



Levels of Autonomy and Responsibilities of Teachers in Europe





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Eurydice

The information network on education in Europe

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PREFACE



Over the past 20 years, educational policies across Europe have focused on improving the quality of education, in particular through increasing the capacity for innovative teaching and reinforcing the professionalization of teachers. This places new demands on teachers increasing their responsibilities, widening their duties and, more generally, changing their working conditions and status. Besides an enhanced knowledge of the fundamentals of teaching emanating from, amongst other things, continuing professional development and the adoption of innovative teaching practices, teachers must have the ability to reflect on and adapt to local learning environments both individually and collectively as part of the school's teaching team.

The Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament of August 2007 on improving the quality of teacher education identified the quality of teaching as a key factor in raising educational attainment levels and achieving the Lisbon goals. It recognised that 'as schools become more autonomous and open learning environments, teachers assume ever greater responsibility for the content, organisation and monitoring of the learning process, as well as for their own personal career-long professional development'.

In many countries, these new expectations have been accompanied by an increase in autonomy which allows teachers the flexibility to carry out their duties. Such autonomy often goes hand in hand with increased accountability – an accountability which is no longer based solely on teachers' abilities to adhere to the institution's operational procedures but also on the evaluation of their results.

One of the central priorities of the Slovenian presidency of the Council of the European Union during the first half of 2008 was to examine such issues more closely, as a prerequisite for the development of a creative and innovative atmosphere in schools. The Slovenian presidency therefore asked for a Eurydice study that analyses how far recent changes in the teaching profession have extended the autonomy and educational responsibilities of teachers. The report also represents a logical sequel to the discussion of school autonomy in the document *School Autonomy in Europe, Policies and Measures* completed by the Eurydice Network for the Portuguese EU presidency in the second half of 2007.

This publication therefore presents a comparative picture of the tasks teachers assume in the different countries and the autonomy they have to carry them out. I believe this new Eurydice study represents an important contribution to better understanding the changes in the role of teachers as key players in education.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Jan Figel', written in a cursive style.

Ján Figel'

Commissioner for Education, Training,
Culture and Youth

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to provide a comparative analysis of whether or not changes in the teaching profession have extended the autonomy and educational responsibilities of teachers.

The report consists of six chapters, an annexe and concludes with a synthesis.

Chapter 1 deals with the historical and institutional background of the education policies that have effectively placed new responsibilities on teachers. The relationship between measures for school autonomy and the changing role of teachers is examined, as is the relationship between their broader range of responsibilities and efforts to improve the performance of education systems. The chapter then considers how the fresh demands facing schools in terms of social commitments (including the integration of pupils with special educational needs and provision for an increasingly mixed school population, etc.) may be a further reason why teachers are now entrusted with additional responsibilities.

Chapter 2 focuses on how the content of school curricula and teaching objectives are drawn up and the part teachers are expected to play in adapting them. It goes on to discuss how far teachers are free, first, to determine the curricular content of compulsory and optional subjects; secondly, to decide which textbooks should be used to teach them; and thirdly, to adopt their own teaching methods and organise pupils into groups for learning activities. The chapter also discusses the choice of criteria for the internal assessment of pupils. Finally, it considers who takes responsibility for deciding whether pupils should repeat a year, and the part played by teachers in devising the content of examinations for certified qualifications.

Chapter 3 reports on definitions of working time in employment contracts. It also examines tasks that might be contractually required of teachers besides teaching, the preparation of lessons and the marking of work by pupils. In addition, it considers how far teachers are expected to take part in teamwork and whether legislation or guidelines exist specifically to promote teamwork related to particular activities.

Chapter 4 covers the requirements and opportunities associated with continuing professional development (CPD). It examines the extent to which CPD is a professional obligation or an optional undertaking for teachers, and whether requirements in this area are regulated in terms of the time (in hours) spent annually on CPD. Special consideration is given to whether the choice of CPD depends on a training plan to meet the priorities of national or local authorities, or whether the choice is left to schools. Also briefly discussed are whether CPD is organised during working time and, if so, whether teachers require special permission to attend training and how their absence is managed. Finally, the chapter considers the level of authority responsible for administering funding for CPD and the incentives that may be offered teachers to take part in it.

Chapter 5 deals with the contribution of teachers to the process of reform and educational innovation and examines whether teachers participate individually or collectively in reforms such as those concerned with their terms and working conditions, school curricula and teaching objectives in general.

Chapter 6 covers the various measures concerned with accountability and evaluation, including results-based evaluation, and considers their individual and collective aspects. It also focuses on whether new duties have given rise to individual or collective incentives to motivate teachers in carrying them out.

The study covers school education at ISCED levels 1 and 2. While it relates to public sector schools in all countries, the state-subsidised private sector is also taken into account in the case of Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands. The reference year for data is 2006/07, but forthcoming reforms are also considered. All Eurydice network countries with the exception of Turkey are covered.

With respect to the methodology of this study, the Eurydice European Unit developed a guide to content in conjunction with the Slovenian Ministry of Education and Sport. The comparative analysis is based on responses to this guide from Eurydice National Units. To ensure that the information contained in the study is an accurate representation of national situations, a checking phase was held in April 2008. All of the contributors to this study are acknowledged at the end of the volume.

CHAPTER 1: THE POLITICAL CONTEXT AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The last two decades have been noteworthy for marked changes in the responsibilities assigned to teachers in the great majority of European countries. The teaching profession has changed conspicuously over the past 20 years. Aspects of this trend include greater autonomy in educational matters, enabling teachers to become more effectively involved in curriculum development; the acceptance of new day-to-day responsibilities (such as replacing absent colleagues, supervising new teachers, etc.); and the greater demands placed on teachers (in areas such as teamwork, time spent at school, or their involvement in drafting the school development plan or school curriculum, etc.).

The original causes of these major changes, which in all countries have resulted in a greater workload for teachers, are many and often interrelated. There is an apparent link, first, between the way in which the responsibilities of teachers have evolved and school autonomy in the broad sense, including financial and administrative autonomy, etc. (section 1). However, as will be explained further, this does not apply to all countries. In particular, in some countries with a long tradition of curricular autonomy, such as Belgium, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, or some which embarked on pioneering and ambitious policies in this area ⁽¹⁾ in the 1980s, the relationship between the two trends is less clear.

The more substantial responsibilities assigned to teachers may also be associated with efforts to improve the performance of education systems, often against the background of a 'schools crisis' triggered partly by the publication of results judged to be disappointing in standard national and international assessments (section 2).

Finally, the fresh demands placed on schools in terms of satisfying social needs (including the integration of pupils with special educational needs and providing for an increasingly mixed school population, etc.) are a further reason why teachers are now entrusted with new responsibilities of a social nature (section 3).

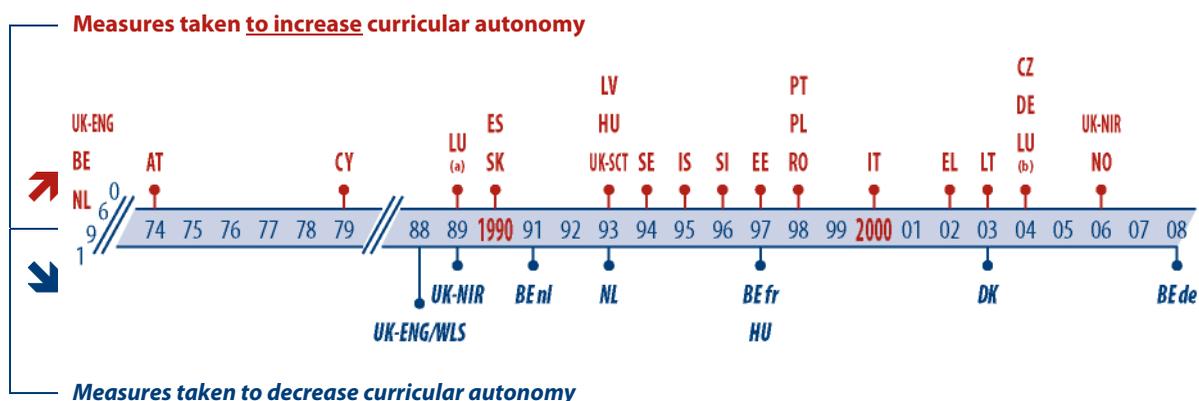
1.1. Teaching responsibilities, school autonomy and decentralisation

In the great majority of European countries, new responsibilities were originally assigned to teachers as a result of growing school autonomy and, more broadly speaking, to decentralisation. While in most school systems – even the most centralised – teachers had already long been free to choose their teaching methods and materials (school textbooks, etc.), the reforms concerned with school autonomy, often coupled with decentralisation measures, now enabled them to become actively involved in devising school education plans. It is expected that this new-found autonomy and the freedom which in principle goes with it will lead teachers to develop their creativity and ability to innovate, while becoming more actively engaged and thus more motivated, and encourage more differentiated provision better suited to the heterogeneity of the school population that has occurred with 'mass secondary education' and comprehensive education.

Except in certain pioneering countries such as Finland, which from the 1980s embarked on an education policy anchored in a 'culture of trust', the majority of these policies for curricular autonomy gathered momentum in the 1990s. This occurred, for example, in Estonia with the *National Curriculum for Basic School*, as well as in Spain with the 1990 LOGSE strengthened by the 2006 Education Act, in Iceland with the 1995 Compulsory School Act, in Lithuania with the 1992 'General Concept of Education' Act, or yet again in Slovenia with the major reform of 1996.

(1) See the report Eurydice (2007) *School Autonomy in Europe. Policies and measures*.

Figure 1.1: Dates of major reforms that have increased or decreased the autonomy of teachers (ISCED 1 and 2) between 1950 and 2008



(:) BG and IE

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: The administrative authority for schools run directly by the three Communities (the education minister in each case) is positioned at central (top) level, whereas the education providers of grant-aided public-sector schools (in particular the communes), as well as grant-aided private ones, are fairly close to their schools. As a result, these subsidised institutions experience school autonomy more directly. In the Flemish Community, public-sector 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: Autonomy has been progressively implemented, with no precise dates specified.

Luxembourg: (a) ISCED 1; (b) ISCED 2.

Hungary: It is difficult to specify a particular year in which autonomy was restricted because the process was the outcome of many different regulations. In reality, therefore, 1997 corresponds to the year in which in-service teacher training was made compulsory.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): Legislation in 1988 provided for the introduction, for the first time, of compulsory minimum curricula with prescribed programmes of study. Since then, successive revisions have reduced the level of prescription.

United Kingdom (NIR): Legislation in 1989 provided for the introduction, for the first time, of a compulsory minimum curriculum with prescribed programmes of study. Major reforms are currently being implemented under the Education (Northern Ireland) Order 2006.

Explanatory note

Only major (legislative or official) regulations providing for the implementation of policies for curricular autonomy covering different areas (timetables, curricula, certificates, etc.) have been taken into account here. One-off or isolated measures for autonomy, which have often preceded major reforms, are not included in this historical backdrop. Neither are subsequent further reforms or amendments.

In other countries, the trend towards greater curricular autonomy has been more recent. This applies to Italy in which, in accordance with the subsidiarity principle, the central government has since 2000 enacted national recommendations instead of detailed curricula as in the past. Similarly, in 2004, the Czech Republic drew up a two-tier curriculum providing for the development of 'school education programmes' to be implemented in 2007/08. Luxembourg has likewise followed suit. France is now considering the prospect of greater teaching autonomy and recently convened the Pochard Commission to institute broad discussion of the working conditions of teachers (with a view to redefining and broadening their responsibilities, establishing the number of hours they should work annually and diversifying their duties). Overall, in virtually

all countries that have long been centralised from an educational standpoint, new more flexible guides to teaching content have been introduced. They have enabled teachers to contribute locally to the development of educational content.

That said, in 2007, the trend towards greater curricular autonomy has not been universally followed in all European countries. On the contrary, some of them have moved in the opposite direction. Restrictions in autonomy and broadening of the responsibilities assumed by teachers are occurring both in countries in which educational provision has long been decentralised, as in Belgium (grant-aided private schools), the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, and in those, such as Hungary, which followed broader policies in this respect from the 1990s onwards. These exceptions highlight the fact that greater curricular autonomy does not fully account for the increased responsibilities of teachers in all contexts.

Thus in the three Communities of Belgium, the responsibilities of teachers were broadened overall, while the room for manoeuvre of schools and their administrative authorities or bodies, as education providers, was at the same time steadily limited by the development of standards specifying the aims of this provision. These new pointers to more structured provision have become 'final objectives' (*eindtermen*) in the Flemish Community of Belgium since 1991, 'competence thresholds' (*socles de compétences*) in the French Community since 1999 (following the 1997 'Missions' decree), and framework programmes (*Rahmenpläne*) in the German-speaking Community of Belgium since 2008. While the 'organising bodies' are still entitled to devise local curricula, their educational content now has to satisfy the legislative requirements of their Communities.

In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), centralising measures were introduced by the Education Reform Act 1988, which established compulsory minimum curricula for the first time. More detailed curriculum frameworks and resources were subsequently introduced in England, such as the literacy and numeracy strategies. Whilst teachers valued the additional support provided through these initiatives, they often found that the pace and manner of change added to the pressures they were experiencing. Since 2003, measures to tackle workload pressures have been introduced in England and Wales. Additionally, since 1995, reviews of the curriculum have increased the level of flexibility available to schools and teachers. The new *National Curriculum* for 11-16-year-olds, which is due to come into effect in September 2008, should allow for greater flexibility when devising curricula at local level. In the Netherlands, the teaching programmes of school competent authorities or bodies and of schools themselves have also been guided since 1993 by the introduction of standards that were reformed in 2006.

Curricular autonomy is also called into question in countries that have more often than not developed strong policies towards it since the 1990s. The substantial freedom that teachers still undoubtedly exercise in these countries now goes hand in hand with new frameworks to guide their action. For example, measures limiting the curricular autonomy of teachers in Hungary, including the obligation to undertake in-service training, were initiated at the end of the 1990s and introduced over several years. The 2003 *National Core Curriculum* has become more detailed even though it still leaves teaching staff substantial scope for flexibility. Similarly, 'educational programmes and packages' have been tested in 120 schools at ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 since 2005. These new educational resources are intended to provide teachers with practical guides, mainly in the form of teaching materials, to help them plan their work, prepare their lessons and assess pupils. Likewise in Denmark, in which freedom of education remains the basic rule, a 2003 amendment to the Act on *Folkeskole* states that the Ministry of Education is now responsible for defining national 'common objectives' for observance in principle. Furthermore, in the case of compulsory subjects, the Ministry now produces more detailed curriculum guidelines. While admittedly these documents have only advisory status, they appear to be very widely followed by municipalities and teachers alike.

Sweden – which back in 1993 introduced a goal-based curriculum in place of its former content-based one – has called into question its extensive school autonomy. Policy-makers are now envisaging a reform that would represent a move towards more strictly specified curricular content. Their desire for action stems from the findings of many surveys by the inspectorate revealing that goal-based curricula become difficult for

teachers to interpret and lead to major inequalities in school academic requirements. The 'Inquiry on Objectives and Follow-Up in Compulsory School' reporting in 2007 highlighted the need to provide teachers with curricular content that was more precise and easier to interpret. It emphasised that the wide variety in local interpretations of the curriculum had created marked differences between schools that were tending to compromise the existence of the 'comprehensive school' in any meaningful sense.

