Comparative Analysis of Intercultural Education from the Perspective of Management Teams. The Case of Spain and France

Verónica Sevillano-Monje[1], Ángela Martín-Gutiérrez[1,2] and Mario León-Sánchez[1]
[1]University of Seville, Faculty of Education Sciences
[2]University of La Rioja, Faculty of Education

Abstract

The right to education for all people has been recognised worldwide for decades. Because of this, educational organisations and management teams, through pedagogical leadership, must work towards the construction of inclusive and intercultural schools that generate a plural, collaborative, and democratic space. Therefore, this research aims to analyse the importance of the role of management teams in the promotion of intercultural education in schools in Spain and France. To achieve the stated objective, a documentary analysis of the educational legislation of reference and international reports was carried out. The following indicators were compared: leadership of the management team, collaborative culture, self-efficacy, innovation, and educational practices related to cultural diversity. High rates of innovation and internal collaborative culture are evident in both countries. However, the data show that the management teams do not promote relations with the environment. Therefore, there is a need for better and continuous training of management and teaching staff in the promotion of equity and cultural diversity. In addition, the lack of training in pedagogical leadership within the French management team is highlighted. Following the results obtained, the transformation of schools requires enabling the creation of a collaborative culture that involves the educational community and the environment. To this end, it is necessary to provide initial and continuous training for the management team and teachers in intercultural competencies.

Key words: documentary analysis; intercultural education; management teams; Pedagogical leadership.

Introduction

Over the past 30 years, there has been a succession of international conventions and agreements focused on promoting the inclusion of people with functional diversity (Shah & Priestley, 2011). Since the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, equal opportunities in the economic, social, educational, and employment spheres have been promoted. In particular, the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) was instrumental in advancing the concept of inclusive learning environments for people with disabilities. The Conference adopted a new Framework for Action, the guiding principle of which was that regular schools had an obligation to serve all students, regardless of their physical, cognitive, social, emotional, linguistic, or other diversities (UNESCO, 1994). International instruments promoted by the United Nations have established that inclusion in a regular educational environment represents a fundamental right. However, in the context of the European Union, each state is responsible for designing and provision of educational services. The standards outlined in international initiatives have not been incorporated into the legal systems of many EU countries (Schoonheim & Ruebain, 2005). According to Schoonheim and Ruebain (2005), the right to participation in inclusive and intercultural learning environments has often been interpreted narrowly, i.e. in terms of access to existing facilities rather than facilitating access to an environment designed to meet the social and learning needs of learners. Against this background, what can education professionals do to promote inclusion and interculturality in educational institutions?

The role of education professionals and management teams in inclusion

Within the educational centre, professionals dedicated to education have a privileged position to transmit values and social competencies based on inclusion and respect for cultural diversity to their students (Marín, 2019). These professionals, due to their proximity to students, can understand the daily reality that occurs in the classroom, as well as the conflicts that could arise within the classroom due to its cultural diversity (Hugo, 2020). Furthermore, they can be mediators between the needs of students, their families, and society (Barranco, 2020; Vargas et al., 2018).

At this point, it is necessary to highlight that the inclusion of students from minority cultures will depend fundamentally on the teachers' awareness of their influence on the students. This implies a serious and rigorous commitment to education developed in contexts, both as a human being and as a professional, considering their values and attitudes (Nieto et al., 2017).

However, for there to be adequate awareness and sensitization on the part of teachers towards the cultural differences of their students, it is necessary to provide them with adequate training to favour the personal growth of all students (Leiva, 2012). Along these lines, Ipiña (2019) reflects on the characteristics that an intercultural education professional should have. According to this author, professionals must, on the one

hand, have attitudes of commitment to diversity, active tolerance, and appreciation of what is different, as well as openness to the world. On the other hand, they must have attitudes of professional competence and constant training, a capacity for research and improvement based on reflection, and mastery of the languages of their learners, who potentially have opposite attitudes.

However, it is not only teachers who are involved in these processes but also school leaders as drivers of inclusion for all students. Numerous research studies show that the democratic or distributed leadership of principals in the inclusive transformation of schools is crucial (Brown et al., 2017; DeMatthews et al., 2020; Martínez-Valdivia et al., 2018; Moral et al., 2018; Rodríguez et al., 2020; Szeto, 2020).

Firstly, this research highlights the promotion of teamwork among all faculty and collaborative learning to review and develop curricula adapted to students (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011; Szeto, 2020; Martínez-Valdivia et al., 2018); stimulating the professional development of all staff (Moral et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2017); encouraging democratic participation in all activities (Santamaría and Santamaría, 2016; Silva et al., 2017); as well as setting agreed and achievable goals (Moral et al., 2018; Rodríguez et al., 2020). These action strategies involve leadership teams also guiding the school with a vision shared by all (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011; Moral et al., 2018; Rodríguez et al., 2020), building school capacity for improvement (Rodríguez et al., 2020), and restructuring school resources for social justice (DeMatthews et al., 2020).

For students, the management team has the role of promoting a fair and inclusive school culture—one that embraces diversity and plurality—and perceives students as protagonists, thus ensuring access to participation and learning for all and empowering students (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011; Ezzani, 2019; Martínez-Valdivia et al., 2018; Moral et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2017; Rodríguez et al., 2020).

However, the leadership team may face several challenges in carrying out its work, such as resistance to change from teachers, families, and the community (DeMatthews et al., 2020). For this reason, management must involve all educational stakeholders (Santamaría and Santamaría, 2016), establish mutual understanding (Szeto, 2020), and receive critical feedback from the entire educational community for school improvement (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011; DeMatthews et al., 2020; Martínez-Valdivia et al., 2018).

In this way, the management team also has the task of strengthening the relationship with families, on the one hand, by linking them with actors and organisations and, on the other hand, by establishing communication and collaboration networks (Ezzani, 2019; Flores & Kyere, 2020; Moral et al., 2018; Rodríguez et al., 2020). Similarly, it is essential to know the resources and needs of families (Flores & Kyere, 2020) and to be aware of the ethnic and linguistic backgrounds of minority students in their schools (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011). According to Hamm (2017), the families of these students need to be assured that their voices and concerns are heard, so parents and minority community leaders are best placed to provide this knowledge to principals. Intercultural mediators can also play an essential role in the life of schools and the demands of the educational community (Rodorigo et al., 2018) for the inclusion of minority students.

Finally, transforming schools for inclusion involves constant reflection and innovation as part of a continuous cycle of improvement (Silva et al., 2017).

Methodology

The general objective of this study is to analyse the importance of the role of management teams in the promotion of intercultural education in schools in Spain and France. To achieve this purpose, the documentary analysis technique "consisting of examining already written documents covering a wide range of modalities" (Bisquerra, 2014, p. 349) is used. Specifically, educational policies and official documents at the national and international levels in both countries are reviewed to assess the role of management teams in intercultural education.

The legislation analysed is the *Ley Orgánica 8/2013, de 9 de diciembre, para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa* (hereafter LOMCE) in the Spanish context and the *Loi N°2013-595 du 8 juillet 2013 d'orientation et de programmation pour la refondation de l'école de la République* (hereafter LOI) in the French context. A comparison of educational legislation is made around the indicators of inclusion, educational quality, equity, collaboration, religiosity, the roles of the management team, and educational evaluation. In addition, Volumes I and II of the TALIS 2018 -*Teaching and Learning International Survey*- (OECD, 2020a, 2020b) are reviewed based on the following indicators: leadership (initial training, professional development needs and activities), collaborative culture (internal and external relations), self-efficacy, innovation, and educational practices related to cultural diversity.

The motivation for the choice of the laws analysed in this paper responds to the pressure generated in the European context by the adaptation of national policies to the results achieved in the PISA 2012 (Programme for International Student Assessment) report. Specifically, the data from Student Knowledge and Skills: Student Performance in Mathematics, Reading Comprehension, and Science (Volume I) prompted the *Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Jeunesse* (MEN) to propose an educational reform. The implementation of LOI N°2013-595 understands the seriousness of the situation and proposes to "rebuild the school" to reduce the growing school inequalities. Along the same lines, the Spanish context also echoes the results obtained in PISA by proposing, through the LOMCE (2013), the search to improve the quality of education and its position in international rankings and educational standards in general.

Therefore, these laws are taken as elements to be analysed for the following reasons: a) in the Spanish context, the LOMCE represented a new way of understanding education and the role of schools compared to its predecessor, and the effects produced by its application began to become evident years later, the period from which the data are taken (also considering that it is still partially in force and that the future education law is based on some of its parts); and b) in the French context, reforms are scarce and the aforementioned law represents a change to the educational regulations developed almost without change for decades.

Results
Legislative comparison in terms of inclusion and interculturality

As a result of the different educational trends in the two countries, there are many differences in their education systems, with Spain decentralised and France centralised. Educational inspection is also different: while in Spain it is unified and general, in France there are specialised and differentiated inspection bodies. Concerning the teacher training plan, intervention in Spain is open and secondary, whereas in France it is active and has a regulated content. Participation in teacher training activities in Spain depends on the organisation and functioning of the school itself. In contrast, the training activities of French teachers depend on the curricular subjects they teach at school. Finally, the school inspectorate in Spain has a passive stance on teacher appraisal, and the development of the teaching career is based on six-year periods, in contrast to France, where the school inspectorate's stance on teacher appraisal is active and the development of the teaching career is based on the evaluation.

Contemporary dissatisfaction with the education system provoked the elected party, after the 2011 general elections in Spain, to try to put an end to more than 40 years of educational reforms in line with the objectives set out in the Europe 2020 Strategy. The French context is experiencing a similar situation of tension that is forcing the MEN to promote an educational reform that is highly controversial on a social level. This is why the LOMCE (2013) and the LOI (2013) are compared. In addition to being of similar temporalities, both propose a Copernican turn in education in both countries; in the case of the Spanish context, it did not achieve real applicability or transferability (see Table 1).

Table 1

Comparative analysis of Spanish and French legislation

INDICATOR	SPAIN - LOMCE, 2013	FRANCE - LOIR, 2013
Educational principles	- All students have talent. - The system must have mechanisms in place to recognise and enhance them. - Mercantilism and economist conception of education. - Competitiveness versus equity. - International evaluation. - Centralisation. - Privatisation and restriction of the participation of the education community.	- Reducing inequalities and promotingsuccess for all. - Youth and education are the nation'spriorities. - The concept of ''benevolence'' is introduced to adapt the European rankings (OECD and European Union). - It strengthens the decision-making capacity of the territories (decentralisation). - Educational reinforcement in primary education and teacher training. - Increased burden of ethical and cultural values.

INDICATOR	SPAIN - LOMCE, 2013	FRANCE - LOIR, 2013
Inclusion-related objectives	• Placing the learner at the centre of education and education as the engine that promotes the well-beingof a country. • Make education the main instrumentof social mobility. • Promote education based on equality, equity, and justice. • Strengthen competency-basedlearning and lifelong learning. • Combat high early school drop-outrates and low standards. • Align objectives with the EU's Horizon 2020 strategy. • Facilitate access to pathways according to skills and options for personal and professional development. • Promote a culture of effort and excellence.	• Ensure that all pupils master basic skills in French and mathematics by the end ofage 6 and master the fundamental tools of knowledge by the end of primary school. • Reduce the gap in the mastery of competencies at the end of 9 years between pupils in priority education andthose in non-priority education. • Halve the proportion of pupils leaving school without qualifications and achieve mastery of the common core of knowledge, skills, and culture by the endof compulsory education. • Reaffirm the objectives of bringing morethan 80 % of an age group to the baccalaureate and 50 % of an age group to a higher education diploma.
Educational quality	• Assessable learning standards. (European framework).	• Redesigning initial and continuing training in the teaching and education professions.
Equity	• Full development of the personality. • Equal rights and opportunities. • Universal access to education.	• Civic instruction. • Civic education. • Civic, legal and social education.
Collaboration	• Networking between schools for cultural or academic purposes.	• Educational success and co-education with parents.

