealand's school leadership improvement efforts include a research-based model of effective pedagogical leadership, the Kiwi Leadership for Principals framework; the Educational Leadership Practices survey, a formative tool to help school principals analyse their leadership in schools; and a Professional Leadership Plan offering professional development opportunities for school principals at different stages of their career.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en*; *www.educationalleaders.govt.nz*.

Ontario (Canada)

The province of Ontario, Canada, has identified successful school and system leadership as a core element of its efforts to achieve the province's three core educational goals: i) high levels of student achievement; ii) reduced gaps in student achievement; and iii) increased public confidence in publicly-funded education. To this end, Ontario has developed and implemented a comprehensive school and system leadership strategy, the Ontario Leadership Strategy (OLS), to support student achievement and wellbeing by attracting and developing skilled and passionate school and system leaders. As part of this strategy, several tools and support mechanisms (e.g. The Ontario Leadership Framework 2012, and Core Leadership Capacities) have been developed to streamline and focus efforts to support school principals and deputy-principals, to refine leadership skills and to put advanced leadership concepts and practices to work on a daily basis to meet educational targets and achieve concrete results. A province-wide Principal/Deputy-Principal Performance Appraisal (PPA) system focused on goals that promote student achievement and wellbeing constitutes a key component of the OLS. It is designed to support the strategy's two overarching goals: i) to attract competent people to school leadership roles; and ii) to develop the best possible instructional leaders.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en*; *www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/policyfunding/leadership/index.html*.

Develop a shared conception of the school leadership profession that promotes a vision of principals as pedagogical leaders

As the basis of its school leadership development strategy, Uruguay should develop a shared understanding of the school leadership profession. This could include a revision of the regulations of the responsibilities of principals and deputy principals and the development of a related set of professional school leadership standards (*marco de buen liderazgo*) (see Centre of Study for Policies and Practices in Education (CEPPE) [2013] and Ingvarsson et al. [2006] for literature reviews on the features and development of effective school leadership standards, and Box 4.5 for country examples). Such standards would provide a clear and concise statement of the core elements of successful leadership by mapping out what school leaders are expected to know, be able to do, and how. They would also provide a guiding framework that informs all aspects of a school leader's career, from selection and recruitment and initial school leadership preparation and induction programmes, to ongoing in-service training and professional development opportunities, appraisal and career advancement. Considering the limited autonomy of school principals and deputy principals in Uruguay, the revision of regulations and the development of professional school leadership standards also provides an opportunity for a discussion about the role of school leaders in the country's education system and for teaching and learning (e.g. school self-evaluation, internal teacher appraisal, selection of school leadership team, definition of aspects of the curriculum).

Box 4.5. **Examples of professional school leadership standards**

Chile

Chile developed a Framework for Good School Leadership (*Marco para la Buena Dirección*) in 2004 to professionalise the role of the school principal. The framework specifies criteria of effective school leadership that form the basis for professional development and performance appraisal. It aims to support the development of pedagogical leadership to respond to political, economic and social changes (e.g. Chile's national development strategy, decentralisation in education, democratisation, and globalisation). Based on stakeholder consultations and national as well as international experiences in school leadership, the Chilean school leadership model defines successful leadership as practices related to pedagogical, administrative and financial management. Accordingly, the Framework for Good School Leadership defines four areas of practice: i) leadership; ii) managing the curriculum; iii) managing resources; and iv) managing the school climate, which are, then, defined in greater detail. In addition, the Education Quality Assurance Agency (*Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación*), has developed a Good School Management Framework (*Modelo de Calidad de la Gestión Escolar*). These guidelines similarly define successful school management as a set of processes related to leadership, managing the curriculum, school climate and student support, and managing resources, as well as results. The school leadership standards are aligned with the definition of school principal responsibilities in the regulations.

Source: UNESCO (2014), *El liderazgo escolar en América Latina y el Caribe: Un estado del arte en base a ocho sistemas escolares de la región*, *http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002327/232799s.pdf*; OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en*; *www.mineduc.cl/usuarios/convivencia_escolar/doc/201103070155490.MINEDUC.Marco_para_la_Buena_Direccion.pdf*; *www.agenciaeducacion.cl/wp-content/uploads/2013/02/Modelo-de-Calidad-del-Gesti%C3%B3n-Escolar.pdf*.