These contrasting developments in the freedom of teachers in education clearly characterise this area of school autonomy. While in the administrative and financial fields as well as human resources management, the last two decades have witnessed the virtually non-stop transfer of responsibilities from the central authorities to local players, in the area of teaching itself, reforms have tended to converge less, clearly demonstrating the lack of any consensus regarding the benefits of curricular autonomy. In some types of system, this approach to school organisation is viewed as a powerful factor in improving the quality of teaching and learning, whereas in very decentralised systems it is regarded as a potential risk liable to prevent the priority goals of educational effectiveness and equality from being achieved.

To sum up, the increase in responsibilities entrusted to teachers for some 20 years may, in the majority of European countries, be seen as one outcome of greater school autonomy, at least from a collective standpoint. The broader range of options in education should indeed not be confused with the acquisition of greater individual freedoms. On the contrary, in many countries it is clear that these newly acquired collective responsibilities actually reduce the capacity of individual teachers to take their own classroom decisions. Where the curriculum is worked out in detail at school level in terms of content, timetable and pupil assessment, teachers are obliged to cooperate in a way that inhibits their individual classroom independence.

However, a number of noteworthy exceptions demonstrate that other factors also lie behind current changes in the teaching profession, including the search for improvement in school performance.

1.2. Teacher responsibilities and the performance of education systems

Over and above the issue of school autonomy, the findings from national and international standardised assessments have also intensified discussion on the work done by teachers in many countries.

This applies in particular to those countries in which such findings have come as a wake-up call for the idealised vision of the national school system. This has led to immediate reconsideration of the role, enhanced professionalism and the new demands and responsibilities that teachers were expected to assume.

For example, in Germany, the results of the TIMSS and PISA surveys taken together – with the latter leading to what was described as the 'PISA shock' – led to broader thought and discussion concerning the search for better quality education. In 2000, this and other points of contention gave rise to a Declaration on the Rights and Duties of Teachers and, in 2004, to the establishment of national standards. In Denmark, a series of measures were taken in the light of PISA results judged to be inadequate. In particular, the programme for training teachers in lower secondary education now provides for a reduction in the number of subjects in which they can specialise in order to strengthen their proficiency in the fields concerned.

In France, the somewhat mediocre results for scientific literacy in PIRLS and PISA 2006 became a subject of intense concern at the very end of 2007. New school curricula for primary education were published in the spring of 2008 expressing the need for pupils to receive more intensive provision in the most basic subjects, and a new status for teachers is under consideration. Likewise in Hungary, the results from PISA 2000 led to discussion about teaching and learning practices and competence-based curricula. In the light of the findings from PISA 2006, Luxembourg has decided to extend what is judged to have been a worthwhile experiment granting schools for technical secondary education (ISCED 2) greater freedom to fix their own timetables and reorganising their teaching activity (with few or no teaching staff changes during the three-

year stage of schooling, smaller classes, and teacher support and training that match the needs of each school). In Sweden, the results from PISA and national assessments were considered to be disappointing, and gave rise among other things to improvements in initial teacher education, more thorough analysis of school subjects and a strengthening of in-service training.

In Norway, what was perceived as a poor performance in national and international standardised assessments resulted in a challenge to the 1997 curricular reform, a broadening of teacher responsibilities – in particular through the development of school autonomy – and increased requirements and opportunities in the field of continuing education.

In the German-speaking Community, these international assessments have had an even more direct influence on the work of teachers. In this Community in which all pupils aged 15 take part in the PISA surveys, the results obtained by each school form an integral component of its external evaluations. These new evaluation procedures are currently being launched on an experimental basis with a view to their becoming compulsory from 2009 onwards. As a result, they are almost bound to affect teachers when carrying out their daily individual activities.

In the United Kingdom (Scotland), the effort to improve school results in terms of effectiveness and equality also led to renewed debate on the pay and terms and conditions of employment of teachers. Broad discussion took place in the McCrone Committee culminating in the *Teacher's Agreement* of 2001. In the rest of the United Kingdom, teachers' pay and career structures have undergone a period of far-reaching reform, with the objective of being able to recruit, retain and motivate high quality teachers by rewarding good performance and improving career progression opportunities. In England and Wales, conditions of employment have also been reformed, following the signing, in 2003, of a national agreement on workforce reform, *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload*. The reforms implemented since 2003 include routine delegation of administrative and clerical tasks, the introduction of guaranteed professional time for planning, preparation and assessment, introduction of new limits on covering for absent colleagues, and the development of other new roles in schools for adults who support teachers' work and pupils' learning.

In addition to school autonomy and the search for better school results, changes in the teaching profession may also be attributed to an increase in the tasks schools have to perform.

1.3. Teaching responsibilities and a broader range of school social commitments

Economic, social and cultural changes also have some impact on the activities of teachers. Schools are required not just to improve the educational attainment of pupils but also to come up with their own proposed solutions to the management of more general social issues, including the integration of children with special educational needs, the social mix, equality of opportunity for disadvantaged pupils, and the integration of immigrant children. Where in the past these issues were resolved via a range of different paths through school, the adoption in many countries of the single structure model or the common core curriculum throughout the whole of compulsory education now oblige schools to develop social responsibilities with which they are not wholly familiar. Teachers have not always welcomed these changes, in which their own professional identity is compounded by duties characteristic of a specialist instructor or social assistant. In some countries, this trend is viewed not merely as an unwelcome departure from the distinctiveness of their profession (especially in secondary education) but also, from an objective standpoint, as an increase in the tasks they are expected to perform.

Thus in the Flemish Community of Belgium, teachers were assigned tasks that they considered to be well beyond the scope of their profession. Similarly, in Cyprus, they had to assume broader responsibilities as a result of the integration of children with special educational needs and from immigrant backgrounds, as well as new requirements in terms of pupils from a wide variety of social backgrounds in classes and schools alike. In France, a policy for positive discrimination introduced from the beginning of the 1980s, which involved

establishing *zones d'éducation prioritaire* (ZEPs, or priority education areas) supplemented by additional resources, made teachers more aware of the special needs of pupils experiencing difficulty and led to the beginning of teamwork and teaching innovations in the areas concerned. While requirements in Italy for the integration of pupils with special needs can be traced back to the 1970s, the arrival of large numbers of foreigners in the country since the 1990s has called for fresh skills and responsibilities on the part of teachers, enabling them to relate to a variety of cultures, communicate with pupils and their families, and teach pupils unfamiliar with Italian. In Lithuania, the new responsibilities with which teachers were entrusted in the social domain (social care and guardianship of pupils) were instrumental in triggering social protest among them. This movement led, among other things, to negotiation of a proposal for increased salaries in the years 2008 to 2011. During this period, teacher salaries in the country will be raised annually by 10-20 %. In Slovenia, the recent integration of children with special needs, as well as Romany children and those of immigrant origin has meant that teachers exercise broader social responsibilities. Yet a survey conducted by the Education Research Institute has revealed that teachers feel their skills are inadequate for work with mixed groups, in spite of support received from specialist teachers, smaller class sizes and in-service training that includes training in the provision of assistance to children experiencing difficulty.

Similarly in Sweden, a recent study by the Swedish National Agency for Education, entitled *Evaluation of Compulsory School 2003 (NU 2003)*, revealed that notwithstanding the development of continuing education, one-third of all teachers felt they lacked the skills needed to cater for children with special educational needs or to work with pupils from varied social and cultural backgrounds.

In very few countries have the new social responsibilities assumed by teams of teachers gone hand in hand with the creation of new posts in schools. However, in the Czech Republic in 2000, the new post of teacher assistant (*asistent pedagoga*) was established. This post was included in the Act on Educational Staff in 2004. Teachers' assistants help pupils who have special educational needs – including immigrants, Romany children, etc. – to adapt to the school environment. They also support members of the school teaching staff in their educational activities, and help them to communicate with pupils in cooperation with the latter's legal representatives and community. In Spain too, schools with large numbers of disadvantaged pupils have since 1996 been able to secure assistance from specialist teachers, known as 'Community Services Technical Teachers'. These specialists, who join the teaching teams at each school, act as intermediaries between the schools and families concerned and are involved in controlling and monitoring absenteeism, visiting parents, and other activities. Since 1977 in Italy, the integration of children with special educational needs has led to the recruitment of specialist teachers known as *insegnanti di sostegno*. They now number around 90,000, corresponding to one teacher for every two children. In the past few years in the United Kingdom (England) there has been a huge growth in the range and number of support staff in schools. This includes staff who are taking over tasks previously the responsibility of teachers with the aim of reducing workload, teaching assistants who, for example, provide support for special educational needs or other additional needs, and people such as learning mentors who help pupils overcome barriers to learning caused by social, emotional and behavioural problems.

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* *

In conclusion, the major changes that have visibly expanded the activities of teachers are attributable to several different factors, including school autonomy, the search for enhanced quality in education and new social responsibilities assumed by schools. In some countries these factors have been complementary. For example, school autonomy and thus greater freedom in the realm of education have often been developed as a means of improving academic performance. In others, no more than a single factor has really contributed to changes in the teaching profession. In such cases, these reforms have been driven essentially by efforts to improve the performance of the education system.

Despite the many different causes, the institutional patterns adopted to broaden teaching responsibilities are fairly similar from one country to the next. With few exceptions, the decision to increase the range of responsibilities exercised by professionally qualified teachers has in most cases been taken at national (or top) level, even in countries with decentralised institutions. Indeed, both the regulatory frameworks governing the organisation of curriculum development and the legislation setting out the pay and terms and conditions of employment of teachers are determined at central level in the great majority of European countries. Where local authorities or other bodies that administer schools employ teachers directly, tripartite negotiations may be held involving the Ministry of Education, the teacher unions and local authority representatives. It is therefore through compliance with these national frameworks – which the unions perceive as safeguards – that local authorities or schools may reform the status of teachers and the precise scope of their activity.

The position of certain countries such as Sweden, Finland or Spain contrasts somewhat with these highly centralised processes for transferring responsibilities. Indeed, the regional and local authorities in those countries, which now play a major role in their education systems, are very much involved in determining the whole range of activities performed by teachers excluding of course any contribution they may make to the curriculum, for which the national (or top-level) authorities remain wholly or partially responsible in all European countries.

Aside from the foregoing exceptions, teaching activity is thus still regulated almost everywhere by national or central level authorities. However, in spite of this, such regulation is not necessarily incorporated within a well-ordered legal framework. Very few countries – the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom – have undertaken a full enquiry into the role of teachers leading to radical reform of their status and working conditions. In most cases, the current changes stem from the steady accumulation of a succession of laws each laying down fresh responsibilities without initiating any thorough discussion of what constitutes the essence of the teaching profession. Certain Nordic countries, such as Sweden, which have devolved broad responsibilities for teacher management to the municipalities, stand in contrast to this steady accumulation of regulations and are noteworthy for the autonomous status of their regional and local authorities.

However, the situation seems to be changing in some countries in which teacher management is being addressed in increasingly holistic terms.

One example is Spain which since 2006 has been taking action to reform the pay and terms and conditions of employment of teachers who work at non-university levels of education, and which has prepared a draft text that was still being discussed in October 2007. One may also cite France which in 2007/08 convened the so-called Pochard Commission to give further consideration to the working conditions of teachers. Similarly, a broadly-based research project in the Czech Republic between 2007 and 2011 is seeking to understand the development of the profession and focusing on issues that relate to the conditions of employment and status of teachers. Finally in Liechtenstein, the Ministry of Education and Science very recently decided to consider this issue, in response to a request by the teacher unions, and to carry out an investigation based on detailed surveys of the tasks and duties of teachers.

The relations that are bound to exist between status, responsibilities, remuneration, autonomy and accountability are central to this general discussion. In most cases, they are developed as part of broader reforms in the status of civil servants, or under pressure from the unions, which view them as a suitable platform for clarifying the responsibilities of teachers in a way consistent with their remuneration.

CHAPTER 2: EDUCATIONAL PROVISION AND THE AUTONOMY OF TEACHERS

This chapter discusses how far teachers can take decisions and act freely in three areas with a crucial bearing on the nature of their work. The first concerns decisions about what the curriculum should contain, including both its compulsory and optional components; the second relates to methods of teaching and more specifically the choice of methods, school textbooks and the basis on which pupils are grouped together for teaching purposes; the third area is that of pupil assessment, including the choice of criteria for internal assessment, decisions as to whether pupils should repeat a year, and decisions regarding the content of examinations for certified qualifications. However, teachers cannot act autonomously if schools have no autonomy in the same three key areas in the first place. For this reason and for each area in turn, the following analysis will consider first the level of school autonomy and then whether teachers may contribute to school decision-making. The three main players involved in taking decisions in schools are the head, the school board or council (i.e. the management body inside the school) and teachers themselves, and they may do so in any possible combination.

School autonomy may be said to exist at four main levels ⁽¹⁾. The term **full autonomy** is used when schools take 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** refers to a situation in which schools take decisions within a set of options predetermined by a higher authority for education, or obtain approval for their decisions from such an authority. Schools are said to be with **no autonomy** when they do not take decisions in a given area. Finally, a fourth level of autonomy is apparent in the organisational structures of some education systems. In some countries, the education providers and/or local authorities may choose whether or not to **delegate** their decision-making powers in certain areas to schools. Where this occurs, there may be differences between schools within the country in the level and areas of responsibility delegated. This last possibility has few implications for teaching matters (and is thus referred to sparingly in the following sections), but it assumes greater importance when other areas of school activity are examined ⁽²⁾.

2.1. Curricular content

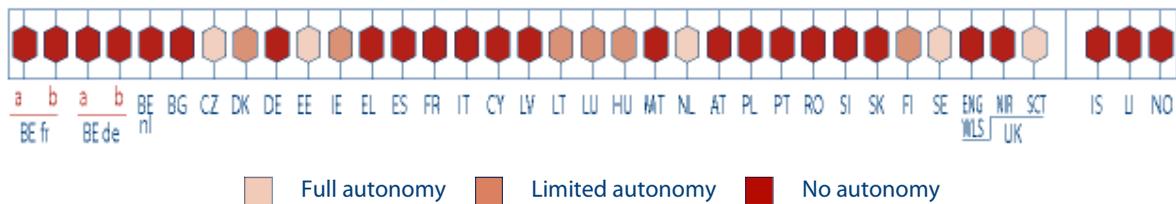
As regards the curriculum, a distinction may be drawn between two approaches depending on the country concerned: in the first, a curriculum sets out the content of what should be taught; in the second, the central (or top-level) authorities for education specify aims that should be achieved. The present section will not seek to elaborate on this distinction, or to discuss the considerable discretion in the organisation of teaching time which is left to schools and teachers in some countries, but to indicate the part the latter are able to play vis-à-vis the curriculum.

Teachers have relatively little say in determining the content of the **compulsory minimum curriculum**, either because this does not occur in schools (see Figure 2.1a), or because – where it does – the task is mainly the responsibility of the school head (see Figure 2.1b).

(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.

(²) For more information, see Eurydice (2007) School Autonomy in Europe. Policies and Measures.

Figure 2.1a: School autonomy regarding the content of the compulsory minimum curriculum, 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; (b) refers to schools in 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: The reform of the curriculum has begun in 2007/08. In 2006/07, selected schools tested their ‘School Educational Programmes’ in pilot projects based on the ‘Framework Educational Programme’.