Legislative comparison in terms of inclusion and interculturality

We found many differences in the initial training of school leaders between Spain and France. As can be seen in Figure 1, the most frequent training among the Spanish management team is on pedagogical leadership. However, in France, such training does not exist. Nevertheless, school leaders in both countries receive initial training on student behaviour and classroom management, both in primary education (58 % in both countries) and in secondary education (40 % in Spain and 55 % in France). The training that Spanish and French school leaders receive least often is in a multilingual environment.
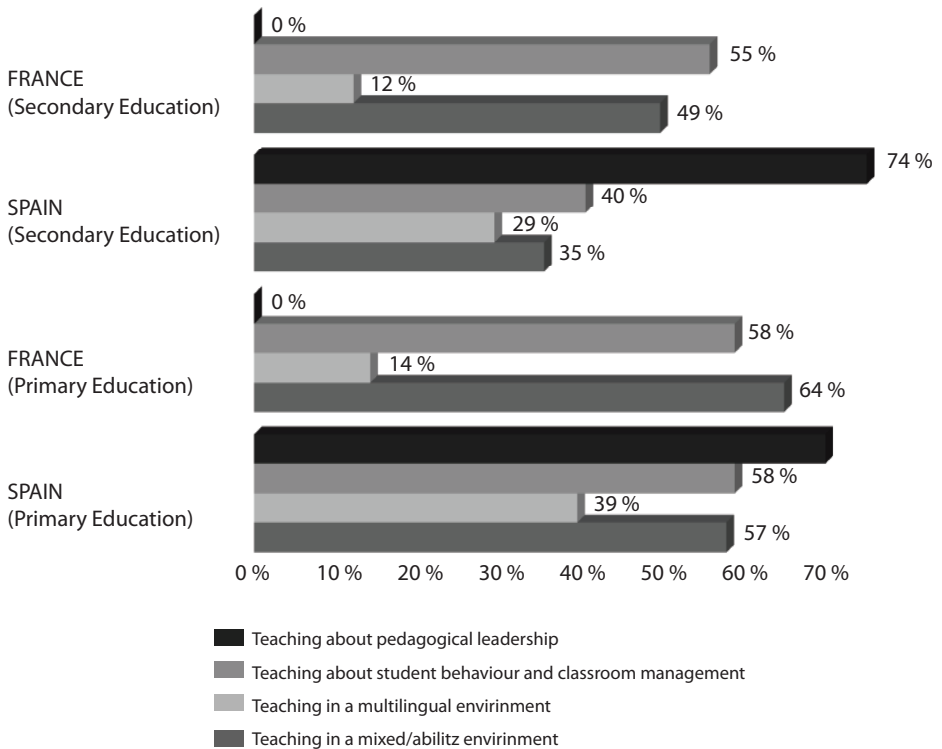

Figure 1. Initial training of the management team. Extract from Table I. 4.28 and I.4.29 (OECD,2020a).

Among the multiple training needs detected among principals (see Figure 2), we find a situation that demonstrates the correct functioning of the French primary school, with limited needs. In contrast, the Spanish primary school shows shortcomings, especially in the promotion of teacher collaboration (28.8 %). The French transition is neutral, with the indicators that improve compensating for those that worsen. In the Spanish case, in addition to what has already been mentioned in the primary stage, the need to use data to connect with the educational reality of the school (26.1 %) stands out.
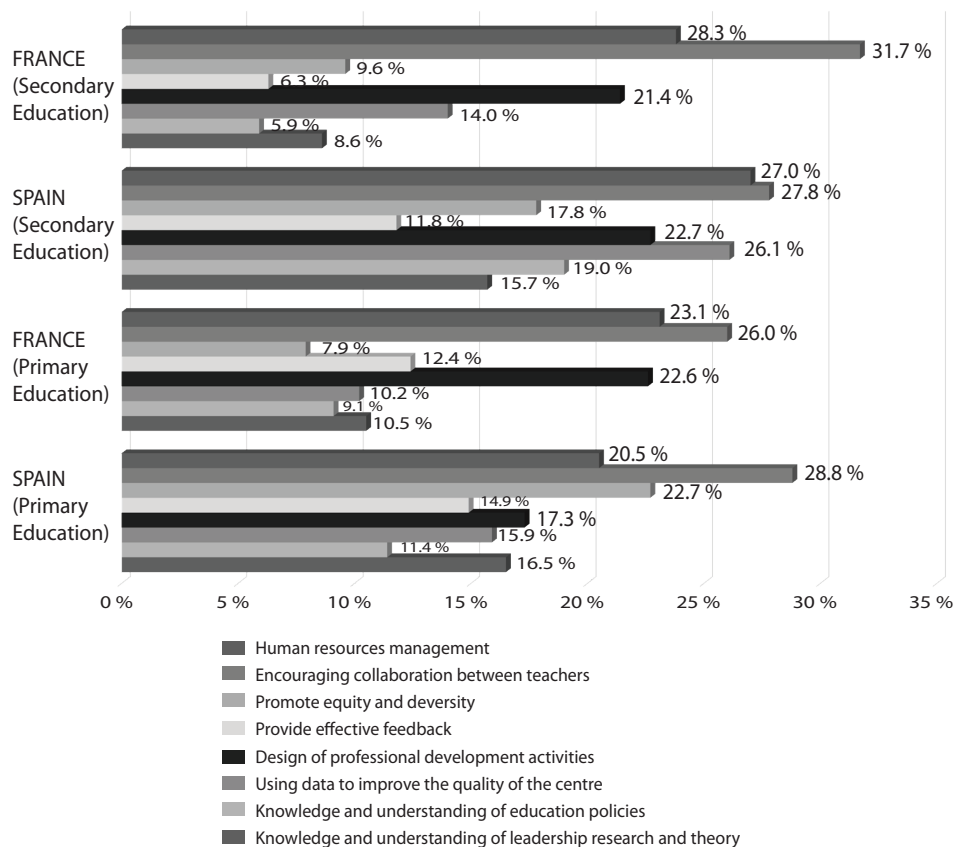
Figure 2. Professional development needs of the management team.
Extract from Table I.5.32 and I.5.33 (OECD, 2020a).

Figure 3 shows the differences in the managerial functions of the two countries. Focusing on France, lower values can be seen in general. The highest levels are associated with the deployment of measures to help teachers solve discipline problems in secondary and primary education (49 % and 66 %, respectively). Contrary to that, in Spain, the highest levels are associated with learning at both educational stages; providing information to parents on their children's school performance (82 % and 77 %, respectively) and taking measures to make teachers feel responsible for learning outcomes (67 % and 76 %, respectively). Collaboration with headteachers in other schools is shown as an indicator of improvement in both contexts.
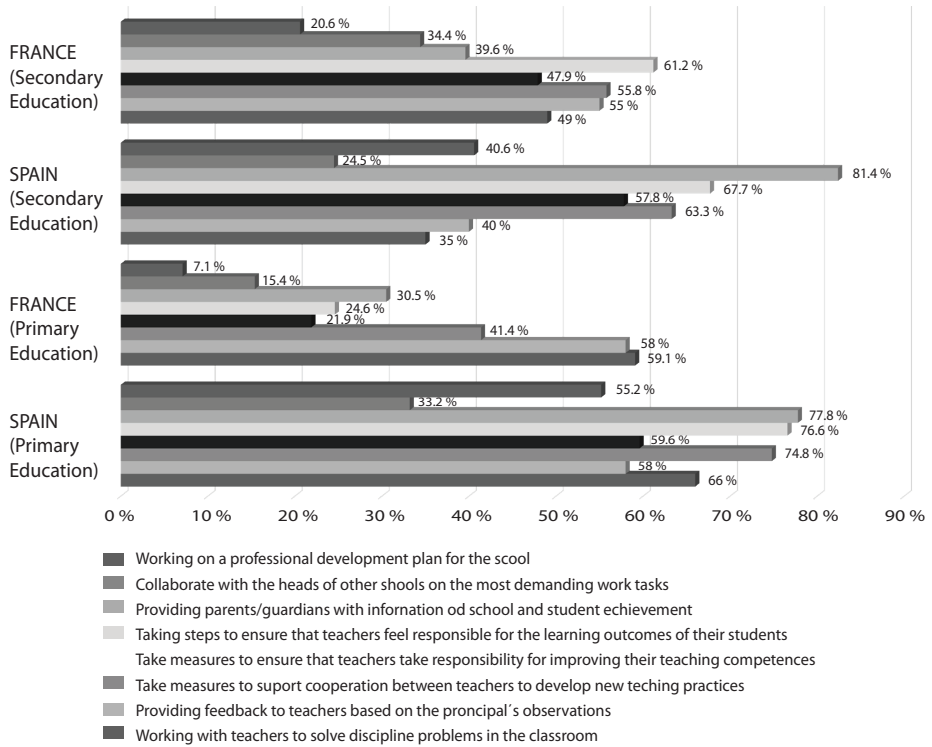
FRANCE (Secondary Education)
- 20.6 %
- 34.4 %
- 39.6 %
- 61.2 %
- 47.9 %
- 55.8 %
- 55 %
- 49 %

SPAIN (Secondary Education)
- 40.6 %
- 24.5 %
- 81.4 %
- 67.7 %
- 57.8 %
- 63.3 %
- 40 %
- 35 %

FRANCE (Primary Education)
- 7.1 %
- 15.4 %
- 30.5 %
- 24.6 %
- 21.9 %
- 41.4 %
- 58 %
- 59.1 %

SPAIN (Primary Education)
- 55.2 %
- 33.2 %
- 77.8 %
- 76.6 %
- 59.6 %
- 74.8 %
- 58 %
- 66 %

- ■ Working on a professional development plan for the scool
- ■ Collaborate with the heads of other shools on the most demanding work tasks
- ■ Providing parents/guardians with infornation od school and student echievement
- □ Taking steps to ensure that teachers feel responsible for the learning outcomes of their students
- Take measures to ensure that teachers take responsibility for improving their teaching competences
- ■ Take measures to suport cooperation between teachers to develop new teching practices
- ■ Providing feedback to teachers based on the proncipal´s observations
- ■ Working with teachers to solve discipline problems in the classroom

Figure 3. Percentage of principals who have participated in the following actions in their school in the last 12 months before the survey. Extract from Table II.5.12 and II.5.13 (OECD, 2020b).

Collaborative culture

In Table 2, we can see how teachers in Spanish and French schools show their degree of "agreement" and "strongly agree" in more than 70 % of the cases that the existence of a collaborative school culture is characterised by mutual support. Specifically, in Spain, it is highlighted in 76.6 % of teachers' responses, and in France, 72.5 %. This reality, in both cases, is increased in schools with less than or equal to 10 % of immigrant pupils and decreased in schools with more than 10 %.

Table 2
Teachers who "agree" or "strongly agree" that there is a collaborative school culture characterised by mutual support. Extract from Table II. 4.28 (OECD, 2020b).

	CHARACTERISTICS	SPAIN	FRANCE
At the general level in schools		76.6 %	72.5 %
Schools with a concentration of immigrant students	Less than or equal to 10 %.	77.7 %	73.5 %
	More than or equal to 10 %.	73.4 %	71.5 %

As shown in Figure 3, French primary school heads spend the highest percentage of their time on meetings and administrative tasks (32 %), while Spanish primary school heads spend a similar amount of time on meetings and management tasks (22 %),

meetings and administrative tasks (22 % compared to 9 % in France), and meetings and tasks related to the curriculum and teaching activity (20 %). At the secondary level, French school heads also give a similar amount of time to meetings and administrative tasks (27 % compared to 23 % in Spain).