Box 4.5. **Examples of professional school leadership standards** *(cont.)*

Ecuador

Ecuador developed a set of professional standards for school principals to clarify the role of school leaders. The Law of Intercultural Education (*Ley Orgánica de Educación Intercultural*) envisages that these standards will also form the basis of the performance appraisal of school principals, but this process has not yet been implemented. Like in Chile, the professional standards are based on an analysis of national and international experiences which resulted in the formulation of an initial proposal. Subsequently, the development of professional standards involved a number of school visits to contextualise these experiences and a number of workshops with various stakeholders and national and international experts. The process also included a consultation of stakeholders, academic and technical specialists in the area of school leadership, and civil society. The standards are organised in four dimensions: leadership, educational management, management of human talent and resources, and organisational climate and collaboration. The professional standards, however, go beyond the legal definition of school principals responsibilities which are more narrowly defined.

Source: UNESCO (2014), *El liderazgo escolar en América Latina y el Caribe: Un estado del arte en base a ocho sistemas escolares de la región*, *http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002327/232799s.pdf*, *http://educacion.gob.ec/desempeno-directivo*; *http://educacion.gob.ec/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2013/03/estandares_2012.pdf*.

Victoria, Australia

The state of Victoria, Australia, has developed a Developmental Learning Framework for School Leaders, as a fundamental element of its 2006 Learning to Lead Effective Schools strategy. The framework is intended to strengthen school principals' and teachers' leadership capacity. It can be used in various ways, e.g. for self-assessment, performance and development reviews, school leader selection, coaching and mentoring and leadership induction and planning. The Victoria leadership framework breaks new ground in being applicable to leadership throughout the school at all levels in the school, showing where a teacher or school leader is located on a leadership continuum and what they need to know and be able to do in order to improve. As such, the Victoria framework is based on the core belief that leadership is learnable. The framework describes development within five leadership domains: i) technical; ii) human; iii) educational; iv) symbolic; and v) cultural. Within each of these leadership domains, the framework lays out typically five progressive levels of competence and related capabilities. It defines what effective leadership looks like in practice at each of the different stages of development and growth and provides a clear direction about what it means to develop as a leader.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en*; *www.education.vic.gov.au/Documents/school/principals/profdev/developmentallearn.pdf*.

New Zealand

New Zealand has developed a Kiwi Leadership for Principals (KLP) model that provides a statement of the expectations of school principals. Built on a core conceptualisation of educational leadership and stressing the need of building effective relationships as well as school leaders' attention to their particular contexts, KLP defines Leading Change and Problem-Solving as the two key leadership areas for school principals. The KLP model, further, identifies four areas of practice (culture; pedagogy; system; partnerships and networks) to reach these two objectives. Four educational leadership qualities underpin school leaders' ability to lead their schools: *manaakitanga* (leading with moral purpose), *pono* (having self-belief), *ako* (being a learner), and *awhinatanga* (guiding and supporting). In

Box 4.5. **Examples of professional school leadership standards** *(cont.)*

alignment with this leadership framework, two sets of professional standards for primary and secondary school principals provide a baseline for assessing satisfactory performance within each area of practice (culture; pedagogy; system; partnerships and networks). New Zealand has been in the process of developing two further parts of the overall leadership strategy: Kiwi Leadership for Senior and Middle Leaders and Leadership for Māori-medium Leaders.

Source: OECD (2013b), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en*; *www.educationalleaders.govt.nz/Leadership-development/Key-leadership-documents/Kiwi-leadership-for-principals*.

The revised regulations and new professional standards should reflect the complexity of school leaders' tasks and responsibilities, be informed by research evidence and involve school leaders in their development. Considering the role of pedagogical leadership for teaching and learning, they should have a clear focus on competencies related to this leadership style, but also recognise that successful school leadership is always context-dependent (OECD, 2013b; Pont et al., 2008).

