



Education and Culture DG



School Autonomy in Europe Policies and Measures



European Commission





School Autonomy in Europe

Policies and Measures

Eurydice
The information network on education in Europe

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PREFACE



Schools are at the heart of all education systems. More than this, schools lay the foundations for the societies of the future, because they play such a crucial role in forming the citizens of the future. They are also decisive for our future prosperity, which depends greatly on the skills – in the widest possible sense of the word – and knowledge which schools are imparting to their pupils now.

Despite this, the 2006 PISA study results show that the scientific and reading abilities of 15 year-olds across the European Union have *deteriorated* over the last six years. This is an unsustainable and unacceptable situation and every effort must be made to reverse this trend. This is why the Commission, in its Strategic Report on the Lisbon Strategy adopted on 11 December 2007, called on Member States to make a determined effort to raise the basic skills of young people. Many factors are involved here, but one of them is clearly the optimal organisation of the school system in order to maximise performance.

Over the past twenty years, schools have been the subject of much deliberation and have undergone many reforms, in particular as regards their autonomy. There has been a strong focus on the need to improve democratic participation, the management of public funding invested in education and, especially in recent years, the quality of teaching. The approaches taken differ in terms of the rhythm of reforms, the scale of the transfers of authority and the areas they apply to, the stakeholders who benefit from them and the control or accountability mechanisms in place. No one approach by any Member State can be singled out as ideal or as more effective overall, because the histories and contexts of our countries are so diverse. Nevertheless, in moving forwards, policy makers in individual countries and regions can learn a great deal from the approaches and experiences of others.

Although reforms have been going on for several decades, school autonomy remains a key issue on the political agenda of many if not most European countries. It was one of the priorities of the Portuguese Presidency of the Council of the European Union during the second half of 2007 and the Eurydice network was asked to contribute by producing a study.

This publication therefore presents the wide diversity of policies in each country aimed at increasing the autonomy of schools, in a way which allows their main elements to be compared. The tables in the Annex allow the reader to gain a rapid overview. I believe this new Eurydice study represents an important contribution to better understanding the complex processes involved in the transformation and modernisation of our schools – processes which are necessary to ensure the future of our societies.

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "Ján Figel'". The signature is written in a cursive style with a horizontal line above the name.

Ján Figel'

Commissioner for Education, Training,
Culture and Youth

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INTRODUCTION

The objective of the study is to provide a comparative analysis of how school autonomy is implemented in 30 ⁽¹⁾ countries of the Eurydice Network at this time and to gain a fuller understanding of the processes that have led to the devolution of decision-making powers to schools and how schools are held accountable for their responsibilities to higher education authorities.

The reference year for this study is 2006/07 and information relates to education levels at ISCED 1 and 2, which correspond to the period of full-time compulsory education almost everywhere. Reforms planned for forthcoming years have also been included where possible. Only the public education sector is described, with the exception of Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands, where the grant-aided private sector is also covered because it accounts for the majority of school enrolments. Moreover, in the Netherlands, equal funding and treatment of private and public education is enshrined in the constitution.

With respect to the methodology of this study, the Eurydice European Unit developed a questionnaire in conjunction with the Portuguese national unit and officials from the Portuguese Ministry of Education. The comparative analysis is based on responses to this questionnaire from Eurydice National Units. To ensure that the information contained in the study is an accurate and high-quality representation of national situations, a final checking phase was held between July and September 2007. All of the contributors to this study are acknowledged at the end of the volume.

The notion of 'school autonomy' refers in this study to several different aspects of school management (essentially funding and human resources). Schools may be autonomous to varying degrees regarding these aspects. They are considered to be fully autonomous, or to have a high degree of autonomy, if they are fully responsible for their decisions subject to legal constraints or the general framework of education legislation. This does not preclude consultation with other education authorities. Schools are partly autonomous if they take decisions within a set of predetermined options or require approval for decisions from their education authority. Autonomy may also be implied where there is an absence of rules or regulations in a given area. A 'school' should be understood as an educational establishment with its own identity and school head, usually situated on a single site.

In some countries, decision-making powers reside with local education authorities, which have the option to delegate decision-making powers to schools. In the three countries where the majority school enrolments are in the private grant-aided sector, school autonomy may also refer to the delegation of decision-making powers to schools from the competent private education authority (known sometimes as the 'organising body').

⁽¹⁾ Turkey will not contribute to this study.

Today, the principle that schools should be autonomous in at least some areas of their management is accepted nearly everywhere in Europe. This consensus is the result of three decades of change, starting slowly in the 1980s and gaining momentum in the 1990s and the first years of this century. The different theories that have successively driven this move towards school autonomy in Europe are described in **chapter I**. It shows that although policy contexts change – from the need for more democratic participation to more efficient public management and, today, the concern to improve quality of education – the overall result has been more responsibility and decision-making powers for schools. Reforms working in this direction have generally been imposed on schools in a top-down legislative process.

Chapter II of this study looks with some detail at the content of school autonomy within three broad fields (the first two being the use of public and private funds respectively and the third being human resources). The degree and type of autonomy that schools have are analysed with respect to specific parameters, as are different categories of decision-making responsibilities within schools. The role played by school management bodies in this connection is also highlighted, together with a brief description of who is represented on these bodies in different European countries.

Finally, the ways in which schools are held accountable for their decisions is outlined in **chapter III**. This process often forms part of well-established evaluation processes carried out by inspectorates or other external bodies. In a few countries, schools are accountable mainly to local education authorities. There is also sometimes a trend for evaluation systems to be coupled with the development of national standards and tests. An even more recent trend is for schools to be accountable to a multiplicity of stakeholders beyond education authorities as such.

CHAPTER 1: IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL AUTONOMY: UNDERLYING RATIONALE, HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND POLICY FRAMEWORK

Although the policy of school autonomy now seems widespread in Europe, this has been the result of a gradual process of implementation starting in the 1980s in a few pioneering countries and then expanding massively during the 1990s (section 1.1). These reforms followed schools of thought current at the time (section 1.2). In the vast majority of cases, these reforms were imposed as part of a top-down decision-making process. Central governments allocated new responsibilities to schools, schools themselves were not the driving force, they did not participate in the development of the legislation beyond their traditional role in the consultation process for education reform (section 1.3).

1.1. The 1990s: decade of expansion of school autonomy

With the exception of certain countries, school autonomy is not a tradition in Europe in either centralised or federal countries. This type of school management was implemented in only a few pioneering countries from the 1980s onwards and in a limited way. The school autonomy movement did not really become widespread until the 1990s. The trend continues in the current decade with new countries adopting this type of school management whilst the trail-blazers of the 1980s and 1990s are increasing the range of responsibilities held by schools.

Although there are distinct differences in the historical models of education organisation in Europe – federal systems in Germany and centralised systems in Spain, France, and Italy – two countries stand out in terms of their highly developed traditions of school autonomy – Belgium and the Netherlands. In both cases this tradition resulted from the ‘school wars’ between public and private education. Education in these countries was traditionally managed by ‘organising bodies’⁽¹⁾ which enjoyed a high degree of freedom. Therefore, in the French, Flemish and German-speaking Communities in Belgium the independence enjoyed by grant-aided (public and private)⁽²⁾ schools in the areas of teaching methods, management of human and other resources is supported by the Constitution⁽³⁾ (Article 24 guarantees freedom of education) and by the system of education management traditionally delivered by organising bodies. In the Netherlands, in a similar context to the ‘school wars’, the freedom of teaching and school autonomy originated at the beginning of the 20th century. While the policies of the 1970s may have undermined the principle of school autonomy, since the 1980s, many responsibilities have been transferred to schools by the ‘organising bodies’ with the aim of stimulating innovation in schools.

However, with the exception of these countries, school autonomy is not a European tradition. Historically, schools have not had much freedom of movement in defining the curriculum and setting teaching objectives or in the management of finance and human resources⁽⁴⁾. It is only since the 1980s that the movement

(1) In Belgium, the *inrichtende machten*, *schoolbesturen* for the Flemish Community, the *pouvoirs organisateurs* for the French Community and the *schulträger* for the German-speaking Community.

(2) Community schools in the public sector are directly accountable to the Minister and do not have a long tradition of autonomy. These institutions are in the minority and represent less than 20 % of primary schools and less than 50 % of secondary schools.

(3) During the transfer of education to the Communities in 1989, the basic principles recognised by the ‘School Pact’ political agreement signed in 1959 were directly incorporated into Article 24 of the Constitution. The first clause recognises the ‘liberty of education’.

(4) The United Kingdom is in a unique position in this sense as, historically, schools enjoyed extensive freedom in teaching matters, in particular with respect to local adaptation of the curricula whilst being closely supervised in their management of human resources and budgets by their ‘local authorities’.

towards school autonomy began to develop, usually in the form of a limited transfer of responsibilities. For example, in Spain, the Act on the Right to Education (the LODE) established the foundations for school autonomy from 1985. As part of its extensive programme of decentralisation, France also adopted a regulation in 1985 which defined the content of a restricted form of autonomy. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the Education Reform Act 1988 provided for an increase in school autonomy through the transfer of responsibilities for the management of finance and human resources, historically held by local education authorities, to schools. The same Act also introduced central control of the school curriculum and the arrangements for pupil assessment, so in this area of their work schools saw their autonomy eroded. In Northern Ireland, similar reforms were introduced in 1989 by the Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order.

During the 1990s the policy of school autonomy became more or less widespread. The Nordic countries have all now adopted a system which couples political decentralisation with school autonomy. Following a political consensus, Austria adopted its first school autonomy reform in 1993. The breakdown of the former Soviet Union was the signal for the Czech Republic, Hungary ⁽⁵⁾, Poland, Slovakia as well as the Baltic States to adopt this method of school management. In 1993, even before devolution in 1999, the Secretary of State for Scotland decided to extend the process of decentralisation begun within the framework of the United Kingdom reform by adopting a model of school management which is still in operation: the Devolved School System (DSM). A few years later, after a difficult parliamentary debate lasting several years, Italy adopted a policy of school autonomy in 1997.

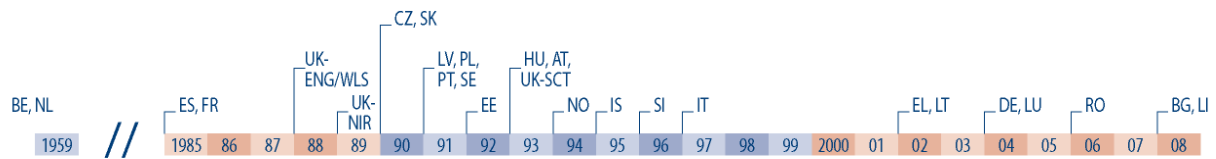
Some countries began to consider school autonomy early in the present decade. This is the case in Germany which ran pilot schemes in some *Länder* from 2004. Lithuania, Luxembourg and Romania launched the process in 2003, 2004 and 2006 respectively. In the same way, schools in Bulgaria are going to acquire more freedom in terms of managing their budget, as part of the decentralisation movement which favours the municipalities. Liechtenstein plans to develop schools with a specific profile at secondary level from 2008/09.

Countries which had already embarked on a policy of school autonomy have, in recent years, started to reinforce the powers already granted to schools. The new millennium seems to have triggered a second round of school autonomy reforms. In Spain, the new 2006 Act on Education (LOE) currently being implemented, underlines the principle of school autonomy of schools in the areas of planning, management and organisation. Schools are responsible for drawing up and implementing education and management plans under the supervision of their respective education authorities. In 2006, Latvia also put in place new regulations which seek to limit external control of schools. In Portugal, the Decree – Law No 115-A, which set the principles of school autonomy, published in 1998, was being gradually developed in schools until 2006 when new and more concrete policies were launched. Similarly, since 2001, a circular issued by the Scottish Government, invited schools at ISCED level 2 to take further advantage of their pedagogic freedom by introducing new vocational subjects. The new French Government is also considering extending school autonomy in order to reinforce the measures taken in the 1980s. In most countries, these new measures were prompted by concerns that the first suite of reforms had stalled due to resistance on the ground.

The school autonomy movement has developed gradually over three decades and the associated reforms reflect a range of schools of thought which vary according to the period in which they were introduced.

⁽⁵⁾ Prior to the major reform in 1993, the Education Reform Act of 1985 had already identified the necessary areas of autonomy.

**Figure 1.1: Dates of the first large-scale reforms which sanctioned school autonomy
ISCED levels 1 and 2, 1985-2007**



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Only subsidised schools (public and private) have enjoyed a long tradition of autonomy. In the Flemish Community, public schools directly dependent on the ministry were granted a level of autonomy similar to subsidised schools in 1989.

Belgium and Netherlands: Due to a long-standing history of school autonomy, no precise date is given here for these two countries.

Denmark and Finland: Progressive implementation of autonomy dates not specified.

France: The 1985 regulations only concern ISCED 2.

Explanatory note

This historical overview takes into account only major legislation or regulations which provided for the implementation of school autonomy policies covering different areas of school responsibility. Ad hoc measures which often preceded these large-scale reforms are not included.

1.2. Different schools of thought in different decades

The overarching concept is that school autonomy is associated with several schools of thought which, according to the time-frame, influenced school autonomy measures to a greater or lesser extent. Historically, as we have seen in Belgium and the Netherlands, school autonomy developed as a reflection of teaching freedoms and was legitimised by religious and philosophical considerations. In the 19th and throughout most of the 20th century it was mainly on this basis that school autonomy was at issue.

The 1980s were to see a new direction. School autonomy reforms were linked with the political cause of **democratic participation** and emphasized the need for schools to be more open to their local communities. In Spain, for example, in the spirit of the Constitution, the LODE aimed to implement school autonomy as a means to achieve democratic participation. All sectors of the education community had to be represented at the heart of the school decision-making process. Similarly, in France, a new legal status for institutions at ISCED level 2 conferred increased management freedoms while the decree of August 1985 laid down the terms of school autonomy based on the principle of opening schools to their community. The end of the 1980s was also the occasion for Portugal to embark on a wide consultation on school autonomy organised by the Education Reform Commission. An in-depth study of the concept led to a definite distinction being made between school autonomy as governance and school autonomy as management. In addition, there developed a discussion around the management bodies involved in these new school freedoms: should they be seen as agents of governance, open to representation from parents and the community or as agents of management involving only participants from within the school? The predominance of teachers in decision-making and the powers they were granted were also opened to question.

