

1 **The Perspectives of School Principals in Spain: Identifying Professional**  
2 **Competencies Beyond Their Scope**

3 Francisco Javier Gil-Espinoso<sup>a</sup>, Iván López-Fernández<sup>a\*</sup>, Cristina Cadenas-Sanchez<sup>b</sup>  
4 and Rafael Burgueño<sup>c</sup>

5 <sup>a</sup>Department of Languages, Arts and Sport, Faculty of Science Education, University of Málaga,  
6 Málaga, Spain; <sup>b</sup>Department of Physical Education and Sports, Faculty of Sport Sciences, Sport  
7 and Health University Research Institute (iMUDS), University of Granada, Granada, Spain;  
8 <sup>c</sup>Department of Education, University of Almería, Almería, Spain

9 \*Iván López-Fernández, Department of Languages, Arts and Sport, Faculty of Science Education,  
10 Blvr. Louis Pasteur, 25, 29010, University of Málaga, Málaga, Spain

11 Email: [ivanl@uma.es](mailto:ivanl@uma.es)  
12 Tel.: +34-952136708

13 **Notes on contributors**

14 Francisco Javier Gil-Espinoso is a lecturer in the Faculty of Education Sciences at the University of Malaga  
15 (Spain) and holds a PhD from the University of Granada. He is currently working in the Department of  
16 Languages, Arts and Sport, with previous professional experience in teaching and school management in  
17 secondary education in Spain. His main line of research is on educational instruction, although he presents  
18 others such as quality physical education, teacher professional improvement and curricular issues.  
19 <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8845-4060>

20 Iván López-Fernández holds a PhD in Pedagogy and is a lecturer at the University of Malaga (Spain), in the  
21 Faculty of Education Sciences (Department of Languages, Arts and Sport). Prior to coming to University of  
22 Malaga, he worked as municipal manager in Torremolinos (Spain). His research focuses on teacher training,  
23 physical education teacher education and higher education. <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0632-3532>

24 Cristina Cadenas-Sanchez has double bachelor degree: education and sport sciences. Both the degrees and  
25 PhD were carried out at the University of Granada. She is currently a Marie Curie postdoctoral fellow at  
26 Stanford University and University of Granada. Her research is focused on physical education and its  
27 relationship with health. <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4513-9108>

28 Rafa Burgueño holds a PhD on (Physical) Education at the University of Almeria and is a lecturer at the  
29 University of Malaga (Spain). His main research interests are the analysis of the (de-)motivating styles from  
30 the teacher on students' motivation and learning-related outcomes in physical education.  
31 <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2354-0037>

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49

50 **The Perspectives of School Principals in Spain: Identifying Professional**  
51 **Competencies Beyond Their Scope**

52 School leadership plays a crucial role to quality education. Social changes have led to an  
53 increase in school principals' competencies, responsibilities, and demands. There are  
54 significant gaps in the literature on school leadership and limitations in the study of principals'  
55 responsibilities. This study aimed to analyse whether principals consider the competencies  
56 assigned to them by educational legislation to be within their scope. Participants were 394  
57 principals from state-owned schools in Andalusia, southern Spain. Quantitative and qualitative  
58 data analyses were performed. We identified four competencies that the principals believed  
59 they were unable to effectively assume within the Andalusian educational context: (1)  
60 awarding contracts for construction, services, or supplies; (2) authorising expenditures,  
61 arranging payments, and preparing the school budget; (3) promoting the qualifications and  
62 training of teaching staff; and (4) supervising non-teaching staff in the school. This study  
63 emphasizes the need of a comprehensive reevaluation of how competencies assigned to school  
64 principals are managed, highlighting the significance of incorporating principals' perspectives.  
65 For future research, we recommend exploring alternative approaches in competency  
66 management to enhance their effectiveness and relevance in the educational context.

67 Keywords: school leadership; educational leadership; school leader; functions; tasks.

68

69 **Introduction**

70 School leadership has been identified as the key to quality education (Harris and Jones 2023;  
71 Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins 2020; Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe 2008; Tan, Gao, and Shi 2022).  
72 The European Commission (2020) stated that schools require competent principals. Indeed, school  
73 leadership is one of the factors that most influences student achievement (López, García, and  
74 Expósito-Casas 2022; Rodríguez-García et al. 2022) and the implementation of appropriate social  
75 and educational policies within schools (Longás, Riera, and de Querol 2020). Social changes have  
76 led to an increase in principals' competencies and responsibilities and what is demanded of them  
77 (Tan, Gao, and Shi 2022). In the Spanish context, this has resulted in an increase in workload and  
78 various demands from principals for which they are not prepared (Collado 2016). Consequently,  
79 school leaders in Spanish state-owned schools face serious problems, such as an excessive  
80 administrative burden and insufficient autonomy for management (Bolívar 2019). Social, lifestyle,  
81 and digital changes require a review of their impact on the performance of school principals  
82 (Aguilar 2021). Updating school leadership improves the quality of education. These changes,  
83 together with the increase and diversity of competencies to be developed and the related workload  
84 and demands, threaten the well-being and health of school principals (Beausaert et al. 2023).

85 ***School leadership model in Spain***

86 Spain's school leadership model is unique compared to other European countries. For  
87 instance, principals are elected from among their peers (Montero 2011; Ritacco and Bolívar 2019),  
88 and their function is characterized by a hybrid or semi-professional nature: representing the  
89 administration, enforcing regulations, and being a teacher (Bolívar 2019). The Spanish model  
90 remains bureaucratic, managerial, and individualistic (Pont 2014). Owing to the duality of school  
91 principals' roles and their intermediate position between the administration and mediation with  
92 colleagues, the complexity of the school leadership model in Spain deserves further study (Ritacco  
93 and Bolívar 2018). However, the debate on professionalising school leadership is still at an early

94 stage in Spain. Álvarez and Fernández-Gutiérrez (2020) observed that the significance of competent  
95 leadership has not been fully recognized in Spain. Pont (2020) also emphasizes the importance of  
96 valuing and understanding the perspectives of school principals within each country's unique  
97 context. Consequently, factors like the requisite initial training, the influence of peers in the  
98 selection process, and the semi-professional nature of Spanish school leadership could significantly  
99 shape their views on assigned professional competencies, thereby influencing the leadership model  
100 they are able to promote.

101 In Spain, the Ministry of education (2020) established in article 131(1) of Organic Law  
102 3/2020 that school principals should 'combine the institutional responsibility for managing the  
103 school as an organisation, administrative management, resource management and pedagogical  
104 leadership and dynamism, from a collaborative approach, seeking a balance between administrative  
105 and pedagogical tasks. Vázquez et al. (2016) organised the competencies and functions of school  
106 leadership in Spain into five areas: executive, bureaucratic, innovative, integrated, and institutional.  
107 Carrington et al. (2022) identified four attributes of school principals that contribute to improving  
108 educational quality: appreciation of diversity, support for staff, collaborative leadership style, and  
109 recognition of teachers' professional knowledge.