Lithuania: The Education Act states that teachers’ associations, societies and alliances take part in developing subject content (the curriculum). However, teacher subject associations do not have a long-standing tradition of activity, so their participation is only now becoming more visible (for example, the alliances of teachers of Lithuanian language and literature and of mathematics teachers have contributed markedly to improving the quality of examinations in those subjects).

Luxembourg: There is no autonomy at ISCED level 1.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the ‘educational vision’ of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

Romania: The content of the compulsory minimum curriculum is established at central level, through the National Curriculum Framework. New syllabuses are developed by working groups in which teachers of the relevant subject or the part of the curriculum concerned are in the majority. These working groups come under the authority of the National Council for the Curriculum.

Slovenia: The general framework of the compulsory minimum curriculum is determined at central level. Subject content is described in greater detail in the textbooks that teachers are free to choose from a list drawn up in advance. The syllabus being updated in the 2007/08 school year by the National Education Institute should give teachers slightly greater autonomy.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Statutory curricula contain the minimum required for all pupils. They do not seek to determine the curriculum in its entirety, for which the school is responsible.

United Kingdom (SCT): The teaching of ethics and religion is statutorily compulsory.

Explanatory note

The ‘content of the curriculum’ refers to the main areas of learning and the aims to be achieved, and not to the content of school subjects themselves or the adaptations made by schools to their own syllabuses.

Even where schools are fully autonomous, there are major national guidelines for determining the curriculum or the aims to be achieved. In around two-thirds of the countries considered, the content of the compulsory minimum curriculum is not determined at school level, so teachers are not directly involved in devising it.

However, when programmes are developed, teachers may be involved through representation in working groups and/or via a consultation process (see chapter 5). In France, for example, they are represented within expert groups that draft the curriculum, while their representatives (trade unions, teacher associations

organised by subject) are consulted during the discussion stages. All teachers are then always consulted (by subject) during an intermediate stage prior to the institutional consultation with the *Conseil supérieur de l'Éducation* (Higher Council for Education) which includes 20 tenured and auxiliary teachers working in public-sector primary and secondary education (out of 97 members in all). In Iceland, teachers have been involved in drafting the 'national curriculum guidelines' for the period from 2006 to 2010. In Belgium (German-speaking Community), Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania and Liechtenstein, teachers also assist in drawing up the country's school curriculum (for use in all schools). In Malta, teacher trade unions have been party to consultations during the drafting of curricula, while reforms already under way are seeking to create networks of schools enabling the latter to have a somewhat greater say in curriculum development. The involvement of teachers in this area may also depend on other factors. For example, although Greece is a country in which most aspects of the curriculum are centrally determined (i.e. school autonomy in this area is non-existent), the development of cross-thematic approaches to curricula means that teachers exercise greater influence over curricular content and are thus more autonomous. In Ireland, the content of the curriculum is centrally determined, but a key aspect of its implementation is the importance of adapting it to the particular needs and circumstances of schools and individual children, and both schools and teachers are encouraged to do this.

In Slovenia, the Council of Experts for general education adopts the curriculum and outline syllabuses for subjects in basic education. The programme includes conceptual and procedural knowledge, pupil activities, suggestions about content, teaching recommendations and compulsory cross-curricular links. It may also include standards for evaluating learning objectives. Teachers are nevertheless free to choose specific items of content as the curriculum offers just a general framework. School legislation dating from 1996 has partly altered the responsibilities of teachers. Even if they do not always take decisions on the content or aims of teaching, they are now free to plan their activity on an annual basis (often jointly with other teachers of the same subject) and to allocate precise topics to each day or week.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the central curriculum and assessment authorities define the compulsory minimum curriculum, setting out the programmes of study (content to be taught), attainment targets and assessment arrangements. Schools and teachers cannot normally change these requirements, but they do decide which subjects might be added to the minimum, which subjects are taught separately and which are combined with other subjects, how the curriculum is distributed across the key stage, and the time allocated to each subject. The compulsory minimum curriculum has undergone reforms in all three countries, and new curricula being introduced into schools from 2007 (Northern Ireland) and 2008 (England and Wales) are less prescriptive.

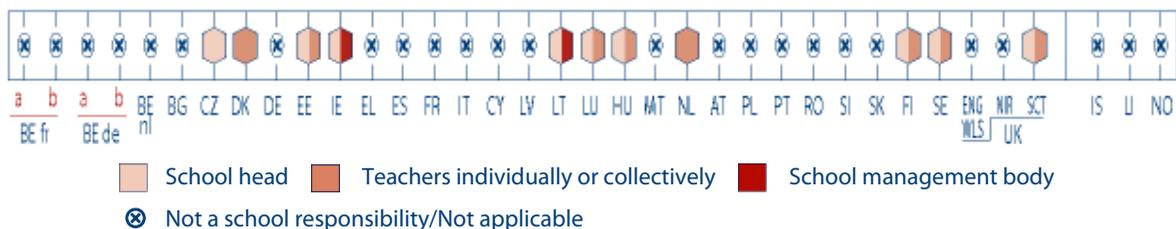
In Norway, the 'Knowledge Promotion' reform and its accompanying national curriculum determine the school subjects that must be taught during compulsory education. Each subject consists of main subject areas and the competence (knowledge and skills) to be acquired are clearly specified. The precise content of the subject curricula is determined locally.

Since 1 September 2000 in Italy when schools were granted autonomy, the government has decided which subjects are compulsory, leaving the choice of certain optional subjects to schools. The latter now determine general teaching aims, the specific learning objectives associated with pupil competencies, and the amount of taught time for each subject and school year. In the case of compulsory subjects in 2004, study plans for more personally-oriented programmes defined learning objectives in terms of knowledge to be acquired and skills to be developed. School teachers' councils⁽³⁾ draw up study programmes on this basis. Teachers

(3) These councils are responsible for taking decisions on teaching activities.

thus have some room for manoeuvre in translating these aims into their own programmes, selecting the content to be covered, deciding the order in which its various elements should be taught and linking particular aims to a given year if they relate to a two-year stage of schooling. Teachers have even greater freedom to take decisions regarding the timetable allocated for optional or discretionary subjects. Meanwhile, school heads are responsible for ensuring that decisions taken by the teachers' council comply both with formal legal requirements and educational quality criteria. Schools may also use up to 20 % of the compulsory timetable to reduce the time allocated to some subjects and introduce others not provided for in the national recommendations. At the beginning of the 2007/08 school year, the minister of education circulated fresh curriculum recommendations which will be tested in schools for two years prior to drafting in their final form. The final recommendations will take account of the experimentation without basically altering the autonomy of teachers in this area.

Figure 2.1b: School decision-makers involved in determining the content of the compulsory minimum curriculum, 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; (b) refers to schools in the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Lithuania: Teachers have a decisive say on this matter within the management council.

Luxembourg: There is no autonomy at ISCED level 1.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the ‘educational vision’ of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

Sweden: Teachers are responsible for what pupils learn whereas school heads are more concerned with their actual results.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head, working within the governing body’s curriculum policy, has overall responsibility within the school, but delegates many curriculum decisions to heads of department/curriculum leaders and classroom teachers.

Explanatory note

The ‘content of the curriculum’ refers to the main areas of learning and the aims to be achieved, and not to the content of school subjects themselves or the adaptations made by schools to their own syllabuses.

In the remaining one-third of countries, the autonomy of teachers is governed by the level of autonomy granted to schools and, within them, to school decision-makers.

In Ireland (ISCED 2) and Lithuania, teachers – through their involvement in the school management body – and the school head take their decisions on these matters with reference to a limited list of options drawn up in advance by the higher authority.

The Czech Republic is undergoing a transitional phase in which schools and school heads are becoming increasingly autonomous in determining curricular content. The great majority of schools still follow the 'Standard for Basic education (1995)' which specifies the content and aims of teaching. The 2004 Education Act which came into force in January 2005 has introduced the *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání* (or Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education). The Programme sets out goals and the knowledge and skills that pupils should acquire, as well as fields of study, the general content of education and the required attainment levels expected at each stage, etc. On the basis of the Framework Programme, schools determine their own programmes including the content and outcomes that should be linked to the various subjects and years of study, etc. Teaching based on these school educational programmes has now begun on a mandatory basis in 2007/08 in the first years of primary and lower secondary education. While the school head is always regarded as officially responsible, teachers take part in the decision-making process. In Denmark and the Netherlands, teachers alone prepare the content of the compulsory minimum curriculum (although in Denmark this occurs subject to the approval of the municipal council and with reference to major guidelines drawn up at central level).

Teachers and the school head are involved in determining the curriculum in Estonia, Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland). In Estonia, both devise it jointly in accordance with the national curriculum. They work out to the required extent the detail of its content and aims, which in the national document are described in only general terms. In addition, each school is responsible for one-quarter of its own curriculum and decides, for example, whether to offer certain subjects on an optional basis or to teach its compulsory subjects in greater depth.

In the Netherlands, curricula as commonly understood do not exist. However since 1993, the aims and targets to be reached have been set by order or in regulations applicable to both primary education (for which they were revised in 1998 and 2006) and secondary schools. Rather than describing educational content, these goals help schools set minimum pupil attainment levels. In primary education, they do describe content in a general way but without specifying in any great detail the outcomes required. Instead, teachers are obliged to do all they can to ensure that pupils achieve the goals concerned. In all cases, teachers are accountable for their performance and, where necessary, have to explain why pupils have underachieved. Much the same applies to lower secondary education for which the corresponding goals were established in 1993 and revised in 2006 (when 58 new aims were identified). The government establishes a general reference framework and schools exercise freedom of choice within it. As in primary education, therefore, the basic aims of education are fixed at national level, while schools and their staff (or their governing bodies) work out the detail. Teachers exert real influence not as individuals but collectively as members of the advisory bodies within each school.

The Swedish education system is also more goal-oriented, leaving those concerned with these matters to exercise considerable responsibility. Teachers use both the curriculum (which sets out the principles and general aims of education) and the syllabuses (which govern the general content) as a basis for organising their teaching activity. Following discussion with their pupils, they then take decisions on teaching content and methods with due regard for their own goals (in particular the quality of what is learnt) and those to which pupils should aspire (a minimum level of attainment for all).

In the United Kingdom (Scotland), teachers are not bound by a national curriculum. Instead, the government publishes a detailed guide setting out the essentials of a good curriculum. This guide covers primary education (ISCED 1) and the first two years of secondary education. During the last two years of secondary education pupils select their subjects, the content of which is largely determined by the final examination requirements of the Scottish Qualification Authority (SQA). At primary level, schools – and to some extent

teachers – are free to interpret ‘national advice’. Teachers working in the first two years of secondary education have greater room for manoeuvre in this respect. In the last two years of secondary education, final school examinations greatly influence the content of teaching and thus the general conduct of teachers, who apparently adapt or restrict their programmes to pupil assessment requirements. Circulars 3/2001 and 7/2005 have encouraged schools to adopt a more flexible approach to their curricula. Some of them have thus taken the opportunity to introduce new subjects or fresh approaches to teaching.

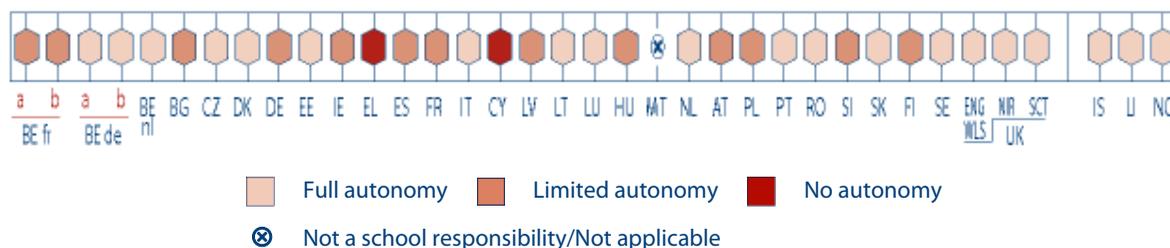
In Luxembourg (ISCED 2) and Hungary, teachers and school heads have to submit their decisions for approval by the higher authorities for education which may request amendments. In Hungary, the curriculum is part of the school Pedagogical Programme (PP) accepted by the teaching staff. Within the limits set by the National Core Curriculum (NCC) and the Framework Curriculum (FC), the teaching programme may be determined in different ways as follows: the adoption of an accredited Framework Curriculum (FC); the adoption of an accredited programme already developed by another school; or the development by schools of their own programmes. While the approval of the education provider (i.e. the local authority in public-sector schools) is required in all such cases, it may only be withheld if the minimum curriculum infringes the law, or for budgetary reasons (elements further to the compulsory curriculum cannot be funded) or reasons having to do with quality.

In Luxembourg, primary school teachers have little opportunity to influence the curriculum. In secondary education, teachers sit on programme committees responsible for the content of programmes and of compulsory school textbooks. Since 2004, secondary schools have acquired greater autonomy: the school education council (consisting of the management staff, four teachers, two parents and two pupils) may use 10% of all lesson time in the official school timetable to include new lessons, or concentrate more on particular subjects, etc. Schools may also implement innovative forms of educational provision at variance with the official curriculum after obtaining the permission of the Ministry of Education. At present, the Ministry is in the process of drawing up competence thresholds in the main areas of provision. The aim here is to devise programmes for acquiring essential skills without having to specify the educational path followed in the process (in contrast to the current situation in which programmes remain intensively content-oriented with teachers themselves setting the goals for each lesson). In the last two years, this novel approach has already been applied to mathematics, in which each school has devised a programme for the skills to be acquired in the first year of secondary education. These programmes have to be approved by the Ministry of Education following consultation with the National Board for Mathematics Programmes and then published on the school website.

While the national core curriculum in Finland lays down the aims and basic content for various subjects, education providers prepare and develop the local curriculum. This may be worded so as to enable the inclusion of a special local component at municipal or regional level, or devised by the school itself. In all cases, school heads and teachers draft the curriculum which must then be approved by the provider.

In contrast to procedures governing the compulsory curriculum, schools have greater freedom when it comes to determining the **curricula of optional subjects** (Figure 2.2a). However, in no countries (except Denmark and Romania) do teachers select further optional subjects entirely on their own when schools are granted autonomy (Figure 2.2b). Decisions of this kind are always taken jointly with school heads either on a fully independent basis as in Estonia, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Norway, or subject to certain limitations as in Bulgaria, Germany, Latvia, Hungary, Slovenia and Finland. In Greece, teachers also have some scope in the use of extracurricular activities to adapt their provision to pupil needs and develop interaction within the classroom.

Figure 2.2a: School autonomy regarding the curricular content of optional subjects, 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; (b) refers to schools in 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 fr): At ISCED level 1, heads of schools administered by the French Community, or the education provider in the case of grant-aided education, may raise the weekly timetable to 29, 30 or 31 periods; no further optional subjects may be selected. At ISCED level 2, the timetable includes four compulsory weekly periods of additional activities that the school has to choose from a list drawn up by the Community authorities.

Belgium (BE de): At ISCED level 1, subjects are specified in the decree of 26 April 1999 concerning mainstream pre-primary and primary education; no further optional subjects may be selected.

Czech Republic, Ireland and Luxembourg: There are no optional subjects at ISCED level 1.