In the 1990s, if granting new freedoms to local participants remained an issue, it was joined by another concern, that of **efficient management of public funds**. School autonomy reforms became strongly linked to a dual movement towards political decentralisation and implementing the 'New Public Management'

agenda. New Public Management seeks to apply private sector principles to the management of public services. There are five main tenets: placing the customer at the centre of state activities and thus eroding the public sector mentality; decentralising responsibilities to the level closest to the field of operation; making government officers accountable to the community; emphasising the quality of services and efficiency of public bodies and, finally, replacing traditional procedural controls with evaluation by results (Hood, 2001) ⁽⁶⁾. Decentralising responsibilities to local communities and school autonomy are therefore linked in order to increase the efficiency of school management – it is taken for granted that decisions taken at the level closest to operations will guarantee the best use of public resources. This dual theory drove the reforms during this period in the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia and in the Baltic states where the break with the highly-centralised earlier system also provided the opportunity to adopt new rules for public management. In the Nordic countries, school autonomy was also connected with the process of political decentralisation which saw local councils become major players in school management. School autonomy often forms part of the same legislative framework as political decentralisation – like two boxes which stack together – since local authorities which are granted new responsibilities may, in turn delegate new duties to the schools of which they are in charge.

The vision of school autonomy has evolved little in the present decade since the transfer of new responsibilities to schools is no longer built into a global process of political and administrative structural renewal. In most countries, school autonomy is now seen largely as a tool to be used to improve the **quality of education**. Whether it is a country which re-launches a process already begun in past decades – such as Bulgaria, Czech Republic or Portugal – or a country which is taking its first steps along the route, such as Germany, Luxembourg or Romania – the emphasis is on a close analysis of the responsibilities which should be devolved. Greater attention is paid to pedagogic autonomy which seems more closely linked to raising achievement at school.

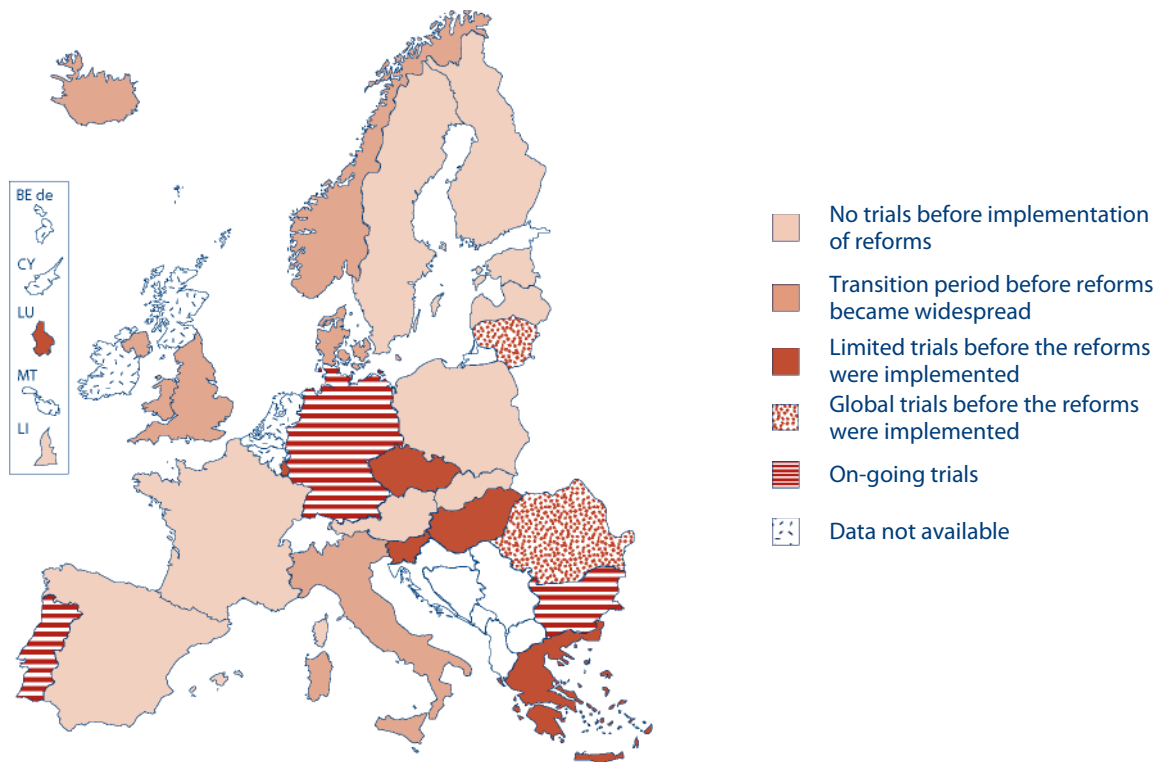
This renewed interest in school autonomy is characterised by an increased use of trials with the intention of studying how schools use their new powers and achieving greater understanding of the effects of school autonomy (Figure 1.2). During previous decades, with the exception of some Nordic countries and other very limited trials ⁽⁷⁾, school autonomy has been implemented without any transition period or any testing. However, the current decade has seen a more pragmatic, experimental approach. For example, since 2004, most German *Länder* have been operating trials which are closely analysed in order to understand the processes at work. Similarly, in the Czech Republic teaching autonomy reforms which required schools to develop their own curriculum in 2006 were piloted in 14 schools at ISCED levels 1 and 2 from 2004. Luxembourg has also been carrying out a pilot scheme with a largely pedagogic focus in ISCED level 2 institutions since 2004. Similarly, the new contractual policy in Portugal is currently being tested in 24 schools selected from a reserve of volunteer schools who had already carried out self-evaluations. Autonomy is therefore gradually developing in several areas: teaching (including curricula), human resources, social services and the management of property and finances. Romania followed the same course in 2006, testing its new system of autonomy in around 50 schools at ISCED levels 1 and 2. In 2006/07, Slovenia also launched a trial on the use of flexible hours (leaving schools to decide how to allocate time to different subjects and how to organise cross-curricular activities, project work, etc.).

⁽⁶⁾ Hood, C. (2001), *New Public Management*, In N.J. Smelser, P.B. Baltes (eds), *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral sciences*, Amsterdam, Elsevier.

⁽⁷⁾ Bulgaria trialed the introduction of curriculum autonomy for modern foreign languages in primary schools in 1993 and 1994.

If the school autonomy policies followed the different schools of thought current at the time, the political process under which these reforms were decided and implemented does not appear to demonstrate the same degree of diversity.

Figure 1.2: Occurrence and types of trials of school autonomy at ISCED levels 1 and 2 (1985-2007)



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium and Netherlands: No information due to their long tradition of school autonomy which preceded the period in question.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The information relates to the delegation of funds by local authorities to schools following legislation in 1988 (England and Wales) and 1989 (Northern Ireland). There were also a number of local initiatives to delegate funds in the early 1980s.

Explanatory notes

Transition period – gradual implementation process used during the 1990s, for instance in Iceland (1996-2001), Italy (1998-2002).

Global trials – trials in which all school autonomy measures in the country were tested. Such trials took place this decade in Romania (2006) and Lithuania (2002-2005).

Limited trials – trials which involved only some of the school autonomy measures and tested in a limited number of schools. These types of trial took place mainly during this decade; for instance in the Czech Republic (2004-2006), Luxembourg (2004) and Slovenia (2006/07).

1.3. School autonomy: a top-down policy imposed on schools

Conceptually, school autonomy should run in tandem with local participation. Indeed, historically this principle of school management is strongly linked to the demand for teaching freedom by local stakeholders (school managers, parents, etc.). However, since the 1980s in Europe, these reforms are largely laid down under national legal frameworks which demonstrate a top-down model of decision-making process without any identifiable driving force coming from schools themselves.

In fact, in most European countries, school autonomy measures are defined under national legal frameworks and are imposed on all schools. In the vast majority of cases, these policies are laid down under the strict framework of legislation (rather than the more flexible framework of administrative regulations issued by executive bodies).

In the first scenario, schools' new responsibilities were granted **under general regulations which covered a wide range of aspects of the school system** and, as such, school autonomy was not their primary objective. Therefore, in Spain, the different general education laws and regulations passed within the context of progressive decentralisation, recognised the legal right of the Autonomous Communities to regulate the autonomy of their schools, although they also established a basic general framework that has led to a relatively homogeneous structure on this matter at national level. In the same way, in France, the initial laws on decentralisation granted a single status (EPLÉ)⁽⁸⁾ to ISCED level 2 institutions and gave them the role of a corporate body – a necessary condition for acquiring management autonomy. In Poland, the Education System Act of 7th September 1991 was coupled to the Local Government Act of 8th March 1991 and defined both the new powers of local authorities with respect to education and the transfer of responsibilities to schools. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the Education Reform Act 1988 transferred many of the responsibilities previously held by 'local education authorities' to individual schools. Similar reforms were introduced by the Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order 1989. Italy also subscribed to this movement, although in rather an extreme way. From 2001, Article 117 of the Constitution itself recognised the autonomy of school establishments⁽⁹⁾. Greece also falls into this category.

A second scenario, which is less common, involves several countries which have laid down **regulations for school autonomy under legislation designed specifically for the purpose**. This is the case in Luxembourg, for example, which has adopted specific legislation (the law of 25th June 2004) regarding the management of general secondary schools and technical secondary schools (*lycées, lycées techniques*) which paves the way for a school autonomy pilot project. Similarly, in Portugal, the decree of 1998 was dedicated to defining the framework for school autonomy. This trend for specific legislation together with the new schools of thought which underpinned the reforms became more widespread from the year 2000. From this time, school autonomy became an end in itself, it was no longer dependent on more general national reforms or concerns about the modernisation of public administration.

The third scenario is extremely rare; in order to define school autonomy some countries rely on more flexible **administrative regulations** issued by executive bodies. These are by nature more adaptable. For example, this occurs in some German *Länder* such as Baden-Württemberg where a project entitled 'Autonomy of

⁽⁸⁾ *Établissement Public Local d'Enseignement* – Local Public School.

⁽⁹⁾ Article 117 gives the state power to determine general education standards, fundamental principles and basic levels of service across the whole country. Regions are responsible for legislating on teaching matters 'subject to the provisions for school autonomy'. These general measures of 2001 complete the specific legislative framework for school autonomy: Act No. 59, 15th March 1997.

Schools and the Management of Education in the School Year 2006/07' or in Bavaria where a 'leadership devolution' scheme was developed as part of the administrative project 'Pilot Project Modus F'.

Whatever the chosen model, be it through general education legislation, specific legislation or more flexible regulations, because it was determined at central level by legislative procedures, autonomy was imposed on schools in nearly all countries. Schools themselves did not seek autonomy, the legislation made provision for the transfer of new duties without schools having any right to express their view on the matter. In fact, schools acquired new responsibilities in spite of their own wishes. At best, under some reforms such as those in Portugal or in some German *Länder* (for example in Rhineland-Palatinate) schools were allowed to choose whether to join pilot projects. The position of the United Kingdom (England) is notable in that, not only have all schools gained wide-ranging financial and managerial responsibilities, but there are also some categories of school with additional freedoms. Schools can, in principle, choose the legal category which best suits their character and aspirations. This diversity is not new; the legal framework originally established in 1944 enabled schools provided by voluntary bodies, mainly churches, to opt into the system with a choice of legal category (aided or controlled) related to the level of autonomy and financial responsibility they wished to retain. To these categories of school were added: grant-maintained schools (1988 to 1998); foundation schools (from 1998); and now, from 2007, trust schools. From 1988, the City Technology College programme, and from 2000, the Academy programme introduced further levels of independence for new schools. Apart from these important exceptions, school autonomy was imposed in a top-down fashion across Europe.

This top-down nature of the school autonomy process is confirmed by the absence of any impetus from school staff. Taking into account the new freedoms at work, it could be logical for staff to have been at the forefront of the movement or, at least, strongly influential through their trade unions or school heads' associations. However, it appears that their contribution was very limited. In some countries, representatives of school staff were, at best, consulted about plans for reform. In Estonia, the school heads' union was involved in developing the thinking around school autonomy by suggesting amendments which were subsequently integrated into the reforms. Some Nordic countries also entered into consultations with the trade unions before implementing their reforms. In Bulgaria, the school heads' union was also consulted on the school autonomy process during the reform at ISCED level 2. In other countries, schools were also involved in developing the practical ways in which school autonomy was to be implemented. School by school negotiation took place with the ministry in Luxembourg before responsibilities were transferred. On a larger scale, Italy organised a vast consultation with schools before the orders were drawn up to implement Act No. 59 on school autonomy. Ninety per cent of schools gave their views on the outcomes of school autonomy, its management, the training available, or the relationship between school autonomy and the national training system. Similarly, during trials in Romania, schools were consulted in order to identify their needs and the difficulties they had met in managing their new responsibilities. However, even though trade unions and schools were consulted in some countries, it does not appear that the transfer of responsibilities resulted from demands made by people at the chalk face (with the exception of Italy, whose report highlights strong demands from school heads, and Slovenia which mentions intense activity by teachers regarding pedagogic innovation, linked to future consideration of pedagogic autonomy during the transition period following independence (1990-1996)).

The experience of the Nordic countries is markedly different from this very centralised transfer process. In Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Norway, local authorities became major players in the education system and could decide to grant autonomy to schools under their control if they felt it would be beneficial. Within each country, this resulted in the development of a variety of models by which responsibilities were transferred to schools. In the same way, in the Netherlands, the principles behind deregulation prompted central

government to cease becoming involved in the detailed management of schools and therefore left greater management freedoms to the authorities in charge of schools.

Overall, after three decades of massive change, the policy of school autonomy is now widespread throughout most European countries. A top-down approach was used, providing a strong framework for the new school freedoms. Part II of this report examines the main areas of responsibility which were transferred to schools.

CHAPTER 2: LEVELS OF SCHOOL AUTONOMY AND TYPES OF SCHOOL DECISION-MAKING

The first chapter demonstrated that there were marked differences across Europe in the underlying rationale and the implementation timescale of the of the school autonomy process. Therefore it is not surprising that, in 2007, the types of area in which schools have autonomy and the types of decision-makers also differ considerably.

This chapter examines both the areas of autonomy and decision-making within schools. Firstly, the study will analyse the areas of responsibility and degree of autonomy awarded to schools (section 2.1) and secondly, the role played by different types of school decision makers (section 2.2). Three basic areas of operation will be examined: the use of public funds, the raising and use of private funds and the management of human resources (selection, dismissal, discipline, etc.). Other areas of school operations which might also be within their domain such as education provision, education content (curriculum, teaching methods, etc.), pupil evaluation, and school regulations and organisation are not considered here. The third section (2.3) looks at the composition of school management bodies where they exist.

Because the areas of responsibility held by schools at ISCED levels 1 and 2 are very similar, these levels of education are generally treated together in this study. Any differences that do exist are mentioned in the text and beneath the relevant figures on a case by case basis.

2.1. Areas of responsibility and degree of autonomy

In this section, the degree of autonomy held by schools is divided into four broad categories⁽¹⁾. **Full autonomy** – applies when a school takes decisions within the limits of the law or the general regulatory framework for education, without the intervention of outside bodies (even if they have to consult higher authorities); **limited autonomy** – when schools take decisions within a set of options predetermined by a higher education authority or obtain approval for their decisions from a higher authority. Schools are considered to be **without autonomy** when they do not take decisions in a given area.