Increase the relative salaries of principals and deputies to recognise their level of responsibility and to make school leadership more attractive

Uruguay needs to re-evaluate the current levels of remuneration of principals and deputy principals to ensure that school leadership is sustainable in the future and that qualified and interested teachers who would like to take on more responsibilities are not deterred from making this step. The existence of a separate salary scale in Uruguay provides an ideal basis to increase salaries for principals and deputy principals relative to teachers and to make compensation competitive with other occupations in the public and the private sector. Principals and deputy principals should earn a salary sufficiently greater than teachers' salaries to compensate for their additional workload, exposure and responsibilities. Salaries also need to distinguish adequately between principals and deputy principals to make it attractive for deputy principals to take on principalship. The OECD review team also suggests to review the situation of school leadership in disadvantaged contexts and to introduce salary increments for principals and deputy principals working in disadvantaged schools, if necessary, particularly in general and technical-professional secondary education where no such incentives exist at present (Pont et al., 2008). In Chile, for instance, school leadership responsibilities involve a bonus of 25%-200% of the basic minimum salary for teachers, depending on the size of the school and the percentage of vulnerable students of low socio-economic background (UNESCO, 2014).

Develop and implement a coherent initial school leader preparation course and create opportunities for further professional learning

Uruguay has a good basis for developing the school leadership profession as initial training and preparation is already mandatory for principals before taking part in school leader exams and before taking on a school leadership role. Preparation is essential as a teaching background alone does not ensure that candidates have the competencies to lead a school. Initial preparation can also increase the attractiveness of school leadership and contribute to school leaders' job satisfaction (Pont et al., 2008).

However, the OECD review team noted a concern that the quality of school leader preparation could be improved and be made more systematic. The development of a systematic school leadership preparation course that is not geared towards the passing of the school leader exam, but towards the future school leadership role, would be one step to improve current school leader training. Going beyond the horizon of the school leader exam would also provide an opportunity to strengthen the relevance of the practical part of the school leadership course. The new school leadership course should seek to develop the competencies set out in the new professional school leadership standards so school leadership development is consistent and targeted at the development of pedagogical leadership. Both initial teacher education and teacher professional development should provide a strong grounding for teachers to take on the role of school leaders (*maestro director*) in rural schools. Box 4.6 provides two examples of innovative school leadership development initiatives in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Box 4.6. **School leadership development in Latin America and the Caribbean**

Colombia

In 2010, the Business Leaders Foundation for Education in Colombia (*Fundación Empresarios por la Educación de Colombia*) started the "Guiding transformational leaders" programme (*Rectores Líderes Transformadores*), which is based on a partnership of the business and the public sectors (Ministry of National Education and Education Secretariat) and academia (universities, education institutions, education experts). The programme is a common commitment to strengthen the leadership of school principals who are taken to be the basis for achieving transformations in education that have a positive impact on the quality of education and the learning of children and youth in the country. The central objective of the training programme is to strengthen school principals' competencies in pedagogical administrative and community leadership and management, so that principals can be transformational leaders that influence student learning and the life of the school community.

The programme is built around the school principal as the main focus and agent, but also awareness that the support of others is needed to achieve change in schools and that education is the responsibility of everyone in the school community. The training programme, therefore, not only involves the school principal, but all members of the school leadership team who follow the principal on his training in different forms of participation.

The programme comprises 4 modules split into 2 formats: intensive training (4 weeks classroom training) and continuous training (36 weeks of support in the educational institution). Training includes a set of pedagogical formats that are offered through a team of human resource development and education professionals: practical experiences, discussions with experts and invited guests, exchange of learning and experiences; talks, discussion groups and case studies, coaching strategies (individually, through shadowing, and in groups), advice and counselling in specific situations, the use of ICT through the School Leadership Network (*Red de Liderazgo Escolar*).

After ten months of training, the school principal and his or her school prepare a plan and concrete actions to transform the school. This is the starting point for a very important phase of the project in which the school principal works together with his team over two years to motivate, encourage, accompany and support the innovative processes and projects set out initially in the school development plan.

Box 4.6. **School leadership development in Latin America and the Caribbean** *(cont.)*

The programme has strong links with the regions and is aligned with central policies as well as local education strategies through a working agreement. The programme currently operates in one-third of the country and aims to cover all related territorial entities.

Source: UNESCO (2014), *El liderazgo escolar en América Latina y el Caribe: Un estado del arte en base a ocho sistemas escolares de la región*, *http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002327/232799s.pdf*; *http://fundacionexe.org.co/?page_id=684*.