Cyprus: At ISCED levels 1 and 2, there are no optional subjects.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

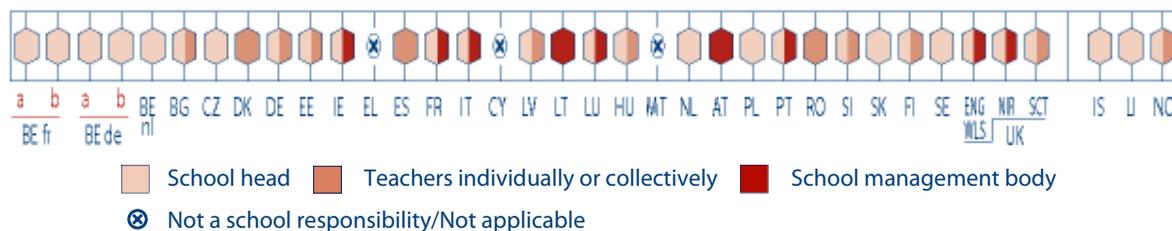
Liechtenstein: There is no autonomy at ISCED level 1.

In Latvia, the programme has to be authorised by the ministry and, with its optional subjects included, should not exceed the maximum study load of pupils. In Hungary, schools may offer additional subjects. These subjects (or course elements not included in compulsory education) have to be incorporated in the teaching programme (and should not exceed a certain threshold expressed as a percentage of compulsory provision). Education providers may nevertheless refuse to include these further elements if the resources required to accommodate them – and in particular financial resources – are inadequate, or if they consider other specific tasks to be more important.

In Slovenia, the law on basic schools specifies the list of optional subjects that schools have to choose. The subjects selected have to be noted in the annual school plan drafted by the school head in close cooperation with the teachers' assembly and adopted by the school management body.

In all other countries, optional subjects may be selected by the school head acting alone or with the approval of the school management body, in either case with at least some degree of autonomy vis-à-vis the higher authorities.

Figure 2.2b: School decision-makers involved in determining the curricular content of optional subjects, 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; (b) refers to schools in 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 fr): At ISCED level 1, heads of schools administered by the French Community, or the education provider in the case of grant-aided education, may raise the weekly timetable to 29, 30 or 31 periods; no further optional subjects may be selected. At ISCED level 2, the timetable includes four compulsory weekly periods of additional activities that the school has to choose from a list drawn up by the Community authorities.

Belgium (BE de): At ISCED level 1, subjects are specified in the decree of 26 April 1999 concerning mainstream pre-primary and primary education; no further optional subjects may be selected.

Czech Republic: At ISCED level 2, teachers take part in the decision-making process even though the school head is regarded as officially responsible.

Czech Republic, Ireland and Luxembourg: There are no optional subjects at ISCED level 1.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head teacher is responsible for planning the school's overall curriculum offer in line with the broad policy agreed by the school governing body. The head teacher delegates the more detailed planning of the curriculum to other senior staff and curriculum leaders/heads of department within the school.

Liechtenstein: There is no autonomy at ISCED level 1.

In France, the national curriculum provides little opportunity for initiatives on the part of teachers. However, in primary schools (ISCED 1), language, cultural and sports activities are dependent on local funding and vary from one commune to the next.

In primary and lower secondary education in Italy, up to 99 and 132 hours a year respectively may at present be allocated to optional or discretionary activities provided free of charge. The precise activities concerned are chosen by schools with due regard for the preferences of the parents and pupils concerned, as well as the availability of adequate teaching staff resources. The decision is taken by the teachers' council and by the head as the person responsible for administering the school. In addition, schools are free to broaden their provision in other ways, for instance with the agreement of local entities. In such cases, the school council is also party to the decision, determining what criteria should be used to plan and implement these further activities under the Plan for Educational Provision.

In Bulgaria, teachers are responsible for determining the optional curriculum of their school. The school head submits the proposal for approval to the regional authority after due consultation with the Regional

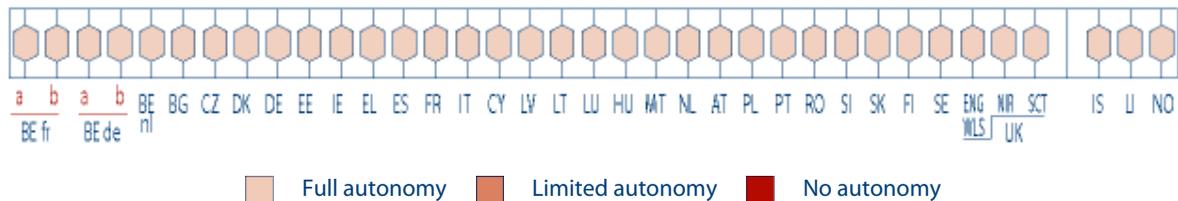
Inspectorates for Education. The school is free to broaden the compulsory content of the curriculum, including approved optional subjects.

In Romania, the decision is taken by the school (via its management body), following consultation with a specialist from the county school inspectorate who checks that optional subjects are consistent with legislative requirements. However, it is the teachers responsible for optional subjects who determine the content of the curriculum with the approval of the teachers' council. In the United Kingdom, schools must offer a balanced and broadly based curriculum that meets the needs of all their pupils. Although the school curriculum in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) must include the statutory minimum curriculum, this is not intended to be the whole school curriculum, and schools have considerable freedom to determine the character and distinctive nature of their curriculum, and to take account of their particular needs and circumstances. School inspections include an evaluation of how the curriculum meets external requirements, matches learners' needs, aspirations and potential, and is responsive to local circumstances.

2.2. Teaching Methods

This section considers teacher autonomy in relation to just three aspects of the all-important ways and means governing what teachers do in the classroom. It discusses how far are they free, first, to adopt their own teaching methods, secondly, to decide which school textbooks pupils should use and, thirdly, to organise them into groups for learning activities. As regards teaching methods, first of all, teachers are free to choose those methods they wish.

Figure 2.3a: School autonomy regarding the choice of teaching methods, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

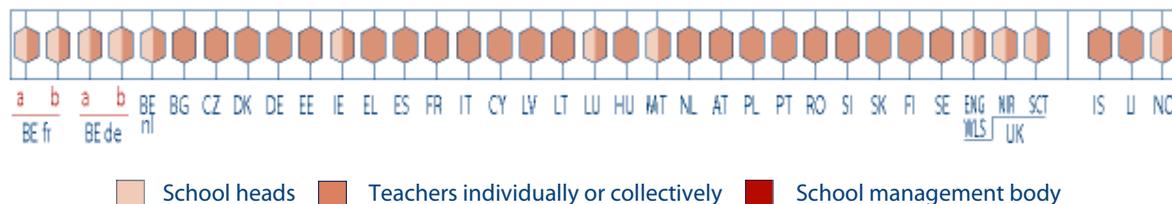
Additional notes

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

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

All countries leave schools free to decide what teaching methods to use even if monitoring mechanisms are often established, for example via inspections.

Figure 2.3b: School decision-makers involved in determining teaching methods, 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; (b) refers to schools in 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: Teachers are granted very considerable autonomy in this area but school heads are regarded as officially responsible.

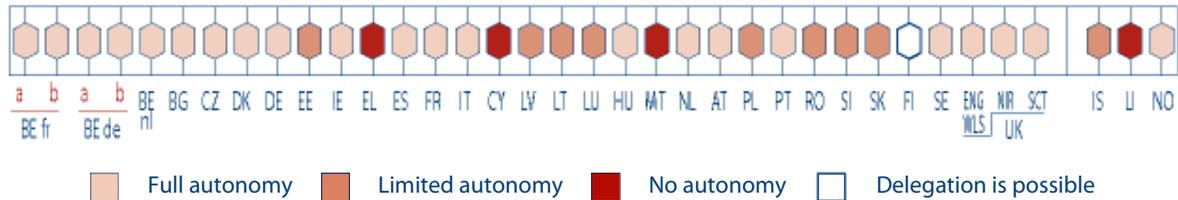
Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the ‘educational vision’ of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head, working within the governing body’s curriculum policy, has overall responsibility within the school, but delegates many curriculum decisions to heads of department/curriculum leaders and classroom teachers.

Teachers individually or collectively decide which teaching methods should be used. They do so either on their own or jointly with the school head, without having to consult the education provider (i.e. the school’s external administrative authority or body). For example, in accordance with the principle of curricular autonomy in Spain, the teachers’ assembly decides on the teaching strategies and principles to be adopted within each school. Following the same principle, teachers adopt their own precise methods, which are reflected in how they organise their work and which have to be responsive to the individual needs of their pupils. Since 1988 in France, the school plan provides the means for concerted collective action, as it enables the planning of various special educational activities such as school excursions, cultural initiatives or, more simply, help for pupils experiencing difficulty with classroom work. In Italy, the freedom of teachers to choose their own methods is an integral aspect of the freedom of educational provision and is guaranteed by the Constitution. However, the methods used should be demonstrably effective in ensuring that pupils achieve the learning objectives of the curriculum. The situation is similar in the United Kingdom, where there are no regulations on teaching methods, but school inspections evaluate the effectiveness of teaching and learning. In France, the professional staff comprising the inspectorate are responsible for monitoring and evaluating the work of teachers. After observing their lessons in the classroom and assessing their performance, inspectors may offer teachers advice or oblige them to undertake in-service training.

In the great majority of countries, schools also choose their own textbooks, except in Greece, Cyprus, Malta and Liechtenstein. In Malta, primary schools may choose textbooks for teaching English and Maltese from a predetermined list. In secondary schools, the same applies to books for both English and science subjects. In Liechtenstein (ISCED 2), textbooks may be freely chosen for some subjects but not others.

Figure 2.4a: School autonomy regarding the choice of school textbooks, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr): School textbooks, software and teaching materials are subject to an approval procedure. The *Commission de pilotage* (supervisory commission) decides whether these items comply with official requirements, with due regard for the opinion of the inspectorate and clearly stating the reasons for its decision. Schools receive financial support for the purchase of school textbooks and software approved by the *Commission de pilotage*.

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

Greece: Teachers of foreign languages may choose their textbooks from a predetermined list.

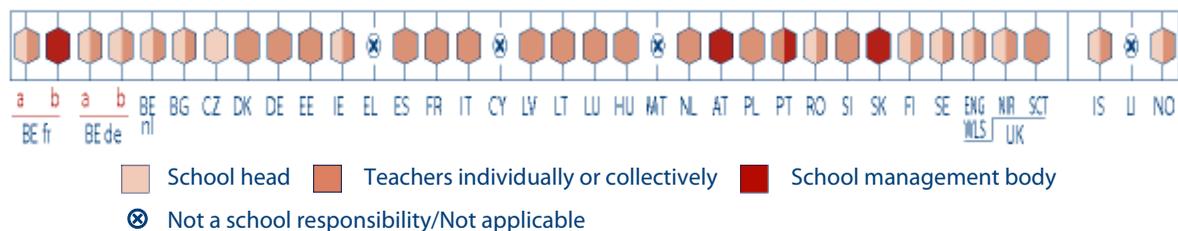
Luxembourg: There is no autonomy at ISCED level 1.

Malta: In English and Italian literature, Maltese literature (at ISCED level 1) and science, schools may select texts from a predetermined reading list.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

Teachers are either entirely free to choose their preferred textbooks, or may do so from a predetermined list. Countries to which the first alternative applies are Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, Italy, Hungary, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland), although in the Netherlands this only applies strictly speaking to ISCED level 2, since at ISCED 1 the choice is made jointly with the school head. The countries in which teachers may select their books from a list are Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland and Slovenia. In France, the regional and local authorities are responsible for subsidising school textbooks and thus for renewing them. School heads are consulted regarding the choice of books and in most cases refer this matter to their teaching staff. In Italy, the choice of school books reflects the principle of school curricular autonomy and is the outcome of a process in which each teacher makes proposals on which either the interclass council (primary education) or the class council (lower secondary education) expresses an opinion, with the decision taken by the teachers' council. Furthermore, the regulations on school autonomy lay down that the choice of school textbooks should be consistent with the National Plan for Education and, therefore, the objectives set at national level. While in Slovenia the Council for General Education approves the main textbooks, teachers may select others to supplement them. Research reveals that, in spite of opportunities to do so, in practice teachers tend not to deviate from the content of the textbooks they have selected, which often describe in detail the compulsory minimum curriculum drawn up at central level. In Hungary, a teacher has to consult all other teachers of the same subject prior to selecting any books. These titles may or may not be included in the list drawn up by the ministry although, in the latter case, the choice is subject to the opinion of the education provider. Furthermore, each book chosen must be available for use by all pupils.

Figure 2.4b: School decision-makers involved in the choice of school textbooks, 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; (b) refers to schools in 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: The Ministry of Education publishes a list of textbooks and texts approved after they have been evaluated with due regard for the aims set out in the Education Act, educational programmes and legal regulations. School heads may decide to use other books or texts if they are consistent with those aims.

Greece: Teachers of foreign languages may choose their textbooks from a predetermined list.

Luxembourg: There is no autonomy at ISCED level 1.

Hungary: A reform of the Act on Public Education, which was debated in the spring of 2007, states that only textbooks that have been accredited and recorded in the school textbook register may be bought and sold after 1 January 2008. The reform seeks to ensure that books are of sound quality and to promote transparency in public funding of the market for them. Another aspect of the reform transfers certain responsibilities concerning books (their revision, updating of the foregoing register, and advertising) to the Education Office.

Malta: In English and Italian literature, Maltese literature (at ISCED level 1) and science, schools may select texts from a predetermined reading list.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

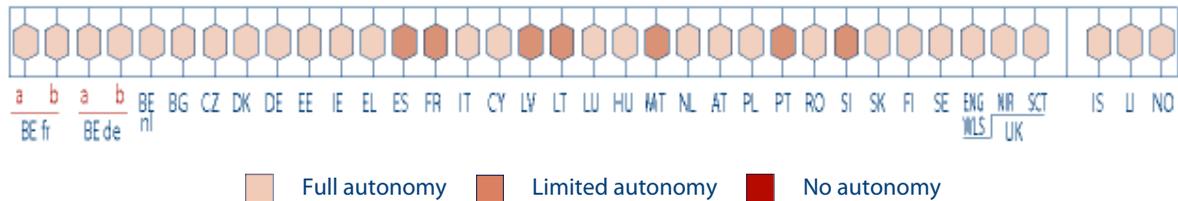
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): There are no specific constraints on the choice of teaching materials, but school inspections evaluate the adequacy and suitability of learning resources, how well they promote learning, address the full range of pupils' needs and meet course requirements.

In Belgium (German-speaking Community and Flemish Community), Bulgaria, Ireland, the Netherlands (ISCED 1), Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway, teachers and the school head together choose school textbooks freely, whereas they do so from a predetermined list in Romania and Iceland. In Sweden, school heads are involved solely in their capacity as those financially responsible for textbooks.

Teachers are not directly responsible for the choice of textbooks in the Czech Republic (in which the school head alone decides), Austria or Slovakia (in which they may contribute to the decision through their participation in the school management council). While in Finland schools and, in practice, often teachers may choose their own books, the situation varies from one school to the next depending on whether the education provider has delegated its decision-making responsibilities in this area.

Schools are generally granted greater autonomy in determining the basis on which pupils should be organised into groups for teaching and learning. Indeed, all countries grant some freedom to schools in this respect.

Figure 2.5a: School autonomy regarding the basis on which pupils may be organised into groups for compulsory learning activity, 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; (b) refers to schools in the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Estonia: The age of pupils is the main criterion determining whether they may be placed in separate groups. It is recommended that boys and girls should be separated for lessons in physical education from the fifth year of school. Where schools have sufficient financial resources, groups may be formed within classes for other lessons (such as those in languages) but without separating boys and girls.