It is interesting to note that principals in both countries in primary and secondary education spend less than 10 % of their time on relations with the local and regional community, business, and industry. A similar situation occurs with the relationship with families and the relationship with pupils, in both cases not exceeding 16 % (see Figure 4).
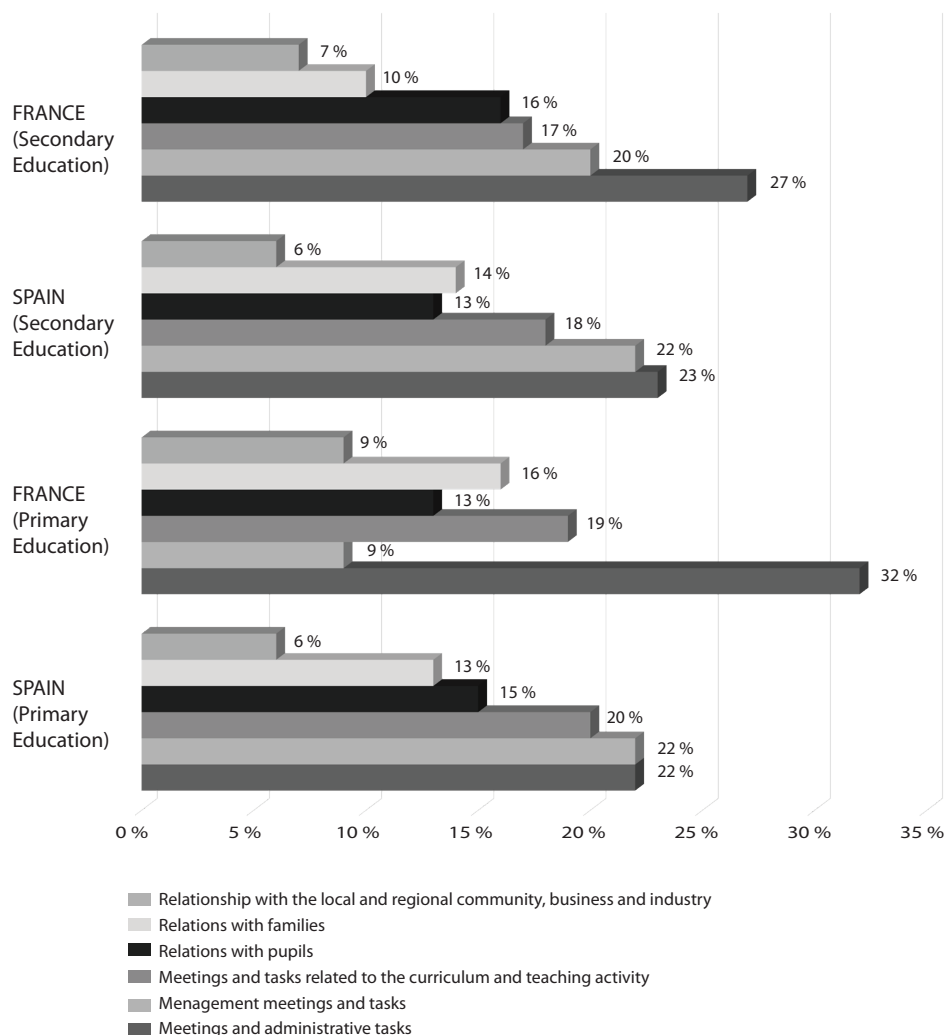

Legend:
- Relationship with the local and regional community, business and industry
- Relations with families
- Relations with pupils
- Meetings and tasks related to the curriculum and teaching activity
- Menagement meetings and tasks
- Meetings and administrative tasks

Figure 4. Percentage distribution of working time spent on different tasks by principals. Extract from Table I.2.32 and I.2.32 (OECD, 2020a).

Table 3 below shows the opportunities for internal and external stakeholders to participate in school decisions at the secondary level. As can be seen, the greatest opportunities for participation are for teachers (75.7 % in both countries) and students, with a difference of almost 10 % between Spain (69.5 %) and France (59 %). This reality differs from the possibilities for families and tutors to participate, as the percentage drops to 13.6 % in Spain and 10.5 % in France. It is much more accentuated in the case of local and regional entities, as it does not exceed 7 % in any country, although in France (6.7 %) it is higher than in Spain (6.1 %).

If we look again at Table 3, which shows the results in schools with a concentration of immigrant students, the participation of the agents remains practically the same as in the rest of the schools regarding the opportunities of some groups compared to others. However, it is interesting to note that there is an increase in the number of students, more accentuated in schools with more than 10 % concentration of immigrant students in Spain (77 %) and schools with less than or equal to 10 % in France (77.5 %). On the other hand, it is significant that in both Spain and France, when there is a concentration of immigrant students, teachers have fewer opportunities for participation. Specifically, in Spain, it decreases by around 7 %, which is less than in the rest of the schools, and France by 15 %.

Table 3

Opportunities for the following actors to participate in school decisions in SecondaryEducation. Extract from Table II. 4.34 and II.4.35 (OECD, 2020b).

AGENTS	SPAIN			FRANCE		
		Schools with a concentration of immigrant students			Schools with a concentration of immigrant students	
	Generally in schools	< or = 10 % of	+ of 10 %	Generally in schools	< or = 10 % of	+ of 10 %
Students	69.5 %	75.2 %	77 %	59 %	77.5 %	73.5 %
Faculty	75.7 %	69,6 %	68.7 %	75.7 %	60.1 %	58.2 %
Families and guardians	13.6 %	13,3 %	14.7 %	10.5 %	10.3 %	11 %
Local and Regional authorities	6.1 %	6 %	6.4 %	6.7 %	6.6 %	7.2 %

Overall, Spanish and French teachers and principals feel more than 50 % self-efficacy concerning interculturality (see Figure 5). If we focus on France, we can see that the highest values are concentrated on getting students with and without an immigrant background to work together in primary and secondary education (95 % and 91 %, respectively). In Spain, however, the highest values are concentrated on contributing to the reduction of cultural stereotypes among students in the two educational stages

(91 % and 82 %, respectively). It is interesting to note that primary and secondary school teachers and management in both countries feel less self-effective in adapting teaching methodology to cultural diversity and facing the challenges of a multicultural classroom (Figure 5).
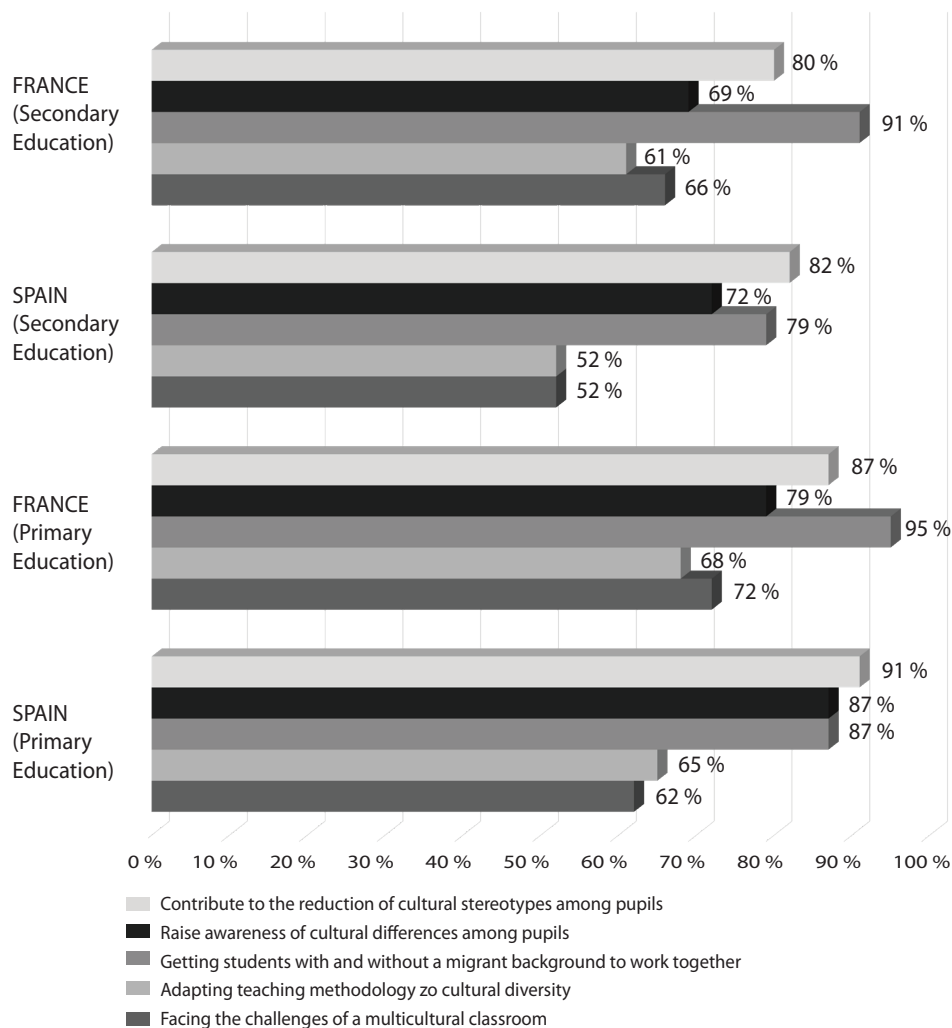

Figure 5. Percentage of teachers and principals who consider themselves self-about interculturality. Extract from Table I. 3.38 and I. 3.39 (OECD, 2020a).

The percentage of teachers reporting high levels of innovation in their schools is above 60 % in both countries. These percentages are highest at the primary level in Spain and lowest at the secondary level in France (see Figure 6). In particular, the highest levels of innovation occur in providing prompt help for the development of new ideas and in the willing acceptance of new ideas (percentages above 87 % except for secondary education in France, with 70 %).
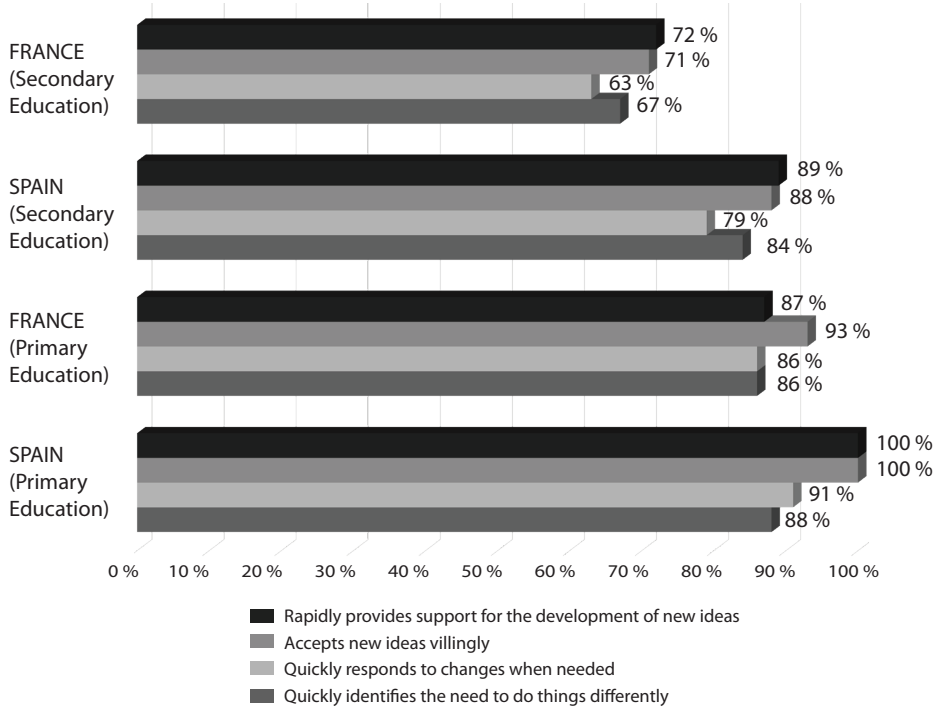

Figure 6. Percentage of principals reporting high levels of innovation in their schools. Extract from Table I. 2.39 and I. 2.40 (OECD, 2020a).

As can be seen in Figure 7, the percentage of principals reporting that they encounter obstacles to quality teaching due to a lack of human resources is lower in Spain at both levels of education. Specifically, Spanish principals encounter more obstacles due to a shortage of support staff (53 % in primary and 42 % in secondary). About the percentage of school heads who say that they encounter obstacles due to a shortage of teachers trained to teach pupils in a multicultural or multilingual environment, this is higher than 40 % in France and lower than 30 % in Spain.
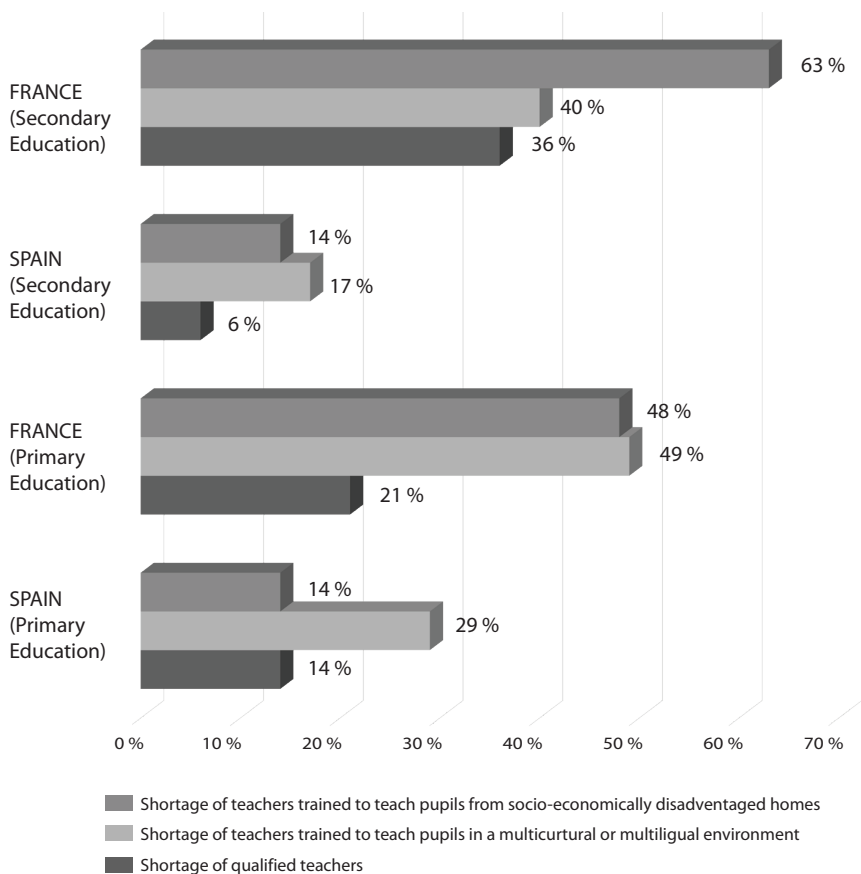
Figure 7. Percentage of principals reporting obstacles to teaching quality due to lack of human resources. Extract from Table I. 3.63 and I.3.64 (OECD, 2020a).