Dominican Republic

In September 2011, the Dominican Republic established a Principal School for Quality in Education (*Escuela de Directores para la Calidad Educativa*). The new institution is linked to a teacher education institution (*Instituto Superior de Formación Docente Salomé Ureña*, ISFODOSU). The school aims to promote excellence in school leadership through training to improve education at all levels of the education system. To achieve its role and objective, the Principal School develops and defines plans and strategies for professional development in the following areas:

- Diagnostics in education, educational micro-planning and strategic management for the development of school development plans, school improvement plans, and curriculum development plans, and development of frameworks of educational practice.
- Strategies for monitoring, supervision, and evaluation of plans and projects implemented in schools.
- Pedagogical leadership, quality management and teamwork, focusing on management by results.
- Participation, decentralisation and institutional and community development.
- Education in values and values of education.
- The use of the results of research, evaluation and inquiry for continuous improvement and change processes.
- The use of information technologies in school management.
- Resource management and administration.
- Knowledge and implementation of legislation and educational regulations.

The Principal School uses a number of different strategies to build school principals' capacity in these areas, from training in modules that combine classroom presence with virtual training, and the development of school leadership networks (*Entre Directores*), regular theoretical training activities, mentorship, internships and practical training. The current programme lasts for seven months and involves one week of training every two months in which principals attend full-time to study different modules taught by national and international experts. This experience is followed up directly in schools with mentoring and individual support.

Source: UNESCO (2014), *El Liderazgo Escolar en América Latina y el Caribe: Un Estado del Arte en Base a Ocho Sistemas Escolares de la Region* [School Leadership in Latin America and the Caribbean: The State of the Art on the Basis of Eight School Systems of the Region], *http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002327/232799s.pdf*; *www.escueladedirectores.edu.do*.

Leadership development in Uruguay is also not yet seen from a perspective of continuous learning: there is no induction process, there are no opportunities for professional development and there are no requirements for participation in professional development. Considering that an initial preparation programme is in place, professional

development should be provided periodically to give school leaders the opportunity to develop new competencies and to learn about innovative approaches and practices in their profession. Provision should reflect the needs and challenges of particular contexts, such as a disadvantaged student intake (e.g. in *Aprender* schools), work in small rural primary or large urban schools, and the needs of Practice schools that are linked with teacher education. To make the most of Uruguay's investment in the use of ICT in schools and classrooms through the CEIBAL plan, school leaders should be trained further in the guidance that they can provide to teachers in this area. As programme evaluations suggest, ICT could be used in better ways to support teaching and learning. Teachers that fulfil school leadership roles only temporarily due to a lack of candidates should have the opportunity to receive training to cope with their role. Professional development needs should be identified and followed-up through the school leader appraisal process (Pont et al., 2008, OECD, 2013b).

Broaden the criteria used for the recruitment of school leaders

The current recruitment and selection process of school principals and deputy principals is solely based on school principals' and deputy principals' individual choice of school and their ranking in the hierarchy of school leaders that is determined by their results in the school leader exam, seniority, attendance and results of individual appraisal. While this ensures objectivity and prevents political appointments, and is similar to practices in other Latin American countries (UNESCO, 2014), it does not allow for a strategic management and placement of principals and deputy principals that also reflects the needs of a particular school.

An interview process that uses a wide range of tools and procedures to assess candidates and involves local stakeholders would ensure that recruitment does not take place without due consideration to the local context (Pont et al., 2008). The interview panel could involves the inspection, the school community (e.g. through the participation council), the Departmental Co-ordinating Commission and peer school principals or deputies. The panel could interview all interested candidates and provide a judgment on the candidates' abilities which could complement the central criteria. The professional school leadership standards should guide the interview process and the selection could involve the preparation and presentation of a school development project. Participants in the selection panel would need training and preparation as well as guidelines and tools for this new task. In addition, the school leader exam part of the selection process should be organised at a regular basis to avoid unnecessary instability in schools. In Ceará, Brazil, for example, the state government provides municipalities with a central selection process of school leaders, but municipalities are free to define their own selection process if they wish. The central selection process is managed by the Federal University of Ceará and involves: i) a multiple choice exam to test reading comprehension, logical reasoning, knowledge of education policy and leadership in Brazil and Ceará; ii) submission of documentation proving eligibility, experience, and participation in specialisation courses. Successful applicants join a register of leaders and can participate in competitions for specific leadership positions (e.g. school co-ordinator). Candidates interested in principalship are required to take part in a school leader course of 40 hours that concludes with an exam. As a last step, candidates that reach a minimum classification in the previous steps take part in a local selection process by the school community in which all students above age 12, parents, teachers and local administrators participate (UNESCO, 2014).