Hungary: With effect from 2008, the limits set on the number of pupils in a class or group are being amended. A minimum number of pupils per class will be set, as will a maximum number which may be exceeded only if schools have two classes at the same level.

Malta: School heads have to consult the Ministry of Education to see whether it is possible to offer the chosen optional subject in accordance with the number of students in each group setting.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

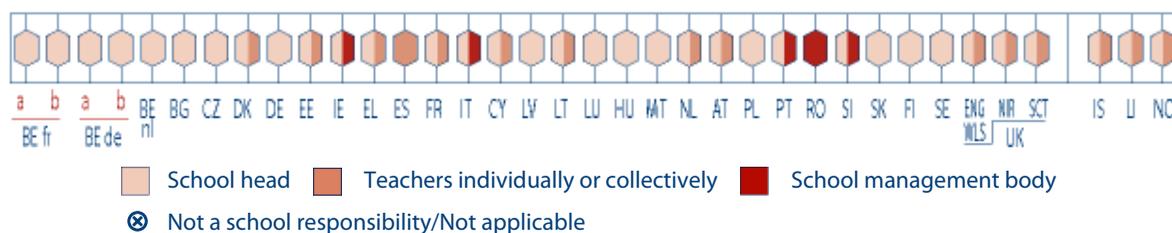
Austria: In the *Hauptschulen* there is 'streaming' of three student groups in three subjects.

Romania: The minimum and maximum number of pupils in each class are set at national level.

Slovakia: The minimum and maximum number of pupils in each class are specified in law.

In many countries, teachers and head teachers decide jointly how pupils will be organised into groups, as is the case in Denmark, Estonia, Greece (ISCED 2), France, Cyprus, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Austria (*Hauptschulen*), the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland, Liechtenstein (temporarily formed groups) and Norway. In France, school heads may decide whether to form classes in which pupils are either at the same level or different levels. In Spain, it is the teachers who do so. While in the remaining countries teachers are not directly involved, as this task is undertaken by the school head and/or the school management body, they may be asked for their opinion at a particular stage in the decision-making process.

Figure 2.5b: School decision-makers involved in determining the basis on which pupils may be organised into groups for compulsory learning activity, 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; (b) refers to schools in the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the ‘educational vision’ of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head teacher is responsible for the direction of teaching and learning within the strategic framework set by the school governing body. Depending on the size of the school, decisions such as organisation of teaching groups may be delegated to other senior staff and curriculum leaders/heads of department.

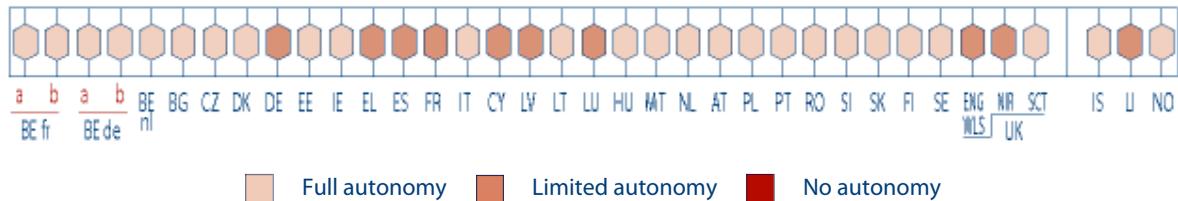
In Italy, school heads form classes on the basis of general criteria established by the school council and proposals put forward by the teachers’ council. In line with the principle of freedom in teaching, schools may carry out activities with groups of pupils in the same class or from different classes. In Hungary, the school head also takes decisions on possible group arrangements after consulting with the teachers. In Slovenia, criteria governing how pupils may be grouped together are specified in legislation and regulations. However, in the last three years of compulsory education, pupils in some lessons may be placed in groups in accordance with their ability, giving teachers greater discretion in this matter. In fact, the school head consults with the teachers and then, in compliance with the appropriate regulations, proposes various ways in which pupils might be placed in different groups depending on the subject concerned. After that, the final decision lies with the school management body (the school council) following consultation with the teachers’ and parents’ councils.

2.3. Pupil assessment

Teachers possess extensive decision-making autonomy in another important area of their activity, namely the assessment of pupils. The three aspects of assessment discussed here are the choice of criteria for internal assessment (Figures 2.6a and 2.6b), the responsibility for deciding whether pupils should repeat a year (Figures 2.7a and 2.7b), and the part played by teachers in devising the content of examinations for certified qualifications (Figures 2.8a and 2.8b).

In the great majority of countries, schools are responsible for choosing the criteria **on which their pupils will be internally assessed**, even though their autonomy is limited in Germany, Spain, France, Latvia, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Liechtenstein.

Figure 2.6a: School autonomy regarding the criteria for the internal assessment of pupils, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr): In the 2006/07 and 2007/08 school years, two different course options have led to the award of the *Certificat d'études de base* (for pupils enrolled in the sixth year of primary education): they are the *filière externe* (the 'external' option) involving a common external examination applicable to all schools and the *filière interne* (the 'internal' option) offered within each individual school. The *filière externe* becomes mandatory with effect from the 2008/09 school year.

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

Denmark: In order to strengthen pupil assessment in the *Folkeskole*, a provision is being introduced in the 2008/09 school year requiring a written plan for all pupils at all form levels. These plans are to contain information about the results of ongoing assessment in all subjects and the course of action undertaken on the basis of those results. The plans are to be prepared at least once each school year and submitted to parents. A single template for them has not yet been introduced.

Luxembourg: A fixed number of internal examinations has to be held annually, with marking based on a 0-60-point scale.

Hungary: With effect from 2008, ISCED level 2 schools with lower pupil attainment (on the national scale for competence assessment) than the minimum required for each government category of school (classified by type, the kind of area in which the school is located and the socio-economic background of pupils) have to draw up proposals for improvement. If the results remain lower than the required minimum for a second successive year, the substandard levels of study are officially supervised by the Education Office.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

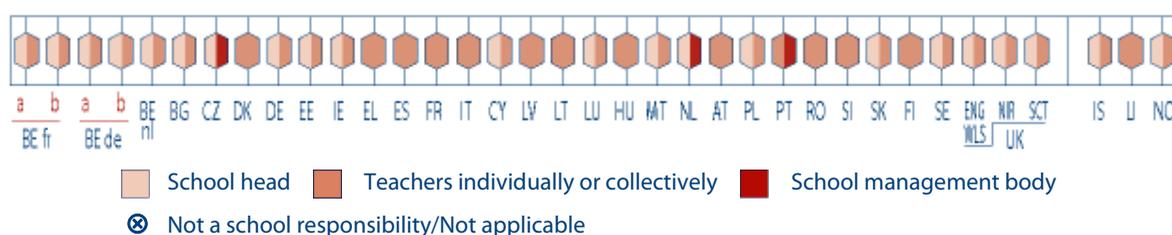
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): There are specific requirements for reporting teacher assessment at the end of each key stage. Schools are free to supplement this framework as they see fit. In Northern Ireland, new teacher assessment arrangements are being introduced with an emphasis on qualitative comments.

Liechtenstein: The marking system (with marks of 1 to 6) is specified in national legislation. Only the weighting of oral assessment may vary from one school to the next.

In the great majority of European countries, teachers determine the basis on which pupils should be assessed, acting either independently or jointly with their school head. The latter procedure is the norm in Belgium, Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Ireland (ISCED 2), Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland and Norway. Thus in Poland, the teachers' council chaired by the school head is responsible. In Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities), pupil assessment for a particular set of lessons is conducted by the teacher concerned, while the overall assessment of pupils and decisions as to whether they should progress to the next class or be awarded a certified qualification are taken by the

class council of which the school head (or his or her representative) is a member. In Denmark, Italy, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria, Romania, Slovenia and Finland, teachers are fully autonomous in the area of internal assessment. However, when awarding final marks at the end of the year in Lithuania, they have to comply with the marking scale of 10 laid down by the Ministry of Education and Science, while in Finland they are guided by the national curriculum. Teachers are also autonomous with regard to assessment in Greece, Spain, France, Latvia, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein, though subject to the approval of the higher authority in France, and on the basis of a predetermined list of criteria in Greece, Spain, Latvia, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein. Logically, this freedom is often exercised in a specific educational framework which entails compliance with certain general conditions. In Estonia, for example, pupil assessment is regulated by the Ministry of Education and Research. According to the law on basic and upper secondary education, the knowledge, abilities and experience of pupils are assessed on a five-point scale. Schools may adopt a different system of assessment but the annual mark must relate to that scale. The assessment of conduct and application on the part of pupils is based on the general competencies included in the general curriculum of the school and on its internal regulations. In Malta, guidelines are provided by the management of the head office.

Figure 2.6b: School decision-makers involved in determining the criteria for the internal assessment of pupils, 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; (b) refers to schools in 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: The school council approves the regulations for assessment, which are part of the school's internal regulations. The framework for the assessment of pupils (including a five-point scale) is set out in the Education Act and the decree for basic education.

Luxembourg: At ISCED level 2, the school head is responsible for the supervision of teaching, intervening when problems arise, often at the request of teachers.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

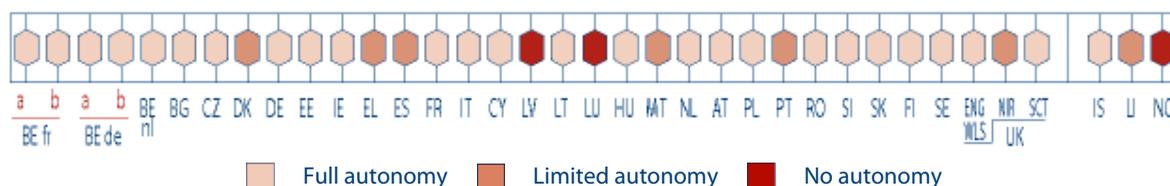
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head teacher is responsible for the direction of teaching and learning, including the assessment of pupils, within the strategic framework set by the school governing body. Depending on the size of the school, the head teacher delegates the more detailed planning to other senior staff and curriculum leaders/heads of department within the school.

In Slovenia, all teachers choose their assessment criteria with due regard for the minimum requirements of the syllabus. However, they must follow the regulations published by the Ministry of Education and Sport, which indicate the principles, methods and marking scale, as well as highlighting the need for transparency

in the criteria and methods used. Certain safeguards may also exist, as in Hungary in which the assessment criteria are set by the School Quality Management Programme (SQMP) but the forms of assessment may BE freely chosen. At ISCED level 2, schools have to use the results of the national full-scale student competence assessment. The SQMP is accepted by the teaching staff, while the school management council and the parents' associations give their opinion. The school education provider (its external administrative authority or body) has to approve the SQMP which it may refuse if it runs counter to the law, or is not consistent with the local authority quality programme (LEAQMP), or does not satisfy programme requirements. In Finland, the national core curriculum sets the criteria specific to each level and those that characterise good performance.

At different stages of the process, teachers may work in teams. For example in Italy, the teachers' council draws up the general criteria with which teachers have to comply when assessing pupils under the Plan for Educational Provision drawn up by the school. The continuous assessment of pupils is the responsibility of each teacher. Both periodic assessment once every three or four months and final assessment are carried out by the group of teachers who work in each class. The same applies to Romania in which the criteria for the internal assessment of pupils are established by a committee consisting of the specialist teaching staff for part of the programme or a particular subject.

Figure 2.7a: School autonomy regarding decisions as to whether pupils should repeat a year, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: In secondary education, there is a procedure under which appeals may be lodged against the decisions of the class councils at the end of the school year. In the French Community, there is also an appeals council for challenging decisions to withhold the award of the *certificat d'études de base* (certificate of 'basic' education) at the end of primary school.

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

Cyprus: At ISCED level 1, there is no autonomy, since pupils progress automatically from one class to the next in all but exceptional circumstances requiring the agreement of both the school head and the school inspector.

Latvia: According to regulations enacted by the Cabinet of Ministers, pupils whose assessment results in more than two school subjects are unsatisfactory have to begin the year again.

Luxembourg: At ISCED level 1, schools are autonomous in this area.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

Slovenia: Pupils cannot generally redo the first or second years in a three-year stage of schooling. At the request of parents, teachers or social workers, pupils may retake a year in the event of poor results, illness or for any other valid reason.

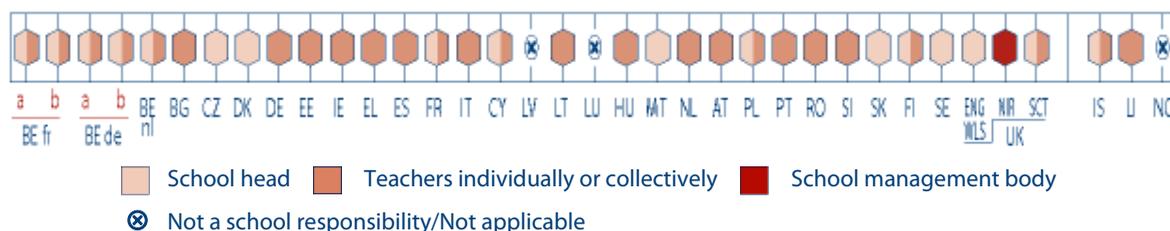
United Kingdom (NIR): The age at which pupils normally transfer from primary to secondary education is fixed by legislation, but in exceptional circumstances a pupil can be transferred a year later than normal, at the school's discretion.

Liechtenstein: At ISCED level 1, pupils progress automatically from one year to the next.

In Latvia, Luxembourg (ISCED 2), Liechtenstein (ISCED 1) and Norway, schools are not responsible for deciding whether pupils should **retake a year**. In Norway, they normally progress automatically to the next class throughout their compulsory education, while in Liechtenstein they do so at ISCED level 1. In the United Kingdom, it is for schools to decide how to organise pupils into teaching groups. However, there is an expectation that low attainment of individual pupils should be addressed through differentiated teaching and the provision of additional support, rather than by repeating a year. Pupils therefore almost always progress automatically to the next year. Elsewhere, this kind of decision is at the entire discretion of schools and very often the teachers acting independently or jointly with the school head. In the Czech Republic, Denmark, Malta, Slovakia, Sweden and the United Kingdom, the decision lies with the school head.

As in the case of countries in which the opinion of the school head tends to predominate, school heads in Malta alone take the decision, even if they usually consult their deputy and teaching staff first.

Figure 2.7b: School decision-makers involved in determining whether pupils should repeat a year, 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; (b) refers to schools in the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Italy: The decision not to admit a pupil to the next year is taken by the group of teachers who have worked with the class.

Cyprus: At ISCED level 1, pupils progress automatically from one class to the next in all but exceptional circumstances requiring the agreement of both the school head and the school inspector. At ISCED level 2, pupils do not progress automatically from one class to the next.

Luxembourg: At ISCED level 1, teachers decide whether or not pupils should progress to the next class. Parents are entitled to appeal against the decision to the inspector.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the ‘educational vision’ of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

Romania: The decision is taken by the teachers’ council in accordance with regulations specific to education.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head, working within the governing body’s curriculum policy, has overall responsibility within the school, but delegates many curriculum decisions to heads of department/curriculum leaders and classroom teachers.

Liechtenstein: At ISCED level 1, pupils progress automatically from one year to the next.