There are large differences in ratios between Spain and France. Specifically, France has more support staff in primary and secondary education, while in Spain the number of students per teacher is lower in both educational stages (see Table 4).

Table 4

Ratios of pupils, teachers, and pedagogical support staff in schools. Extract from Table I.3.74 and I.3.75 (OECD, 2020a).

Stage	Indicators	Spain	France
Primary	Ratio Teachers/pedagogical support staff	One support person for every 11 teachers	One support person for every 5 teachers
	Student/teacher ratio	13 students per teacher	22 students per teacher
Secondary	Ratio teachers/pedagogical support staff	One support person for every 20 teachers	One support person for every 6 teachers
	Student/teacher ratio	12 students per teacher	14 students per teacher

Good practice

Concerning the educational practices carried out in primary and secondary institutions, we can say that the practices teaching students to be inclusive of those from different socioeconomic backgrounds have a higher percentage in both countries (see Figure 8). At the other extreme, the practice with the lowest percentage is the organisation of multicultural events in both Spain and France at both educational stages. Nevertheless, around 80 % of Spanish and French management and teaching staff carry out practices that address social and ethnic discrimination in primary and secondary education. Finally, supporting activities or organisations that promote the expression of different cultures is also a practice carried out by teachers in both countries, although it is more prevalent in Spain in primary and secondary education (67 % and 64 %, respectively).
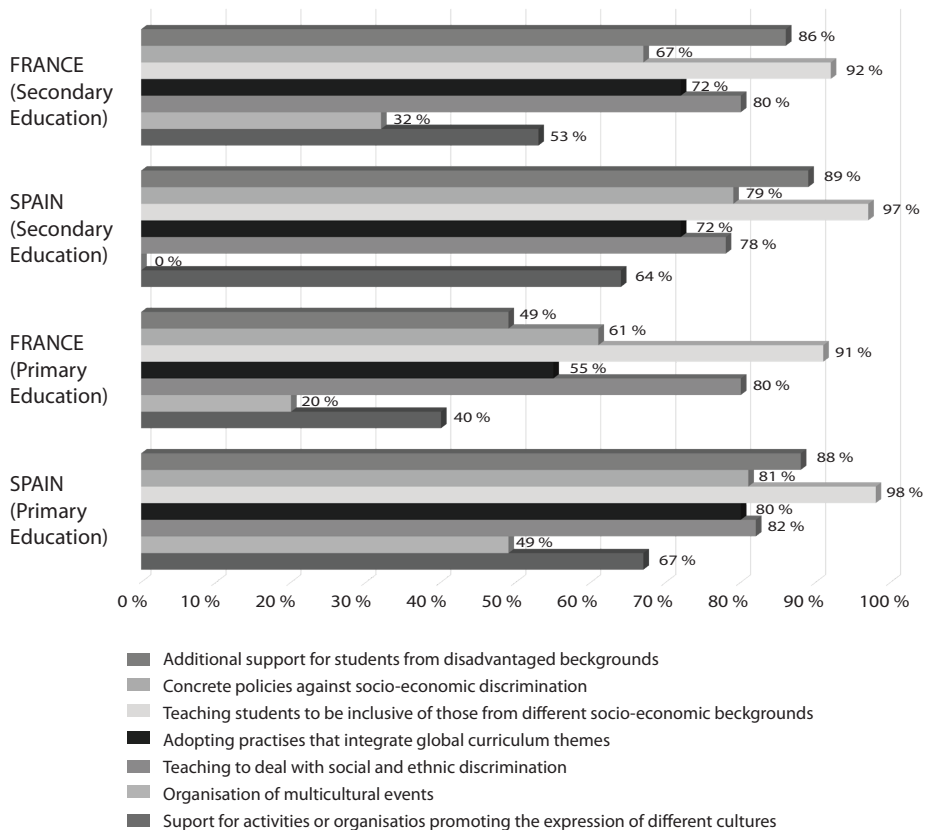

Figure 8. Educational practices that relate to multicultural diversity. Percentage of teachers andprincipals. Extract from Table I.3.35 and I.3.36 (OECD, 2020a).

Figure 9 shows that the percentage of positive impact of feedback related to culturally or linguistically diverse environments is much lower than in the rest of the indicators. The French case stands out with percentages not even half as high as the

Spanish (7.2 % compared to 17.3 % in secondary and 6.7 % compared to 24.3 % in primary). In the feedback that the schools themselves offer to teachers, we find high values in all contexts: all are above 75 %.
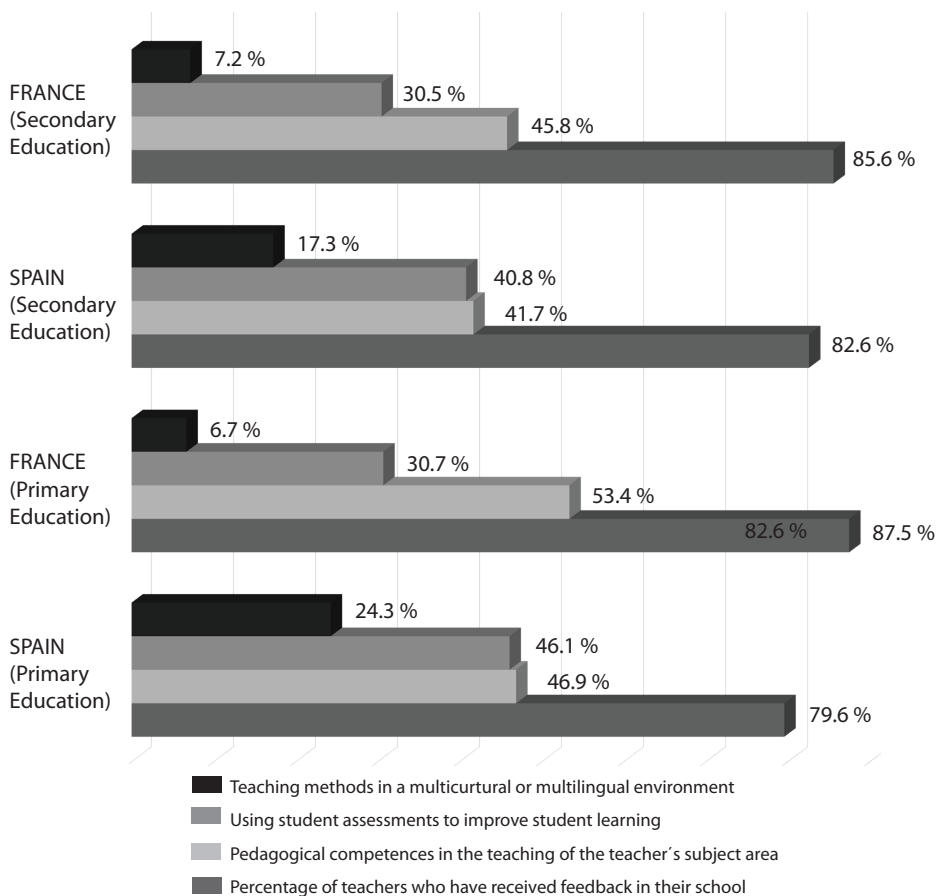

FRANCE (Secondary Education)
- 7.2 %
- 30.5 %
- 45.8 %
- 85.6 %

SPAIN (Secondary Education)
- 17.3 %
- 40.8 %
- 41.7 %
- 82.6 %

FRANCE (Primary Education)
- 6.7 %
- 30.7 %
- 53.4 %
- 82.6 %
- 87.5 %

SPAIN (Primary Education)
- 24.3 %
- 46.1 %
- 46.9 %
- 79.6 %

■ Teaching methods in a multicurtural or multilingual environment
■ Using student assessments to improve student learning
■ Pedagogical competences in the teaching of the teacher´s subject area
■ Percentage of teachers who have received feedback in their school

Figure 9. The positive impact of feedback on teaching practices.
Extract from Table II.4.50 and II.4.51 (OECD, 2020b).

Discussion and conclusions

This paper provides a diagnostic comparison between two European contexts. In this way, it provides an analysis of the importance of the role of management teams in the promotion of intercultural education in schools in Spain and France. Thus, according to Sarason (1990), educational reforms promise more than they can transform.

Although the French law provides for the initial training of management staff, the data show that eight years after its publication, teachers have received no initial training focused on the design and promotion of inclusive and intercultural pedagogical leadership. In the Spanish context, school leaders at both levels do receive initial training in this

area. This is crucial considering that recent research has shown that the democratic leadership role exercised by teachers is an essential mechanism for school transformation towards inclusion (Martínez-Valdivia et al., 2018; Szeto, 2020). These data contrast with the professional development needs of management teams, which have a high need for improvement in promoting equity and diversity. If the management and teaching teams are not able to identify, raise awareness, and incorporate differences, they will inevitably limit students' learning possibilities (Leiva, 2012).

Despite the low initial training of the French management team, both countries report high levels of innovation in their schools, promoting a climate that embraces change and new ideas, thus putting into practice distributed leadership to respond to rapidly changing circumstances, as already pointed out by Brown et al. (2017) and as reflected in the Spanish education law as one of the functions of the management team. However, transforming schools for inclusion requires constant reflection and fostering innovation as part of a continuous cycle of improvement, as indicated by the study of Silva et al. (2017).

Likewise, the promotion of educational collaboration at both the intra-institutional and inter-institutional levels carried out by management teams and the educational community is considered key to the construction of inclusive and intercultural schools. As indicated by Vargas et al. (2018) and Barranco (2020), they are mediators between the needs of students, their families, and society. Thus, school teachers in both Spain and France highlight the existence of a collaborative school culture characterised by mutual support. This situation is even more pronounced in schools with less than or equal to 10 % of immigrant pupils. Nieto et al. (2017) have already referred to how the inclusion of pupils from minority cultures depends fundamentally on teachers who, within the framework of a school committed to interculturality as a factor of educational quality and equity, become aware of the importance of their influence on their pupils.

However, this collaborative culture is diminished in those with more than 10 %, which is very significant. This should not make sense, because the more diversity there is in the classroom, the more collaboration there should be to combat inequalities, but as Leiva (2012) and Ipiña (2019) indicated, for there to be adequate awareness and sensitisation on the part of teachers towards the cultural differences of their students, it is necessary to provide them with adequate training, and perhaps this is where the drawbacks arise.

The tasks or activities of the management team include establishing and fostering relations with pupils, families, local and regional communities, businesses, and industry. However, principals devote a very low percentage to this task in both countries (between 6 % and 16 %). Nevertheless, in both primary and secondary education, relations with pupils and families are emphasised above all else. At the secondary level (both in Spain and in France), it is revealed that relations with the local and regional community, companies, and industries are insignificant, although it is essential to establish them at this stage of young people's education.

This reality is related to the opportunities for collaboration among actors in secondary schools. Internal participation (between teachers and students, respectively) is quite well-developed in both countries. The high opportunities for teacher participation were already explicit in the works of Andersen & Ottesen (2011), Szeto (2020), Martínez-Valdivia et al. (2018), Moral et al. (2018), and Rodríguez et al. (2020), who emphasised the importance of professional development through the promotion of teamwork among all teachers and collaborative learning to achieve agreed-upon and achievable goals. Student participation is also ensured in both to enhance their competencies and learn (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011; Ezzani, 2019; Martínez-Valdivia et al., 2018; Moral et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2017; Rodríguez et al., 2020).

However, opportunities for external participation (tutors, families, local and regional bodies) are scarce. That is to say, there is a relationship in 10-15 % of cases between tutors and families (in France, this is lower than in Spain, even in schools with a concentration of more than 10 % of immigrant students), and something similar and more accentuated occurs in relations with local and regional entities, not exceeding 7.2 % in any of the countries. The management team also has the task of strengthening the relationship with families, linking them with actors and organisations, and establishing communication and collaboration networks (Ezzani, 2019; Flores & Kyere, 2020; Moral et al., 2018; Rodríguez et al., 2020) to know the resources and needs of families (Flores & Kyere, 2020) and to be aware of the ethnic and linguistic backgrounds of minority students in their schools (Andersen & Ottesen, 2011).