110 Competencies such as awarding contracts for construction, services, or supplies, and  
111 authorizing expenditures, arranging payments, and budget preparation fall under a bureaucratic  
112 dimension (Vázquez et al., 2016). Notably, in several countries, an overabundance of bureaucratic  
113 and administrative duties hinders effective leadership (Vaillant, 2015). Furthermore, the  
114 development and updating of institutional documents, generating accountability reports for  
115 inspection, handling disciplinary tasks, drafting reports, and overseeing school renovation efforts  
116 continue to pose significant challenges for school principals (Serrano and Martín-Cuadrado, 2017).

117 Conversely, supervising non-teaching staff and enhancing the qualifications and training of  
118 the teaching team are categorized within the executive dimension (Vázquez et al., 2016). Associated  
119 tasks, such as ensuring adherence to the curriculum and overseeing the implementation of

120 educational programming, are pivotal to pedagogical leadership yet are perceived as challenging,  
121 similar to the tasks involving the leadership and management of the school's staff (Serrano and  
122 Martín-Cuadrado, 2017). Interestingly, Serrano and Martín-Cuadrado (2017) noted that more  
123 experienced school principals often find tasks related to staff direction and management particularly  
124 demanding.

### 125 *Sociodemographic factors in professional competencies of school principals*

126 Although no attention has been given to the potential role that sociodemographic factors may have  
127 on professional competencies of school principals in Spain, a small basis of studies at the  
128 international level has shown results suggesting that sociodemographic characteristics of school  
129 principals could condition the performance of their professional competencies. Specifically,  
130 Alkhawaldeh and Saleem-Khasawneh (2023) revealed that competencies for administration,  
131 management and instructional leadership were similar to all the school principals participating,  
132 irrespective of their gender, educational level (primary and secondary) and years of experience in  
133 school leadership. Similarly, Sawati et al. (2013) reported that school principals' age, experience,  
134 and academic qualifications showed no effect on competences for leadership style. In contrast,  
135 Ballou and Podgursky (1995) showed that school principals' academic qualifications and  
136 experience both in teaching and in school management had no effect on performance of leadership  
137 competencies, although gender was a significant indicator for leadership competence such that  
138 female school principals higher performed than male school principals in leadership competencies.  
139 Le et al. (2021) found that the professional competencies of school principals were affected by their  
140 own personal characteristics (i.e., gender, age, health and family), and external factors (i.e., school  
141 location, school demographics and school facilities), yet they were not conditioned by the school  
142 principals' academic education and qualifications. On the other hand, Leithwood et al. (2006) found  
143 that school conditions such as school structure, size, locations, and socio-economic status of

144 families could have certain influence on competencies for school leadership, although their impact  
145 remains to be explored.

### 146 *School principals' competencies*

147 The daily workload of school principals is characterised by the performance of diverse tasks  
148 (Sebastian, Camburn, and Spillane 2018), with competency defined as the degree of expertise,  
149 knowledge, and leadership ability (Holmes and Parker 2018). The effectiveness of school leadership  
150 depends on an appropriate balance between the various functions to be performed and the specific  
151 context of the educational institution (Hallinger 2005). However, Mestry (2017) found that many  
152 school principals place more emphasis on their administrative and managerial tasks than on  
153 instructional leadership, even though they play an important role in achieving high-quality teaching  
154 and learning (Forssten and Söderström 2022). The lack of agreement regarding school principals'  
155 dimensions of work and practical tasks calls for further research (Izquierdo 2015). The European  
156 Commission (2020) indicated the need to reflect on the competencies of school principals.  
157 Therefore, the competencies that they must possess to effectively fulfil their roles and contribute to  
158 the educational success of their schools must be analysed. Tierno-García et al. (2020) concluded  
159 that research on expectations from school principals is needed to respond to the challenges they  
160 face. Thus, although school leadership has become a priority in many countries, it is not the case in  
161 Spain, where the system is poorly professionalised and embedded in a highly bureaucratic  
162 framework (López-Rupérez, García, and Expósito-Casas et al. 2022). School principals'  
163 suggestions must be considered while deciding their assigning them duties (Martínez and  
164 Hernández-Amorós 2018). Indeed, the position of principals in terms of their knowledge of their  
165 students suggests that their voices should be heard to improve the education system (Harris,  
166 Campbell, and Jones 2022). Harris, Jones, and Hashim (2021) concluded that there are significant  
167 gaps in the literature on school leadership, and Sebastian et al. (2018) noted a limitation in the study

168 of principals' responsibilities, because most studies do not consider all areas of their  
169 responsibilities.

170 While previous studies on school leadership have significantly contributed to the field of  
171 educational leadership, there is a lack of evidence regarding how school principals perceive the  
172 professional competencies attributed to them by educational legislation, in terms of whether these  
173 are inherent or extraneous to their role and functions. Considering the potential impact of  
174 sociodemographic factors on the professional competencies of school principals, this research seeks  
175 to expand the existing knowledge on the competencies and professional practices of these  
176 educational leaders, employing a mixed research design that integrates qualitative and quantitative  
177 elements (Leithwood et al. 2020).

178 This study focuses on the competencies and tasks of school principals within the context of  
179 the prevailing leadership model in **Andalusia**, Spain, guided by findings from previous research that  
180 highlight the importance of these aspects in the Spanish educational setting (Pont, 2014; Mestry,  
181 2017; Serrano and Martín-Cuadrado, 2017). Our endeavor focuses on analyzing and understanding  
182 the gap between the official competencies assigned to school principals and those they identify as  
183 less relevant to their roles. This includes a thorough consideration of their skills, training, and the  
184 availability of resources necessary for effective implementation in schools. Therefore, our study  
185 aims to explore the opinions of school principals regarding the professional competencies conferred  
186 upon them by educational legislation. We also aim to uncover the factors that influence principals'  
187 perceptions of these competencies, as well as their implications for school management and  
188 educational policy.

## 189 **Materials and Methods**

### 190 *Participants*

191 A total of 394 school principals (210 men, 277 women, and 7 who did not answer) from **from state-**

192 **owned schools of Andalusia (Spain)** participated in our study. Participants' ages ranged from 34 to  
193 68 years (M=52.13, SD=6.49), and their leadership and management experience ranged from 2 to  
194 20 years (M=7.26, SD=3.51). A total of 129 participants (32.7%) reported working in early  
195 childhood education, 38 (9.6%) in primary education, 219 (55.3%) in compulsory secondary and  
196 upper secondary education, and nine (2.2%) in vocational education. Regarding the contextual  
197 characteristics of the educational institutions, 114 (28.9%) schools were in rural areas and 280  
198 (71.0%) were in urban areas. Similarly, 217 (55.0%) schools had students from low socio-economic  
199 backgrounds, while 177 (44.9%) had students from medium-high socio-economic backgrounds.  
200 Regarding the characteristics of the teaching staff, 160 schools (40.6%) had fewer than 30 teachers,  
201 114 (28.9%) had between 30 and 59 teachers, 82 (20.8%) had between 60 and 89 teachers, and 38  
202 (9.6%) had more than 90 teachers. Additionally, 205 (52.0%) principals reported that half of the  
203 teachers had job stability at school, 135 (34.2%) principals reported that up to 75% of the teachers  
204 at the school were stable, and only 54 (13.7%) principals reported that more than 75% of the  
205 teachers at school were stable. Finally, 33 (8.3%) schools had less than 100 students, 201 (51%) had  
206 between 101 and 500 students, 137 (34.7%) had between 501 and 1000 students and 23 (5.8%) had  
207 more than 1001 students.