Redefine the role of teacher leaders to create further opportunities for teacher leadership and enable school principals to build their leadership team

While leadership in schools has traditionally referred to individual formal roles and positions, such as the school principal and the deputy school principal, school leadership does not necessarily reside in the authority of individuals. Rather, leadership as intentional influence on activities and relationships that is based on goals and a sense of direction is an organisational quality and inherently distributed within schools (Bennett et al., 2003, Spillane et al., 2004). As research and policy have increasingly recognised school leadership can also be distributed within schools in more formal and co-ordinated ways and such distribution of leadership responsibilities, including to teachers and teams, can contribute to greater overall leadership capacity in schools (see Box 4.7 for an example). Distributing leadership can, furthermore, be one way to develop teachers' leadership skills and to

Box 4.7. **Teacher leadership: the example of Austria**

In Austria, the school reform initiative *Neue Mittelschule* (NMS) to transform lower secondary education also involved the creation of a new role of teacher leaders (*Lerndesigners*) with specific expertise in areas of curriculum and instructional development related to the reform goals of equity and excellence. As part of this initiative, each school designates a teacher to be the *Lerndesigner* who acts as change agents in a shared leadership dynamic with school principals and other teacher leaders, such as subject co-ordinators and school development teams. As legislation and teacher statutes do not yet foresee an official function of teacher leaders, *Lerndesigners* create their own role in the context of their school. The effectiveness of *Lerndesigners* as change agents depends to a significant degree on the culture and leadership in their schools.

Lerndesigners are trained and qualified for their role and attend national and regional workshops and local networking events. A two-year national qualification programme enables teacher leaders to acquire theoretical and practical insights in areas of expertise related to instructional quality, to develop the knowledge and skills to be effective teacher leaders and to network with one another. This programme also contributes significantly to their profile and professional identity. It comprises six development areas: mindfulness of learning, diversity, competence orientation, backwards design curriculum development, differentiated instruction and assessment. *Lerndesigners* earn a certificate worth 12 college credits relevant for further study towards a master's degree. The programme consists of national and regional symposia for networking and qualification purposes as well as a self-study component which is co-ordinated on line and includes practice-based tasks for exploration in school-based professional learning communities. A virtual networking and learning space is also available to connect *Lerndesigners* across generations, to promote exchange, learning and development, and to foster a professional identity. To foster school networks and communities of practice and to support *Lerndesigners*, federal education authorities established a National Centre for Learning Schools.

Lerndesigners are not alone, but as part of the educational reform several other teacher leadership roles have emerged. These include contact persons or co-ordinators with specific agendas required by the Ministry (e-learning, gender issues, culture and arts programming, standards and school quality), and school development team members and co-ordinators created at the school level.

Source: Westfall-Greiter, T. et al. (2013), "Approaches to learning leadership development in different school systems" in *Leadership for 21st Century Learning*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264205406-en*; *www.neuemittelschule.at/*.

develop the school principals of tomorrow. However, research about the best ways in which leadership can be distributed to improve teaching and learning is still scarce and the distribution of leadership creates its own challenges and requires support for school principals (Mulford, 2008; Harris and Spillane, 2008; Pont et al., 2008).