Both France and Spain emphasise in their educational legislation (LOMCE, 2013; LOI, 2013) the role of the school, the management team, and the teaching staff in establishing collaboration both internally (educational community) and externally (family and social community), to improve the comprehensive development of all students regardless of their cultural diversity. In this sense, thanks to the participation of all agents, education for all people based on equality, equity, and social justice can be made possible. This is the only way to combat the high rates of early school dropout and inequalities, favouring real opportunities for students to build their personal and professional careers.

However, an obstacle to this transformation is the shortage of human resources (González-Gil et al. 2019), especially for teaching pupils from socio-economically disadvantaged households and multilingual multicultural environments, especially in France at the two educational stages studied. DeMatthews et al. (2020) emphasised the importance of leadership teams restructuring school resources for social justice. This role of the leadership team is clearly defined in French legislation. However, the distributed leadership practices of the management team alone cannot address the shortcomings of the education system. Despite this, teachers and management teams in France and Spain feel self-effective with interculturality, but does this correspond to reality? An illuminating element would certainly be the good practices in both national contexts.

In this sense, along with the training deficiencies, the teachers' perception is the aforementioned limitation of resources. For this reason, this work considers it necessary to promote initial and continuous training in intercultural competencies for both the management team and the teaching staff. In this way, it will be possible to create a collaborative culture that is capable of building intercultural schools that contemplate the integral development of all pupils, reinforcing the role and participation of the environment (families and organisations) as essential agents in the education of pupils. It is also necessary to promote the creation of networks between schools to improve access to human and material resources, place students at the centre of education, and use education as a tool for change and socio-educational transformation.

In future research, it could be of interest to contrast the analysis of the legislative evolution of both contexts and the effectiveness of their implementation in educational practices. Despite the detected capacity for innovation and inclusive leadership, it is clear that it is a limited and limiting capacity, leaving room for improvement in highly diverse contexts where the percentage of pupils of immigrant origin exceeds an average percentage (more than 10 %). Perhaps case studies are an appropriate approach for identifying good practices that enable leadership in management teams and teaching staff. In this sense, the possibility would arise of incorporating effective coordination strategies between the different educational agents guided by the actions of management teams.

In addition, a line of research is being carried out to determine whether the provision of financial and material resources would contribute to generating a more inclusive and integrated school climate. The importance of the participation and coordination of the school community is enshrined in legislation, but the question arises as to whether the mechanisms are currently in place for its real development. The dilemma highlights the need to harmonise the regulatory framework with the reality of education in countries that, despite having inclusive guidelines and the human effort of their professionals, find it difficult to achieve the objectives they set themselves.

References

Andersen, F. C., & Ottesen, E. R. (2011). School leadership and ethnic diversity: approaching the challenge. *Intercultural education, 22*(4), 285-299. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2011.617422

Andersen, F. C., & Ottesen, E. R. (2011). School leadership and ethnic diversity: approaching the challenge. *Intercultural education, 22*(4), 285-299. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2011.617422

Barranco, N. (2020). El pensamiento y conocimiento del profesorado sobre la mediación para la inclusión de alumnado extranjero. *REIDOCREA, 9*, 63-72. https://doi.org/10.30827/Digibug.59260

Bisquerra, R. (2014). *Metodología de la investigación educativa*. Madrid: La Muralla, S. A.

Brown, M., McNamara, G., O'Hara, J., Hood, S., Burns, D., & Kurum, G. (2017). Evaluating the impact of distributed culturally responsive leadership in a disadvantaged rural primary school in Ireland. *Educational Management, Administration & Leadership, 47*(3), 457–474. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143217739360

DeMatthews, D. E., Serafini, A., & Watson, T. N. (2020). Leading inclusive schools: principal perceptions, practices, and challenges to meaningful change. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 57*(1) p.13161. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X20913897

Ezzani, M. (2019). Principal and teacher instructional leadership: a cultural shift. *International Journal of Educational Management, 34*(3), 576–585. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-02-2019-0071

Flores, O., & Kyere, E. (2020). Advancing equity-based school leadership: the importance of family–school relationships. *The Urban Review, 53*(1), 127-144. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-020-00557-z

Hamm, L. (2017). Becoming a transformative vice-principal in culturally and linguistically rich diverse schools: "Pace yourself – It's a marathon, not a sprint". *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education, 6*(2), 82-98. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMCE-11-2016-0072

Hugo, V. (2020). Alfabetizar en convivencia y ciudadanía. Una revisión documental de la educación ciudadana para la resolución de la violencia y el conflicto sociocultural. *Sophia, 16*(1), 4-18. https://doi.org/10.18634/sophiaj.16v.1i.874

Ipiña, O. I. (2019). Accesibilidad y sensibilización ciudadana en el espacio público. *Bitácora Urbano Territorial, 29*(1), 155-161. https://doi.org/10.15446/bitacora.v29n1.60567

Leiva, J. J. (2012). La formación en educación intercultural del profesorado y la comunidad educativa. *Revista Electrónica De Investigación Y Docencia (REID)*, 8-31. https://revistaselectronicas.ujaen.es/index.php/reid/article/view/1148

Ley Orgánica 8/2013, de 9 de diciembre, para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa (LOMCE). https://www.boe.es/buscar/pdf/2013/BOE-A-2013-12886-consolidado.pdf

Loi n°2013-595 de 8 julio 2013 (LOI). https://www.education.gouv.fr/loi-ndeg2013-595-du-8-juillet-2013-d-orientation-et-de-programmation-pour-la-refondation-de-l-ecole-5618

Marín, G. M. (2019). Valores inclusivos compartidos por la comunidad educativa del Instituto Montenegro (Quindío, Colombia): una aproximación desde los maestros. *Revista Internacional de apoyo a la inclusión, logopedia, sociedad y multiculturalidad, 5*(1), 86-104. https://doi.org/10.17561/riai.v5.n1.6

Martínez-Valdivia, E., García-Martínez, I., & Higueras-Rodríguez, M. L. (2018). The leadership for school improvement and social justice. A case study in secondary education school. *Revista Electrónica Iberoamericana Sobre Calidad, Eficacia y Cambio En Educación, 16*(1),

35–51. https://doi.org/10.15366/reice2018.16.1.003

Moral, C., García-Garníca, M., & Martínez-Valdivia, E. (2018). Leading for social justice in challenging school contexts. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 21*(5), 560-579. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2016.1274784

Nieto, J. E., Martín, E. C., Merino, E. S., & Solbes, V. M. (2017). Hacia una ciudadanía democrática e intercultural. Apuntes para la formación del profesorado. *Facultad de Educación y Humanidades del Campus de Melilla, 47*, 37-53. https://doi.org/10.30827/publicaciones.v47i0.7196

OECD (2020a). *List of tables available on line, in TALIS 2018 Results (Volume II): Teachers and School Leaders as Valued Professionals,* OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/f39703aa-en

OECD (2020b). *List of tables available on line, in TALIS 2018 Results (Volume II): Teachers and School Leaders as Valued Professionals*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/f39703aa-en

Rodorigo, M., Fernández-Larragueta, S., & Fernández-Sierra, J. (2019). La Mediación intercultural como herramienta de inclusión: análisis de una experiencia escolar. *Revista Complutense de Educación, 30*(3), 747. https://doi.org/10.5209/rced.58885

Rodríguez, C. L., Acosta, A. M., & Torres, C. (2020) Liderazgo directivo para la justicia social en contextos vulnerables. Estudio de caso de directores escolares mexicanos. *Perspectiva educacional, 59*(2), 4-26. http://dx.doi.org/10.4151/07189729-vol.59-iss.2-art.1025

Sarason, S. B. (1990). *The Predictable Failure of Educational Reform: Can We Change Course before It's Too Late? The Jossey-Bass Education Series and the Jossey-Bass Social and Behavioral Science Series.* Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers, PO Box 44305, CA 94144-4305.

Santamaría, L., & Santamaría, A. (2016). Toward culturally sustaining leadership: innovation beyond "school improvement" promoting equity in diverse contexts. *Education Sciences, 6*(4), 33. http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/educsci6040033

Schoonheim, J., & Ruebain, D. (2005). *Inclusion and Education in Childhood Education. Disability Rights in Europe: From Theory to Practice.* Oxford: Hart Publishing.

Shah, S., & Priestley, M. (2011). *Disability and social change: Private lives and public policies.* Policy Press.

Silva, P., Slater, C.L., Lopez Gorosave, G., Cerdas, V., Torres, N., Antunez, S., & Briceno, F. (2017). Educational leadership for social justice in Costa Rica, Mexico, and Spain. *Journal of Educational Administration, 55*(3), 316-333. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-03-2016-0033

Szeto, E. (2020). How do principals' practices reflect democratic leadership for inclusion in diverse school settings? A Hong Kong case study. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *49*(3), 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143220915922

UNESCO (1994). *Conferencia mundial sobre necesidades educativas especiales: acceso y calidad.* Centro de Publicaciones Secretaría General Técnica.

Vargas, M. D. L., Ferreyra, O., & Méndez, A. M. (2018). Formación de docentes p'urhepechas de educación primaria en la mediación intercultural. *Innovación educativa (México, DF), 18*(78), 33-53.

Verónica Sevillano-Monje
University of Seville, Faculty of Education Sciences
Pirotecnia s/n, 41013 Seville (Andalusia), Spain
vsevillano@us.es

Ángela Martín-Gutiérrez
University of La Rioja,
Faculty of Education (UNIR)
Av. de la Paz, 137, 26006, Logroño (La Rioja), Spain
University of Seville, Faculty of Education Sciences
Pirotecnia s/n, 41013 Seville (Andalusia), Spain
amartin9@us.es

Mario León-Sánchez
University of Seville, Faculty of Education Sciences
Pirotecnia s/n, 41013 Seville (Andalusia), Spain
mleons@us.es

Usporedna analiza međukulturnoga obrazovanja iz perspektive upravljačkih timova. Slučaj Španjolske i Francuske

Sažetak

Pravo na obrazovanje za sve ljude već je desetljećima priznato u cijelome svijetu. Zbog toga obrazovne organizacije i upravljački timovi moraju putem pedagoškoga vodstva raditi na izgradnji inkluzivnih i međukulturnih škola koje stvaraju pluralni, suradnički i demokratski prostor. Stoga je cilj ovoga istraživanja analizirati važnost uloge upravljačkih timova u promicanju međukulturnoga obrazovanja u školama u Španjolskoj i Francuskoj. Kako bi se postigao navedeni cilj, provedena je analiza referentnih dokumenata obrazovnoga zakonodavstva i međunarodnih izvješća. Uspoređeni su sljedeći pokazatelji: vodstvo upravljačkoga tima, kultura suradnje, samoučinkovitost, inovativnost i obrazovne prakse povezane s kulturnom raznolikošću. Visoke stope inovacija i interne kulture suradnje vidljive su u obje zemlje. Međutim, podatci pokazuju da upravljački timovi ne promiču odnose s okolinom. Stoga postoji potreba za boljom i kontinuiranom izobrazbom upravljačkoga i nastavnoga osoblja u promicanju pravednosti i kulturne raznolikosti. Osim toga, ističe se nedostatak obuke u pedagoškom vodstvu francuskoga upravljačkoga tima. Slijedom dobivenih rezultata, transformacija škola zahtijeva omogućavanje stvaranja suradničke kulture koja uključuje obrazovnu zajednicu i okolinu. U tu svrhu potrebno je osigurati početno i kontinuirano osposobljavanje upravljačkoga tima i nastavnika u području međukulturnih kompetencija.

Ključne riječi: *analiza dokumenata; međukulturno obrazovanje; pedagoško vodstvo; upravljački timovi.*

Uvod

Tijekom proteklih 30 godina pojavio se niz međunarodnih konvencija i sporazuma usmjerenih na promicanje inkluzije ljudi s funkcionalnom raznolikošću (Shah i Priestley, 2011). Od Deklaracije Ujedinjenih naroda o pravima osoba s invaliditetom, promiču se jednake mogućnosti u gospodarstvu, društvu, obrazovanju i zapošljavanju. Konkretno, Izjava iz Salamance i okvir za djelovanje o obrazovanju za posebne potrebe (UNESCO, 1994) bila je ključna za poboljšavanje koncepta inkluzivnoga okružja za

učenje namijenjenoga osobama s invaliditetom. Konferencija je usvojila novi Okvir za djelovanje, čije je vodeće načelo bilo da redovne škole imaju obvezu služiti svim učenicima bez obzira na njihove tjelesne, kognitivne, socijalne, emocionalne, jezične ili druge različitosti (UNESCO, 1994).