## 208 ***Instruments***

209 An online survey was designed using Google Forms<sup>1</sup> to collect the opinions of school principals  
210 regarding professional competencies that should not be their responsibility. The following closed  
211 multiple-choice question was created for this purpose, 'In your case, please indicate the  
212 competencies that, in your opinion, should not be the responsibility of the school principal'. This  
213 was followed by a list of the 15 professional competencies attributed to school principals by law  
214 (Ministry of Education 2020): (Competency 1) exercising pedagogical leadership and promoting

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<sup>1</sup> <https://forms.gle/hXJEJh3hvRbkizdV9>

215 plans to achieve the objectives of the educational project; (Competency 2) promoting educational  
216 innovation and research; (Competency 3) promoting the qualification and training of the teaching  
217 team; (Competency 4) promoting organisational forms and the school timetable for subjects or  
218 areas; (Competency 5) convening and chairing academic events and meetings of the school board  
219 and the faculty, and ensuring the implementation of adopted agreements; (Competency 6) designing  
220 the educational planning and organisation of the school, as outlined in the annual general  
221 programme; (Competency 7) awarding contracts for construction, services and materials;  
222 (Competency 8) authorising expenditure, arranging payments, and preparing the school budget;  
223 (Competency 9) endorsing certificates and official documents of the school; (Competency 10)  
224 exercising leadership over the teaching staff of the school and proposing the appointment and  
225 dismissal of the management team; (Competency 11) supervising the non-teaching staff of the  
226 school; (Competency 12) promoting coexistence, ensuring conflict mediation and imposing  
227 corrective measures on students; (Competency 13) promoting internal evaluations of the school and  
228 participating in external and teacher evaluations; (Competency 14) acting as a representative of the  
229 educational administration in the school and as an intermediary with the educational community  
230 and administration; and (Competency 15) fostering cooperation with families, institutions and  
231 organisations in the environment. To explore the reasons for the selection of the abovementioned  
232 professional competencies, the research team included the following open-ended question: 'Please  
233 state the reasons for your choice'. In addition, the online survey collected basic sociodemographic  
234 data (e.g. gender, age, experience in leadership positions, and level of education) as well as  
235 contextual and human characteristics of the educational institution.

236  
237 For the online survey's development process, firstly, the researchers created, through a  
238 discussion group, a closed-opened question measuring the competencies that should not be the  
239 responsibility of the school principal in the eyes of the principals and 15 response options, as well  
240 as the initial proposal of open-ended question exploring the reasons for the selection of professional

241 competencies. Both the closed-opened question and the 15 responses, and the open-ended questions  
242 were formulated by taking as a point of reference the Organic Law 3/2020 by the Ministry of  
243 Education (2020). Secondly, to make refinements in the first online survey's version, the  
244 researchers independently and qualitatively analysed the content of the closed-ended and open-  
245 ended questions, as well as the 15 responses options. Thirdly, a consensus meeting took place  
246 among the researchers to solve the small discrepancies conducting slight modifications in the  
247 closed-ended and opened-ended questions and to verify the set order for the 15 response options.  
248 First, a group of six experts independently examined the content of the closed-ended question and  
249 their 15 response options, and the content of the open-ended question, using a 5-point Likert scale  
250 to assess representativeness, clarity, and comprehensibility. To gather evidence of content-based  
251 content and interrater reliability, the content validity coefficient and interrater agreement were  
252 estimated, taking scores over .70 as satisfactory (Lynn 1986). For the closed-ended question, its 15  
253 response options and the open-ended question, the content validity coefficient and interrater  
254 agreement presented values of 1.00, indicating unanimous agreement among the experts regarding  
255 the representativeness, clarity, and comprehensibility of each analysed element. Notably, the  
256 experts met the criteria suggested by Grant and Davis (1997): a) significant training in survey  
257 development, b) extensive experience as content experts, c) teaching experience in teacher training,  
258 and d) publications in refereed journals on the subject. Additionally, the number of experts in our  
259 study met the recommended requirement of at least two experts per stage of survey development, as  
260 suggested by Lynn (1986). A pilot study was then conducted with ten school principals who  
261 reported no problems with the comprehension and readability of the developed short survey.

## 262 Procedure

263 Information about the research was distributed in January and February 2023 to the official email  
264 addresses of state-owned pre-schools, primary, secondary, and vocational education schools in  
265 Andalusia (Spain), as well as through WhatsApp groups of school principals through professional

266 associations. This was done to obtain the largest possible number of school principals, and follow a  
267 purposive sampling technique. To participate in this cross-sectional study, potential participants had  
268 to meet the following inclusion criteria: a) over 18 years of age, b) school principal, c) have at least  
269 one year of experience in school leadership and management, d) work in a state-owned educational  
270 institution, and e) sign an informed consent form. Following the research dissemination process,  
271 474 principals contacted the research team and expressed their interest in participating in the study.  
272 However, 62 principals had less than one year of experience in school leadership, 8 worked in the  
273 private education system, and 4 did not provide informed consent to participate in the research.  
274 Although 400 principals were invited to complete the online survey via a link sent through email,  
275 only 394 completed questionnaires were received. Participants were informed that participation was  
276 completely voluntary and anonymous and that there were no right or wrong answers to control for  
277 social desirability bias in responses. The aim was simply to gather opinions on the professional  
278 competencies attributed to school leadership. Participants were assured that the data would be kept  
279 confidential and used only for academic and research purposes. An average administration time of  
280 10 min was estimated for the online survey. This study was part of the [masked details for the  
281 review process] project and was approved by the Ethics Committee on Research with Human  
282 Beings of the University of [masked details for the review process], protocol code 50-2022-H.

### 283 ***Data Analysis***

#### 284 *Quantitative data analysis*

285 First, the configuration of the online survey did not allow for blank responses if it was to be  
286 completed in its entirety; therefore, there were no missing values. Second, due to the categorical  
287 nature of the data, absolute and relative frequencies were calculated to report descriptive statistics  
288 related to the professional competencies that principals believed were not the responsibility of  
289 school principals (Field 2017). Third, Pearson's chi-square test (Field 2017) was used to analyse

290 potential differences (versus similarities) in school principal' professional competencies based on  
291 each of the principal's personal characteristics which were gender, age, and leadership experience;  
292 contextual factors which were rural or urban setting and socioeconomic level; and human factors  
293 which were number of teachers, staff stability, and number of students. The level of statistical  
294 significance was set at  $p < .05$ . Data were analysed using IBM SPSS (version 29.00).