A fourth category appears in the organisational structures of some education systems. In some countries the administrative body and/or local authority may choose whether or not to **delegate** their decision-making powers in certain areas to schools. In such cases, there may be differences between schools within the country in the level and areas of responsibility delegated. In the Netherlands, the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) responsible for the school chooses the areas in which it delegates certain powers. To a lesser extent it is found in Denmark (immovable goods and acquisition of computer equipment from public funds and selection for substituting absent teachers), and Finland (for example using public funds for operating expenses and recruiting substitute teachers).

⁽¹⁾ A detailed table showing the different types of autonomy under each broad category and for each area discussed in this section is available in the annex.

Use of public funds

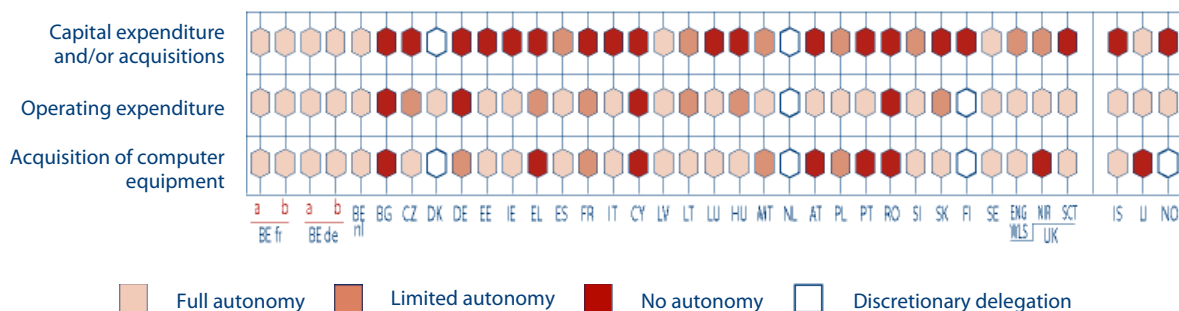
Countries can be divided into three groups according to the degree of autonomy held by schools in their use of public funds which are allocated to cover several budget headings (capital expenditure, operating expenditure and acquisition of computer equipment).

In the first group (Belgium, Latvia and Sweden), schools have full autonomy (within the legal framework) in the use of funds for these budget headings. Formally, delegation may, but will most probably not, occur in all areas in the Netherlands. In Denmark, depending on the type of expenditure, decisions may be delegated (or not delegated) to schools by the administrative body or taken by schools themselves. Delegation also occurs in Finland except for buildings expenditure which does not fall into the remit of schools.

At the other end of the spectrum, in five countries, schools have no autonomy in their use of public funds. Decisions in these matters are not their responsibility in Bulgaria, Ireland (ISCED 1), France (ISCED 1), Cyprus and Romania. In these countries decisions are taken by the higher education authorities although schools may be consulted during the procedure. Greece is an exception since operating expenditure is determined either by the school (but subject to approval) or by a list of predefined options. In Germany, this is the case for the acquisition of computer equipment.

The third group comprises countries where the degree of autonomy changes according to the category of expenditure. Generally all these countries have more autonomy for operating expenditure than for capital expenditure. In the latter case, schools often have no autonomy at all. In Lithuania, it is limited for both categories of expenditure. In France (ISCED 2), decisions about operating expenditure and the acquisition of computer equipment may be made by schools with the approval of the higher education authority. In Liechtenstein (ISCED 2), the degree of autonomy varies according to the level of expenditure. In the Netherlands, delegation from the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) regarding capital expenditure and/or acquisitions is formally possible but is most likely to remain in the domain of the competent authority.

Figure 2.1: Autonomy of schools in the use of public funds, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Belgium (BE de) (a): Capital expenditure: schools can decide within a certain level of expenditure. Above this level the decision is taken by the ministry.

Belgium (BE nl): Although levels of autonomy are equivalent in all 3 sectors (community public schools, public grant-aided schools and private grant-aided schools), the technical mechanism for public funding between *community education* and *communal and privately subsidised education* differs. Community education is financed (prepaid) while communal and privately subsidised education is subsidised (paid after service delivery).

Bulgaria: Schools have autonomy for some operating expenditure.

Ireland: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

Greece: Schools may be fully autonomous for some operating expenditure.

Spain: Capital expenditure: schools propose expenditure but the education authority approves and provides finances (local authorities for primary education and the Autonomous Community for secondary schools). Schools are free to make their own decisions regarding the acquisition of computer equipment, but Autonomous Communities usually design the whole network facilities and provide the most important part of the equipment.

France: Refers to non-salary expenditure. Secondary schools (ISCED 2) do not have autonomy with regard to expenditure on salaries. Primary schools (ISCED1) have no autonomy with respect to use of public funds.

Latvia: Schools have full autonomy in the use of public funds in their budget as approved by their founding body.

Luxembourg: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

Hungary: Capital expenditure is forbidden. Acquisitions can be financed from the annual budget from the maintaining body. The purpose has to be declared and the amount has to be separated within the budget. Planning yearly acquisition is a task of the school head; and approved by the maintainer.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Austria: Refers to the *Hauptschule* and ISCED 1. Acquisition of computer equipment – the *Allgemein bildende höhere Schule* (AHS) takes decisions which are passed to the higher authority for approval.

Slovenia: Capital expenditure: investment is approved by the founding-municipality and/or the public financing body (ministry of education, ministry of finance). Autonomy depends on the source of the finance (the state, the municipality or the school). Acquisition of computer equipment: the decision is the school's but may involve the use of central public funds in which case the school is not autonomous.

Slovakia: The school can decide on some capital expenditure with the approval of the higher authority.

Sweden: Local authorities must follow national guidelines and therefore have to delegate at least a certain amount of decision-making powers to schools.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): Acquisition of computer equipment: schools and local authorities receive funding for ICT through a number of different grants. Schools are advised by their local authority and by Becta, the government agency supporting ICT in schools, but are not bound by this advice.

United Kingdom (NIR): Acquisition of computer equipment: all schools receive a core managed service but are free to make additional investments in ICT from their budget.

Iceland: Schools have autonomy within established guidelines with respect to some operating expenses and purchase of computer equipment.

Liechtenstein: At ISCED level 1 powers there is either delegation or no autonomy. Capital and operating expenditure at ISCED 2: schools have full autonomy for expenditure below CHF 3 000; above this level their autonomy is limited or non-existent.

Norway: Purchase of computer equipment: delegation may result in schools taking decisions after approval by the higher authority.

Overall, there is autonomy (although limited) to decide on operating expenditure in the majority of countries. Such autonomy is less pronounced for the acquisition of computer equipment. In this area, schools in Bulgaria, Greece, France (ISCED 1), Cyprus, Austria (*Hauptschule* and ISCED 1), Portugal, Romania and in Liechtenstein have no control over decisions. In all other countries, schools have a certain degree of autonomy. Purchases are made at school level without outside interference in Belgium, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Luxembourg (ISCED 2), Hungary, Slovakia, Sweden and Iceland. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), there are some specific centrally funded measures for information and communication technology (ICT) while in Northern Ireland, all schools are provided with a core, managed service. Similarly, schools in Belgium benefit from regional funding for information and communication technology but, as in Bulgaria and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) schools are free to make additional investments from their own budgets. In Spain, the core ICT equipment of schools is normally provided by the Autonomous Communities, although schools are free to independently acquire extra ICT equipment using their own budget.

Autonomy in the acquisition of computer equipment is limited in Germany, France (ISCED 2), Malta and Poland. Schools must seek approval from central authorities or take their decisions based on a set of predetermined options.

In some countries where there is full autonomy in ICT, some constraints may exist. Therefore, in Ireland (ISCED 2), Italy and in Slovenia, schools must conform to general education guidelines. In Slovenia, schools take the decision to purchase but there may be restrictions if it involves funding from central government. In Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Scotland), schools take decisions after first consulting their higher authority. In Lithuania, the purchase of computer equipment may be made through a national scheme or a local government scheme, in both cases schools are obliged to consult before taking their decisions. In the Czech Republic, a national scheme was applied from 2001 to 2006 but now schools are autonomous in this area.

Raising and using private funds

Schools in Belgium (Flemish Community and grant-aided sector of the French and German-speaking Communities) and Italy are autonomous with respect to the raising and use of private funds in the three areas in question (donations, letting income and loans). Ireland (ISCED 2) and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) have a similar model except with regard to loans.

At the other end of the spectrum, raising and using private funds is not allowed in Iceland. In six other countries (Germany, Greece, Ireland (ISCED 1), France (ISCED 1), Cyprus and Luxembourg), autonomy is not granted in this area. Denmark has a similar approach; schools have the power to raise funds (donations and sponsorship) and the letting of premises but have no autonomy when spending them. In Finland, some municipalities delegate to schools the power to raise private funds but still control their spending, whereas in other municipalities schools have no autonomy in this matter. However, as is the case in Sweden and Lichtenstein, private funding exists but is negligible. In Poland, schools must have the approval of their higher authority when accepting donations and sponsorship and when hiring out their premises. Funds raised in this way can only be spent on furnishings or employing non-teaching staff.

In all other countries, the degree of school autonomy differs between the raising of private funds (donations and sponsorship, income from the letting of school premises and loans) and its spending. Schools are generally fairly autonomous in the raising of funds from donations. In Spain, schools cannot get extra resources deriving from the activities carried out by parents' and students' associations to fulfil their aims and the use of such funds is subject to regulation. Finally, in this group of countries, the financing of schools by means of loans is usually the prerogative of central authorities: only schools in Slovenia may take out loans with the approval of higher authorities. In the Netherlands, delegation from the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) regarding loans is formally possible but is most likely to remain in the domain of the competent authority.

The letting of premises for the provision of services to the community may be a source of additional funding for schools but is subject to greater control than the raising of other funds by other means such as donations and sponsorship. In Luxembourg, this option does not exist and therefore schools are not autonomous. In the Netherlands, the situation varies from one school to another depending on the responsibilities delegated by the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*). Schools in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France (ISCED 2), Latvia, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia, Sweden and Norway are fully (or nearly) autonomous in this area. Schools act after non-binding consultation in Lithuania and Malta. In Bulgaria, Spain, Hungary, Poland and Romania, they have to get the approval of the higher authorities before making their premises available.

In the United Kingdom, schools built through public-private partnerships are managed by external bodies who may decide to hire out premises outside of school hours, in such cases, schools themselves are not autonomous. In all countries except Ireland, France and Austria, the situation is identical at ISCED levels 1 and 2. In Austria, only the *Allgemein bildende höhere Schule* (AHS) are autonomous.

Having autonomy in the raising of funds does not necessarily mean that schools have autonomy in spending them. Therefore, schools may be quite free to raise funds (except loans) whilst being constrained in their use as, for example, in Malta where schools do not have autonomy in how to spend this money. In Estonia and Spain, only the purchase of movable goods is at the discretion of schools. The situation is fairly similar in Hungary and Slovakia, although schools have to get the approval of the higher authority, or in the Czech Republic, where the use is set by the donator/sponsor. In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities for schools directly responsible to the minister), auxiliary staff, administrative and maintenance staff cannot be employed using private funds; the sole exception relates to staff engaged in certain additional supervisory activities, for example, before and after lessons. In the Netherlands, delegation from the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) regarding the acquisition of immovables is formally possible but, usually remains in the domain of the competent authority.

In Lithuania, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland), schools may decide to use private funds for the purchase of movable goods and the employment of non-teaching staff. In Romania, this applies to the purchase of immovables and movables. Broader still is the autonomy given to schools in Latvia where they have full autonomy as regards both the purchase of assets (immovables and movables) and the employment of teaching staff.

Figure 2.2: Autonomy of schools with regard to fund-raising and the use of private funds, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Ireland: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

France: Use of private funds to acquire immovable or movable goods – only schools which have technology classes or a modified general/vocational strand (SEGPA) may receive funds from private enterprises under the auspices of the apprenticeship tax.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Austria: Letting out premises for community use: *Allgemein bildende höhere Schule* may decide within established education guidelines.

Poland: All the decisions concerning acquisition of immovable are formally taken by the higher authorities, but these decisions are frequently prompted and inspired by the schools themselves, so the school has some influence here.

Slovenia: Letting out premises for community use: local councils (founders) have the right to draw up their own plan. Where the premises are used for lessons in religion, the ministry of education must give approval.

United Kingdom: Letting of premises for community use – schools do not have autonomy where the building has been provided through a public-private partnership.

Sweden: employment of teaching and non teaching staff is exclusively financed by public funds.

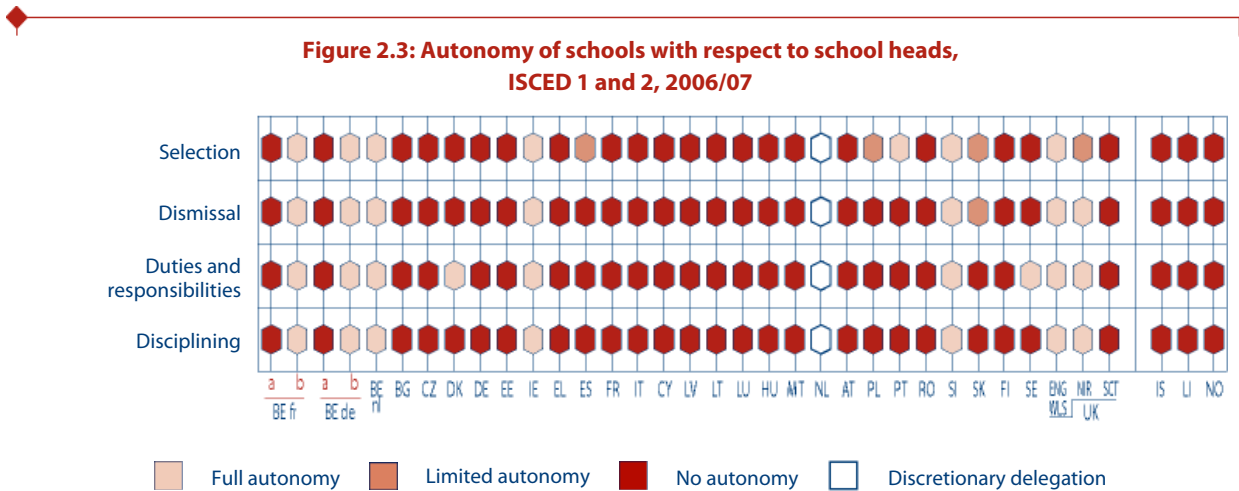
Liechtenstein: Schools at ISCED 2 are only autonomous for raising and using private funds to finance minor projects. However, this practice is not common.

Norway: Only receiving donations is allowed.

Human resources

Generally speaking, more countries grant schools full autonomy with respect to the management of non-teaching staff than in the case of school heads and teachers.