In some countries, the freedom of schools to decide whether a pupil should redo a year may meet with parental opposition. Parents have to be consulted about this matter in Ireland (ISCED 1), France (ISCED 2), and Luxembourg (ISCED 1), or agree to the decision as in Denmark and Liechtenstein (ISCED 1). In Ireland (ISCED 1), children may be allowed to repeat a grade for educational reasons only in exceptional circumstances following consultation with the child’s parents. Besides the fact that, in France, schools at

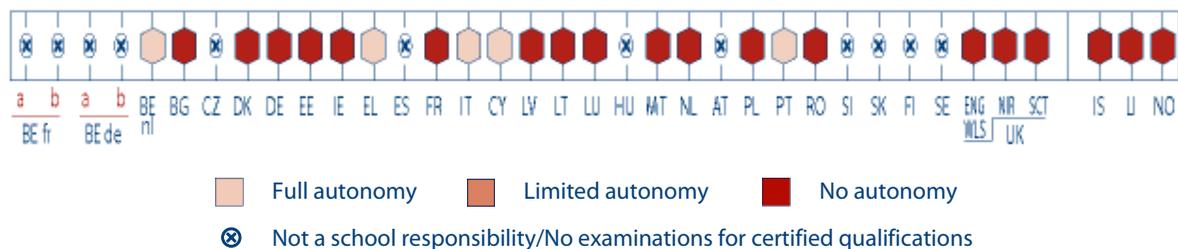
ISCED 2 have to refer this matter to parents, the *recteurs* and inspectors in each *académie* may adopt policies for pupil flow management involving decisions about which pupils should do their year again. Furthermore, at ISCED 1, the autonomy discussed here may be affected by different measures which in practice restrict the freedom of schools and that of their main players. For example, Belgium, Spain and Cyprus limit the number of times that pupils can repeat a year in primary education, while other countries such as Denmark, Greece, Italy, Malta, Poland and Portugal, authorise them to do so only under exceptional circumstances.

In the Czech Republic, a school head can oblige pupils to redo a year if they have not passed in all compulsory subjects in the curriculum (except educational care subjects) at the end of the second term or after sitting their examinations a second time. By contrast, pupils who have already repeated a year during a given stage of schooling can progress further irrespective of their results. In Estonia, the school teachers' council is responsible for authorising pupils to progress to the next level, or for requiring them to complete a period of further study or do their year again. Pupils may be asked to attend additional lessons after the end of the school year in subjects for which their marks during the year have been 'poor' (level 2) or 'weak' (level 1). They will have to repeat the year if their marks during it in at least three subjects are 'poor' or 'weak', if the additional lessons have not produced the required results, and if an individual learning programme or other form of assistance is not a realistic alternative. The teachers' council has to reach a considered and clearly explained decision after hearing the view of a legal representative of the pupil concerned. In primary education in Spain, the class teacher is ultimately responsible for deciding whether students should progress to the next class at the end of each stage of their education. The decision is taken with due regard for the following: the goals established by the legislation and by the school for that particular stage; special criteria governing the assessment and continuation of studies, which are drawn up by the school and included in its development plan; and reports submitted by all the specialist teachers. In lower secondary education, students must repeat a year if they are negatively assessed in more than two subjects in all (in one or more years). In this case, they must redo the last full year and catch up in the subjects they failed in earlier years. Pupils at primary school in Hungary only redo their year if they lack appropriate knowledge and skills as a result of absences during the first three years at school (levels 1-3), or if their parents request that they should (levels 1 to 4). In either case, the decision is taken by the school head. At ISCED level 2, the decision is taken by the teaching staff in the light of their own assessment and the results achieved by pupils at the end of the year. In France and in particular at ISCED level 2 (the *collège*), the class council consisting of the school head and the teachers decides which pupils should repeat their year and which of them should progress to the next class. Parents may appeal against this decision to a special committee that meets at the end of the school year.

In Slovenia, pupils may redo their year, subject to the approval of the teachers' council at the school. The council takes its decision with due regard for official written explanations provided by the class teacher.

The situation is very different as regards the involvement of schools and teachers in **devising the content of written examinations for certified qualifications**. Few European countries hold examinations of this kind at the end of primary education (ISCED 1). In countries which hold examinations at ISCED level 2, they are only rarely devised at school level. However, schools are involved and perform this task autonomously in three countries, namely Greece, Italy and Cyprus.

Figure 2.8a: School autonomy in preparing the content of examinations for certified qualifications, ISCED 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; (b) refers to schools in the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Estonia: At the end of compulsory education (ISCED levels 1 and 2), ninth-year students take an examination devised at central level. The papers are marked within the school by a committee which uses national marking tables for each subject. Pupils are awarded their qualification by the school.

Italy: The types of examination and the criteria for preparing the content of each examination are nationally determined. The precise content is then drawn up by the examination board. With effect from the 2007/08 school year, the national examination that terminates the first stage of education includes a written paper on Italian and mathematics, which is intended to check the learning attainment of pupils and bring it gradually into line with national standards. This paper is taken in addition to the examinations prepared by the teachers (written papers in Italian, 2 EU official languages, mathematics, and science and technology, as well as a multidisciplinary oral examination).

Cyprus: The types of examination and the criteria for preparing the content of each examination are nationally determined. The precise content is then drawn up by the examination board.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the 'educational vision' of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

Portugal: Schools have no say in preparing the content of national examinations for certified qualifications in Portuguese and mathematics. In the case of other subjects in the curriculum, they have greater autonomy.

Slovenia: At the end of basic education, all pupils have to take examinations and their results count towards the final certificate. However, the results no longer certify the successful completion of basic education. The content of these examinations is determined by external institutions.

Slovakia: A national test in the mother tongue and mathematics (MONITOR) has been introduced on an experimental basis at the end of lower secondary education. Its results may count at the point of entry to upper secondary education.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Examinations may include a coursework component, set by the teacher within a framework specified by the awarding body or set by the teacher and approved by the awarding body.

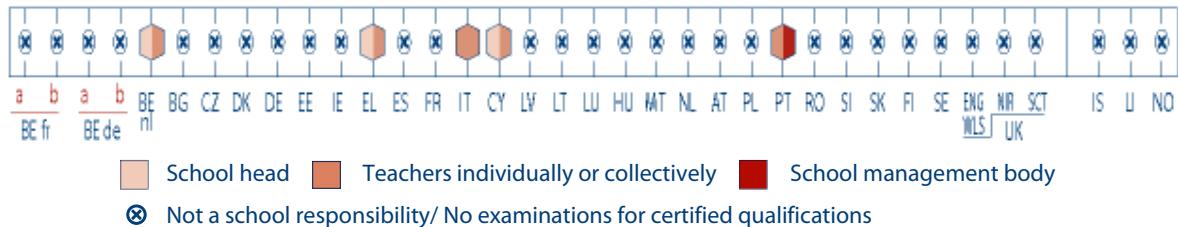
Iceland: At the end of compulsory education, pupils can choose to take the national coordinated examinations in Icelandic, mathematics, English and Danish (Norwegian and Swedish), natural sciences and social sciences. The national coordinated examinations are devised, organised and marked by the Educational Testing Institute. All pupils get a certificate stating their marks in both the national coordinated examinations and all other courses completed in their final year at school. Teachers working in compulsory education have nothing to do with the content of the six national coordinated examinations but they are responsible for the content of the written assessment carried out by the schools.

Liechtenstein: 'Transitional' examinations (known as *Übertritts- und Aufnahmeprüfungen*) are held at ISCED level 2.

In these countries, teachers are involved in preparing written examinations for certified qualifications. They do so either on their own, as in Italy, or with the school head, as in Greece and Cyprus. With effect from the 2007/08 school year in Italy, the national examination that terminates the first stage of education includes a

written paper with multiple-choice and constructed-response questions on Italian and mathematics, which is intended to check the learning attainment of pupils and bring it gradually into line with national standards. This paper is taken in addition to the examinations prepared by the teachers (written papers in Italian, 2 EU official languages, mathematics, and science and technology, as well as a multidisciplinary oral examination).

Figure 2.8b: School decision-makers who may be involved in preparing the content of examinations for certified qualifications, ISCED 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; (b) refers to schools in the public and private grant-aided sector. In the grant-aided sector, the responsible authority is deemed to be the school-based management body.

Netherlands: Every school, public or private, has its competent authority (*bevoegd gezag*) which may be responsible for one school (in the vernacular often referred to as *eenpitters*) or many schools (e.g. *Ons Middelbaar Onderwijs* in the province of Brabant). Formally, this authority is responsible for all school activities. In law, it will expect primary school heads to attend to everyday educational and organisational management. In secondary education, the law states that school heads are responsible for developing the ‘educational vision’ of the school so that its basic educational processes are consistent, for motivating and directing the staff, and for managing school finances. The way in which teachers are involved in decision-making is at the discretion of the school.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The head, working within the governing body’s curriculum policy, has overall responsibility within the school, but delegates many curriculum decisions to heads of department/curriculum leaders and classroom teachers.

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* *

At least as far as the aspects reviewed in this chapter are concerned, education systems appear to be based on a set of interrelated goals some of which may be achieved by fairly flexible means.

It would appear that neither schools nor teachers can shape decision-making or act freely to any great extent in those areas which affect the structure of education systems and which here relate essentially to the (content- or goal-oriented) compulsory minimum curriculum and (where applicable) to examinations for certified qualifications. These areas are significant in ensuring some form of educational equality for pupils.

By contrast, in areas concerned with the daily pursuit of educational activity, school autonomy and the autonomy of teachers, who are often supported by their school heads, are greater. While the scope for independent decision-making and action remain rather limited when schools supplement their curriculum with optional subjects or decide whether pupils should repeat a year, the room for manoeuvre becomes much broader when attention turns to teaching methods, the choice of school textbooks and the organisation of pupils into groups for learning purposes.

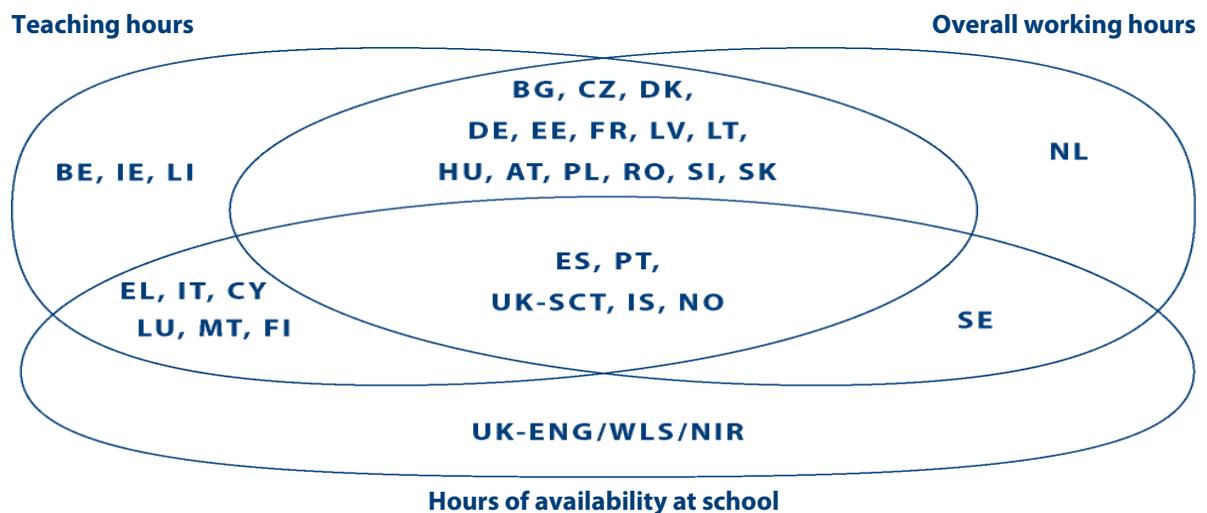
CHAPTER 3: WORKING TIME AND PROFESSIONAL DUTIES

3.1. Definitions of working time in employment contracts

In most countries, **working time** is defined as the time allocated to two main activities, namely teaching in lessons on the one hand and the preparation of lessons and marking on the other. In many countries, additional activities are also included.

Overall working time corresponds to the number of hours a week negotiated in accordance with collective bargaining agreements or established otherwise. This concept is used in over half the countries covered (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Official definitions of the working time of teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): In primary education, a maximum number of hours of required presence at school (including time spent giving lessons) is also specified.

Denmark: The time during which teachers have to be available at school is not shown because it is expressed solely in days (during the school year).

Estonia: The time that teachers have to be available at school has not been shown because it is fixed at the discretion of each school.

France: The status of teachers is governed by a law of 1950 which specifies their service obligations in terms of a number of hours of teaching a year. Various attempts to amend these obligations have been initiated since 1980. The 2007 Pochard report recommends that the amount of teaching time should be supplemented by an obligation to spend additional hours at school for purposes of consultation, participation in innovative teaching activities, classroom supervisory duties or the replacement of colleagues. The report also advocates expressing the working time of teachers in hours per year.

Italy: The overall number of working hours is not considered because this time is fixed solely in terms of a number of days (during the school year) and (non-quantifiable) activities that teachers have to carry out.

Luxembourg: Only teachers who are civil servants are shown. In the case of those on temporary contracts (*chargés d'éducation*), a number of hours of availability other than teaching hours is specified.

Hungary: Since amendments to the legislation in September 2006, the hours of availability at school have been determined by the employer but not as clear-cut working hours. These amendments specify the tasks which might be completed by the teacher at the school and those which might be completed outside it.

Explanatory note

All information refers to situations in which teachers are working on a full-time basis. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are beginning their career are not taken into account if they are subject to special timetable requirements.

Official definitions relate to working time as defined in teachers' contracts of employment, job descriptions or other official documents. These definitions are issued by the central authorities or regional authorities in countries in which the latter correspond to the top-level authority for education.

The **number of teaching hours** refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of pupils. In some countries, this is the only contractually specified working time. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

The **number of hours of availability at school** refers to the time available for performing duties at school or in another place specified by the school head. In some cases, this refers to a specified amount of time further to the specified number of teaching hours and, in others, to a global amount of hours of availability that include the time spent teaching. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

Overall working hours are the number of teaching hours, the number of hours of availability at school and an amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities which may be done outside the school. The number of hours may be either earmarked specifically for different activities or defined globally. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

A precise number of **hours of availability at school** for other activities, such as meetings or management duties, may also be specified as occurs in thirteen countries. Most of them also specify the teaching hours and/or overall working time. In either case, the situation is the same in primary and secondary education.

The working time of teachers is contractually defined in terms of the number of teaching hours only, in just three European countries (Belgium, Ireland and Liechtenstein), while it includes both teaching hours and hours of availability at school in Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta and Finland. A great many countries apply an overall number of working hours, which in principle covers all services performed by teachers, over and above the specified number of teaching hours.

Finally, in three countries, namely the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the number of teaching hours that may be required of teachers is not specified at central level. In the Netherlands, only the overall working time is specified in the legislation. In Sweden, an overall annual amount of working time in hours is specified, along with time during which teachers should be present at school. However, it is worth noting that, in some Swedish schools, earlier calculations for determining the number of teaching lessons are still used within the new framework of working time. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the regulations specify the amount of time for which teachers should be available to perform duties at school or in another place as may be determined by the headteacher. These duties include teaching, planning, preparation and assessment (PPA), other activities connected with pupil well-being and progress, staff meetings, continuing professional development (CPD), meetings with parents and management duties. Maximum teaching time is not specified as such but, in England and Wales, there are now regulations on the balance between teaching, on one hand, and PPA on the other.