Uruguay has some opportunities for teacher leadership through teacher leader positions (*docentes adscriptos*) and these teacher leaders seem to be greatly valued in schools, as the OECD review team heard during its country visit. However, the role of teacher leaders as they are now conceived focuses predominantly on administrative support and some pedagogical support. While these are important aspects, teacher leaders could take on different roles related to the operation of schools, such as student assessment, the guidance of teachers and the co-ordination of teachers' work within specific subject groups, and the organisation of school self-evaluation processes. The role of teacher leaders should be redefined to include such broader responsibilities for the operation of the school. This could also provide a precondition to give schools greater autonomy in the long run (see Chapter 2). The redefinition of teacher leader roles could be part of the development of a distinct teacher career structure which would provide greater recognition and rewards for teacher leaders (see Chapter 5). Initial teacher education and professional development should ensure that teachers feel ready to take on such additional roles and responsibilities (see Chapter 5).

School principals also need to be prepared to recognise the importance of distributed leadership, to manage their leadership team effectively, and to create informal opportunities for teachers to take on leadership beyond formal roles. All elements of the school leadership employment and career framework, including the professional standards, preparation and training, and individual appraisal, need to reinforce the concept of distributed leadership and develop school principals' competencies in this regard (OECD, 2013b, Pont et al., 2008). If the recruitment process of teachers is reorganised in the future (see Chapter 5), school principals could also be given a greater role in decisions about the teacher leader roles that are needed in their school and who should fulfil them, possibly in co-ordination with the inspection that has an external perspective about a teacher's work and leadership potential. Regardless of the selection of teacher leaders, the distribution of teacher leader positions needs to be targeted at disadvantaged contexts in which school leadership can make the greatest difference.

Enable learning support staff to make a difference to teaching and learning and change the culture of year repetition in schools

Improvements to the challenges of year repetition and school dropout, which affect not only disadvantaged students, but students of all backgrounds, will depend on more systematic changes to the Uruguayan education system that increase the relevance of education for children and young people, raise aspirations, and improve the quality of teaching. This includes issues such the fragmentation of the education system into distinct subsystems which results in a lack of co-ordination and alignment of curricula, for example, and the challenging employment conditions for teachers, particularly in secondary education, which create a lack of stability and limit collaboration, among others (see Chapters 2 and 5).

However, if well prepared and equipped with the necessary time for co-ordination and planning, learning support staff can also play an important role in improving teaching and learning and in reducing year repetition and dropout by providing additional support for students that fall behind (Masdeu, 2015; OECD, 2012). In Uruguay, the impact that support staff can have depends greatly on the overall employment framework and working

conditions of teachers, which limit time for collaboration and planning. These should be changed so that teachers can collaborate more and can be more present and involved in schools (see Chapter 5). Schools and teachers, including learning support staff, also need more preparation, guidance and support in developing strategies and interventions to prevent early school leaving, in identifying additional learning needs as early as possible (e.g. through the use of formative assessment) and in providing the necessary instructional and emotional support to struggling students.

As schools have no autonomy over decisions about the recruitment of learning support staff, which is managed centrally or linked to particular programmes, the allocation of learning support staff does not necessarily meet all needs of schools in a timely manner. While it will be difficult to change the recruitment process of teachers, including for support staff, and while school principals are not yet prepared for taking on more responsibilities for staff recruitment, principals should have a greater role in the identification of support needs (e.g. through the inspection or regional campuses in the case of technical-professional education). The Technical and Professional Education Council should evaluate the use of multidisciplinary teams and if these meet the needs of learning support staff in schools or if any changes to the current model are needed.

The culture of year repetition in schools also needs to change. As already pointed out, teachers do not perceive year repetition as a tool that is employed too often. Year repetition, however, is costly, both for individuals and for society as a whole, widens inequities, stigmatises and demotivates students, and does not benefit students in terms of their long-term learning outcomes. Educational authorities, such as inspectors, should raise school principals' and teachers' awareness of the consequences of year repetition and encourage them in using alternative strategies, such as conditional progression to the following year, the use of comprehensive and flexible criteria to determine if year repetition is necessary, a limit of repetition to subjects or modules rather than the entire year, or a limit in the number of times and years in which students can repeat a year. Personnel evaluation should also pay attention to year repetition practices and hold school principals and teachers accountable for high repetition rates (OECD, 2012). Of course, a more meaningful reduction of year repetition involves further supporting those with learning difficulties in the classroom. One way is to provide extra teaching time for students who fall behind and adapt teaching to their needs. This can build on existing programmes such as the Teacher + Teacher (*Maestros más Maestros*) Programme and the Tutorials Project (*Liceos con tutorías y profesor coordinador pedagógico*). There can also be short-term, intensive interventions of one-on-one lessons for underperforming students. This can be organised with learning support staff. The objective of recovery lessons or remediation is to promote accelerated learning so that students catch up to their peers, close the achievement gap as quickly as possible, and continue to learn independently. Another example of intervention is the presence of learning support staff in the classroom to support the students who fell behind. Approaches also include school prevention with the early identification of learning difficulties and programmes designed in partnership with parents (see Field et al., 2007).