With regard to school heads, the degree of autonomy is consistent within countries: either autonomy is complete for all areas (selection, deciding on job descriptions and duties, defining disciplinary measures and dismissal) or it is non-existent. Only a few countries fall outside this general rule.



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Spain: Selection is carried out by a committee comprising representatives of the school and the education authority.

France: ISCED level 1: the post of 'school head' does not exist as such. The heads of primary schools have only a leadership function.

Ireland: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

Luxembourg: ISCED level 1: the post of school head does not exist.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Iceland: Roles and duties: may be subject to delegation by the local authorities.

In more than half of all countries, schools are given no autonomy with respect to the management of school heads. Denmark and Sweden only grant autonomy for deciding on duties and responsibilities, Spain, Poland and Portugal for selection. In Spain and Poland, selection of the school head is carried out jointly by representatives of the schools and the higher education authority.

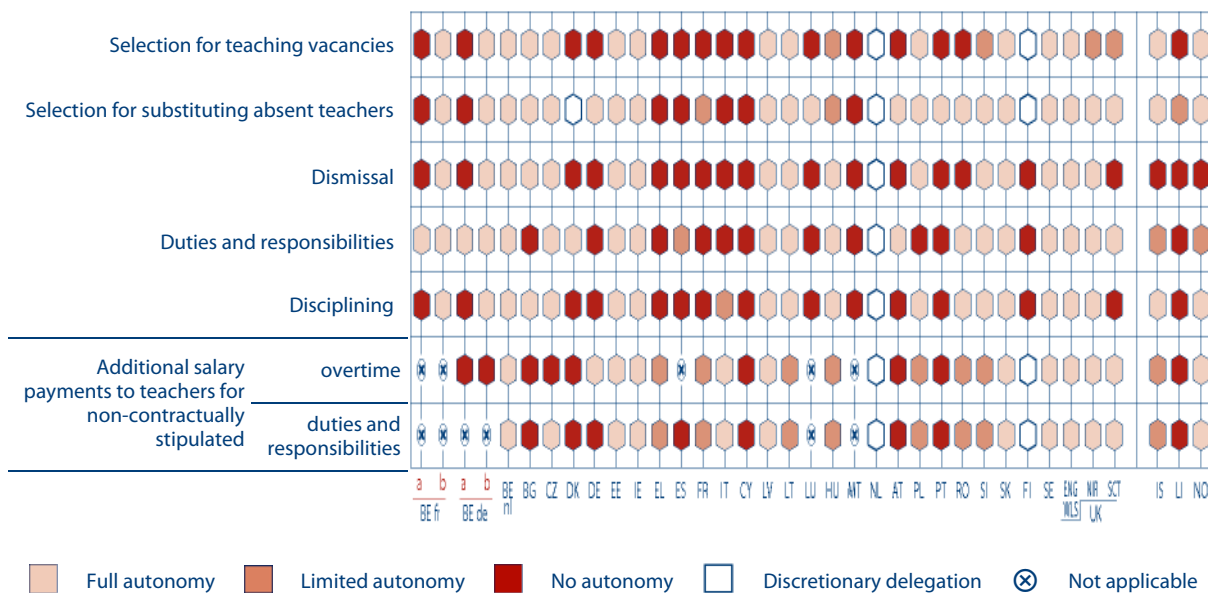
Only in Belgium (Flemish Community and grant-aided sector in the French and the German-speaking Communities), Ireland (ISCED 2) and Slovenia grant full autonomy to schools in all areas. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the role of the school head is defined not only by statute and by centrally determined conditions of employment but also, in part, by the aims and objectives set by each school's management body ('school governing body').

Slovakia is in an intermediate situation. The recruitment and dismissal of school heads is made jointly by representatives of the school and the education authority. In the Netherlands, the selection, the dismissal and the disciplining of school heads and the definition of their role and duties may be delegated by the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) but, the dismissal and disciplining of school heads remains in the domain of the competent authority.

Schools are generally given greater autonomy in managing their teaching staff than they are in managing school heads. Only Ireland (ISCED 1), Cyprus and Malta do not grant any autonomy. This is also the case to a lesser extent in the public sector schools which are directly responsible to the ministers of education in the French and the German-speaking Communities of Belgium (only the role and duties of staff is within the jurisdiction of the schools), in Greece (in some situations, schools may choose whether of not to pay staff for additional hours worked) and Luxembourg. This situation also occurs in Portugal and Liechtenstein (schools may choose staff to replace absent teachers either with or without the approval of the higher authority).

In Denmark, schools have autonomy for deciding teachers' roles and duties although the selection of replacement staff may be delegated by the competent authority. In the Netherlands, delegation from the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) regarding dismissal and disciplining teaching staff is formally possible but is most likely to remain in the domain of the competent authority. In Austria, schools also have autonomy for both areas. In Finland, anything that does not concern dismissal, duties and responsibilities and disciplinary measures may be delegated by the competent authority.

Figure 2.4: Autonomy of schools with respect to teaching staff, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body. In sector (a), decisions about disciplinary measures are taken either by the Community administration or by the Minister of Education. Nevertheless, some measures are proposed by the school head.

Belgium (BE de), Bulgaria: School heads decide the allocation of overtime but the conditions for such payments are regulated through orders/secondary legislation.

Czech Republic: The role and duties of teachers are laid down by the 'Education Act, the Act on Educational Staff' and the 'Labour Code and Labour Regulations for the Staff of Schools and school facilities'.

Denmark: Decisions on the selection for substituting absent teachers may be delegated to schools in urgent matters. It is then up to the school head to make the decision.

Ireland: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

Greece: Payment of addition salary to teachers for working more than their contract hours: schools do not have autonomy for certain aspects of these payments.

France: Roles and duties (ISCED 1 and 2): schools may determine some duties if they are required by the school development plan, and may decide working time beyond the statutory hours with the approval of the higher authority otherwise, no autonomy at ISCED 1. At ISCED 2, the school is autonomous for substituting absent teachers for absences of 2 weeks or less

Luxembourg: in some important municipalities, the administration in charge of primary education does the selection for substituting absent teachers.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Portugal: Schools may select staff only when posts are still vacant after the allocation of jobs at national level. Disciplining and dismissing: schools begin and develop the procedures although the final decision is taken at a higher level

Romania: Selection of substitute staff and disciplinary measures: depending on the particular situation, schools may not have autonomy.

Slovakia: Roles and duties and disciplinary measures: some aspects may be governed by established guidelines.

Sweden: Disciplinary measures: some aspects may be governed by established guidelines. Additional salary payments: teachers are employed by local authorities or local administrative bodies who respect national work agreements. Salaries are negotiated at local level between unions and employers.

United Kingdom (SCT): Disciplinary measures: the local education authority is ultimately responsible for disciplinary measures. The school is involved in the collection of evidence and the head may give verbal and written warnings to teachers. Additional salary payments for duties outside the normal contract: in some cases, schools can widen the scope of a post which would lead to additional salary payments.

In contrast, in Belgium (in the French (grant-aided sector) and the Flemish Communities), Estonia, Ireland (ISCED 2), Latvia, Slovakia, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), schools are fully autonomous or almost fully autonomous in selecting teachers for permanent appointments and to cover absences, for determining their duties and responsibilities, for disciplining or dismissing them and for awarding them additional salary payments (where applicable).

The German-speaking Community of Belgium (grant-aided sector) and the Czech Republic are in much the same position. In these two countries, the only areas in which schools are not free to act as they wish is in awarding overtime salary payments. Lithuania, Hungary and Slovenia give their schools full or partial autonomy depending on the area of decision-making involved.

In other countries, autonomy may be anything from full to non-existent depending on the particular area of decision-making. The least autonomy is revealed in the case of the dismissal of teaching staff. In contrast, autonomy is granted to schools in a large number of countries with respect to the selection for substituting absent teachers and the awarding of additional salary payments for overtime worked or for work not included in the normal teaching contract.

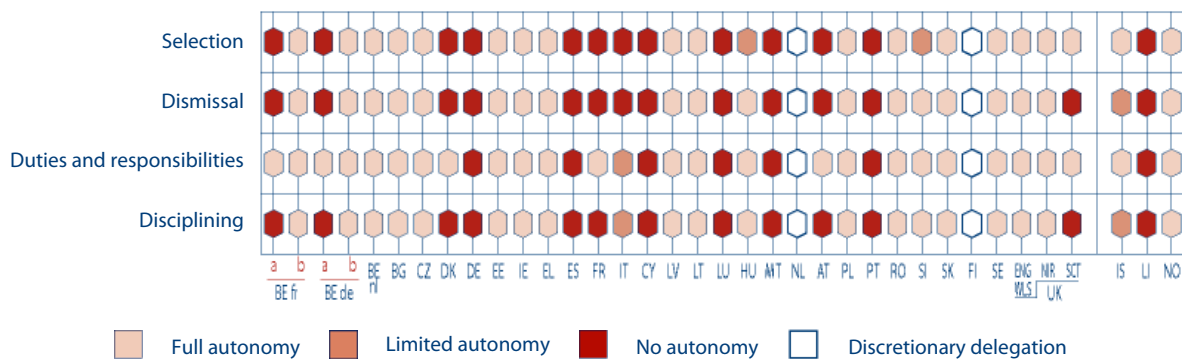
With respect to non-teaching staff, the level of autonomy is consistent in most countries: either it is full autonomy for all (or nearly all) decision-making areas or it is non-existent.

In only a few countries, the situation tends to vary depending on the particular aspect of management considered. In almost half of all countries, schools are fully responsible (or virtually so) for the management of non-teaching staff. In other countries, schools are not far from being fully autonomous even if a particular area of decision-making is not at their total discretion: examples are Slovenia (where the call for a post of

non-teaching staff for appointment is submitted for approval) and Iceland (in the case of dismissal and disciplinary measures). In Finland, school autonomy for the management of non-teaching staff varies from school to school depending on the willingness of the administrative body to delegate such functions. In the Netherlands, delegation from the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) regarding dismissal and disciplining non-teaching staff is formally possible but is most likely to remain in the domain of the competent authority. In the French and German-speaking Community of Belgium, the situation varies depending on the type of staff and the type of school.

Nevertheless, in eleven countries schools have no autonomy in the management of non-teaching staff, namely Germany, Ireland (ISCED 1), Spain, France (except at ISCED level 2 in the case of certain contracts for teaching or education assistants), Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, and Liechtenstein. Greece does not give schools autonomy for managing administrative staff but does so for auxiliary staff such as cleaners and security staff. Denmark and Austria also grant little autonomy in this area, decisions taken at school level relate only to the duties and responsibilities of such staff.

Figure 2.5: Autonomy of schools with respect to non-teaching staff, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body. Although in schools in sector (a), certain disciplinary measures are proposed by school heads, decisions are always taken either by the administration or the minister of education in the Community concerned. Only in the case of contractually employed maintenance staff can these same schools take their own decisions regarding selection and dismissal.

Ireland: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

Greece: Decisions concerning auxiliary and cleaning personnel are the responsibility of the schools; decisions concerning administrative personnel are not a school responsibility.

France: No autonomy at ISCED 1.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Portugal: Selection: delegation is optional. Disciplining and dismissing: schools begin and develop the procedures although the final decision is taken at a higher level.

Slovakia: Roles and duties, disciplinary measures: some aspects are subject to a predetermined general framework.

United Kingdom (SCT): disciplinary measures: the local education authority is ultimately responsible for disciplinary measures. The school is involved in the collection of evidence and the head may give verbal and written warnings to staff.

In conclusion, this detailed analysis of the autonomy granted to schools for the management of financial and human resources reveals that some countries allow more autonomy than others and, similarly, autonomy is likely to be given to schools in some specific areas of activity rather than in others.

Approximately 10 countries grant a large degree of autonomy in the two areas concerned. This is the case in the Baltic countries, in Belgium (grant-aided schools in the French and German-speaking Communities), Ireland (ISCED 2), Slovenia, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). The situation is similar in Hungary and Poland but, in these countries, many decisions are subject to the approval of the higher authority or are taken within established guidelines.

In the Netherlands and Finland the situation is more variable as it is subject to the will and actual practice of the competent authorities. In effect, they can choose whether or not to delegate their powers to schools in formally all (the Netherlands) or many areas (Finland) of management.

In contrast, in a minority of countries, little autonomy is granted. This occurs mainly in Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Portugal and Liechtenstein. In Cyprus, no autonomy is granted in these areas.

With respect to financial resources, autonomy is more widespread in the use of public funds for operating expenses, the raising of private funds via donations and sponsorship, the letting of premises and the use of private funds to purchase movable goods. In contrast decisions are usually the prerogative of the higher authority with respect to capital expenditure (using public funds or private sources where possible), finance from loans and the use of private funds to employ staff (where possible).

The area of staff management also reveals contrasting features. The function of the school head is very often under the control of the higher authority whilst at school level more decisions are taken about the management of teaching staff (selection of staff to replace absent teachers, defining duties and responsibilities, and disciplinary measures) and non-teaching staff.

2.2. Decision-makers in schools

This section will look at who takes decisions within schools. School heads, teachers and school management bodies (this refers to management bodies situated at school level) were identified as the three main decision-making instances within schools, with any combination of these being possible as well. The overview points to the type of decision-making responsibility but not how these decisions are taken in practice nor who contributes to decisions within school management bodies (section 2.3 has more information on school management bodies). Decisions regarding funding (public and private) are described first, followed by decisions with respect to human resources management (selecting, disciplining and dismissing school heads, teachers and non-teaching staff and decisions regarding additional salary payments).

Funding

The analysis of school-based funding decisions shows general patterns in terms of how decisions are taken in schools, although some variation is apparent. Some school systems devolve a lot of decisions about funding to their schools (see section 2.1 for more information).

If both public and private funding are considered together, the most usual decision-making model is for school heads and school management bodies to both be involved in decision-making. The procedures involved in these cases will of course vary according to specific situations: for example, proposals submitted by the school head may require to be approved by the school management body or alternatively, the school head must approve decisions taken by the school management body. In Belgium (Flemish Community), Slovenia and the United Kingdom (England and Wales) both school heads and school management bodies usually play a role in school decision-making for all funding matters. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), for example, the school governing body sets the overall strategic framework for the school's financial management and determines the extent to which it wishes to delegate its financial powers to the school head. The governing body also has the specific responsibility of approving the annual budget plan drawn up by the school head. The head has responsibility for the leadership, direction and management of the school and takes financial decisions within the strategic framework set by the governing body.

In Spain, where schools take decisions on both public and private funding, the school board, made up of the school head, the deputy head and school secretary, always has full responsibility.

Teachers only play a formal role in these types of decisions in Germany, Malta, Austria and the United Kingdom (Scotland) and they always do so jointly with school heads, never alone.