#### 295 *Qualitative data analysis*

296 Following the completion of the closed-ended questions, respondents were given the opportunity to  
297 answer an open-ended question without any restrictions on word count or length. This question,  
298 phrased as "If you have marked any competencies in the previous question, please indicate the  
299 reasons" allowed the school principals to freely express their reasoning and motivations behind their  
300 choices of specific competencies. This format was deliberately chosen to provide a comprehensive  
301 insight into the factors influencing their selections, enabling a deeper understanding of their  
302 perspectives and the rationale behind their decisions. Responses to the open-ended questions were  
303 analysed using both inductive and deductive approaches. Following Charmaz (2014), we conducted  
304 a three-phase coding process. The initial coding phase aimed to minimise interpretation by  
305 researchers and involved a line-by-line analysis of the data to identify the words and phrases  
306 expressed by the principals. The second phase involved the identification of the focused codes and  
307 further analysis through constant comparison with the codes developed in the first phase.  
308 Additionally, analytical memos (i.e. informal notes) were used to categorise the codes. The third  
309 phase focused on refining the reasons why the mentioned professional competencies were  
310 considered outside school principals' responsibilities. It is important to note that while the first  
311 phase was characterised by inductive and descriptive analyses, the second and third phases were  
312 more deductive in nature. The researchers engaged in regular discussions and consensus building on  
313 the development of emergent themes using memos and grouping as prompts in the discussion  
314 process. Finally, the research team translated the excerpts from Spanish into English. The codes for

315 the excerpts were based on the participant number (e.g. ID38). The data were analysed using  
316 Atlas.ti software (version 23.00).

## 317 **Results**

### 318 *Quantitative results*

319 Table 1 shows the absolute and relative frequencies of professional competencies that the principals  
320 felt should not be their responsibilities. Specifically, competency 7, awarding contracts for  
321 construction, services, or supplies, had the highest absolute and relative frequency, followed by  
322 competency 11, supervising non-teaching staff; competency 3, promoting the qualification and  
323 training of the teaching team; and competency 8, authorising expenditures, arranging payments, and  
324 preparing the school's budget. The identification of these four professional competencies accounted  
325 for 70.21% of the total responses (N=564) to the multiple-response question: 'In your case, indicate  
326 the professional competencies that you think should not be the responsibility of the school  
327 management'.

328 [Please insert Table 1 here].

329 The identification of these professional competencies was consistent across school  
330 principals' personal characteristics, including gender ( $\chi^2[df=26] = 28.62, p = .329$ ), age ( $\chi^2[df=39]$   
331  $= 32.80, p = .748$ ), previous experience in leadership positions ( $\chi^2[df=143] = 120.84, p = .911$ ), and  
332 educational level ( $\chi^2[df=65] = 60.49, p = .635$ ). Similarly, no significant differences were found for  
333 the contextual characteristics of the school, namely rural or urban location ( $\chi^2[df=13] = 10.77,$   
334  $p = .630$ ) and socioeconomic level of the students ( $\chi^2[df=13] = 10.75, p = .632$ ). No significant  
335 differences were found for the human characteristics of the schools, such as the number of teachers  
336 ( $\chi^2[df=39] = 41.40, p = .366$ ), proportion of stable teaching staff ( $\chi^2[df=26] = 31.60, p = .207$ ), or  
337 number of students enrolled ( $\chi^2[df=65] = 65.05, p = .475$ ).

338 ***Qualitative results***

339 The open-ended question, 'Please state the reasons for your choice' yielded responses that  
340 corresponded to the same four professional competencies that accounted for 70.21% of the  
341 responses in the quantitative analysis, all with a relative frequency of more than 10% and an  
342 absolute frequency of more than 60 responses: competency 7, competency 8, competency 3 and  
343 competency 11.

344 *Awarding contracts for construction, services, or supplies*

345 The lack of specific training and the substantial number of administrative tasks associated with this  
346 competency were the main reasons given by school principals for not wanting to perform this task.  
347 They identified a mismatch between the training required to become a school principal and the  
348 qualifications required for this competency. One participant pointed out, 'school principals are  
349 teachers' (ID38) and not technical engineers, economists, or other professionals with more technical  
350 and specific training. In this respect, they suggested that this competency should be performed by  
351 specialised personnel: 'I think that contracts, construction work, as well as self-defence programmes  
352 should be conducted by non-teaching specialised advisors' (ID 21).

353 Although some school principals proposed the creation of the role of an administrator or  
354 officer in educational institutions with these functions, the main proposal advocates a more  
355 centralised model, with staff having more specialised training and the ability to manage this  
356 competency with greater guarantee and efficiency. In this respect, this competency should be  
357 assigned to another agent of local or regional administration and not delegated to school principals.  
358 Principals favour taking on a complementary or subsidiary role in this area of competency by  
359 communicating with the relevant administration about the building, service, or equipment needs  
360 identified in the school.

361 Construction, services, and supplies should be centralised in Territorial Delegations, which  
362 should have qualified personnel to make decisions and promote necessary work and repairs.

363 School principals can make suggestions and proposals, but we should not be promoters of  
364 construction projects or contracting parties for services. The principals are part of the education  
365 sector and not the business sector (ID 137).

366 Similarly, school principals perceive that the high administrative workload associated with  
367 this competency, which could be more efficiently handled by more qualified staff, takes time away  
368 from other competencies that are considered more closely related to school leadership, for which  
369 they feel prepared and less available.

370 I think that we waste a lot of time on bureaucratic tasks (certificates, etc.) and tasks that are  
371 typical of building maintenance workers like managing bricklayers, electricians, plumbers, etc.  
372 Different people should be responsible for these tasks, not school principals, because we are not  
373 prepared, and we might make mistakes (ID 81).

374 *Authorising expenditures, arranging payments, and preparing the school budget*

375 Similarly, the number of administrative tasks involved and the lack of specific training are the main  
376 reasons given by principals to justify why this competency should not be their responsibility. As  
377 one principal admitted, 'we do not have enough knowledge of financial management to fulfil this  
378 role, nor do we have the time to devote to it fully' (ID 43). Principals argue that the current  
379 regulations give them an overwhelming workload and responsibilities that exceed what they can  
380 handle: 'It is impossible for one person to have so many competencies and to take care of them all'  
381 (ID 63), and they believed that competencies that are further from what they consider to be their  
382 profile (more academic and less administrative) and that do not directly impact students' education  
383 should be delegated to other professionals. According to the principals, these competencies  
384 attributed to them 'do not correspond to our qualifications or teaching duties and do not directly  
385 affect the education of the students, which should be our sole objective' (ID 15). It is proposed that  
386 this competency be taken over by specialised personnel, since 'financial management and  
387 maintenance should be handled by specialists' (ID 63).