Međunarodni instrumenti koje promiču Ujedinjeni narodi ustanovili su da uključivanje u redovno obrazovno okružje predstavlja temeljno pravo. Međutim, u kontekstu Europske unije, svaka je država odgovorna za osmišljavanje i pružanje obrazovnih usluga. Standardi navedeni u međunarodnim inicijativama nisu ugrađeni u pravne sustave mnogih zemalja EU (Schoonheim i Ruebain, 2005). Kako navode Schoonheim i Ruebain (2005), pravo na sudjelovanje u inkluzivnom i međukulturnom okružju za učenje često se tumačilo usko, odnosno u smislu pristupa postojećim sadržajima, a ne olakšavanja pristupa okružju osmišljenom kako bi zadovoljilo društvene potrebe i učenikove potrebe za učenjem. U tom kontekstu, što mogu obrazovni stručnjaci učiniti za promicanje inkluzije i međukulturnosti u obrazovnim institucijama?

Uloga obrazovnih stručnjaka i upravljačkih timova u inkluziji

Unutar obrazovnoga centra, stručnjaci posvećeni obrazovanju imaju povlašteni položaj za prenošenje vrijednosti i društvenih kompetencija temeljenih na uključivanju i poštivanju kulturne raznolikosti svojim učenicima (Marín, 2019.). Ti stručnjaci, zbog svoje blizine učenicima, mogu upoznati dnevnu stvarnost koja se događa u učionici, kao i sukobe koji bi mogli nastati unutar učionice zbog njezine kulturne raznolikosti (Hugo, 2020). Nadalje, oni mogu biti posrednici između potreba učenika, njihovih obitelji i društva (Barranco, 2020; Vargas i sur., 2018).

Ovdje je potrebno istaknuti da uključivanje učenika iz manjinskih kultura bitno ovisi o svijesti nastavnika o njihovu utjecaju na učenike. To podrazumijeva ozbiljnu i rigoroznu predanost obrazovanju razvijenom u kontekstu različitosti kao ljudskoga bića i kao profesionalca, sa svojim vrijednostima i stavovima (Nieto i sur., 2017).

Međutim, kako bi postojala odgovarajuća svijest i senzibilizacija nastavnika prema kulturološkim razlikama njihovih učenika, potrebno im je osigurati primjerenu obuku koja će pomoći osobnom razvoju svih učenika (Leiva, 2012). U skladu s time, Ipiña (2019) se osvrće na značajke koje bi trebao imati stručnjak za međukulturno obrazovanje. Prema ovom autoru, s jedne strane, stručnjaci moraju imati stavove koji odražavaju posvećenost različitosti, aktivnu toleranciju i uvažavanje različitosti, kao i otvorenost prema svijetu. S druge strane, moraju imati stavove profesionalne kompetentnosti i stalnoga usavršavanja, sposobnost za istraživanje i usavršavanje temeljeno na promišljanju i ovladanosti jezicima kod svojih učenika s potencijalno suprotnim stavovima.

Međutim, u te procese nisu uključeni samo učitelji, već i voditelji škola kao pokretači inkluzije svih učenika. Brojna istraživanja pokazuju da je demokratsko ili distribuirano

vodstvo ravnatelja u inkluzivnoj transformaciji škola ključno (Brown i sur., 2017; DeMatthews i sur., 2020; Martínez-Valdivia i sur., 2018; Moral i sur., 2018; Rodríguez i sur., 2020; Szeto, 2020).

Ovo istraživanje ponajprije ističe promicanje timskoga rada svih nastavnika i suradničko učenje kako bi se pregledali i razvili nastavni planovi i programi prilagođeni učenicima (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011; Szeto, 2020; Martínez-Valdivia i sur., 2018); potaknuo profesionalni razvoj svih zaposlenika (Moral i sur., 2018; Silva i sur., 2017); potaknulo demokratsko sudjelovanje u svim aktivnostima (Santamaría i Santamaría, 2016; Silva i sur., 2017); kao i postavili dogovoreni i ostvarivi ciljevi (Moral i sur., 2018; Rodríguez i sur., 2020). Ove akcijske strategije uključuju upravljačke timove koji također vode školu s vizijom koju svi dijele (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011; Moral i sur., 2018; Rodríguez i sur., 2020), izgradnju školskih kapaciteta za poboljšanje (Rodríguez i sur., 2020) te restrukturiranje školskih resursa za društvenu pravednost (DeMatthews i sur., 2020).

Za učenike, upravljački tim ima ulogu promicanja pravedne i inkluzivne školske kulture–one koja prihvaća različitost i pluralizam–i vidi učenike kao protagoniste, čime se osigurava pristup sudjelovanju i učenju za sve te osnažuje učenike (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011; Ezzani, 2019; Martínez-Valdivia i sur., 2018; Moral i sur., 2018; Silva i sur., 2017; Rodríguez i sur., 2020).

Međutim, voditeljski se tim može suočiti s nekoliko izazova u obavljanju svojega posla, kao što je otpor promjenama koji dolazi od nastavnika, obitelji i zajednice (DeMatthews i sur., 2020). Iz toga razloga uprava mora uključiti sve dionike u obrazovanju (Santamaría i Santamaría, 2016), uspostaviti međusobno razumijevanje (Szeto, 2020) i dobiti kritične povratne informacije od cijele obrazovne zajednice s ciljem poboljšanja škole (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011; DeMatthews i sur., 2020; Martínez-Valdivia i dr., 2018).

Na ovaj način upravljački tim ima zadatak jačati odnos s obiteljima, s jedne strane povezujući ih s akterima i organizacijama, a s druge strane uspostavljanjem komunikacijskih i suradničkih mreža (Ezzani, 2019; Flores i Kyere, 2020; Moral i sur., 2018; Rodríguez i sur., 2020). Slično tome, bitno je poznavati resurse i potrebe obitelji (Flores i Kyere, 2020) te biti svjestan etničkoga i jezičnoga podrijetla manjinskih učenika u njihovim školama (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011). Prema Hammu (2017), obiteljima ovih učenika treba osigurati da se njihovi glasovi i brige čuju, tako da su roditelji i vođe manjinskih zajednica u najboljoj poziciji da to znanje prenesu ravnateljima. Međukulturni posrednici također mogu igrati ključnu ulogu u životu škola i zahtjevima obrazovne zajednice (Rodorigo i sur., 2018) za uključivanjem manjinskih učenika.

Naposljetku, transformacija škola za inkluziju podrazumijeva stalno promišljanje i inovacije kao dio kontinuiranoga ciklusa poboljšanja (Silva i sur., 2017).

Metodologija

Opći je cilj ovoga istraživanja analizirati važnost uloge upravljačkih timova u promicanju međukulturnoga obrazovanja u školama u Španjolskoj i Francuskoj. Da bi se ta svrha ispunila, primjenjuje se postupak analize dokumenata „koja se sastoji

od ispitivanja već napisanih dokumenata koji pokrivaju širok raspon modaliteta" (Bisquerra, 2014, str. 349). Točnije, obrazovne politike i službeni dokumenti na nacionalnoj i međunarodnoj razini u obje se zemlje revidiraju kako bi se procijenila uloga upravljačkih timova u međukulturnom obrazovanju.

Analiziraju se zakoni *Ley Orgánica 8/2013, de 9 de diciembre, para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa* (nadalje LOMCE) u španjolskom kontekstu te *Loi N°2013-595 du 8 juillet 2013 d'orientation et de programmation pour la refondation de l'école de la République* (nadalje LOI) u francuskom kontekstu. Usporedba obrazovnoga zakonodavstva napravljena je oko pokazatelja inkluzivnosti, kvalitete obrazovanja, jednakosti, suradnje, religioznosti, uloge upravljačkoga tima i obrazovne evaluacije. Osim toga, *Svezak I i II TALIS 2018 Međunarodnog istraživanja učenja i poučavanja* (OECD, 2020a, 2020b) pregledani su na temelju sljedećih pokazatelja: vodstvo (početna obuka, potrebe i aktivnosti za profesionalnim razvojem), kultura suradnje (interni i vanjski odnosi), samoučinkovitost, inovacije i obrazovne prakse povezane s kulturnom raznolikošću.

Motivacija za odabir zakona analiziranih u ovome radu odgovara pritisku koji u europskom kontekstu stvara prilagodba nacionalnih politika rezultatima postignutim u izvješću PISA 2012 (Program za međunarodno ocjenjivanje učenika). Konkretno, podatci iz Znanja i vještina učenika: Uspjeh učenika u matematici, čitanju s razumijevanjem i prirodoslovlju (I. svezak) potaknuli su *Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Jeunesse* (MEN) na predlaganje reforme obrazovanja. Provedba *LOI N°2013-595* uviđa ozbiljnost situacije i predlaže „ponovnu izgradnju škole" kako bi se smanjile rastuće nejednakosti u školama. U istome smislu, španjolski kontekst također odražava rezultate dobivene na PISA-i predlažući, kroz LOMCE (2013), napore za poboljšanjem kvalitete obrazovanja i položaja na međunarodnim ljestvicama i obrazovnim standardima općenito.

Prema tome, ovi su zakoni uzeti kao elementi za analizu iz sljedećih razloga: a) u španjolskom kontekstu, LOMCE je predstavljao novi način razumijevanja obrazovanja i uloge škola u usporedbi sa svojim prethodnikom, a njegovi učinci postali su vidljivi godinama kasnije, u razdoblju tijekom kojega su preuzeti podatci (također s obzirom na to da je djelomično još uvijek na snazi te da se budući zakon o obrazovanju temelji na nekim njegovim dijelovima) i b) u francuskom kontekstu reforme su rijetke, a spomenuti zakon predstavlja promjenu obrazovnih propisa koji su se razvijali desetljećima, gotovo bez promjena.

Rezultati

Usporedba zakonodavstva u smislu inkluzivnosti i međukulturnosti

Kao rezultat različitih obrazovnih trendova u dvjema zemljama, postoje mnoge razlike u njihovim obrazovnim sustavima, u Španjolskoj decentralizirani, a u Francuskoj centralizirani. Prosvjetna inspekcija također je drugačija: dok je u Španjolskoj jedinstvena i opća po prirodi, u Francuskoj postoje specijalizirana i diferencirana inspekcijska tijela. Što se tiče plana osposobljavanja nastavnika, intervencija u Španjolskoj je otvorena i sekundarna, dok je u Francuskoj aktivna i ima regulirani

sadržaj. Sudjelovanje u aktivnostima osposobljavanja nastavnika u Španjolskoj ovisi o organizaciji i funkcioniranju same škole. Nasuprot tome, aktivnosti osposobljavanja francuskih nastavnika ovise o nastavnim predmetima koje predaju u školi. Konačno, školski inspektorat u Španjolskoj ima pasivan stav prema ocjenjivanju nastavnika, a razvoj nastavne karijere temelji se na šestogodišnjim razdobljima, za razliku od Francuske, gdje je stav školske inspekcije prema ocjenjivanju nastavnika aktivan i razvoj nastavne karijere temelji se na evaluaciji.

Suvremeno nezadovoljstvo obrazovnim sustavom potaknulo je izabranu stranku da nakon općih izbora u Španjolskoj 2011. pokuša prekinuti više od 40 godina obrazovnih reformi u skladu s ciljevima postavljenima u strategiji Europa 2020. Francuski kontekst doživljava sličnu situaciju napetosti koja prisiljava MEN na promicanje reforme obrazovanja, što je vrlo kontroverzno na društvenoj razini. Zbog toga se uspoređuju LOMCE (2013.) i LOI (2013.). Osim što su slični po temporalnosti, oba zakona predlažu kopernikanski zaokret u obrazovanju u obje zemlje - u slučaju španjolskoga konteksta, nije postigao stvarnu primjenjivost ili prenosivost (vidi Tablicu 1).