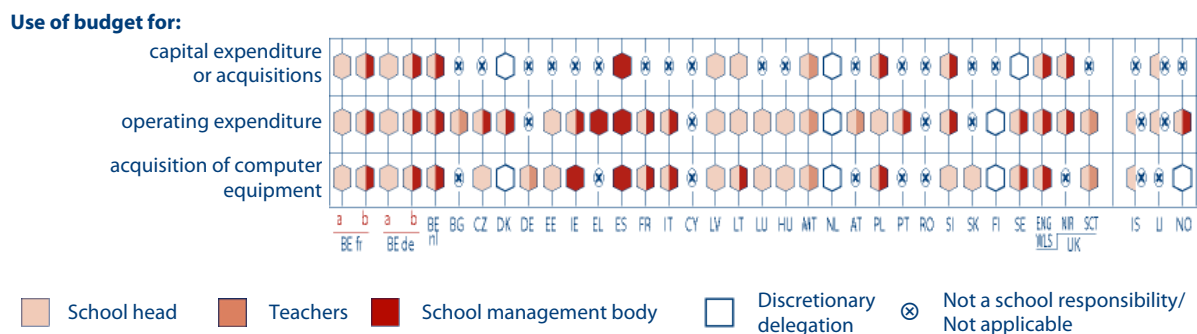
The school head has full responsibility for all or almost all funding areas in very few countries. This is the case in a few new member states, such as Estonia, Hungary and Slovakia.

Public funds and equipment

Responsibility for decision-making within schools often differs according to whether the use of the budget relates to capital expenditure and acquisitions, or operating expenditure, or acquiring computer equipment. However, the Romanian and Cypriot school systems are the only ones in which no area of public funding is a matter for decision-making at school level.

Schools are more often responsible for taking decisions about operating expenditure and acquisition of computer equipment than for decisions on capital expenditure and acquisitions. Within schools, school heads almost always take at least some responsibility for decisions. They act together with teachers in Bulgaria, Germany, Malta, Austria and the United Kingdom (Scotland) and in their own right in Belgium (schools for which the French and German-speaking Communities are directly responsible), the Baltic countries, Hungary, Slovakia and Finland. School management bodies play a role in decision-making processes for at least some of these areas in about half of the countries and take full responsibility for all areas of public funding shown here in Spain.

Figure 2.6: Decision makers at school level for the use of public funds, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Belgium (BE de): In schools for which the Community is responsible, the school head's decision-making responsibility for capital expenditure is limited to a set amount.

Bulgaria: Schools have autonomy for some operating expenditure.

Denmark: Municipalities may delegate their authority to schools with respect to all decision-making areas.

Ireland and France: At ISCED 1, all decision areas are not a school responsibility.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Austria: The figure shows the situation *Hauptschule* and at ISCED 1. In *Allgemein bildende höhere Schule*, teachers and the school head take the decision jointly and submit their proposal to the education authority for approval.

Slovakia: Information not verified at national level. The school head and the school founder have joint responsibility for capital expenditure or acquisitions and for operating expenditure.

Finland: Responsibility for acquiring computer equipment is related to the cost of the acquisition.

Finland and Iceland: Municipalities may delegate their authority to schools with respect to operating expenditure and acquisition of computer equipment.

Liechtenstein: At ISCED 1, the use of the budget is not a school responsibility. At ISCED 2, the school head's decision-making responsibility for capital expenditure is limited to a set amount.

Private funds

In a number of countries, private funding is not applicable in the context of public school systems. This is especially the case with respect to loans. It is thus very unusual for schools in Europe to have decision-making powers with respect to taking out loans. The exceptions are Belgium (the grant-aided sector in the French and German-speaking Communities) and Italy, where the school management body may take decisions with regard to loans and Belgium (the Flemish Community) and Slovenia where these decisions involve both the school head and the school management body.

Loans taken out by schools are often subject to conditions, such as in Italy, for example, where school management bodies may borrow money so long as repayment terms meet certain specifications. In Slovenia, the school head and management body, acting together, must seek the consent of their founder and the Ministry of Finance.

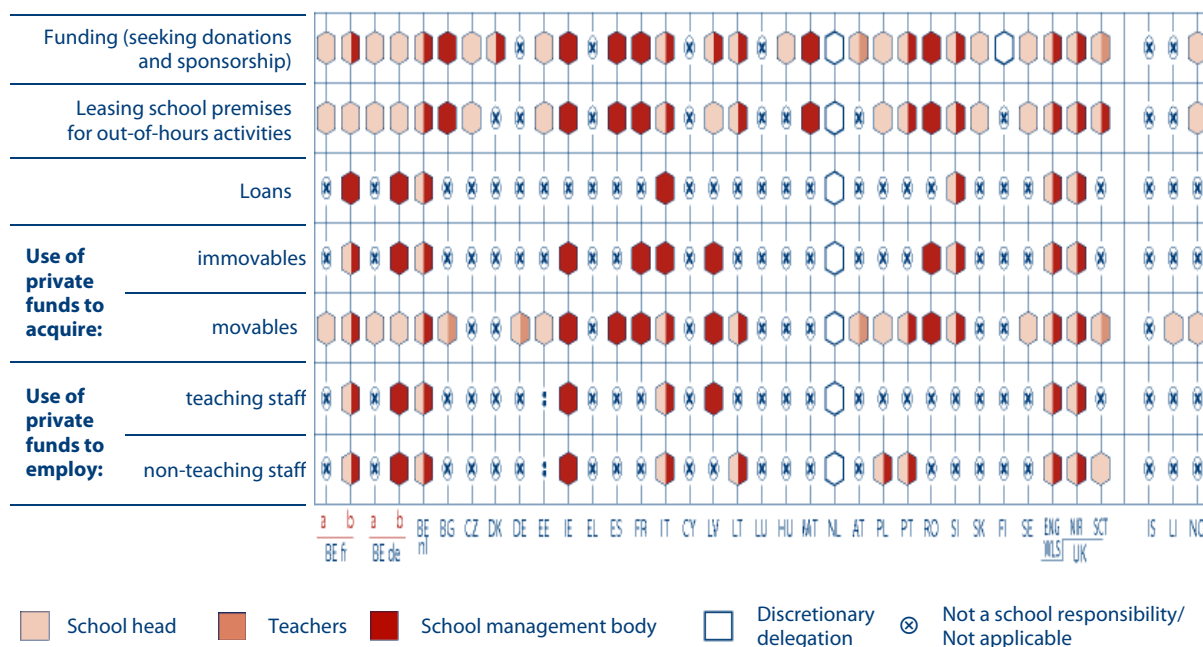
However, in almost every country, schools may themselves seek donations and sponsorship. The school head is almost always involved in these types of decisions either acting alone or with the management body, although sometimes the school management body is solely responsible for these decisions (Bulgaria, Ireland (ISCED 2), Spain, France, Malta and Romania). More unusually, in Austria and the United Kingdom (Scotland), teachers are formally involved in these decisions together with the school head, as well as parents in the United Kingdom (Scotland).

Letting school premises is also often a matter for schools, usually for the school head or the school management body. Again, these types of letting agreements are sometimes subject to conditions. In Belgium (Flemish Community) and Slovenia, for example, school premises cannot be let out for political purposes. In Italy, school premises may only be used for activities that are compatible with the school's educating purpose and the school management body draws up appropriate criteria. The school owner (often the local authority) must approve the lease in some countries (Lithuania, Hungary and Romania), and it is sometimes the school owner directly that is responsible for letting school property for out-of-hours activities (in the United Kingdom (Scotland)).

How private funds are used is a decision for schools in about half of the countries. Generally, the school management body is responsible for taking decisions about acquiring immoveable property, sometimes acting in decision-making procedures with the school head. Acquiring moveable property is a decision for the school head alone in more countries or sometimes the school head with teachers.

The use of private funds by schools to employ teaching and non-teaching staff is much more restricted. This is only authorised in about half of the school systems that allow privately funded acquisitions: Belgium (the Flemish Community and the grant-aided sector in the French and German-speaking Communities), Ireland (ISCED 2), Italy and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). In Lithuania, Poland, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland) schools can use private funds to employ non-teaching staff but not teachers while the reverse is true in Latvia. These types of decisions are most commonly taken by school management bodies and school heads acting together.

Figure 2.7: Decision makers at school level for fund-raising and the use of private funds, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Czech Republic: Terms of use with respect to private funds is generally set by the donor or sponsor.

Ireland: At ISCED 1, all decision areas are not a school responsibility.

Hungary: Leasing school premises and use of private fund to acquire movables: this is the responsibility of the school head but the approval of the school maintainer is required.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Austria: The figure shows the situation *Hauptschule* and at ISCED 1. In *Allgemein bildende höhere Schule*, the school head takes decisions.

Slovakia: Information not verified at national level. The school head and the school founder have joint responsibility for the use of private funds to acquire immovables and movables.

Liechtenstein: The school head's decision-making responsibility for the acquisition of movables is limited to smaller acquisitions.

Human Resources

Selecting school staff and human resources management

In many countries, decisions with respect to selecting school staff, discipline and dismissal is very much a matter for the school head. In the Netherlands, the competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) may delegate decision-making powers for most of the areas relating to human resources (though decisions on dismissal and disciplining staff are very unlikely). Only a few countries report a role for the school management body (with exception of decisions relating to the school head). In the United Kingdom (England), for example, the school governing body has overall responsibility for staffing matters. However, many staffing functions, such as the appointment of classroom teachers and non-teaching staff, may be delegated to the school head or to a committee of governors working with or without the school head. The governing body appoints the school head and normally leads the process of appointing deputy school heads and assistant school heads. The situation in both Wales and Northern Ireland is broadly similar in many respects.

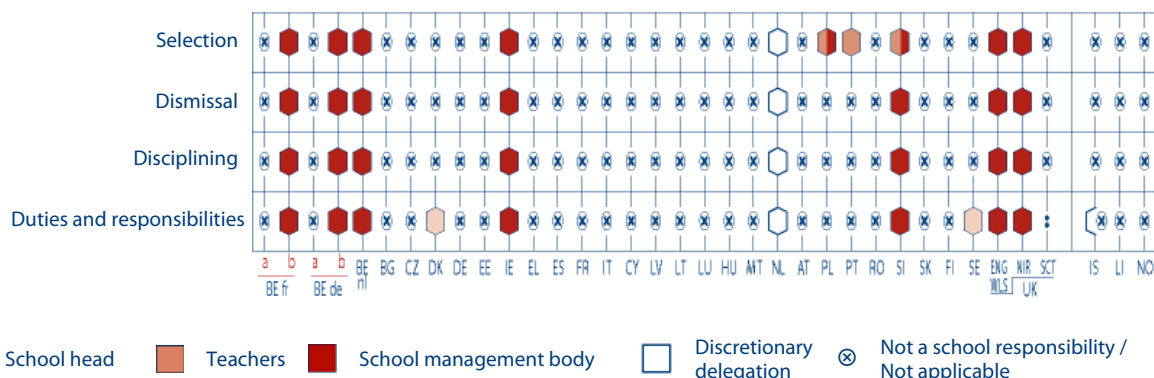
School heads

Generally in Europe, schools do not have responsibility for selecting their school head. Where the school management has responsibility for selecting the school head, this tends to be in countries that generally afford broad responsibilities to these bodies: Belgium (Flemish Community and, for grant-aided schools only, the French and German-speaking Communities), Ireland (ISCED 2) and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

In four countries teachers are involved in this selection process. In Poland, the committee selecting the school head comprises the representatives of school management body, regional educational authorities, teachers and parents, while in Portugal, teachers elect the school head from amongst their peers, In Slovenia, teachers are also directly involved in approving the appointment of their school head. Here, school heads are appointed by the school management body, which has to get a preliminary opinion from of the assembly of teachers, the municipality and the council of parents. Finally, in Spain, the selection of school heads is carried out by a committee comprising representatives of the school and the education authority. The education administration is responsible for determining the total number of members on this committee, but at least one third of these must be teachers elected by the teachers' assembly. A further one third are non-teaching members of the school board.

Disciplining and dismissal of a school head is also very seldom a matter for schools although in some countries the school management body plays a role (Belgium (Flemish Community and, for grant-aided schools only, the French and German-speaking Communities), Ireland (ISCED 2), Slovenia and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)). Teachers are, however, never formally involved in these decision-making procedures.

Figure 2.8: Decision makers at school level in relation to school heads, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Ireland: At ISCED 1, all decision areas are not a school responsibility.

Spain: Selection is carried out by a committee comprising representatives of the school and the education authority. Representatives from the school include teachers and members of the school management body.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Poland: Parents take part in decision-making processes.

Slovakia: Information not verified at national level. The selection and dismissal of school head is a joint responsibility between the school management body and the school founder.

United Kingdom (SCT): The school head and the school board/parent council are involved in the selection but the final decision lies with the education authority as employer.

Teachers

In about half of the countries, selecting teachers for schools is not a school responsibility. However, where the school does have a say in selection, the school head is always involved in this decision (with the exception of Belgium (German-speaking Community)). In many new member states as well as Sweden, Iceland and Norway, the school head is fully responsible for selecting teachers. In Belgium (the Flemish Community and the grant-aided sector in the French Community), Estonia, Ireland (ISCED 2) and in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the school head and management body are both involved in the decision-making process.

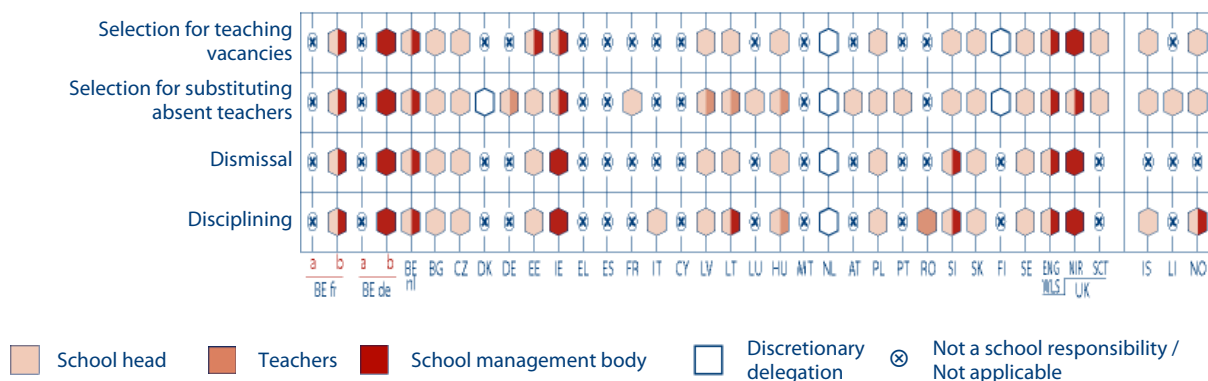
Decisions regarding substitute teachers are handled slightly differently in a number of countries. This usually means that where selection for teaching vacancies is not a matter for the school, substitute teachers are organised directly by the school head (France (ISCED 2), Austria and Liechtenstein), or by the school head acting together with teachers (Germany). In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), substitute teachers may only be brought in if the teacher’s absence is expected to last for more than 5 days (in the German-speaking Community) or 10 days for most cases in the French Community. In Community-run schools this decision is taken by the respective ministers, while in the grant-aided sector it is taken by the

school management body, usually after consulting the school head. Teachers are also involved in decisions about substituting for absences in Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary.