388           Once again, they prefer the competency to be taken over by specialised staff, inside or  
389 outside the school, in a collective or centralised solution coordinated by the administration: ‘I think  
390 that all financial management, especially the aspects related to payments and banking relations,  
391 should be handled by a dedicated manager in the corresponding department’ (ID 193).

392 *Supervising non-teaching staff in the school*

393 School principals feel that they are responsible for this competency, but the legal framework does  
394 not provide them with the necessary mechanisms to fulfil it. Particularly among secondary school  
395 principals, arguments related to the lack of authority over non-teaching staff in schools stand out as  
396 justifications for believing that this competency should not be their responsibility. As one principal  
397 pointed out, ‘it is absolutely useless to have authority over non-teaching staff if we are not given the  
398 tools to exercise that authority effectively’ (ID 134). The general perception is that this is a ‘virtual’  
399 competency and in practice, the administration only partially (and unclearly) delegates the  
400 management of non-teaching staff to principals. ‘It is the administration itself that does NOT see us  
401 as their supervisors, so personally I no longer see myself as their boss, and their problems are not  
402 mine’ (ID 243).

403           Managing non-teaching staff in the school is also associated with a high administrative  
404 workload, and some feel that managing such staff ‘causes a lot of problems’ (ID 30). Similarly,  
405 participants felt that legislation on non-teaching staff is not adapted to the needs of an educational  
406 institution, being governed by ‘outdated agreements that are not adapted to the reality of education’  
407 (ID 243), which further complicates the management of these staff members to ensure their  
408 effective contribution to the school environment. ‘Exercising leadership over non-teaching staff is  
409 exceedingly difficult under the current regulations. It is not adapted to working in an educational  
410 institution’ (ID 92).

411           As with previous competencies, they proposed that this function should be conducted  
412 directly by another body within the local or regional administration. ‘I believe that these matters

413 should primarily be dealt with by the educational administration on a larger scale' (ID 204) or by  
414 external personnel, following the example of private institutions, without ruling out the possibility  
415 of relinquishing this competency if the regulatory context is modified to allow its effective  
416 implementation. 'Either the service is outsourced to external companies, or the school principals are  
417 really given real competencies' (ID 171).

418 *Promoting the qualifications and training of the teaching staff*

419 For school principals, voluntary training for teachers and the absence of a regulatory framework  
420 that allows them to mandate participation in training activities affects the performance of this  
421 competency. In this respect, this competency should not be the responsibility of school principals as  
422 they do not have the authority to effectively obligate teachers to participate in training outside their  
423 regular working hours.

424         The qualifications and training of the teaching staff are complex because their training is  
425         voluntary. School principals do not have the authority to compel staff to attend training and, in  
426         many cases, staff refuse to attend such training (ID 76).

427         This reality sometimes leads to a sense of failure among school principals: 'principals  
428         sometimes feel frustrated when their teaching staff refuse to participate in training' (ID 141).

429         As an alternative, this competency should be taken over directly by the administration, since  
430         'the responsibility for adequate teacher training should lie with the administration' (ID 136). It is  
431         emphasised that the education administration may have resources and strategies that are beyond the  
432         reach of school principals to stimulate and ensure adequate teacher training. In some cases,  
433         specialised organisations for the in-service training of non-university teachers are suggested, such  
434         as Teacher Training Centres or the Education Inspectorate itself, considering that 'teacher training  
435         is an obligation of the teachers themselves; therefore, the Inspectorate must promote these  
436         measures, considering the results of the Improvement Plan' (ID 81).

437 I do not think that the role of school principals should be to encourage teachers to take courses  
438 unless it is necessary for the implementation of their educational projects or educational  
439 innovation. Teacher training centres should play this role by offering attractive and practical  
440 courses that are adapted to the reality of schools (ID141).

#### 441 **Discussion**

442 This study provides an extensive exploration of the perspectives of school principals in state-owned  
443 schools in Andalusia concerning the professional competencies delineated by educational  
444 legislation. It specifically scrutinizes those competencies that school principals consider more  
445 difficult to take accountability for and develop in the context of Andalusia, such as contracting  
446 work, services, or supplies; authorising expenditures and payments; preparing school budgets; and  
447 overseeing non-teaching staff. A notable reluctance among school principals to engage in these  
448 competencies, particularly in areas like fostering teachers' professional development, signals a  
449 potential misalignment in the school leadership model of Andalusia. Recognizing the importance of  
450 these competencies is crucial, as they significantly contribute to the progress of educational  
451 institutions (OECD, 2016; Pont, 2017; Robinson, 2019). This is particularly true for the competency  
452 of promoting teacher qualifications and training, a key area underscored by Fullan (2020). Such  
453 competencies not only enhance institutional progress but also directly contribute to the quality of  
454 education.

455 One of the main reasons school principals selected these competencies as those that should  
456 be managed in a different way is the high administrative and bureaucratic workloads associated  
457 with them.

458 This finding aligns with Niesche et al. (2023), whose Australian study noted a similar trend  
459 of decreased engagement in instructional leadership due to increased workload and bureaucratic  
460 processes. Bolivar (2019) also observes this trend in Spain, where the bureaucratic-administrative  
461 model of school leadership often focuses more on management than on pedagogical aspects. This  
462 research, therefore, underscores the critical need for more pedagogically focused and democratic

463 leadership within schools **in Andalusia**, a viewpoint echoed by Leithwood et al. (2020) and  
464 Hallinger (2005), and further supported by Hallinger, Gümüş, and Bellibaş (2020), who emphasize  
465 the growing expectation for 'instructional leadership' worldwide and the emergence of 'integrated  
466 models of school leadership.'

467 As a result of the task definitions and degrees of responsibility outlined in Spain's regulatory  
468 framework, pedagogical leadership is not highly developed, which agrees with the results of Harris  
469 and Jones' (2021), study conducted in Wales. However, in other countries, leadership focus has  
470 shifted to school outcomes rather than administrative or managerial matters (Collado, 2016; Pont,  
471 2017). Bolívar (2019) pointed out that this leadership model influences school principals to improve  
472 the quality of education, a perception also expressed by the participants. Principals believe that this  
473 additional workload takes time away from focusing on competencies that can directly lead to  
474 improved student learning. The competencies in which principals find most objections to being able  
475 to assume are often those that are less related to the dimensions identified by Robinson (2019) as  
476 critical for leadership to positively impact student learning: setting goals related to learning  
477 outcomes, ensuring quality teaching process, being directly involved in teachers' professional  
478 development processes, ensuring a safe school environment, and engaging the school with the  
479 community.

480 The perception among school principals **in Andalusia** that certain competencies fall outside  
481 their roles may stem from the mixed nature of school leadership in Spain, which combines  
482 administrative and pedagogical responsibilities (Bolívar, 2019). This dual responsibility often leads  
483 to an imbalanced allocation of time and resources, usually favoring administrative over pedagogical  
484 tasks. The current structure for selecting and training school principals, with its emphasis on  
485 administrative skills (Pont, 2017), may not adequately reflect the actual needs of schools.