Tablica 1
Usporedna analiza španjolskih i francuskih zakona

POKAZATELJ	ŠPANJOLSKA - LOMCE, 2013.	FRANCUSKA - LOIR, 2013.
Obrazovna načela	• svi učenici imaju talent • sustav mora imati mehanizme za njihovo prepoznavanje i poboljšanje • merkantilizam i ekonomistička koncepcija obrazovanja • konkurentnost nasuprot pravednosti • međunarodna evaluacija • centralizacija • privatizacija i ograničavanje sudjelovanja obrazovne zajednice • postaviti učenika u središte obrazovanja i obrazovanje kao motor koji promiče dobrobit zemlje • učiniti obrazovanje glavnim instrumentom društvene mobilnosti • promicati obrazovanje temeljeno na jednakosti, pravičnosti i pravdi	• smanjenje nejednakosti i promicanje uspjeha za sve • mladi i obrazovanje su nacionalni prioriteti • uvodi se pojam „dobrohotnosti" radi prilagodbe europskim ljestvicama (OECD i Europska unija). • jača sposobnost donošenja odluka na teritorijima (decentralizacija) • obrazovno pojačanje u osnovnom obrazovanju i obuci nastavnika • povećano opterećenje etičkih i kulturnih vrijednosti • osigurati da svi učenici ovladaju osnovnim vještinama francuskoga jezika i matematike do kraja 6. godine života te da ovladaju temeljnim alatima znanja do kraja osnovne škole • smanjiti jaz u ovladavanju kompetencijama na isteku 9 godina obrazovanja između učenika u prioritetnom obrazovanju i onih u neprioritetnom obrazovanju

POKAZATELJ	ŠPANJOLSKA - LOMCE, 2013.	FRANCUSKA - LOIR, 2013.
Ciljevi povezani s inkluzijom	• postaviti učenika u središte obrazovanja i obrazovanje kao motor koji promiče dobrobit zemlje • učiniti obrazovanje glavnim instrumentom društvene mobilnosti • promicati obrazovanje temeljeno na jednakosti, pravičnosti i pravdi • ojačati učenje temeljeno na kompetencijama i cjeloživotnome učenju • boriti se protiv visokih stopa ranoga napuštanja škole i niskih standarda • uskladiti ciljeve sa strategijom EU-a *Obzor* 2020 • olakšati pristup putevima s obzirom na vještine i mogućnosti za osobni i profesionalni razvoj • promicati kulturu truda i izvrsnosti	• osigurati da svi učenici ovladaju osnovnim vještinama francuskoga jezika i matematike do kraja 6. godine života te da ovladaju temeljnim alatima znanja do kraja osnovne škole • smanjiti jaz u ovladavanju kompetencijama na isteku 9 godina obrazovanja između učenika u prioritetnom obrazovanju i onih u neprioritetnom obrazovanju • prepoloviti udio učenika koji napuštaju školu bez kvalifikacija i postići ovladavanje zajedničkom jezgrom znanja, vještina i kulture do kraja obveznoga obrazovanja • ponovno potvrditi ciljeve dovođenja više od 80 % dobne skupine do mature i 50 % dobne skupine do diplome visokoga obrazovanja
Kvaliteta obrazovanja	• procjenjivi standardi učenja (europski okvir).	• redizajniranje početnoga i trajnoga osposobljavanja u nastavničkim i odgojno-obrazovnim zanimanjima
Pravičnost	• puni razvoj osobnosti • jednaka prava i mogućnosti • univerzalni pristup obrazovanju	• građanska nastava • građanski odgoj • građansko, pravno i društveno obrazovanje
Suradnja	• umrežavanje između škola u kulturne ili akademske svrhe	• obrazovni uspjeh i suobrazovanje s roditeljima

Usporedba zakonodavstva u smislu inkluzivnosti i međukulturnosti

Pronašli smo mnoge razlike u početnome osposobljavanju voditelja škole u usporedbi Španjolske i Francuske. Kao što se može vidjeti na Slici 1, najučestalije osposobljavanje španjolskoga upravljačkoga tima je pedagoško vodstvo. Međutim, u Francuskoj takvo osposobljavanje ne postoji. Ipak, ravnatelji škola u obje zemlje prolaze početno osposobljavanje o ponašanju učenika i upravljanju razredom, kako u osnovnoškolskom (58 % u obje zemlje), tako i u srednjoškolskom obrazovanju (40 % u Španjolskoj i 55 % u Francuskoj). Osposobljavanje u višejezičnome okružju najmanje je zastupljeno među ravnateljima španjolskih i francuskih škola.

Slika 1.

Među višestrukim potrebama za osposobljavanjem otkrivenima među ravnateljima (vidi Sliku 2), nalazimo situaciju koja pokazuje ispravno funkcioniranje francuske osnovne škole, s ograničenim potrebama. Nasuprot tome, španjolska osnovna škola pokazuje nedostatke, posebno u promicanju suradnje učitelja (28,8 %). Francuska tranzicija je neutralna, s pokazateljima koji se poboljšavaju kompenzirajući one koji se pogoršavaju. U španjolskom slučaju, uz već spomenuto u prvoj fazi, ističe se potreba za korištenjem podataka za povezivanje s obrazovnom stvarnošću škole (26,1 %).

Slika 2.

Slika 3 prikazuje razlike u upravljačkoj funkciji dviju zemalja. Usredotočujući se na Francusku, općenito se mogu vidjeti niže vrijednosti. Najviše razine povezane su s primjenom mjera za pomoć nastavnicima u rješavanju disciplinskih problema u srednjem i osnovnom obrazovanju (49 %, odnosno 66 %). Nasuprot tome, u Španjolskoj su najviše razine povezane s učenjem na oba obrazovna stupnja; pružanje informacija roditeljima o školskom uspjehu njihove djece (82 %, odnosno 77 %) i poduzimanje mjera kako bi se učitelji osjećali odgovornima za ishode učenja (67 %, odnosno 76 %). Suradnja s ravnateljima drugih škola pokazatelj je poboljšanja u oba konteksta.

Slika 3.

Suradnička kultura

U Tablici 2 možemo vidjeti kako učitelji u španjolskim i francuskim školama pokazuju stupanj svojega „slaganja" i „u potpunosti se slažu" u više od 70 % slučajeva da postojanje suradničke školske kulture karakterizira uzajamna podrška. Naime, u Španjolskoj je to istaknuto u 76,6 % odgovora nastavnika, a u Francuskoj 72,5 %. Ta je stvarnost u oba slučaja povećana u školama s udjelom od 10 % ili manje učenika imigranata, a smanjena je u školama s njih više od 10 %.

Tablica 2
Učitelji koji se „slažu" ili „u potpunosti slažu" da postoji suradnička školska kultura koju karakterizira uzajamna podrška. Izvadak iz tablice II. 4.28 (OECD, 2020b).

	ZNAČAJKE	ŠPANJOLSKA	FRANCUSKA
Na općoj razini u školama		76,6 %	72,5 %
Škole s udjelom učenika imigranata	Manji od ili jednak 10 %.	77,7 %	73,5 %
	Veći od ili jednak 10 %.	73,4 %	71,5 %

Kao što je prikazano na Slici 3, ravnatelji francuskih osnovnih škola troše najveći postotak svog vremena na sastanke i administrativne zadatke (32 %), dok ravnatelji španjolskih osnovnih škola troše sličnu količinu vremena na sastanke i zadatke upravljanja (2 2 %), sastanke i administrativne zadatke (22 % u usporedbi s 9 % u Francuskoj); slijede sastanci i zadatci vezani uz nastavni plan i program i nastavnu

djelatnost (20 %). Na srednjoškolskoj razini ravnatelji francuskih škola također posvećuju sličnu količinu vremena sastancima i administrativnim zadatcima (27 % u usporedbi s 23 % u Španjolskoj).

Zanimljivo je primijetiti da ravnatelji u obje zemlje u osnovnom i srednjem obrazovanju troše manje od 10 % vremena na odnose s lokalnom i regionalnom zajednicom, poduzećima i industrijom. Slična je situacija i u odnosu s obitelji i učenicima, što u oba slučaja ne prelazi 16 % (vidi Sliku 4).

Slika 4

Tablica 3 u nastavku pokazuje mogućnosti za unutarnje i vanjske dionike da sudjeluju u školskim odlukama na srednjoškolskoj razini. Kao što se može vidjeti, najviše mogućnosti za sudjelovanje imaju nastavnici (75,7 % u obje zemlje) i učenici, s razlikom od gotovo 10 % između Španjolske (69,5 %) i Francuske (59 %). Ovakva stvarnost razlikuje se od mogućnosti sudjelovanja obitelji i učitelja budući da postotak pada na 13,6 % u Španjolskoj i 10,5 % u Francuskoj. To je mnogo je izraženije u slučaju lokalnih i regionalnih entiteta jer ni u jednoj zemlji postotak ne prelazi 7 %, iako je u Francuskoj (6,7 %) nešto veći nego u Španjolskoj (6,1 %).

Ako promotrimo istu Tablicu 3 koja prikazuje rezultate u školama s udjelom učenika imigranata, sudjelovanje dionika praktički je na istoj razini kao i u ostatku škola, što se tiče mogućnosti nekih skupina u usporedbi s drugima. Međutim, zanimljivo je primijetiti da postoji porast broja učenika, što je naglašenije u školama s više od 10 % udjela učenika imigranata u Španjolskoj (77 %) te u francuskim školama s 10 % ili manje (77,5 %). S druge strane, značajno je da i u Španjolskoj i u Francuskoj, kada postoji udio učenika imigranata, nastavnici imaju manje mogućnosti za sudjelovanje. Naime, u Španjolskoj se smanjuje za oko 7 %, što je manje nego u ostalim školama, a u Francuskoj za 15 %.

U općenitom smislu, španjolski i francuski učitelji i ravnatelji iskazuju više od 50 % samoučinkovitosti s obzirom na međukulturnost (vidi Sliku 5). U slučaju Francuske vidljivo je da su najveće vrijednosti usmjerene na suradnju učenika s i bez imigrantskoga podrijetla u osnovnom i srednjem obrazovanju (95 %, odnosno 91 %). Međutim, u Španjolskoj su najveće vrijednosti usmjerene na doprinos smanjenju kulturnih stereotipa među učenicima u oba obrazovna stupnja (91 %, odnosno 82 %). Zanimljivo je primijetiti da se nastavnici i uprava osnovnih i srednjih škola u obje zemlje osjećaju manje samoučinkovitima u prilagodbi nastavne metodologije kulturnoj raznolikosti i suočavanju s izazovima višekulturne učionice (Slika 5).

Tablica 3

Mogućnosti za sudjelovanje sljedećih aktera u školskim odlukama u srednjoškolskom obrazovanju. Izvadak iz tablice II. 4.34 i II.4.35 (OECD, 2020b)

DIONICI	ŠPANJOLSKA			FRANCUSKA		
		kole s udjelom učenika imigranata			Škole s udjelom učenika imigranata	
	Općenito u školama	< or = 10 % of	+ of 10 %	Općenito u školama	< or = 10 % of	+ of 10 %
Učenici	69,5 %	75,2 %	77 %	59 %	77,5 %	73,5 %
Nastavno osoblje	75,7 %	69,6 %	68,7 %	75,7 %	60,1 %	58,2 %
Roditelji i skrbnici	13,6 %	13,3 %	14,7 %	10,5 %	10,3 %	11 %
Lokalne i regionalne vlasti	6,1 %	6 %	6,4 %	6,7 %	6,6 %	7,2 %

Slika 5.

Postotak učitelja koji prijavljuju visoku razinu inovativnosti u svojim školama je iznad 60 % u obje zemlje. Ti su postotci najviši na osnovnoškolskoj razini u Španjolskoj, a najniži na srednjoškolskoj razini u Francuskoj (vidi Sliku 6). Točnije, najviše razine inovativnosti javljaju se u pružanju brze pomoći za razvoj novih ideja i u spremnom prihvaćanju novih ideja (postotci iznad 87 %, osim za srednjoškolsko obrazovanje u Francuskoj, 70 %).

Slika 6.

Kao što se može vidjeti na Slici 7, postotak ravnatelja koji navode da nailaze na prepreke u kvalitetnom podučavanju zbog nedostatka ljudskih resursa niži je u Španjolskoj na obje razine obrazovanja. Točnije, španjolski ravnatelji nailaze na više prepreka zbog manjka pomoćnoga osoblja (53 % u osnovnoj i 42 % u srednjoj školi). Što se tiče postotka ravnatelja škola koji kažu da nailaze na prepreke zbog nedostatka učitelja osposobljenih za poučavanje učenika u višekulturnom ili višejezičnom okruženju, viši je od 40 % u Francuskoj i niži od 30 % u Španjolskoj.

Slika 7.

Velike su razlike u omjerima između Španjolske i Francuske. Točnije, Francuska ima više pomoćnoga osoblja u osnovnom i srednjem obrazovanju, dok je u Španjolskoj broj učenika po nastavniku manji na oba obrazovna stupnja (vidi Tablicu 4).