Disciplining and dismissing teachers is even less frequently a decision taken within schools and even where there is full autonomy, this is in practice often curtailed by legislation on public sector employment. The school head is involved in these decisions in most new member states (the three Baltic states, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia) as well as in Belgium (Flemish Community and grant-aided schools in the French Community) and Sweden.

In a few countries where dismissal is not a school responsibility, responsibility for disciplining teachers remains a decision for the school, either for the school head (Germany) or for both the school management body and school head (Belgium (Flemish Community) and Norway), or for teachers themselves (through a special commission) in Romania. Teachers also participate in decisions on discipline in Hungary. In Italy, the school head may decide to instigate disciplinary action and is responsible for initial measures, while further measures are taken by higher education authorities on the basis of reports from the inspectorate. For serious breaches of discipline in Italy, responsibility is directly referred to the higher education authority (the regional Director General).

Figure 2.9: Decision makers at school level in relation to teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body. Substituting absent teachers is legally authorised only for absences of longer than 5 days (German-speaking Community) or 10 days in most cases (French Community). For shorter absences, the school head relies on existing school staff.

Denmark: Decisions on the selection for substituting absent teachers may be delegated to schools in urgent matters. It is then up to the school head to make the decision.

Ireland: At ISCED 1, all decision areas are not a school responsibility.

Spain and Portugal: Disciplining and dismissing teachers: schools begin and develop the procedures although the final decision is taken at a higher level.

France: At ISCED 2, the school head is responsible for substituting absent teachers for absences of 2 weeks or less.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Romania: The school management body may take decisions regarding substituting absent teachers if teachers available in the school.

Slovakia: Information not verified at national level.

Finland: Selection for teaching vacancies and for substituting absent teachers and decisions about disciplining may be delegated to the school head.

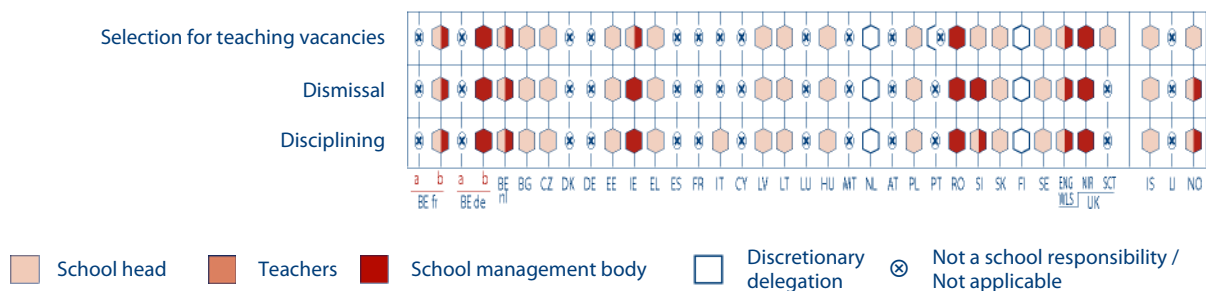
United Kingdom (WLS): Decisions on teacher dismissal is solely the responsibility of the school management body.

United Kingdom (SCT): The school head is responsible for the selection of teachers but the education authority is the employer.

Non-teaching staff

Non-teaching staff in schools can include, for example, administrative and maintenance staff as well as classroom assistants who are not qualified teachers. Decisions about recruiting, disciplining and dismissing non-teaching staff are taken within schools in many countries, and responsibility for each of these decisions usually lies with the same decision-maker. There are a very few exceptions: in the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Iceland, the local authority is responsible for decisions about dismissal. In Ireland (ISCED 2), Slovenia and Norway, the school management body becomes involved, or takes full responsibility, for discipline and dismissal decisions.

Figure 2.10: Decision makers at school level in relation to non-teaching staff, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body. In schools for which Community is directly responsible, only decisions concerning staff canteen and cleaning staff engaged on a contractual basis are the responsibility of the school head.

Ireland: At ISCED 1, all decision areas are not a school responsibility.

Greece: Decisions concerning auxiliary and cleaning personnel are the responsibility of the school head; decisions concerning administrative personnel are not a school responsibility.

France: Some types of contract are the responsibility of the school head.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Portugal: Disciplining and dismissing non-teaching staff: schools begin and develop the procedures although the final decision is taken at a higher level.

Romania: the school management body deals with minor breaches of discipline, while in more serious cases the County School Inspectorate is responsible.

Slovakia: Information not verified at national level.

Finland: The municipality may delegate decision-making authority to schools. If this is the case, it is the school head and the school management body who share responsibility.

Additional salary payments

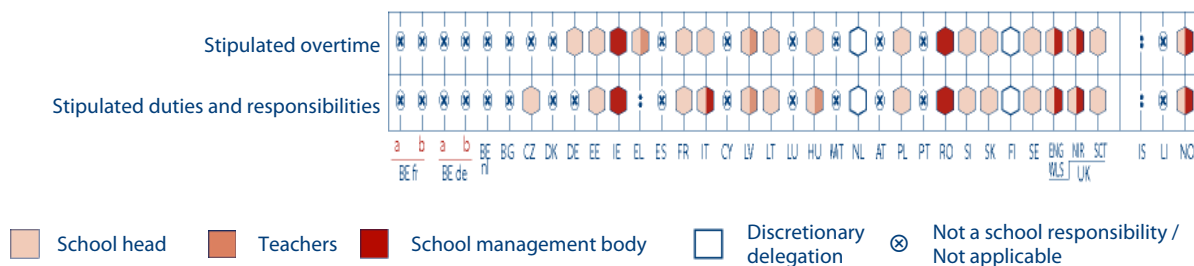
Offering additional salary payments to teachers for non-contractually stipulated overtime and/or tasks and responsibilities is a decision for schools in about half of school systems. Within schools, this is often a matter for school heads to decide. In Belgium (German-speaking Community), the school head takes decisions on additional salary payments for unavoidable overtime hours, which is then processed by the Ministry.

Teachers participate in decisions about overtime pay in Greece and Latvia and in decisions about extra pay for extra duties in Latvia and Hungary.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Norway, as well as in Italy with respect to extra pay for extra duties, the school management body is involved in decisions alongside the school head. Apart from Ireland (ISCED 2), Romania is the only country where the school management body (the Administration Board) has full responsibility for these decisions, subject to the approval of the County School Inspectorate.

Figure 2.11: Decision makers at school level when offering additional salary payments to teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

Offering additional salary payments to teachers for non-contractually:



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): (a) refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and (b) refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Belgium (BE de) and Bulgaria: School heads decide the allocation of overtime but the conditions for such payments are regulated through orders/secondary legislation.

Ireland: At ISCED 1, all decision areas are not a school responsibility.

Netherlands: Every school has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular generally referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). It has responsibility in all cases but it can delegate the power of decision to the school management or the school head. This delegation should be entered in the management statute. Formally the competent authority is responsible for everything and it is not possible to indicate which tasks are delegated or not in practice.

Slovakia: Information not verified at national level.

Finland: Decisions on additional salary payments may be delegated to schools.

Sweden: Schools follow the agreements and regulations applicable throughout the labour market.

To conclude, in terms of general models of decision-making in schools (all parameters in this section considered together), the analysis shows that the way that decisions are taken within schools is clearly influenced by the nature of the decision, although the pivotal role played by the school head (particularly compared to school management bodies) is apparent in many – but not all – school systems. School management bodies play a stronger role in countries such as Belgium, Spain, Ireland (ISCED 2), Italy, Romania and the United Kingdom. Teachers have less responsibility for human resource management and funding decisions and contribute to these decisions in only a few systems, although an analysis of their

responsibilities in terms of educational content and processes within school decision-making processes would almost certainly show a different picture.

2.3. Role and composition of school management bodies

In the vast majority of European countries, school autonomy was accompanied by the establishment of new managing bodies at school level which had either a decision-making or a consultative role. Their character and composition were usually made compulsory through general legislation or administrative measures which provided the framework for the transfer of responsibilities to schools. Therefore, for example, countries such as Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, France, Lithuania and Slovenia provided for the compulsory establishment of school management bodies. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), school governing bodies have a long history, but local education authorities had a wide discretion in their operation and constitution and it was not compulsory for each school to have its own governing body until the 1980 Education Act was passed. The French and German-speaking Communities in Belgium have also recently adopted this model: in 1997, the legislation (*décret missions*) required that in the French Community a participatory council (*conseil de participation*) and in the German-speaking Community a teaching council (*Pädagogischer Rat*) be set up in all schools regardless of the sector or 'organising body' (public and subsidised private sectors). In the same way, in the Czech Republic, the school bodies which were originally optional became obligatory from 2005. In other countries, such requirements are limited to certain parts of the school network. So, in the Belgian Flemish Community, only schools accountable to the Community itself are obliged to set up such bodies.

In a minority of other European countries, the establishment of school management bodies is left to schools themselves to decide. In Bulgaria, Latvia ⁽²⁾, Poland and Iceland, school management bodies are mentioned in the general legislation or regulations which defined school autonomy but their establishment is optional. In Hungary, the 1993 Act also provided for a type of school body (school board) which would be open to representatives from inside the school, pupils' parents and representatives of the local community.

The composition of school management bodies follows three principal types of structure. However, these structures do not seem to correlate in any way to the degree of importance of the duties assigned to them.

In the first scenario, the school management body is composed of members from within the school and their immediate users so only members of the school management, teachers, parents and pupils are represented. Belgium (German-speaking Community), Denmark, Germany, Italy and Luxembourg (ISCED 2) follow this model. These bodies may be granted significant powers, as in Denmark, or may have largely consultative role as in Belgium (German-speaking Community). In some countries, it is possible to include external members but this decision is left to the discretion of the school.

In the majority of countries, however, school bodies are open to a wider representation which, most often, includes members of the local authority responsible for the school and, less frequently, representatives of the wider community. Their composition therefore reflects the desire to establish a balance of power between the different professional and user groups involved (school management, teachers, parents, pupils, local authorities) and representatives of the wider community (business, social and cultural groups, etc.). The composition of the school management body may reflect the desire to ensure equality between the different participating groups, as in the Czech Republic, where the school body is composed of a third of members from the local authority in charge of the school, a third of representatives from the school staff and a third of

⁽²⁾ School heads were obliged to set up a school body if requested by parents and teachers.

members from users (parent and pupils). In the same way, in the United Kingdom (England), guiding principles are in place to make sure that all of a school's stakeholders are represented, including parents, school staff, the local authority, the community, and, for some schools, the 'foundation' or relevant religious body. However, in the majority of cases, the composition of the school management body reflects the desire to give the deciding role to one of the groups. Power therefore rests in the hands of school staff in countries such as France and Luxembourg while, at the opposite end of the spectrum, in the formal bodies set up in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Estonia and Latvia, external representatives (parents or representatives of the wider community) seem to have the upper hand. These conclusions are based on the legal frameworks in place, actual practice at school level may obviously differ.

In addition to the variety of models of composition of management bodies, in some countries there also exists a multiplicity of councils with complementary duties. This developing tendency leads to an increased complexity in school governance. This is the case in Portugal where joint powers are exercised between the director of the Executive Council (management body composed of members of school staff) and the president of the School Assembly (open to external representatives). Such bi-polarity is found between the management body and the governing body in the Flemish Community of Belgium. Similarly, the work of school bodies is increasingly accompanied by that of teachers' councils whose role is to plan teaching activities within the school. This occurs in Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania and, more recently, France (since 2005 at ISCED 2).

CHAPTER 3: SCHOOL AUTONOMY AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Taking account of the myriad of schools of thought at work across the different experiences in school autonomy, the principle of accountability was not, initially, at the centre of thinking in all countries. However, from the middle of the 1990s this concept became increasingly important and assumed different forms in different countries.

These new models of accountability usually represent an adjustment of evaluation instruments that were either already in place (school inspectorates, for example) or were developed to meet broader objectives, such as standardized assessment of pupil attainment (section 3.1).

In some countries, however, new tools dedicated to formally evaluating the responsibilities devolved to schools are being developed (section 3.2).

3.1. Models of school accountability: diversity and constraints

As the forms of autonomy at school level and general organisational policies varied between countries, a multiplicity of models for school accountability has resulted. Three main types of organisation can be distinguished at present.

In the first scenario – the majority of countries – the bodies traditionally responsible for evaluating people involved in education – teachers in particular – were given this new evaluating function. In the majority of European countries, it is the higher authorities with responsibility for education, most frequently through the inspectorates, which became responsible for evaluating schools in the context of autonomy. Inspection systems may be centralised or devolved. In the Czech Republic, the inspection body charged with evaluating schools saw its powers strengthened. Initially it was only responsible for ensuring that financial rules were followed but the new curriculum reforms, which come into force in 2007/08, will widen its scope to cover teaching matters. In Germany, Spain and Austria, schools are evaluated through inspections attached to the higher authorities with responsibility for education – respectively the *Länder* and the Autonomous Communities. In the United Kingdom (England), it is the duty of the powerful inspection body OFSTED – whose powers have grown and whose independence in relation to the ministry has been strengthened – to evaluate schools. OFSTED reports are available to the wider public on the Internet. The Netherlands have a similar system even though from 2007, schools which are not considered at risk will no longer be systematically monitored through inspections. Bulgaria, Lithuania, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland) also fall into this category. In addition, in some of these countries, inspections are coupled with local authority evaluations such as the Czech Republic, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (England).

Since the end of the 1990s, in many of the countries which form part of the first scenario, the criteria used for the evaluation of schools has been subject to standardisation. In Spain, some of the Autonomous Communities, such as Andalusia, Catalonia and Castile-La-Mancha, follow this model. In 2004/05, Lithuania also imposed common criteria for internal and external evaluations. Similarly, under the devolved inspection system in operation in Poland a uniform list of criteria has also been used since 2004/05. In Portugal, since 1999, the inspection system has had in place a model of 'integrated evaluation' which covers a range of areas (organisation and management of the school, school climate, pupil achievement, etc.). Standardisation of evaluation criteria is intended to, amongst other things, reveal the value added by schools beyond the simple raw academic results. In the United Kingdom (England), the basis for all school inspections is the

Inspection Framework, drawn up by OFSTED, the inspectorate. This sets out specific requirements for evaluating and reporting on the work of the school and the standards achieved by pupils and lists the criteria which form the basis for arriving at inspection judgments. Scotland has undergone the same changes. This trend towards standardisation seems to equate to a reinforcement of school accountability and, at the same time, increased professionalisation of the evaluation service.