486 Bolívar's (2019) description of Spain's semi-professional model of school management,  
487 along with the complex role of mediating between administration and teaching staff (Ritacco and

488 Bolívar, 2018), may contribute to school principals feeling disempowered in critical areas such as  
489 teacher training development and the management of contracting and financial tasks. The varying  
490 degrees of decentralization in school leadership authority worldwide (OECD, 2016; Vaillant, 2015)  
491 further highlights the contrast with Spain's approach, where there is less autonomy for school  
492 principals compared to the more autonomous roles prevalent in other countries (García, Gertler, and  
493 Patrinos, 2019).

494 This dichotomy between the need for managerial autonomy and the principals' perceptions  
495 of their role underscores the urgency for additional research. School principals are advocating for  
496 greater decision-making authority, focusing on strategic allocation rather than an authoritarian  
497 approach to leadership. This necessitates consideration of the constraints on principals' time and the  
498 need for judicious allocation of their responsibilities (Hochbein & Meyers, 2021; Huang, Hochbein,  
499 & Simons, 2020).

500 The findings of this study carry profound implications for education policymakers, as well  
501 as for the training and professional development of school principals in **Andalusia, Spain**. This  
502 study suggests that a reassessment of the professional competencies assigned to school principals,  
503 their training, and the resources available to them for effective and efficient implementation in the  
504 real context and daily management, is advisable. Such a reassignment would allow principals to  
505 focus their attention on aspects that more directly and significantly impact student learning.  
506 Embracing this approach would pave the way for the adoption of a pedagogical leadership model  
507 that is not only collaborative, participatory, distributed, and autonomous but also more deeply  
508 centered on the teaching-learning process and the well-being of the educational community. This  
509 model stands in contrast to the current focus on administrative and bureaucratic control processes,  
510 suggesting a transformative shift towards a more educationally enriching and community-oriented  
511 leadership paradigm in schools.

512 *Awarding contracts for construction, services, or supplies and authorising expenditures,*  
513 *arranging payments, and preparing the school budget (competencies 7 and 8)*

514 School principals believe that directly exercising the competencies of contracting works, services,  
515 or supplies and authorising expenses, payments, and preparing the school budget takes them an  
516 excessive amount of time and they do not feel prepared to assume effectively in the context of  
517 **Andalusia**. This aligns with Pont (2017), who stated that school principals in other countries have  
518 evolved from having administrative and representative functions to leadership functions focused on  
519 developing teachers and strengthening learning processes. However, the reality of school leadership  
520 in Andalusia does not seem to have experienced such an evolution. As Vaillant (2015) suggested,  
521 educational policies act as an obstacle to effective school leadership in some countries, due to  
522 excessive emphasis on bureaucratic and administrative tasks, which were denounced by the  
523 participating school principals in this study. In conclusion, the results of this study indicate that  
524 school principals wish to be freed from professional competencies that force them to engage in  
525 bureaucratic leadership, as Scheerens (2012) pointed out. A managerialist approach to school  
526 leadership runs the risk of subordinating educational goals to managerial goals with greater  
527 efficiency (Bush and Glover 2014). Indeed, one of the reasons cited by the participants was the high  
528 administrative and bureaucratic workload and tasks associated with exercising these competencies.

529 Furthermore, the results underscore a mismatch between the training required to attain  
530 school leadership positions and the essential qualifications necessary for performing these roles  
531 effectively. The training that school principals receive in educational leadership often proves to be  
532 insufficient and inadequately suited for addressing the practical challenges they encounter in their  
533 schools, as highlighted by Chilah, García-Carmona, and Hinojo (2023). In addition, these authors  
534 note that the interviewees emphasise the overwhelming number of administrative tasks required of  
535 them, which frequently impedes their engagement in pedagogical practices and the exercise of  
536 educational leadership. This gap between theoretical training and practical requirements is not  
537 unique to this context; it has been previously identified by Rivero et al. (2018) in their study of

538 school leadership in Chile and echoed by Klein and Schwanenberg (2022) in their analysis of  
539 school principals in Germany.

540 Principals are in favour of these professional competencies being taken over by specialised  
541 personnel within a collaborative or centralised solution structured by the administration, which is in  
542 line with the findings of Beusaert et al. (2023), who concluded that given the increasing demands  
543 of responsibilities, community, and administrative support positively impact the well-being and  
544 health of school principals. Thus, these authors emphasise the importance of school principals with  
545 both internal and external collegiate networks and governments investing in restructuring tasks and  
546 competencies. In the case of professional competencies related to contracting work and services and  
547 financial management, the participants also pointed to the need for a specialised professional with  
548 specific training in contracting tasks and financial matters.

549 ***Supervising non-teaching staff in the school (competency 11)***

550 School principals perceive that they have been assigned this professional competency which they  
551 are unable to develop effectively due to the lack of a legal framework that provides them with the  
552 necessary mechanisms to exercise it properly. They felt that they did not have sufficient authority  
553 over non-teaching staff to perform this competency. This is consistent with the findings of Aravena  
554 (2016), who argued that the development of school leadership is unproductive if principals are not  
555 given decision-making power. Similar to previous professional competencies, it is associated with a  
556 high workload of bureaucratic tasks, and they suggested that another administrative body or  
557 specialised professional take on this responsibility. Similarly, Collado (2016) pointed out that the  
558 heterogeneity and complexity of the educational organisation creates a constant tension between all  
559 the characteristics required of the principal, resulting in an interdependence between subsystems  
560 such as students, families, teachers, and non-teaching staff such as caretakers, administrative staff,  
561 cleaning or maintenance staff. However, the ability to manage non-teaching staff in educational  
562 institutions is not considered a determinant of educational leadership (Ritacco 2019). Similarly, a

563 systematic review by Lee and Mao (2023) concluded that teachers who aspired to become  
564 principals expressed a desire to influence educational processes and students. This perspective may  
565 be related to the results of our research and may explain why the principals participating in this  
566 study were reluctant to assume the principals' competencies of non-teaching leadership, as they  
567 have little direct influence on teaching and learning processes. Comparable results were found in  
568 Portugal, where the management of non-teaching staff was undervalued (De Carvalho and Felizardo  
569 2019). However, López et al. (2021) studied non-teaching staff and emphasised the need to regulate  
570 comprehensive training strategies for them and required specific training and certification to work  
571 in schools.

572 ***Promoting the qualifications and training of the teaching staff (competence 3)***

573 While some participants expressed the view that promoting the qualification and training of the  
574 teaching team should not fall within their purview, this stance contrasts with the perspectives of  
575 several educational researchers. Robinson (2019) posits that the ability to foster teacher  
576 development is a crucial dimension of student-centred leadership, which he argues has a beneficial  
577 impact on student learning outcomes. Echoing this sentiment, Pont (2017) emphasizes the evolving  
578 nature of school leadership, advocating for a focus on 'leading' teacher development, among other  
579 responsibilities. This idea is further supported by Aravena (2016), who concluded that effective  
580 school leadership is instrumental in enhancing the quality of the teaching staff. The critical role of  
581 principal leadership in teacher learning is reinforced by Huang, Huang, and Zhou (2023), who  
582 found that such leadership practices are essential for the growth of teacher learning at both  
583 individual and collective levels. Tan (2018) extends this argument, stressing the need for principals  
584 to prioritize teacher learning development. He asserts that for leadership to exert a lasting and  
585 significant influence on teacher learning, school principals must dedicate considerable effort and  
586 time to promoting teachers' professional growth. Collectively, these insights highlight the  
587 multifaceted role of school principals, positioning them as key agents not only in administrative

588 management but also in driving teacher development and, by extension, student achievement.