Tablica 4

Omjeri učenika, nastavnika i pedagoškoga osoblja u školama. Izvadak iz tablice I.3.74 i I.3.75 (OECD, 2020a).

STUPANJ	POKAZATELJI	ŠPANJOLSKA	FRANCUSKA
Osnovnoškolski	Omjer nastavnici/ pomoćno pedagoško osoblje	Jedna osoba za podršku na svakih 11 učitelja	Jedna osoba za podršku na svakih 5 učitelja
	Omjer učenik/nastavnik	13 učenika po nastavniku	22 učenika po nastavniku
Srednjoškolski	Omjer nastavnici/ pomoćno pedagoško osoblje	Jedna osoba za podršku na svakih 20 učitelja	Jedna osoba za podršku na svakih 6 učitelja
	Omjer učenik/nastavnik	12 učenika po nastavniku	14 učenika po nastavniku

Dobra praksa

Što se tiče obrazovnih praksi koje se provode u osnovnoškolskim i srednjoškolskim ustanovama, može se reći da prakse koje educiraju učenike da budu inkluzivni među onima iz različitih socioekonomskih sredina imaju veći postotak u obje zemlje (vidi Sliku 8). S druge strane, praksa s najnižim postotkom je organizacija višekulturnih događaja u Španjolskoj i Francuskoj na objema obrazovnim razinama. Unatoč tome, oko 80 % španjolskoga i francuskoga upravljačkoga i nastavnoga osoblja provodi prakse za rješavanje društvene i etničke diskriminacije u osnovnom i srednjem obrazovanju. Konačno, podupiranje aktivnosti ili organizacija koje promiču izražavanje različitih kultura također je praksa koju provode učitelji u obje zemlje, iako je nešto prisutnija u Španjolskoj u osnovnom i srednjem obrazovanju (67 %, odnosno 64 %).

Slika 8.

Slika 9 pokazuje da je postotak pozitivnoga učinka povratnih informacija vezanih uz kulturno ili jezično raznolika okružja puno niži nego kod ostalih pokazatelja. Francuski se slučaj ističe s postotcima koji nisu ni upola viši od španjolskoga (7,2 % u usporedbi sa 17,3 % u srednjoj školi i 6,7 % u usporedbi s 24,3 % u osnovnoj školi). O povratnim informacijama koje same škole daju učiteljima, nalazimo visoke vrijednosti u svim kontekstima: sve je iznad 75 %.

Slika 9.

Rasprava i zaključci

Ovaj rad daje dijagnostičku usporedbu dvaju europskih konteksta. Samim time analizira se važnost uloge upravljačkih timova u promicanju međukulturnoga obrazovanja u školama u Španjolskoj i Francuskoj. Dakle, kako navodi Sarason (1990), obrazovne reforme obećavaju više nego što uistinu mogu promijeniti.

Iako francuski zakon predviđa početnu izobrazbu upravljačkoga osoblja, podatci pokazuju da osam godina nakon njegove objave učitelji nisu prošli početno osposobljavanje usmjereno na osmišljavanje i promicanje inkluzivnoga i međukulturnoga pedagoškoga vodstva. U španjolskom kontekstu, voditelji škola na objema razinama prolaze početno osposobljavanje u ovome području. Ovo je ključno s obzirom na to da su nedavna istraživanja pokazala da je uloga demokratskoga vodstva koju imaju učitelji ključan mehanizam za transformaciju škole prema inkluzivnosti (Martínez-Valdivia i sur., 2018; Szeto, 2020). Ovi su podatci u suprotnosti s potrebama za profesionalnim razvojem upravljačkih timova koji imaju veliku potrebu za poboljšanjem u promicanju jednakosti i raznolikosti. Ako upravljački i nastavni timovi nisu u stanju prepoznati, podići svijest i uključiti razlike, oni će neminovno učenicima ograničiti izglede za učenje (Leiva, 2012).

Unatoč niskome početnom osposobljavanju francuskoga upravljačkoga tima, obje zemlje izvješćuju o visokoj razini inovacija u svojim školama promičući klimu koja prihvaća promjene i nove ideje, čime se provodi distribuirano vodstvo kako bi se odgovorilo na okolnosti koje se brzo mijenjaju, kao što su već istaknuli Brown i sur. (2017) i što se odražava u španjolskom zakonu o obrazovanju kao jedna od funkcija upravljačkoga tima. Međutim, transformacija škola prema inkluzivnosti iziskuje stalno promišljanje i poticanje inovacija kao sastavnice kontinuiranoga ciklusa poboljšanja, kao što pokazuje istraživanje Silve i sur. (2017).

Isto tako, promicanje obrazovne suradnje na unutarinstitucijskoj i međuinstitucijskoj razini, koju provode upravljački timovi i obrazovna zajednica, smatra se ključnim za izgradnju inkluzivnih i međukulturnih škola. Kao što navode Vargas i suradnici (2018) te Barranco (2020), oni su posrednici između potreba učenika, njihovih obitelji i društva. Stoga učitelji u Španjolskoj i Francuskoj ističu postojanje suradničke školske kulture koju karakterizira uzajamna podrška. Ova situacija još je izraženija u školama s 10 % ili manje učenika imigranata. Nieto i suradnici (2017) već su govorili o tome kako inkluzija učenika iz manjinskih kultura u osnovi ovisi o učiteljima koji u okviru škole posvećene međukulturnosti kao čimbeniku kvalitete i pravednosti obrazovanja postaju svjesni važnosti svojega utjecaja na učenike.

Međutim, ovakva kultura suradnje smanjena je u školama s više od 10 % učenika imigranata, što je vrlo značajno. To ne bi trebalo imati smisla jer, što je više raznolikosti u učionici, više bi trebalo biti suradnje u borbi protiv nejednakosti, ali kao što su Leiva (2012) i Ipiña (2019) naznačili, da bi postojala odgovarajuća svijest i senzibilizacija nastavnika prema kulturološkim razlikama njihovih učenika, potrebno im je pružiti odgovarajuću obuku i tu se možda javljaju manjkavosti.

Zadatci ili aktivnosti upravljačkoga tima podrazumijevaju uspostavljanje i njegovanje odnosa s učenicima, obiteljima te lokalnom i regionalnom zajednicom, poduzećima i industrijom. Međutim, ravnatelji daju vrlo nizak postotak ovoj zadaći u obje zemlje (između 6 % i 16 %). Ipak, i u osnovnom i u srednjem obrazovanju najviše se ističe odnos s učenicima i obiteljima. Na srednjoškolskoj razini (i u Španjolskoj i u Francuskoj)

otkriva se da su odnosi s lokalnom i regionalnom zajednicom, poduzećima i industrijama beznačajni iako ih je bitno uspostaviti u ovoj fazi obrazovanja mladih.

Ovakva stvarnost povezana je s mogućnostima suradnje dionika u srednjim školama. Interno sudjelovanje (nastavnika i učenika) prilično je dobro razvijeno u obje zemlje. Velike mogućnosti za sudjelovanje nastavnika već su eksplicitne u istraživanjima koja su proveli Andersen i Ottesen (2011), Szet (2020), Martínez-Valdivia i suradnici (2018), Moral i suradnici (2018) te Rodríguez i suradnici (2020), koji ističu važnost stručnoga usavršavanja kroz promicanje timskoga rada svih nastavnika i suradničkoga učenja za postizanje dogovorenih i ostvarivih ciljeva. Sudjelovanje učenika također je osigurano kako bi oni unaprijedili svoje kompetencije i učili (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011; Ezzani, 2019; Martínez-Valdivia i sur., 2018; Moral i sur., 2018; Silva i sur., 2017; Rodríguez i sur., 2020).

Međutim, prilike za vanjsko sudjelovanje (tutori, obitelji te lokalna i regionalna tijela) su rijetke. Drugim riječima, u 10 – 15 % slučajeva postoji odnos između učitelja i obitelji (u Francuskoj je to niže nego u Španjolskoj, čak i u školama s udjelom učenika imigranata većim od 10 %), a nešto slično i još istaknutije javlja se u odnosima s lokalnim i regionalnim entitetima, ne prelazeći 7,2 % ni u jednoj zemlji. Upravljački tim također ima zadatak ojačati odnos s obiteljima, povezati ih s akterima i organizacijama te uspostaviti mreže komunikacije i suradnje (Ezzani, 2019; Flores i Kyere, 2020; Moral i sur., 2018; Rodríguez i sur., 2020) kako bi se upoznali s resursima i potrebama obitelji (Flores i Kyere, 2020) te bili svjesni etničkoga i jezičnoga podrijetla manjinskih učenika u njihovim školama (Andersen i Ottesen, 2011).

I Francuska i Španjolska u svojem obrazovnom zakonodavstvu (LOMCE, 2013; LOI, 2013) naglašavaju ulogu škole, upravljačkoga tima i nastavnoga osoblja u uspostavljanju suradnje kako interno (obrazovna zajednica), tako i eksterno (obitelj i društvena zajednica), kako bi se unaprijedio sveobuhvatan razvoj svih učenika bez obzira na njihovu kulturnu raznolikost. U tom smislu, zahvaljujući doprinosu svih sudionika, omogućuje se obrazovanje za sve ljude temeljeno na jednakosti, pravičnosti i društvenoj pravednosti. Ovo je jedini način za borbu protiv visokih stopa ranoga napuštanja škole i nejednakosti, dajući prednost stvarnim prilikama za učenike da izgrade svoje osobne i profesionalne karijere.

Međutim, prepreka je ovoj transformaciji nedostatak ljudskih resursa (González-Gil i sur. 2019), posebice za poučavanje učenika iz socioekonomski ugroženih kućanstava i višejezičnih višekulturnih sredina, posebice u Francuskoj na oba proučavana obrazovna stupnja. DeMatthews i sur. (2020) ističu važnost upravljačkih timova u restrukturiranju školskih resursa za društvenu pravdu. Ova uloga upravljačkoga tima jasno je definirana u francuskom zakonodavstvu. Međutim, same distribuirane prakse upravljačkoga tima ne mogu riješiti nedostatke obrazovnoga sustava. Unatoč tome, učitelji i upravljački timovi u Francuskoj i Španjolskoj osjećaju se samoučinkovitima što se tiče višekulturnosti, no odgovara li to stvarnosti? Rasvjetljujući element svakako bi bila dobra praksa u oba nacionalna konteksta.

U tom smislu, uz nedostatke u osposobljavanju, nastavnici opažaju i spomenutu ograničenost resursa. Iz tog razloga, ovaj rad smatra nužnim promicati početnu i kontinuiranu izobrazbu za upravljački tim i nastavno osoblje u višekulturnim kompetencijama. Na taj će način biti moguće stvarati kulturu suradnje koja je spremna izgrađivati višekulturne škole koje razmatraju cjeloviti razvoj svih učenika jačajući ulogu i sudjelovanje okoline (obitelji i organizacije) kao bitnih čimbenika u obrazovanju učenika. Također je potrebno promicati umrežavanje škola kako bi se poboljšao pristup ljudskim i materijalnim resursima, stavljajući učenike u središte obrazovanja i obrazovanje kao alat za promjenu i društveno-obrazovnu transformaciju.

U budućim istraživanjima moglo bi biti zanimljivo usporediti analizu zakonodavne evolucije oba konteksta i učinkovitost njezine primjene u obrazovnim praksama. Unatoč otkrivenom kapacitetu za inovacije i inkluzivno vodstvo, jasno je da se radi o ograničenom i ograničavajućem kapacitetu koji ostavlja prostora za poboljšanje u vrlo različitim kontekstima gdje postotak učenika imigrantskoga podrijetla premašuje prosječni postotak (više od 10 %). Možda su studije slučaja prikladan pristup za prepoznavanje dobrih praksi koje omogućuju vodstvo u upravljačkim timovima i nastavnom osoblju. U tom smislu, pojavila bi se mogućnost uključivanja učinkovitih strategija koordinacije između različitih obrazovnih aktera vođenih djelovanjem upravljačkih timova.

Nadalje, provodi se niz istraživanja kako bi se utvrdilo bi li osiguravanje financijskih i materijalnih sredstava pridonijelo stvaranju inkluzivnije i integrirajuće školske klime. Važnost sudjelovanja i koordinacije školske zajednice zakonski je propisana, no postavlja se pitanje postoje li u ovome trenutku mehanizmi za njezin stvarni razvoj. Ta dilema naglašava potrebu za usklađivanjem regulatornoga okvira sa stvarnim obrazovanjem u zemljama koje, unatoč inkluzivnim smjernicama i istinskome trudu svojih stručnjaka, teško ostvaruju ciljeve koje su same postavile.

Napomena