In the second group of countries, schools are accountable mainly to the local authorities – local councils or ‘organising bodies’ which manage them. This is the case in some Nordic countries as well as Belgium and Hungary. Within this model, local education authorities have kept a pivotal role in the evaluation process but, since the middle of the 1990s, there has been the growth of a national structure for school accountability which is involved in the development of national standards and student attainment standardized tests. In Denmark, local authorities remain central but the Danish Evaluation Institute, set up in 1999, now has a duty to carry out national evaluations based on samples of schools. Hungary also rounds off the inspections carried out by local authorities with a new system of evaluating schools through the development of standardised tests. It is, amongst other things (increased demand of quality education and better accountability), the inexperience in evaluation in most authorities of small settlements (that exists because of the fragmented public administrative system of the country), which partly explains the development of this national system of evaluating pupil achievement. Optional in 2001, this new evaluation system became compulsory for all schools in 2006. From 2008, all local authorities will have to use it when monitoring schools in their charge.

Some countries have remained at the periphery of this trend for school evaluation. In Italy for example schools are not accountable to a specific body (except for twice yearly visits from an auditor for administrative and accountancy purposes) but they are strongly encouraged to perform self-evaluations. The development of a standardised evaluation system under the auspices of the National Institute for the Evaluation of Education, Training and Teaching (INVALSI), is intended to provide national benchmarks for schools. From 2009/10, INVALSI will be responsible for evaluating the value added by schools through monitoring performance when pupils start school and when they leave. Contextual information and the socio-economic background of pupils will be taken into account. Similarly, in Bulgaria, schools are not subjected to specific evaluation procedures. France holds a position in-between: at ISCED level 1, as schools have very limited autonomy evaluation as such has not been developed; at ISCED level 2 evaluation procedures are currently being developed and will involve a number of agencies whose roles are not, as yet, well-defined. These will include local and national inspectorates, as well as devolved regional administrative bodies (*Rectorat des Académies*). Overall, countries remaining outside the main evaluation trends are becoming increasingly rare.

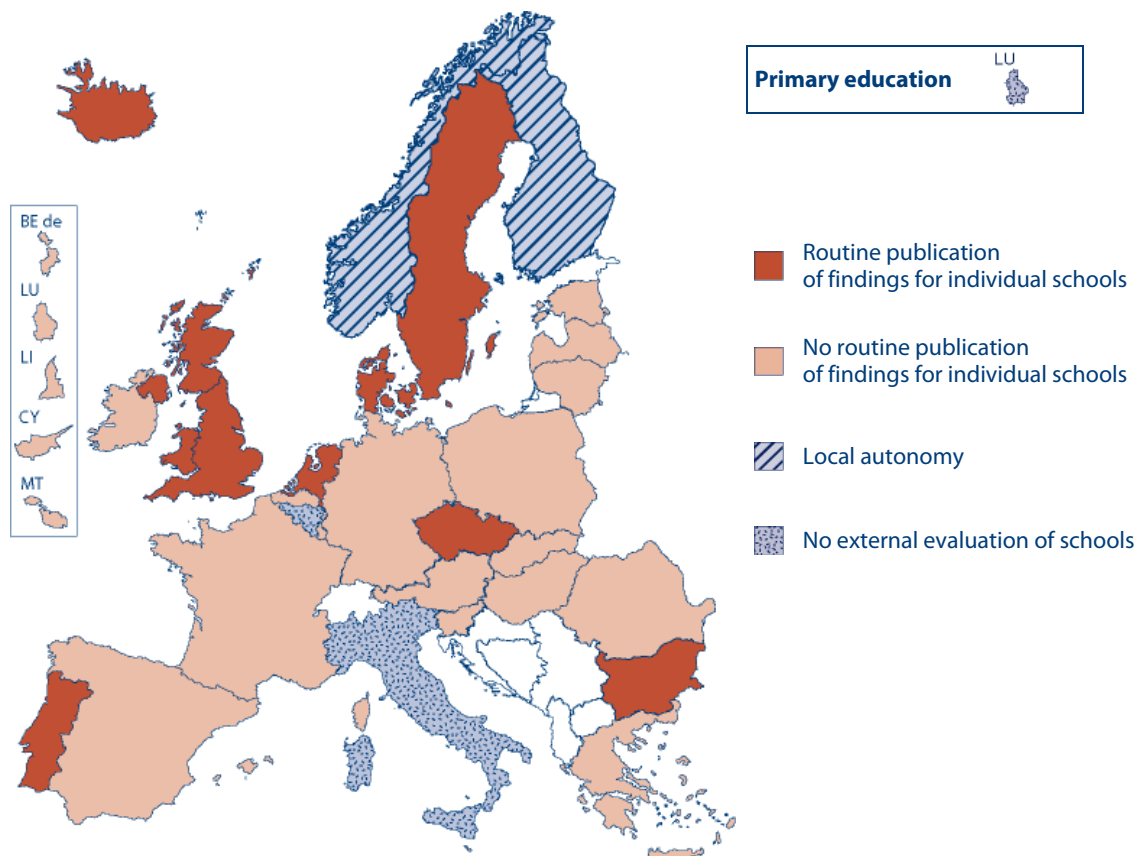
Generally, in addition to the three groups of countries where the boundaries are continually shifting, a trend is developing towards multi-accountability. In more and more countries schools are having to account to a range of bodies (education ministries, local councils, and also to the wider community (parents, external partners). The situation in the United Kingdom (England) typifies the tendency for freedoms to be accompanied by a complex network of accountabilities. Schools in England are accountable to the central level through OFSTED inspections, to their local authority and to a governing body which includes representatives of key stakeholders such as parents, staff and representatives of the local community. Local authorities and the Secretary of State have powers of intervention if the school’s performance becomes a cause for concern. There is also a market-driven accountability system, in which parents are provided with a wealth of information on school performance (on-line OFSTED reports, and schools’ test results, etc.) to inform their choice of a school for their child. More recently, the burden placed on schools by multiple

accountabilities has been recognised. The Government’s ‘New Relationship with Schools’ programme aims to reduce the bureaucracy associated with these requirements. Scotland has followed this same trend towards multi-accountability.

A similar situation also occurs in the Netherlands. While extensive deregulation has given schools much independence, they now find themselves at the centre of an accountability network. Schools are accountable to central government for both budgetary matters and pupil achievement (the ministry having the right to restrict funding if school performance is poor in this area). ‘Organising bodies’ are also involved in school evaluation and, in addition, schools are accountable to families since freedom to choose a school is accompanied by a system of information provision for families (inspection reports and attainment test results are available on-line).

Generally, school accountability to families developed from the middle of the 1990s with the publication of results in a growing number of countries. This occurred in the Czech Republic, Poland, Portugal, and Sweden. Publication took a different form in different countries – on-line inspection reports, reports of local authorities, and outcomes of standardised evaluations.

Figure 3.1: Publication of findings from the external evaluation of individual schools, compulsory general education, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice

Additional notes

Belgium (BEde): External evaluation was introduced on a trial basis in 2007 and will become widespread from 2008.

Belgium (BE nl) and Slovakia: The results are not published but may be consulted on request.

Czech Republic, Slovakia and United Kingdom: The Figure relates solely to external evaluation carried out at central level. There are no central regulations on publication of the findings of evaluation carried out by the local authorities. The situation may vary.

Latvia: The results of the inspection in 2003, to check that schools functioned in compliance with the operational standards required to obtain the status of *gymnasium*, were the subject of a publication.

Lithuania: The findings of evaluation by the inspectorate are published solely when schools fail to comply with the regulations applicable to them.

Luxembourg: Primary schools are not externally evaluated. External evaluation of individual secondary schools introduced in 2004/05 are not published.

Poland: Since 2002, the results of external standardized exams and tests for each school have been published on the ministry website. This, however, cannot be treated as comprehensive external school evaluation.

Finland: Education providers (mostly municipalities) are responsible for evaluating the effectiveness of their provision and have to participate in external evaluations.

Explanatory note

In the majority of countries, two or occasionally more distinct approaches to the external evaluation of individual schools exist depending on who is responsible for evaluation. External evaluation is conducted by evaluators who report to a local, regional or central education authority. Only approaches to external evaluation conducted by evaluators covering a broad range of school activities are considered here.

Publication of the results of the external evaluation of schools refers to publication of the findings for each individual school.

3.2. Formalising school accountability

In most cases, school autonomy legislation and/or regulations laid down in detail the types of policies that schools should produce (school development plan, curriculum policies, etc.). However, there were few occasions where such legislation and/or regulations created instruments which provided explicitly for official accountability structures. Since 2000, the transfer of new responsibilities to schools on the basis of improving schools has allowed new accountability measures to be formalised.

In some countries this has taken the form of a contractual relationship between schools and the authorities which manage them. France, for example, in 2005, launched its new 'objective contracts' which aim to evaluate the efficiency of schools at ISCED level 2. These types of contract are developing very slowly. Since 2006, Portugal has been in the process of trialling an 'autonomy contract'. This new tool is being evaluated at two levels: firstly, at national level, by a specific working group looking at the feasibility and relevance of content and, at local level, with respect to the resources requested by the school. In Romania, school autonomy is effected by the signing of a contract by the county inspectorate and the school head. This contract takes the form of a statement of the complete range of duties and objectives which the school head must carry out. In the United Kingdom (England), 'Academies' which are new schools opened in disadvantaged areas with support from external sponsors, have an individual contract (the 'Funding Agreement') with the Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families which sets out the legal relationship.

In other countries, the contractual relationship is less formalised but the principle exists. In Spain, school autonomy instruments define objectives in a range of areas. The various documents which the school must produce (school education plan teaching programmes, etc.) must be approved by the inspectorate before they are put in place and must be reviewed at the end of the year. Slovenia also obliges schools to produce annual reports intended for the ministry and local authorities which demonstrate schools' progress in meeting their objectives.

Overall school autonomy is increasingly becoming part of the framework for improving public services and public education in particular. The trend is confirmed by the development of accountability mechanisms. Evaluation procedures developed in an implicit way in the 1980s but, since the middle of the 1990s, they have become more and more formalised within standardised, restrictive frameworks. School autonomy therefore has a dual edge, increased freedom for schools as a result of the transfer of responsibilities and, on the other hand, increasing national control through the monitoring of results rather than through national norms. As in other sectors, schools have therefore crossed the boundary from a system of prior control through procedures to a system of post control through the scrutiny of results.

CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES

In conclusion, the most significant finding of this study which has spanned more than two decades of school autonomy policies in Europe is the diversity of the reforms which have been implemented under this umbrella. The policies reveal different characteristics depending on the time period, the country and even geographical area in which they were introduced.

Firstly, policies differed according to the time period in which they were developed. School autonomy is a principle which has evolved in Europe over more than two decades. The issue was at the heart of education reforms in the 1980s in countries such as Spain, France and the United Kingdom, and is still of keen interest to countries such as Germany and Luxembourg who are now in the process of changing.

These different timescales explain why the aims of the reforms differed according to the era in which they were introduced – from achieving school and local democracy to decentralisation and improving the working of state machinery or improving the quality of education. However, apart from different aims, it can also be observed that, in most countries, the policy of school autonomy gradually became independent of the wider policies for state renewal and the decentralisation/devolution of administrative powers for education. Raised at the outset to the level of an objective or even basic principle of school management and policy – institutions should be autonomous to guarantee teaching freedom, to strengthen local school democracy and to complete the process of decentralisation – school autonomy has today become, in most countries, an instrument to achieve primarily educational goals: giving more freedom to schools and teachers in order to improve the quality of education.

Although all countries now view the purpose of school autonomy in largely educational terms, there remain many policy differences between countries in terms of the extent and type of autonomy provided for. Schools in Europe are not governed by the same rules in terms of their duties, and the transfer of responsibilities to schools has varied in its extent across countries. In some countries schools have been allocated considerable freedoms, either historically as in Belgium and the Netherlands, or more recently as in the Czech Republic, Estonia and Sweden. At the other extreme, largely in southern European countries (Greece, Spain, France and Portugal), the transfer of responsibilities has been limited, even though some of these countries have been at the forefront of the field in terms of education policy. The historical analysis does not reveal a link between the time in which policies were implemented and the degree of autonomy actually granted to schools. For example, the 1980s were characterised by both limited reforms in Spain and France and wider reforms driven by strong political will in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

Apart from the degree of autonomy, the content of school autonomy policies has also varied between countries. The transfer of powers may affect teaching duties, the management of human resources or financial resources differently. Countries have not placed the same emphasis on these three areas of responsibility⁽¹⁾. Thus, some countries have favoured the transfer of financial management

⁽¹⁾ In addition to the data presented in this report, we draw very broadly on the data on teaching autonomy (curriculum and pupil evaluation) from figure B23 of the general volume of *Key Data on Education in Europe 2005* (European Commission, Eurydice, Eurostat, 2005) which will be updated and analysed in more detail in the report on teachers' responsibilities in preparation for the Slovenian Presidency.

responsibilities⁽²⁾ and the management of human resources in relation to teachers as in Estonia, Ireland (at ISCED level 2), Latvia and the United Kingdom. Overall, however, there is a degree of consistency in these reforms in the sense that, even though one area of competence may be emphasised more than another, the level of autonomy granted in other areas is not diametrically opposite. At the other extreme, some countries have focused more on pedagogical autonomy, like in Italy, where institutions have been granted more flexibility in defining the training they offer, their curricula or their timetables. No country has delegated complete autonomy in one area (teaching, financial or human resources) while completely restricting freedoms in another. However, there is evidence of a willingness to make local players more independent in some areas than in others.

Another significant difference in the implementation of school autonomy policies is the body or individuals to whom powers are devolved. Depending on the country and the area of responsibility (finance, management of human resources, etc.) it might be the school management body, the school head, or teachers in charge. However, there is a degree of consistency between the decision making (organisational) model chosen and the bodies/people involved. Therefore, where schools have significant autonomy in managing their finances, it is generally both the school head and the school board who have a role in decision-making, as in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Slovenia, some parts of the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and in Norway. Similarly, when schools hold responsibility for the recruitment of permanent teaching staff, in the majority of cases, the task is delegated to the school head, as in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and some Nordic countries. Diversity is also found in the composition of school management bodies which can be open to members from the outside community to a greater or lesser extent.