589 The divergence between the scientific literature's emphasis on certain competencies and Andalusian  
590 school principals' experiences in executing them is notable. Principals contend that their limited  
591 authority, constrained by current legislation that renders teacher training voluntary, hampers their  
592 ability to promote staff qualification and training effectively, as highlighted in studies like those by  
593 Robinson, Claire, and Kenneth (2008). This contrast between academic perspectives and practical  
594 realities accentuates the necessity for additional research to address these discrepancies.

595 Indirectly, this argument could be related to Pont's (2017) suggestion that school principals cannot  
596 supervise teachers' work in the classroom, and that Spanish legislation may not grant them  
597 sufficient authority to exercise this competency. Therefore, the participants suggested that the  
598 professional competency to promote the qualification and training of teachers should be assumed by  
599 specialised bodies, such as Teacher Training Centres or the Education Inspectorate, which could be  
600 related to the findings of Beltrán et al. (2009), who highlighted teachers' resistance to the  
601 supervision of their tasks. Furthermore, the lack of regulatory norms empowering school principals  
602 to decide on pedagogical leadership, innovation (Ritacco 2019) and teacher training could also  
603 justify these findings. However, as indicated by Lash et al. (2023), school principal training should  
604 focus on the learning and training students and teachers, similar to the findings of Tan et al. (2022)  
605 who concluded that school principals should be trained on how to motivate and equip teachers to  
606 achieve their educational goals. Thus, the type of leadership provided by principals seems to be  
607 affecting teachers' job satisfaction (Sucuoglu and Uluğ 2022). The perspective of school principals  
608 in Andalusia, who contend that certain leadership competencies, particularly in the area of teachers'  
609 professional development and enhancement, fall outside their scope of responsibilities, presents a  
610 significant challenge to the prevailing model of school leadership in this region. Given the well-  
611 established benefits of these competencies in advancing educational institutions, as documented by  
612 the OECD (2016), Pont (2017), and Robinson (2019), there is a pressing need to develop effective

613 strategies and policies that support school principals in their role as facilitators of teacher support,  
614 as suggested by Haglund and Glaés-Coutts (2023). However, it is important to critically examine  
615 the perspective of school principals regarding their role in promoting the qualifications and training  
616 of the teaching staff. While some principals may perceive this responsibility as outside their scope  
617 due to limitations imposed by legislation and administrative constraints, it is essential to consider  
618 the broader implications of such views. By delegating the promotion of staff qualification and  
619 training to specialized organizations, there may be a risk of diluting the direct impact and  
620 accountability of school principals in fostering a culture of continuous improvement and excellence  
621 in teaching. Therefore, while acknowledging the challenges faced by principals in executing certain  
622 competencies, it is imperative to encourage a critical reflection on their role in promoting teacher  
623 development and to explore innovative solutions that empower principals to effectively lead in this  
624 aspect of educational leadership. It is suggested that criticism should be focused not on the  
625 existence of the competency among their responsibilities, but at the necessary provision of  
626 resources to develop it effectively.

627 On the other hand, the identification of these professional competencies among school principals  
628 was homogeneous in terms of their personal characteristics (i.e., gender, age, educational level, and  
629 experience in school leadership), contextual factors (i.e., location, students' socioeconomic status,  
630 number of students and number of teachers). Our findings partially contrasted with those reported in  
631 previous international research (Leithwood et al., 2006; Leo et al., 2020), which indicated that  
632 different sociodemographic factors impacted competencies for management and leadership. Unlike  
633 previous studies that focused on the performance of management and leadership competencies, our  
634 research aimed at identifying professional competencies that school principals consider outside their  
635 scope of responsibility. This involves addressing the potential gap between legally established  
636 assignments and the feasibility of implementing them in the everyday reality of school  
637 management, particularly within the semi-professional Spanish school leadership model. In this  
638 sense, principals in Andalusia, regardless of their sociodemographic factors, concurred in

639 highlighting four professional competencies, likely perceiving them as more administrative tasks  
640 that fall outside the realm of student learning and the effective operation of the school.

641 Additional analysis should explore the relationship between the selection process of school  
642 principals in **Andalusia**, the specific training they receive for their role, and the actual leadership  
643 model implemented in Spanish schools. The educational administration should implement policies  
644 to ensure that the professional competencies assigned to school principals (Ministry of Education,  
645 2020) can be applied with quality assurance in different educational contexts. Hargreaves (2020)  
646 asserts that an excessive emphasis on top-down administrative control has led to inconsistencies  
647 across entire educational systems. He advocates for a shift towards a shared, democratic, or  
648 distributed leadership model. While this approach has been championed for years, its practical  
649 implementation has proven challenging. Our research findings suggest that this issue might also be  
650 present in the Spanish context, particularly in Andalusia. The findings of this research may indicate  
651 that there is a gap between the intention of legislative regulation and the practical application  
652 possibilities in educational institutions.

653 In addressing this challenge, it is worth considering the school leadership models prevalent in  
654 Anglo-Saxon contexts, as these are distinguished by a substantial degree of autonomy in school  
655 leadership, as noted by Castillo and Racero (2022). Additionally, it would be insightful to explore  
656 the European Nordic models, which are renowned for their focus on pedagogical leadership, a  
657 perspective highlighted by Haglund and Glaés-Coutts (2023). These diverse approaches offer  
658 valuable perspectives for enriching and diversifying leadership strategies in education.

659 These models, which emphasize a pedagogically focused approach, have demonstrated efficacy, as  
660 noted by Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe (2008). Adapting a similar model in Spain could involve  
661 reforming the training of school principals to focus more on pedagogical leadership and educational  
662 innovation, a concept supported by Bush & Glover (2014). Furthermore, a reorganization of

663 competencies, including the delegation of certain administrative tasks to specialized staff, would  
664 allow principals to devote greater attention to pedagogical leadership, as advocated by Del Arco,  
665 Ramos-Pla, and Flores-Alarcia (2023). It is essential to emphasize the provision of resources,  
666 preparation, and support required for school principals to effectively execute the identified  
667 competencies. Rather than solely focusing on reducing competencies, our approach highlights the  
668 importance of equipping principals with the necessary tools and support systems to excel in their  
669 roles. This includes access to professional development opportunities, mentorship programs, and  
670 collaborative networks aimed at facilitating knowledge sharing and best practices. Moreover,  
671 ensuring adequate funding and staffing levels is crucial to enable principals to implement  
672 competencies effectively. By emphasizing the significance of providing comprehensive support to  
673 school principals, we aim to foster a culture of co-responsibility among authorities, directors, and  
674 teachers, ultimately leading to improved educational outcomes and school success.