Provide schools with more opportunities to work together and to share good practices, particularly in secondary education, and to build strong links with non-formal education initiatives

School leadership can be a lonely role and school leaders can face feelings of professional isolation. It is, therefore, essential that school leaders have sufficient sources

of external feedback and support. This is particularly the case for new school leaders and for school leaders in challenging contexts. Opportunities for school leaders to learn from each other and to share good practices with school leaders from other schools can provide such a source of feedback. Peer learning and collaboration can also be instrumental in spreading promising practices and approaches and in improving teaching and learning in all schools (OECD, 2013b; OECD, 2012; OECD/SSAT, 2008; Pont et al., 2008).

While there are some practices of collaboration in Uruguay, particularly in pre-primary and primary education, and through the common use of resources in some schools, there is much potential to further facilitate peer learning and collaboration between schools. The importance of peer learning and collaboration should be a central element of the professional school leadership standards. Various models and structures can be used to promote peer learning and collaboration in practice. Coaching programmes that pair new and experienced school principals can be one way to increase support and to facilitate school principals' start in their new role. School networks that build on individual school leaders' commitment, that involve regular and constructive communication, and that are supported through the educational administration, can foster improvement over time at a larger scale. Networks can take different forms, from relatively formal structures and groups to more voluntary networks or system leader roles (OECD, 2012). Personnel appraisal that involves peer-evaluators and school self-evaluation that involves critical friends can also provide opportunities for school leaders to learn from each other. School leaders, however, need to be prepared and trained for such roles (OECD, 2013b).

In Uruguay, policy makers should take advantage of the current implementation of Departmental Co-ordinating Commissions for Education (*Comisiónes Coordinadoras Departamentales de la Educación*) and of regional campuses in technical-professional education to develop school networking and collaboration in a more systematic manner. The collaboration between formal and non-formal education should also be improved (e.g. between community classrooms and secondary schools, and participation of the education administration in the inter-institutional social policy roundtables) to increase the impact of these initiatives to reintegrate out-of-school youth in the education system.

Foster the successful implementation of participation councils, support schools to get parents involved, and strengthen student voice

Participation councils constitute a promising initiative to improve the involvement of parents and students in the operation of schools. However, the OECD review team gained the impression that the implementation of participation councils has so far been slow. Schools should, therefore, receive greater support in establishing participation councils and in involving them in the operation of the school. The impact that participation councils can have on schools depends on how their role is defined, how they are involved in practice, and if they have the capacity to fulfil their role. Following legislation, participation councils have a number of meaningful ways to be involved in school development, e.g. through input into school projects and self-evaluation. The members of participation councils should receive more guidance, training and support on their responsibilities, rights and duties so they can fulfil their role effectively. School leaders should also receive guidance and information on how to involve participation councils, e.g. in self-evaluation, and this responsibility should be clearly specified in the professional school leadership standards. It should also form part of individual school leader appraisal processes.

While some promising initiatives are already in place (e.g. the Community Teachers Programme), schools should be supported further in getting parents involved, particularly in urban and disadvantaged contexts where this is more challenging. This could involve more guidance on meaningful reporting and communication to parents. Some countries, for example, provide schools with a template for reporting student achievement in relation to learning objectives that includes details on student progress, areas of strengths and areas of concern, and recommendations for further learning. Student achievement and behaviour, however, needs to be communicated in a balanced way, particularly for children of parents who are less familiar with the working of schools. Schools should also be encouraged to provide clear guidelines on what is expected from parents and how parents can help their children learn (e.g. conveying messages about the value of homework and of the importance of devoting sufficient time to homework, finding an appropriate place to study, helping their children with assignments, but not completing them). Better employment and working conditions for teachers that allow teachers to spend more time in school and to be available for communication with parents could also help strengthen parental involvement in education (see Chapter 5). In addition, there is room for collecting and spreading innovative local practices of how schools involve parents, e.g. through the inspection or through school networks.