3.2. Tasks required of teachers by legislation or other official documents

In addition to the tasks of teaching and preparation/marking, teachers may be contractually involved in various activities which have a greater or lesser effect on their workload. This section looks mainly at those tasks requiring real investment in extra time. Figure 3.2 shows a series of tasks that may be required of teachers in legislation or other official documents. It should be noted that, in practice, the situation may be very different. In some countries, tasks that teachers would be obliged to carry out if official rulings were followed to the letter, are in practice performed only on a voluntary basis. In others, teachers may often take on duties not specified in official documents. Different levels of responsibility within a school and different career routes for teachers may exist. They are however not considered in detail here.

Figure 3.2: Specific tasks required of teachers by legislation or other official documents and specified in employment contracts, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU
Supervision after school hours	○	○	○		●			○	○	●		●			○	●	●
Standing in for absent colleagues	○	●	○	○	●	●		○	○	●	●	○	○	●	○	○	○
Support to future teachers and new entrants	●	●	●			●		○	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO	
Supervision after school hours	●		○	○	●		○		●		○	●		●			
Standing in for absent colleagues		●	○	●	●	●	○	●	●		○	●	●	●	●	○	
Support to future teachers and new entrants	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	●		○	●	●	●	●	○	

● Required ○ Variable according to the institution

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Support for prospective teachers may result in a modest bonus which is centrally regulated in the French and German-speaking Communities. In the Flemish Community, payment of such bonuses is at the discretion of individual schools, which may award them from the subsidies they receive for mentoring purposes.

Belgium (BE de, BE nl): In addition to frameworks in each Community that specify the general working conditions for teachers, their tasks and specific duties are defined at school level and are set out essentially in three documents, namely the employment contract, the labour regulation and the job description. Financial incentives or additional remuneration for teachers are almost non-existent.

France: The situation at ISCED levels 1 and 2 is very different. At ISCED level 1, the school head is in charge and may require teachers to undertake classroom supervisory duties, replace colleagues or support younger colleagues. At ISCED level 2, these duties are often based on voluntary commitments and negotiations are under way to place them on a more regular formal footing.

Cyprus: The task of standing in for absent colleagues is required for up to seven hours only.

Latvia: The specific duties referred to above are included in contracts at the discretion of the school. These duties are specified in the Professional Standard for Teachers still awaiting approval. Under the reform to include teacher salaries in the unified system of public-sector salaries, a unified job description for teachers has been developed by the Ministry of Education and Science, which is due for approval before February 2010. It is also planned that the above-mentioned duties will be among the criteria for defining teacher qualifications in the model for teachers' professional career development as a part of the foregoing reform. The criteria have already been developed and were published in January 2008.

Luxembourg: The tasks of 'supervision outside school hours' and 'supporting prospective teachers and new entrants' have to be performed in primary schools. The tasks of 'replacing absent colleagues' and 'supporting prospective teachers and new entrants' are optional at lower secondary level. They may however be performed during the time in which teachers have to be available, in which case they are remunerated.

Austria: At *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen*, 'coaching teachers' for general subjects introduce trainee teachers to practical teaching and submit their assessment of trainees to the headmaster at the end of the school year. Coaching teachers are remunerated for their activities in accordance with the Emoluments Act (*Gehaltsgesetz*).

Slovenia: The supervision of pupils after school hours is not an additional duty of teachers. It is regarded as a distinctly separate job performed by so-called 'teachers for after-school instruction' who occupy separate positions. The law specifies that schools must organise after-school instruction and the supervision of pupils at primary stage (years 1-6). Mentors of future teachers and trainee teachers enjoy a reduction in teaching hours; they earn points for promotion, which consequently lead to a higher salary.

Finland: Teachers are remunerated for supervising and providing support to pupils in school after school hours, and for taking classes for absent colleagues on the basis of regular overtime payments outlined in the collective agreement.

As regards the specific tasks required of teachers, **standing in for absent colleagues** and **providing support to future teachers and new entrants** seem to be the commonest.

Standing in for absent colleagues is required in half of the countries. This activity is generally included among the regular duties of teachers. In the Czech Republic, substituting for an absent teacher is even regarded as a direct educational activity (since the school head may require up to 4 lessons involving substitution or further hours with the agreement of the teacher concerned).

The number of hours that should be devoted to this duty is sometimes firmly specified. For example, in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the *School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document* states that no teacher shall be required to provide cover for absent teachers for more than 38 hours in any school year. This limit was implemented in September 2004, following the 2003 national agreement on workload reform.

The duty is not performed in return for additional payment in any countries except the Czech Republic, Italy, Latvia, Poland, Finland, Iceland and Norway.

In **Italy**, teachers are paid to replace absent colleagues solely when the amount of time involved exceeds the time specified in the employment contract.

In **Poland**, the pay for ad-hoc replacement hours is calculated on the basis of the rate for the category in which the teacher concerned is classified, taking into account the allowance for working conditions (i.e. an allowance for working in difficult or highly demanding circumstances).

In **Finland**, teachers are remunerated for taking classes for absent colleagues in accordance with regular overtime payments outlined in the collective agreement.

The provision of support to future teachers and new entrants is widespread since it is required in over half the countries. In some of them, it is specified that the task should be carried out by experienced teachers. This applies to Cyprus in which teachers who have completed over five years of service are eligible to act as *mentors* to newly appointed teachers on probation. In Lithuania, it may be an advantage for teachers who are seeking promotion to support any student teachers or newly qualified teachers assigned to them.

In some other countries or regions, the situation may differ depending on the players targeted.

In **Belgium**, provision of support to future teachers is clearly specified in the official documents whereas support for new entrants may or may not be required depending on the institution.

Providing support does not lead to additional remuneration anywhere except in Austria, Slovenia and Finland. However, school governing bodies in the United Kingdom (England and Wales) may at their discretion make a payment to any teacher who undertakes initial teacher training (ITT) activities, such as school-based mentoring. This does not apply to teachers on the separate advanced skills teachers (AST) pay scale in England, for whom this is a professional duty.

Supervision after school hours appears to be the least widespread task among those listed in Figure 3.2. It is required from teachers in around a third of the countries. The situation may however vary from one country to the next since contractual references to the task may specify that it is compulsory or optional (as in the French Community of Belgium).

While this activity does not appear to carry any additional remuneration in most cases, three countries – Belgium (the Flemish Community), Finland and Iceland – indicated that it did so.

In ten countries (Belgium, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Romania, Sweden, Liechtenstein and Norway), the specific tasks required may vary considerably from one school and/or contract to another.

In the **Netherlands**, all items mentioned in the above table are subject to collective labour agreements between the competent authority and the teacher or are settled at the level of the individual school.

In Sweden and Norway, decentralisation has an impact on the working conditions of teachers.

In **Sweden**, school development work is for instance no longer centrally regulated and has been accomplished entirely at local level and in accordance with local conditions since 1991.

Norway is characterised by the coexistence of central and local employment contract frameworks. Since the autumn of 2007, schools have been able to establish their own employment contract, which may be identical to the centrally regulated agreement but also differ from it. The contracts may be drawn up for individual schools or be common to all schools in one municipality. Schools can identify specific tasks and all schools should have local agreements by 2010.

3.3. The place of teamwork

In a number of countries, teachers are expected to engage in teamwork, defined as working together with other teachers, when carrying out some of their tasks. Such tasks may include devising the school plan and the curriculum, implementing cross-curricular activities and contributing to the internal evaluation of the school or to pupil assessment. The same tasks may also involve other educational staff.

The information provided in Figure 3.3 illustrates that, in the majority of countries, teamwork is not only included in teachers' tasks but also that the range of its constituent activities is relatively uniform both within and between the countries.

Figure 3.3: Promotion of teamwork included in the tasks of teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU
Teamwork on school development	○	●	○	●		○	●	○	●	●	●	●	●		○	○	●
Teamwork on school-wide curriculum planning	○	●	○	●	●	●		○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	●
Teamwork on cross-curricular activities	○	●	○	●	●	●		○	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Teamwork on school self-evaluation		●	○		●	●		○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	●
Teamwork on pupil assessment	●	●	●			●	●	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●
	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO	
Teamwork on school development	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	○	●	○	●	○	●	○	●	
Teamwork on school-wide curriculum planning			○	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	○		○	●	
Teamwork on cross-curricular activities		●	○	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	●		○	●	
Teamwork on school self-evaluation		●	○	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	○		○	●	
Teamwork on pupil assessment			○	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●			○	●	

● Required ○ Variable depending on the institution

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Most schools usually set aside certain days in the week, month or term for working meetings of teachers. The organisation of such meetings is at the discretion of individual schools, except at ISCED level 1 in the French and German-speaking Communities, in which the working time of teachers is governed by a regulatory framework.

France: Teamwork is recommended but organised in a way that varies considerably from one school to the next.

Italy: Teamwork has been provided for in law since 1974.

Latvia: The legislation does not contain any specific requirements regarding teamwork but employment contracts may differ at each school.

Luxembourg: The information shown in the Figure relates solely to lower secondary education.

Slovakia: Teachers can take part in teamwork on school self-evaluation but they are mainly monitored by external authorities. There are still few organisational arrangements at school level that provide for autonomy.

Finland: In addition to the weekly teaching and other tasks assigned to teachers (through the collective agreement), all teachers are expected to take part together for 3 hours a week in the planning of teaching, negotiations within subject and topic groups, cooperation between the school and home, and tasks related to the planning of teaching and functioning of the school.

Iceland: There is no specific legislation for the promotion of teamwork. According to their wage contract, teachers are expected to spend 4.14 hours a week in activities or tasks involving teamwork on school development planning, school-wide curriculum planning, cross curriculum planning and school self-evaluation, etc. The head teacher decides which tasks are performed each week.

In most countries, teamwork is promoted through legislation or guidelines. As regards recent reforms at national level and/or further requirements placed on teachers, an emphasis has been placed on this kind of activity in official documents in countries such as the Czech Republic, Austria, Slovenia and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

In the **Czech Republic**, all official documents stress the importance of teamwork in the preparation of school educational programmes (school-wide curriculum planning, cross-curricular planning), following recent changes in curricular documents.

In **Italy**, the national employment contract states that, in addition to their teaching activities, teachers should spend up to 40 hours a year with each other in group meetings, up to 40 hours a year also in class council joint activities and, at primary level only, two hours a week in the joint planning of lessons.

In **Austria**, recent teamwork in the specific fields of school-wide curriculum planning and cross-curricular planning has assumed great importance since it is possible to develop autonomous school curricula.

Although in **Slovenia**, teamwork was in the past applicable to few components of the curriculum (e.g. the planning and organisation of culture, science and sports days), the current basic school programme pays considerably more attention to it. With the introduction of the nine-year basic school, there is likely to be more interdisciplinary provision requiring teamwork.

The **United Kingdom (Scotland)** is currently developing a new approach to the curriculum and learning and teaching through its *Curriculum for Excellence* initiative. One of its key principles puts an increasing emphasis in schools on exploring curricular links, working more with other subject areas and actively seeking main areas for collaborative activity.

While teachers tend to retain responsibility for the assessment of their own classes in most countries, teamwork activities on pupil assessment also appear to be a common and complementary practice (whether specified or not in official documents) in more than half of the countries covered. In Malta, such teamwork has to date only focused on the conduct of foreign language oral examinations.

In many countries, teachers are required or encouraged to participate in teamwork by legislation or official guidance. Typically, such measures do not include any detail on the number of hours teachers must allocate to teamwork or on the number of hours they must be available at school to enable teamwork to take place.

In **Belgium (German-speaking Community)**, a 1999 decree states that at ISCED 1, teachers must complete no more than 26 hours of activity a week within their school. Subtraction from that total of the time actually spent teaching (24 class periods of 50 minutes) leaves six hours a week of activity to be spent on various tasks such as teamwork.

In **Lithuania**, the employment contracts of teachers do not refer specifically to the number of hours to be devoted to teamwork. However, the legislation stipulates that all teachers are allocated 2 working hours for one task that may involve teamwork.

In **Poland**, all tasks related to teamwork are carried out within the 40 hours of working time allocated to teachers.

In **Slovenia**, some schools have internal rules and regulations specifying what teachers should do to make up their 40 hours of work a week, whereas others do not.

In addition to the items listed in Figure 3.3, teamwork is also used in further areas or specific projects, as several countries have emphasised. This applies for example to Malta in which several schools have taken part in a 'synergy project' (focused on art, drama, music and physical education). In Slovenia, the integration of pupils with special educational needs constitutes a further area in which teamwork is considered to be especially important. In Austria, teamwork on school self-evaluation is embedded in the *Quality in Schools* initiative that started in 1999.

CHAPTER 4: CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT – REQUIREMENTS AND OPPORTUNITIES

4.1. Status of continuing professional development

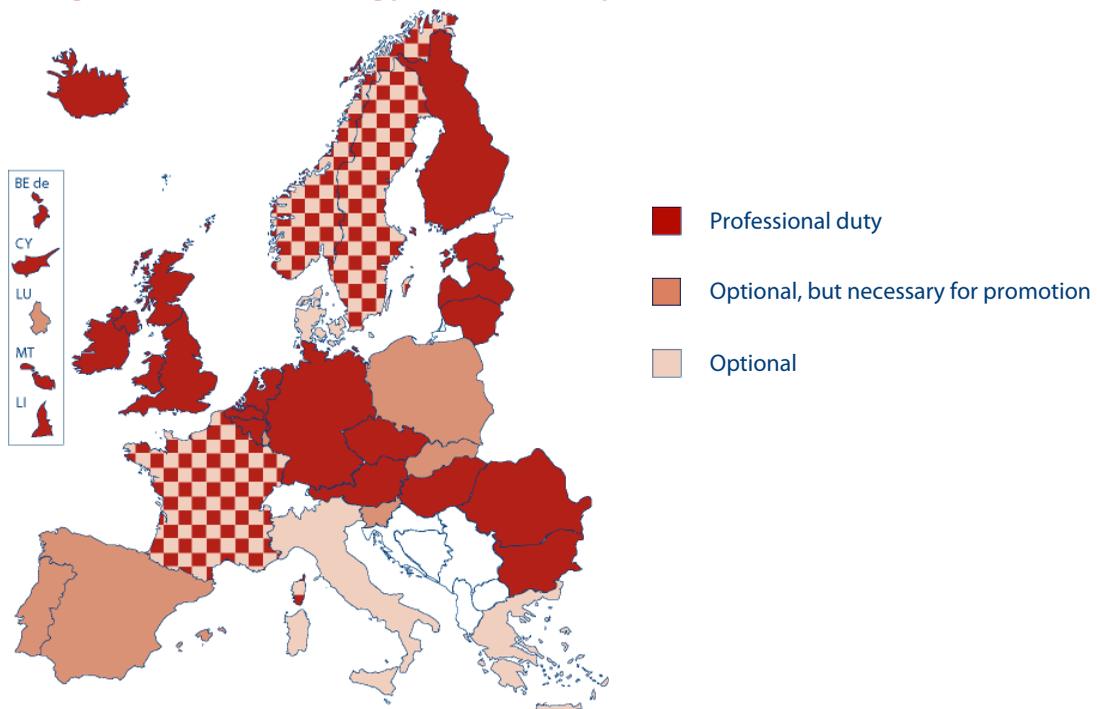
Continuing professional development (CPD) is considered a professional duty for teachers in more than 20 European countries and regions. However, teachers are not explicitly obliged to engage in CPD in all of them.