675 This research has significant implications for educational policy and practice in Andalusia, Spain,  
676 indicating a shift towards a leadership model that strikes a balance between administrative duties  
677 and pedagogical responsibilities. Such a model could potentially enhance the quality and  
678 effectiveness of education in schools throughout Andalusia.

#### 679 **Limitations**

680 Despite of the relevance of the results, the present research has a series of shortcomings. Firstly, our  
681 design was cross-sectional with all measures being administered at the same time. Hence, future  
682 research is required to longitudinally explore if the opinions that school principals currently have  
683 regarding their professional competencies are kept over time or undergo changes. Secondly, the use  
684 of a non-probabilistic sampling method for the participant recruitment and selection makes it  
685 necessary to interpret the findings with caution, given their limitation in being generalizable to other  
686 populations. Therefore, further research is required to consider a greater heterogeneity in the sample  
687 of participating school principals in terms of the inclusion of other types of schools (e.g., private

688 school) or type of education to be offered (e.g., online, or blended). Additionally, investigating the  
689 perspectives of school leadership from other autonomous communities in Spain would enrich our  
690 understanding by highlighting potential regional differences and similarities in leadership models.

691 In turn, factors that may influence the results have not been considered, such as leadership style,  
692 schoolworking environment or climate, degree of teaching personalization, and teacher well-being.

### 693 **Conclusions**

694 This research sheds light on the perspectives of school principals in Andalusia, specifically focusing  
695 on the mismatch between the competencies assigned to them and those they deem essential for  
696 effective school leadership. Principals have identified four competencies - awarding contracts,  
697 authorising expenditures, promoting teacher qualifications and training, and supervising non-  
698 teaching staff - as being outside their preferred scope of responsibilities. The reluctance to engage in  
699 these tasks is attributed to their bureaucratic nature, the lack of specific training, a perceived  
700 disconnect from direct student learning, insufficient legal authority, and a belief in the efficiency of  
701 a more centralised model for these tasks.

702 The findings of this study call for a critical reassessment of the competencies assigned to school  
703 principals and the way they are managed. It highlights the need to explore alternative approaches for  
704 tasks that principals feel ill-equipped to manage, particularly due to inadequate training or authority.  
705 This reassessment could lead to enhanced management efficiency and the adoption of more  
706 collaborative, participatory, distributed, and autonomous leadership models.

707 Educational authorities should prioritize the development of strategies that effectively implement  
708 key leadership tasks, especially those that foster teachers' professional development and enhance  
709 their qualifications and training. In this vein, it's worth considering that leadership coaching is an  
710 increasingly popular strategy aimed at enhancing the effectiveness of principals, as outlined by  
711 Patrick et al. (2021). This necessity is supported by the research of Del Arco, Ramos-Pla, and

712 Flores-Alarcia (2023), which underscores the importance of management training in augmenting the  
713 professionalization of school principals in Spain (Catalonia), specifically targeting challenges such  
714 as excessive bureaucracy and time constraints.

715 Additionally, while examining the perspectives of school principals on certain professional  
716 competencies, it becomes evident that their opinions may hinder the advancement of more effective  
717 leadership models. This observation underscores the importance of not only addressing external  
718 factors but also critically evaluating the role and speech of the principals themselves. Therefore,  
719 alongside the call for further research to develop administrative strategies supporting principals in  
720 managing competencies, it is equally imperative to encourage self-reflection and improvement in  
721 their leadership approach. By fostering a culture of self-critique and continuous improvement  
722 among principals, we could better facilitate significant advancements in pedagogical leadership and  
723 overall school effectiveness.

724 This study underscores the need for policy changes and educational reforms in **Andalusia**, Spain,  
725 that advocate for a balanced leadership model, one that harmonizes administrative duties with a  
726 strong emphasis on pedagogical leadership. Such reforms are expected to not only enhance the  
727 efficiency of school management but also significantly improve the quality and effectiveness of  
728 education. This approach ensures that leadership roles are optimized for both administrative  
729 efficiency and educational impact. In line with this, it is crucial for administrative authorities to  
730 consider the insights of school principals. By formulating measures that ensure the proper and  
731 quality execution of essential tasks, particularly those that focus on fostering teachers' professional  
732 development and enhancing their qualifications and training, a more effective and responsive  
733 educational leadership can be established.

734 For subsequent research, we recommend exploring alternative approaches in competency  
735 management as suggested by school principals. Such a study could offer deeper understanding of

736 more efficient leadership styles and administrative methods, thereby enhancing educational  
737 leadership across diverse settings. The aim should be to conduct a thorough analysis of the  
738 competencies and responsibilities that principals deem secondary to their primary role,  
739 incorporating these essential factors. Furthermore, a comparative examination of the perspectives of  
740 school principals from different international and contextual backgrounds is likely to provide  
741 significant insights.

742 In summary, this article emphasizes the need for a systemic shift in school leadership roles in Spain  
743 (Andalusia), advocating for a more balanced, efficient, and educationally focused approach. The  
744 insights of school principals are invaluable in guiding this transformation, paving the way for future  
745 advancements in pedagogical leadership and educational excellence.

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**Table 1.**

Estimated absolute and relative frequency of professional competencies that school principals believe they should not perform **under the conditions established by the Andalusian educational context.**

Professional competence	Absolute frequency (N=564)	Relative frequency (100%)
1.Exercising pedagogical leadership and promoting plans to achieve the objectives of the educational project	7	1.24%
2.Promoting educational innovation and research	37	6.56%
3.Promoting the qualification and training of the teaching team	<b>67</b>	<b>11.88%</b>
4.Promoting organisational forms and the school timetable for subjects or areas	42	7.45%
5.Convening and chairing academic events and meetings of the school board and the faculty, and ensuring the implementation of adopted agreements	5	0.89%
6.Designing the educational planning and organisation of the school, as outlined in the annual general programme	9	1.60%
7.Awarding contracts for construction, services and materials	<b>180</b>	<b>31.91%</b>
8.Authorising expenditure, ordering payments and preparing the school budget	<b>64</b>	<b>11.35%</b>
9.Endorsing certificates and official documents of the school	31	5.50%
10.Exercising leadership over the teaching staff of the school and proposing the appointment and dismissal of the management team	7	1.24%
11.Supervising the non-teaching staff of the school	<b>85</b>	<b>15.07%</b>
12.Promoting coexistence, ensuring conflict mediation and imposing corrective measures on students	11	1.95%
13.Promoting internal evaluations of the school and participating in external evaluations and teacher evaluations	36	6.38%
14.Acting as a representative of the educational administration in the school and as an intermediary with the educational community and administration	12	2.12%
15.Fostering cooperation with families, institutions, and organisations in the environment	6	1.06%