This report also examines any correlation which may exist between the degree of autonomy delegated and the strength of the school accountability measures implemented. Can a link be made between the level of autonomy granted and the nature and intensity of monitoring procedures which bear upon school-level bodies and staff? Here also, diversity is prevalent in terms of how school accountability is assured. In fact, supervision by inspectorates or organising bodies (including local authorities) or the monitoring of results (in particular the results of pupils in standardised tests) do not equate to a particular degree of autonomy. Countries with a high level of autonomy (Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Sweden, etc.) draw on all these different types of control. This diversity is explained by the fact that traditional methods of supervision (inspection of teachers for example) have been adapted to accommodate the new responsibilities delegated to schools. It is rare for countries to have developed, as in the United Kingdom (England), accountability measures in tandem with school autonomy policies and in relation to the degree of freedom granted. However, all countries where there is a high level of autonomy have developed forms of accountability which vary considerably in their level of control. Conversely, the countries which do not have a structured model of school evaluation are those where school autonomy reforms have been developed fairly recently, only partially or are weak (Bulgaria, Greece, France, Italy, etc.). However, this approach to accountability has begun to emerge in a few of these countries. Italy, for example, has recently decided to develop evaluation instruments to measure the value added by each school in terms of pupil attainment.

A geographical reading of the data can also partially help in providing a better understanding of the diverse nature of school autonomy policies. Indeed some geographical areas show common features. For example, in Southern Europe there is little inclination for school autonomy, in the Nordic countries the freedom

(²) With the exception of capital expenditure or purchases, an area in which schools have very little autonomy in the vast majority of European countries.

granted to schools is influenced by political decentralization. However, other geographical areas are characterised by contrasting policies. In the English-speaking countries (Ireland and the United Kingdom), the degree of school autonomy varies according to the country and, in the case of Ireland, according to the level of education. Similarly, in some central and eastern European countries a strong political will for school autonomy has already developed (Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, etc.) while others are proceeding more slowly. Certain bordering countries of continental Europe, such as Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and Austria, are also in different positions. Countries such as Belgium and the Netherlands have a long history of school autonomy whereas other countries, such as Germany, traditionally based on a federal system, have started quite recently.

Due to their complexity, none of the different interpretations of the data (historical, geographical, or organisational, etc.) can fully explain the origin and nature of school autonomy policies. The development, implementation and, in particular, the degree of political will attached to these policies resulted from an intermingling of various structural factors and circumstances: history, geography and political structures (centralised state versus federal system) and, in addition, the political opportunities which prompted governments to adopt policies which would lead to such profound changes in schools.

CODES AND ABBREVIATIONS

Country codes

EU-27	European Union
BE	Belgium
BE fr	Belgium – French Community
BE de	Belgium – German-speaking Community
BE nl	Belgium – Flemish Community
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
DK	Denmark
DE	Germany
EE	Estonia
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FR	France
IE	Ireland
IT	Italy
CY	Cyprus
LV	Latvia
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
HU	Hungary
MT	Malta

NL	Netherlands
AT	Austria
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
FI	Finland
SE	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom
UK-ENG	England
UK-WLS	Wales
UK-NIR	Northern Ireland
UK-SCT	Scotland
EFTA/EEA countries	The three countries of the European Free Trade Association which are members of the European Economic Area
IS	Iceland
LI	Liechtenstein
NO	Norway

Statistical codes

- : Data not available
- (-) Not applicable

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Key for the next tables

1 – Full (or relative) autonomy:

- ❑ **a** – The school takes all decisions regarding this parameter subject to the limits set by national laws with no external intervention.
- ❑ **b** – The school takes all decisions regarding this parameter subject to a predetermined general framework which is specific to education.
- ❑ **c** – The school takes decisions following consultation with education authorities at local, regional or central level. An opinion or recommendations may be given by the authority but the school is not bound by this.

2 – Limited autonomy:

- ❑ **d** – The school takes the initial decisions with or without the higher authority but has to forward its proposals to it for approval. The authority may request an amendment to the proposal as submitted.
- ❑ **e** – The school takes a decision based on a set of options predetermined by the higher authority. If a set of options is made available to schools but they are free to make other choices then they are not restricted by the set of options provided to them and it can be said that they have full autonomy.

3 – No autonomy: The school takes none of the decisions regarding this parameter which is not within its remit. The decisions are taken solely by the education authorities, even though the school may be consulted at any given point in the procedure.

4 – Discretionary delegation: Organising bodies/local authorities may delegate their decision-making powers to schools and the situation varies from one organising body/local authority to another.

Additional note (Figures 2.1 to 2.5)

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): ⁽¹⁾ refers to schools for which the Community is directly responsible and a minister is the responsible authority; and ⁽²⁾ refers to schools of the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Figure 2.1: Autonomy of schools in the use of public funds, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	Use of budget for				Acquisition of computer equipment			Use of budget for				Acquisition of computer equipment	
	capital expenditure and/or acquisitions		operating expenditure					capital expenditure and/or acquisitions		operating expenditure			
	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2		ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2
BE fr ⁽¹⁾	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	HU	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a
BE fr ⁽²⁾	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	MT	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	2 d	2 d
BE de ⁽¹⁾	1 a or 3	1 a or 3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	NL	4	4	4	4	4	4
BE de ⁽²⁾	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	AT	3	3	1 c	1 c	3	3 (Hauptschule)
BE nl	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a							2 d (AHS)
BG	3	3	1 a or 3	1 a or 3	3	3	PL	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	2 d	2 d
CZ	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	PT	3	3	1 a	1 a	3	3
DK	4	4	1 a	1 a	4	4	RO	3	3	3	3	3	3
DE	3	3	3	3	2 e	2 e	SI	2 d or 3	2 d or 3	1 b	1 b	1 b or 3	1 b or 3
EE	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	SK	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a
IE	3	3	3	1 a	3	1 b	FI	3	3	4	4	4	4
EL	3	3	2 e	2 e	3	3	SE	1 b	4 and 1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b
ES	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	UK(1)	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 c	1 c
FR	3	3	3	2 d	3	2 d	UK-NIR	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 b	3	3
IT	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	UK-SCT	3	3	1 b	1 a	1 c	1 c
CY	3	3	3	3	3	3							
LV	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	IS	3	3	1 b	1 b	1 c	1 c
LT	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	1 c	1 c	LI	3 or 4	1 b or 2 d or 3	3 or 4	1 b or 2 d or 3	3	3
LU	3	3	3	1 b	3	1 b	NO	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	2 d or 4	2 d or 4

UK (a) = UK-ENG/WLS

Source: Eurydice.

NB: this table could also be read in relation to figure 2.6.

Figure 2.2: Autonomy of schools with regard to fund-raising and the use of private funds, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	Funding (seeking donations and sponsorship)		Leasing school premises for out-of-hours activities		Loans		Use of private funds to							
	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	acquire immovables		acquire movables		employ teaching staff		employ non-teaching staff	
							ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2
BE fr ⁽¹⁾	1a	1a	1a	1a	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	3	3
BE fr ⁽²⁾	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1b	1b	1a	1a
BE de ⁽¹⁾	1a	1a	1b	1b	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	3	3
BE de ⁽²⁾	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1b	1b	1a	1a
BE nl	1b	1b	1b	1b	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1b	1b	1a	1a
BG	1a	1a	2d	2d	3	3	3	3	1b	1b	3	3	3	3
CZ	1a	1a	1a	1a	3	3	3	3	2e	2e	3	3	3	3
DK	1b	1b	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
DE	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
EE	1a	1a	1a	1a	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
IE	3	1a	3	1a	3	3	3	1a	3	1a	3	1a	3	1a
EL	(-)	(-)	3	3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	3	3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
ES	1b	1b	2d	2d	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	3	3
FR	3	1b	3	1b	3	(-)	3	1b	3	1b	3	(-)	3	(-)
IT	1a	1a	1a	1a	1b	1b	1b	1b	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a
CY	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
LV	1a	1a	1a	1a	3	3	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	3	3
LT	1a	1a	1c	1c	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	1a	1a
LU	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
HU	1a	1a	2d	2d	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	2d	2d	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
MT	1c	1c	1c	1c	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
NL	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
AT	1a	1a	3	3 (*) and 1b (**)	3	3	3	3	2d	2d	3	3	3	3
PL	2d	2d	2d	2d	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	1a	1a
PT	1b	1b	1a	1a	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	2d	2d
RO	1a	1a	2d	2d	3	3	1a	1a	1a	1a	3	3	3	3
SI	1b	1b	1b or 2d	1b or 2d	2d	2d	2d	2d	1b	1b	3	3	3	3
SK	1a	1a	1a	1a	3	3	2d	2d	2d	2d	3	3	3	3
FI	4	4	3	3	3	3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
SE	1a	1a	1a	1a	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	1b	1b	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
UK-ENG/WLS	1a	1a	1b	1b	2d	2d	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a
UK-NIR	1a	1a	1b	1b	2d	2d	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a
UK-SCT	1a	1a	1a or 3	1a or 3	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	1a	1a
IS	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
LI	1a	1a	3	3	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	3	3
NO	2e	2e	1a	1a	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Austria: (*) 3 (Hauptschule); (**) 1b (AHS).

Source: Eurydice.

NB: this table could also be read in relation to figure 2.7.

Figure 2.3: Autonomy of schools with respect to school heads, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	Selection for school head		Dismissal of school head		Duties and responsibilities of head teacher		Disciplining: head teacher			Selection for school head		Dismissal of school head		Duties and responsibilities of head teacher		Disciplining: head teacher	
	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2		ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2
BE fr ⁽¹⁾	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	LU	(-)	3	(-)	3	(-)	3	(-)	3
BE fr ⁽²⁾	1a	1a	1c	1c	1b	1b	1b	1b	HU	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
BE de ⁽¹⁾	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	MT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
BE de ⁽²⁾	1b	1b	1c	1c	1b	1b	1c	1c	NL	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
BE nl	1a	1a	1b	1b	1b or 3	1b or 3	1c	1c	AT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
BG	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	PL	2d	2d	3	3	3	3	3	3
CZ	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	PT	1b	1b	3	3	3	3	3	3
DK	3	3	3	3	1b	1b	3	3	RO	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
DE	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	SI	1c	1c	1c	1c	1b	1b	1b	1b
EE	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	SK	2d	2d	2d	2d	3	3	3	3
IE	3	1a	3	1a	3	1a	3	1b	FI	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
EL	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	SE	3	3	3	3	1b	1b	3	3
ES	2d	2d	3	3	3	3	3	3	UK(a)	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b
FR	(-)	3	(-)	3	(-)	3	(-)	3	UK-NIR	2d	2d	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b
IT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	UK-SCT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
CY	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	IS	3	3	3	3	3 or 4	3 or 4	3	3
LV	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	LI	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
LT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	NO	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

UK (a) = UK-ENG/WLS

Source: Eurydice.

NB: this table could also be read in relation to figure 2.8.

(Figure 2.4: See next page)

Figure 2.5: Autonomy of schools with respect to non-teaching staff, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	Selection for non teaching vacancies		Dismissal of non-teaching staff		Duties and responsibilities of non-teaching staff		Disciplining non teaching staff			Selection for non teaching vacancies		Dismissal of non-teaching staff		Duties and responsibilities of non-teaching staff		Disciplining non teaching staff	
	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2		ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2
BE fr ⁽¹⁾	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	LU	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
BE fr ⁽²⁾	1b	1b	1c	1c	1a	1a	1c	1c	HU	2e	2e	1a	1a	1b	1b	1b	1b
BE de ⁽¹⁾	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	1b or 3	1b or 3	MT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
BE de ⁽²⁾	1b	1b	1c	1c	1a	1a	1c	1c	NL	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
BE nl	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	AT	3	3	3	3	1b	1b	3	3
BG	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	PL	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a
CZ	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	PT	3 or 4	3 or 4	3	3	3	3	3	3
DK	3	3	3	3	1a	1a	3	3	RO	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a
DE	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	SI	2d	2d	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b
EE	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	SK	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a or 1b	1a or 1b	1a or 1b	1a or 1b
IE	3	1a	3	1a	3	1a	3	1b	FI	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
EL	3 or 1c	3 or 1c	3 or 1c	3 or 1c	3 or 1c	3 or 1c	3 or 1a	3 or 1a	SE	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a
ES	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	UK(a)	1a	1a	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b
FR	3	3	3	3 or 1a	3	1b	3	3	UK-NIR	1a	1a	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b
IT	3	3	3	3	2e	2e	2d	2d	UK-SCT	1b	1b	3	3	1a	1a	1c or 3	1c or 3
CY	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	IS	1a	1a	2d	2d	1b	1b	1c	2e
LV	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	1a	LI	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
LT	1c	1c	1c	1c	1a	1a	1a	1a	NO	1a	1a	1a or 3	1a or 3	1a or 2e	1a or 2e	1a	1a

UK (a) = UK-ENG/WLS

Source: Eurydice.

NB: ce tableau peut être lu en relation avec la figure 2.10.

**Figure 2.4: Autonomy of schools with respect to teaching staff,
ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07**

	Selection for teaching vacancies		Selection for substituting absent teachers		Dismissal of teachers		Duties and responsibilities of teachers		Disciplining teachers		Offering salary supplements to teachers for non-contractually			
	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	stipulated overtime		stipulated duties and responsibilities	
											ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 1	ISCED 2
BE fr ⁽¹⁾	3	3	3	3	3	3	1 a	1 a	3	3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
BE fr ⁽²⁾	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 c	1 c	1 a	1 a	1 c	1 c	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
BE de ⁽¹⁾	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1 b or 3	1 b or 3	3	3	(-)	(-)
BE de ⁽²⁾	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 c	1 c	1 b	1 b	1 c	1 c	3	3	(-)	(-)
BE nl	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
BG	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3	3	1 a	1 a	3	3	3	3
CZ	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a and 1 b	1 a and 1 b	1 a	1 a	3	3	1 a	1 a
DK	3	3	4	4	3	3	1 b	1 b	3	3	3	3	3	3
DE	3	3	1 b	1 b	3	3	3	3	3	3	1 b	1 b	3	3
EE	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
IE	3	1 a	3	1 a	3	1 a	3	1 a	3	1 b	3	1 a	3	1 a
EL	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d
ES	3	3	3	3	3	3	2 d	2 d	3	3	(-)	(-)	3	3
FR	3	3	3	2 e	3	3	3 or 2 d	3 or 2 d	3	3	3	2 d	3	2 d
IT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
CY	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
LV	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
LT	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e
LU	4	3	1 a or 3	1 a	3	3	3	3	3	3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
HU	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e
MT	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
NL	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
AT	3	3	1 a	1 a	3	3	1 b	1 b	3	3	3	3	3	3
PL	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3	3	1 a	1 a	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d
PT	3	3	1 b	1 b	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
RO	3	3	1 a or 3	1 a or 3	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a or 3	1 a or 3	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d
SI	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d
SK	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a or 1 b	1 a or 1 b	1 a or 1 b	1 a or 1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
FI	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
SE	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 a or 1 b	1 a or 1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
UK-ENG/WLS	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b
UK-NIR	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b
UK-SCT	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	3	3	1 c	1 c	1 c or 3	1 c or 3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
IS	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3	3	2 e	2 e	1 c	1 c	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e
LI	3	3	2 d	2 d	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
NO	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3	3	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a

Source: Eurydice.

NB: this table could also be read in relation to figures 2.9 and 2.11.

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