Students also have important feedback to give to their schools and students can play a critical role to determine how schools and classrooms can be improved, even if they need support to learn how to provide powerful feedback (Pekrul and Levin, 2007; Rudduck, 2007; Smyth, 2007). In Uruguay, while legislation specifies that students should be at the centre of teaching and learning and be involved in their education, there is room to improve student participation. Schools should be encouraged to foster the development of student councils, but also to seek feedback from students (e.g. through surveys). Individual teachers should also recognise that students can give valuable feedback on their teaching, even if it cannot replace relevant professional feedback, advice and support by teaching experts. Student feedback should focus on teaching practice rather than the teacher as an individual; include the students' own self- and peer-assessment to allow for analysis of classroom interactions; feature questions on teaching approaches that are known to be relevant for student learning; include information on the general framework for teaching such as materials and physical conditions as well; and be analysed by the students and teacher together with a view to improve the classroom environment and teaching and learning processes (OECD, 2013b). Support for the development of a national student organisation that provides support and guidance to students in schools could be one way to increase student voice.

Notes

1. In technical-professional secondary education, the distribution of these funds is the responsibility of the CETP, but it is planned that regional campuses take on this responsibility in the future.
2. The organisation of the inspection was undergoing changes at the time of the review visit following the implementation of regional campuses.
3. For details, see *www.anep.edu.uy/transito*.
4. For details, see *www.ces.edu.uy/ces/images/stories/2014/abril2014/plan%20experimental.pdf*.
5. For more information, see *www.mides.gub.uy/innovaportal/v/14472/3/innova.front/formacion_profesional_basica_-_experiencias_comunitarias*.
6. For details, see *http://educacion.mec.gub.uy/innovaportal/v/1956/5/mecweb/pnet---cecap?contid=1690&3colid=584*.

7. For details, see *www.utu.edu.uy/utu/resoluciones/2014/diciembre/res-2763-14_exp-7063-14.pdf*.
8. For details, see *www.inju.gub.uy/innovaportal/v/13305/5/innova.front/+centro*.
9. In *Aprender* schools, teachers receive a salary supplement for participation in teacher meetings (*salas docentes*) that take place on a monthly basis at a total of eight per year, on average. In full-time schools, teachers have 37.5 hours of direct instruction and 2.5 hours of planning and co-ordination per week.
10. According to the latest teacher census (2007), 79% of primary school teachers worked in one school, but only 34% and 36% of teachers in general and technical-professional secondary education did so. The majority of teachers in these two subsystems worked in two or three schools.
11. Data from PISA 2012 suggest that schools use local student assessments to monitor their progress from year to year and to identify aspects of instruction or the curriculum that could be improved. In Uruguay, 87.5% of students were in a school whose principal reported that assessments are used for the first purpose (OECD average: 81.2%, Argentina: 73.9%, Brazil: 97.0%, Chile: 93.6%), 86.3% of students were in a school whose principal reported that assessments are used for the second purpose (OECD average: 80.3%, Argentina: 94.0%, Brazil: 88.7%, Chile: 91.7%) (OECD, 2013a, Table IV.30).
12. In pre-primary and primary education, schools typically organise workshops (e.g. on crafts, sexual education), festivals, and events to showcase students' work, and invite parents to visit the classrooms. In technical-professional education, schools organise days to showcase students' projects and achievements over the year. Schools at all levels of the education system can also invite parents to parent-teacher conferences and assemblies. Some schools may establish channels to communicate with parents and the community about life in their school through reports, newsletters and blogs, for example (INEEd, 2015).
13. For details, see *www.education.nt.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0005/15773/SchoolAPIF.pdf*.

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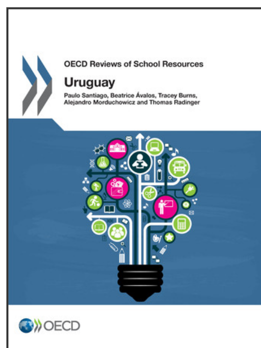

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