For example, while CPD is a professional duty in France, the Netherlands, Sweden and Iceland, participation in it is in practice optional.

In Spain, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia and Slovakia, CPD is optional, but clearly linked to career advancement and salary increases. In Spain and Luxembourg, teachers who enrol for a certain amount of training are eligible for a salary bonus. In the other four countries, credits may be acquired via participation in CPD programmes and are taken into account for purposes of promotion. In Greece, Italy and Cyprus, CPD is a definite obligation for newly appointed teachers.

Specific CPD linked to the introduction of new educational reforms and organised by the relevant authorities is in general a professional duty for teachers in all countries.

Figure 4.1: Status of continuing professional development for teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Luxembourg: Since 2007, CPD has been compulsory for teachers in secondary education.

Explanatory note

Professional duty: Task described as such in working regulations/contracts/legislation or other regulations on the teaching profession.

Requirements in terms of time

Not all countries in which CPD is a professional duty indicate how much time teachers have to spend on it. In those countries which provide indications, the minimum annual time allocation prescribed varies widely from one country to the next.

For teachers at ISCED level 1 in Cyprus, more than 50 hours a year are prescribed. In Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the United Kingdom and Norway, the minimum annual time prescribed amounts to over 30 hours a year. In all other countries except Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities), the annual number of hours is under 20.

In several countries, the amount of time that should be spent on CPD is expressed either in days per year, as in Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities), Lithuania, Malta, Finland, the United Kingdom and Norway, or in days or hours over a certain number of years, as in Estonia, Latvia, Hungary and Romania.

Figure 4.2: Minimum annual time (in hours) that teachers have to spend on continuing professional development, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	BE fr/ BE de	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	AT	RO	FI	UK	NO
ISCED 1 and 2	21	32	57	36	35	17	12	15	19	18	35	35
No time indications	BE nl, BG, DE, CZ, IE, FR, LU, NL, SK, SE, IS, LI											

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr): Each teacher has to spend annually three days or six half-days on teaching issues but is free to choose from a list of priority topics defined by the government.

Belgium (BE de): Each school sets aside an annual maximum of three days or six half-days which are devoted to teaching issues and deal with a topic determined by the school itself.

Estonia: 160 hours over a five-year period.

Cyprus: The information shown relates to teachers at ISCED level 1 and involves school-based professional development. Teachers at ISCED level 2 have to attend a 90-minute seminar twice a year.

Latvia: The regulations specify 36 hours over a three-year period. It is thus possible for teachers to do a single 36-hour professional development course in one go with no obligation to attend any further such courses in the following two years.

Lithuania: Five days a year.

Luxembourg: Since 2007, eight hours minimum a year have been compulsory for teachers working in secondary education.

Hungary: Every seven years, 120 hours are compulsory.

Malta: Three half-days a year at the beginning or end of the school year. Teachers also take part in three two-hour professional development sessions a year, for which they receive payment.

Austria: For ISCED level 2, the information given here relates to teachers working in *Hauptschulen*. For teachers at *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen* the amount of training is not specified.

Romania: 95 hours every five years, unless teachers take professional degrees during this period.

Finland: Three to five days a year of six hours each.

United Kingdom: The data relate to the five days when teachers must be available for work but the school is not open to pupils. These days were introduced to support a number of non-teaching activities, including professional development.

Iceland: Teachers should use 150 hours a year for preparation, CPD and other professional duties, excluding the time they are present at school.

Explanatory note

Calculation: Unless otherwise stated in the above notes, one day corresponds to seven hours. For countries where a certain amount of training over several years is compulsory, the calculation is based on an average.

Choice of CPD programmes and constraints placed on teachers

The choice of programmes of continuing professional development may depend on a training plan established to meet the educational priorities of central authorities in terms of teacher competences and skills. Training plans may also be developed at school or local level as part of school development plans. In the absence of a plan, the decision to follow development programmes may also be entirely up to the individual teacher.

Figure 4.3: Establishment of a training plan for the continuing professional development of teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	
A	● ○	● ○	○	● ○	○	○	●	○	○	●	●	●	● ○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	●	●	⊗	● ○	○	○	○	○	○	○
B	✓	✓	✓		✓											✓			✓										✓	✓			

A Level of responsibility:	● At central level	○ At school or local level	⊗ No explicit training plan
B Compulsory inclusion in school development plan:	✓ = Yes		

Source: Eurydice.

In 12 countries, training plans are established at school or local level, as is the case in Denmark, Sweden and Norway.

In **Norway**, for example, a strategy plan issued by the Ministry of Education and Research as a preparation for the Knowledge Promotion Reform in 2006, defines the subjects and areas considered important to develop. This document is not binding on local authorities or schools. Each municipality is free to investigate its own local needs regarding competence enhancement among teachers, and can formulate its own strategies. How this is carried out will vary at the local level, but CPD plans must be accepted and decided on at municipal level.

In six countries, training is planned centrally in accordance with central (national or regional) education priorities. In the remaining countries, both levels (central and school or local) contribute to the establishment of training plans. In Slovakia and Liechtenstein, training plans do not exist.

In Belgium, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Malta, the United Kingdom and Iceland, it is compulsory for schools to have a continuing professional development plan for their teachers as part of the school development plan.

It is hard to estimate the extent to which the CPD needs of teachers are taken into account in these training plans.

In review meetings in the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, for example, there is an assessment of the individual needs of teachers but within the context of school, local and national priorities. There is frequently a very clear reference to the main aims of the school's development plan. For many staff, the exercise of review has led to increased levels of self-awareness and a sense of focus on both individual and school needs.

Independently of the way training plans are established, teachers in all countries are free to choose from a certain training offer while fulfilling certain organisational preconditions (see section below on

organisational aspects). In most countries, however, development plans may contain compulsory training modules that are generally linked to the introduction of curricular (or other) reforms, such as those concerned with new subjects or methodologies. Where this occurs, the topics clearly cannot be chosen. Compulsory training of this kind may also be organised under a school development plan, with the result that all teachers have to take part in it.

4.2. Organisational aspects

Allocation of time for CPD and provision of substitute teachers

In most countries, CPD activities are generally organised outside working hours. However many countries enable teachers to take part in it during working time, subject to certain conditions.

The permission of the school management (head teacher or other staff) is normally required before teachers can take part in CPD activities during working time. In France, Luxembourg (for teachers at ISCED level 1) and Malta, teachers have to obtain this permission from the *rectorats* or the ministry, respectively.

Admission may also be conditioned by the number of places available for a given activity.

In several countries, teachers are entitled to a certain amount of (paid) working time that can be spent on CPD activities.

In the **Czech Republic**, teachers are entitled to 12 working days in a school year for independent study.

In **Italy**, in accordance with freedom to alter the school timetable flexibly, some schools suspend their classes for a few days to carry out intensive training initiatives. The employment contract also states that teachers are entitled to exemption from their normal duties for five days in the school year in order to attend training.

In **Lithuania**, the law states that teachers are entitled to five days of professional development training a year, on which they are remunerated in accordance with their average daily salary. The situation is similar in **Slovenia**. In **Finland**, three to five days are set aside for CPD.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, the statutory conditions of service require teachers to be available for work under the direction of the headteacher for 195 days a year, of which only 190 are teaching days. The five days when school sessions are not required were introduced to support a number of non-teaching activities, including professional development.

In **Romania**, the 'methodological day' (several hours or one whole day per school week) provides for the organisation of CPD in addition to other activities. Similar arrangements exist in **Belgium** and **Luxembourg**.

Teachers in **Portugal** are authorised to have CPD training during their working time, but for no longer than 10 hours a year when it is on their own initiative. Otherwise their annual leave can never exceed 5 to 8 days.

If CPD occurs during teaching hours, the school management or educational authorities are responsible for organising replacement provision in virtually all countries. A lack of substitute teachers and the cost of providing for them reportedly discourage participation in CPD in the majority of countries.

Funding

In no country is there a special individual budget for teachers to take part in CPD activities, although in the United Kingdom (Wales), the Welsh Assembly Government has provided funding for training bursaries for teachers to meet their individually identified professional needs.

In some countries, the overall budget for CPD is managed by the top-level authority for education. This applies to Bulgaria, Germany, Ireland, Spain, France, Malta, Hungary and Portugal. In Italy, the budget is allocated to schools by the ministry, while in Romania the ministry allocates CPD funding to the counties. In Estonia, funds are forwarded to local authorities on the basis of a so-called 'teachers salary fund'.

In **Estonia**, at least 3 % of the salary fund of teachers receiving their salary from the state budget must be used for professional training. Local authorities may allocate additional funds for the professional training of teachers and determine the fields supported.

In many countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Liechtenstein) – many of which are new EU Member States – programmes organised by the ministry or any other official authority at regional/local level are free or almost free of charge.

In **Hungary**, the costs of participating in continuing professional development are covered by the central budget up to 80 % of the total. The remaining 20 % are covered by the school or the teacher. The Ministry of Education has determined standards for financing, and gives the funding to the local government authorities which maintain most schools and transfer the money to them.

In **Finland**, CPD at the school where the teacher works is organised and financed by the education provider. Municipalities usually allocate EUR 200-220 per teacher annually for this kind of training, while government-funded CPD linked to national priorities is coordinated by the Finnish National Board of Education. The employer does not have an obligation to pay for the costs incurred in the travel, accommodation, salary and hiring of substitute teachers. For self-motivated continuing teacher education, the teacher may also get financial support in the form of a study grant.

In the Czech Republic and the Netherlands, the budget for CPD is part of the lump sum provided for schools. The situation is similar in the United Kingdom. In Lithuania, the education system is based on the 'pupil's basket' principle. A share of the funds in the 'basket' may be used by schools for professional development courses.

4.3. Measures to encourage teacher participation in CPD

Teachers may be encouraged to participate in CPD activities through incentives such as salary increases or credits for promotion. Specific campaigns or strategic policies may also focus on raising their participation.

Figure 4.4: Incentives for participation by teachers in continuing professional development activities, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU
Salary increases				●	●						●						●
Promotions		●		●			●	●		●	●			●		●	
Campaigns/strategic policies						●											

	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
Salary increases	●					●			●				●			
Promotions				●	●	●	●	●								
Campaigns/strategic policies											●	●				●

● Incentive exist

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: The information shown refers to salary allowances, not increases in the strict sense.

Cyprus: University degrees involving at least one year of study lead to extra credits for promotion.

Luxembourg: Salary increases only concern teachers at ISCED level 1.

United Kingdom (SCT): The salary increase incentive only applies if the CPD is part of a wider development programme, such as one leading to Chartered Teacher status, and the teacher was successful in achieving this status.

Norway: CPD courses provided by higher education institutions can lead to extra study credits. In some cases this may result in a higher salary for teachers. However, most CPD courses do not award such credits or lead to higher positions or salaries.

Explanatory note

Salary increases linked exclusively to the acquisition of Master's degrees or doctorates are not taken into account.

Only in a few countries does participation in CPD activities result in a salary increase.

In **Spain**, such an incentive consists of an additional remuneration paid to civil service teaching staff after a minimum of five or six years of teaching (depending on the Autonomous Community concerned), provided they prove that they have taken a minimum number of hours of training in officially recognised activities. The minimum number of hours required ranges between 60 and 100. Teachers can obtain up to a maximum of five such increments throughout their professional career.

In **Hungary**, CPD activities are not linked to an increase but to normal advancement on the salary scale. Progression on the scale is conditional on successful completion of CPD courses once every seven years.

In Latvia, professional development is also to be one of the criteria used to establish teaching qualifications in accordance with the inclusion of teacher salaries within the unified system of public-sector salaries. The reform started in 2006 and gradual transition to the new system is planned in the period up to 2010. CPD will be taken into account for advancement on the salary scale.

In addition, not all kinds of CPD activity may result in such a salary increase. According to the teachers' wage contract in Iceland, only additional qualifications such as Master's degrees and doctorates lead to higher salaries.

The situation is not significantly different in the case of promotion. Few countries offer promotion possibilities linked to participation in CPD activities.

In **Belgium (German-speaking Community)**, regular participation in CPD training is one of the evaluation criteria that may result in the appraisal 'good' or 'very good' at the end of the evaluation report which has to be established regularly by the school head and is taken into account in the promotion of teachers.

In **Estonia**, a minimum of 160 hours of professional training are needed to secure the occupational grade of senior teacher and teacher-methodologist.

On successful completion of CPD programmes in **Lithuania**, teachers may seek a higher qualification category. There are four such categories, namely 'teacher', 'senior teacher', 'teacher-methodologist' and expert teacher, each progressively linked to higher pay.

In **Austria**, teachers receive attendance certificates which may be significant if they apply for a more senior post (e.g. school head). Formal further training activities generally enhance their chances of permanent employment, since they result in the award of additional qualifications.

In Denmark, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway, government campaigns and strategic policies focus on investment in the CPD of teachers.

With the campaign 'a boost for teachers', the **Swedish** government encourages municipalities and individual teachers to take part in CPD. Within the four years from 2007 to 2010, the government is offering 30 000 fully qualified teachers (i.e. around 25 % of all primary and secondary school teachers) training to reinforce their knowledge of their subjects and enhance their teaching ability. The government spends SEK 2.9 billion on in-depth education. Another SEK 500 million is being earmarked for competence development to achieve and increase in the number of teachers with doctorates.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, the continuing professional development of the whole school workforce, including teachers, is a government priority. Under the Education Act 2005, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) became the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) with an additional role in the continuing professional development of serving teachers. The picture of CPD provision across the country is complex, with responsibility and funding devolved to schools. The TDA aims to stimulate informed demand for CPD through the revised performance management arrangements (implemented in 2007) and the new framework of professional standards (effective from the same year), and bring coherence to CPD by providing leadership and guidance to schools and local authorities.

The **Norwegian** Ministry of Education and Research has allocated substantial resources for professional development to teachers and school leaders in connection with the implementation of the 'Knowledge Promotion' reform.

Not only are there few incentives for encouraging participation by teachers in CPD, but penalties for failure to participate appear to be uncommon. Only in Belgium (the German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Malta and Portugal may non-participation in CPD activities be penalised or regarded as a negative element in the appraisal of teachers.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN REFORMS AND EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

Over and above the responsibilities teachers assume in their classes and schools, they are also called upon to take part in determining the general context of their activity by helping to shape reforms concerned with their status and working conditions, the content of what is taught and, more generally, the functioning of the education system.

From a historical perspective, these responsibilities for the development of education policies have mainly been entrusted to collective professional organisations – the unions – rather than to teachers on an individual basis. Since the mid-20th century, their contribution to reforms has occurred mainly in a group model in which the trade unions are in most cases consulted from the top down, as opposed to a participatory model in which teachers themselves generate public proposals emanating from the grass roots (¹).

Indeed, as regards the working conditions of teachers in particular, social negotiations are instituted jointly by central government, labour and management and in most cases organised either nationally or at the top level of authority for education. The outcome in some countries may be the joint formulation of education policies.

This collective group model is an enduring one, especially when it comes to determining the status and working conditions of teachers. However, it has been supplemented in some countries since the mid-1990s by teacher participation in reforms on an individual basis, as in the three Communities of Belgium, as well as in Spain, Latvia, Finland and Norway.

While the collective model therefore remains broadly dominant as far as teacher status and working conditions are concerned (section 1), a new balance between collective representation and individual participation seems to be emerging in the case of reforms affecting the curriculum (section 2) or, more generally, the functioning of school systems (section 3).

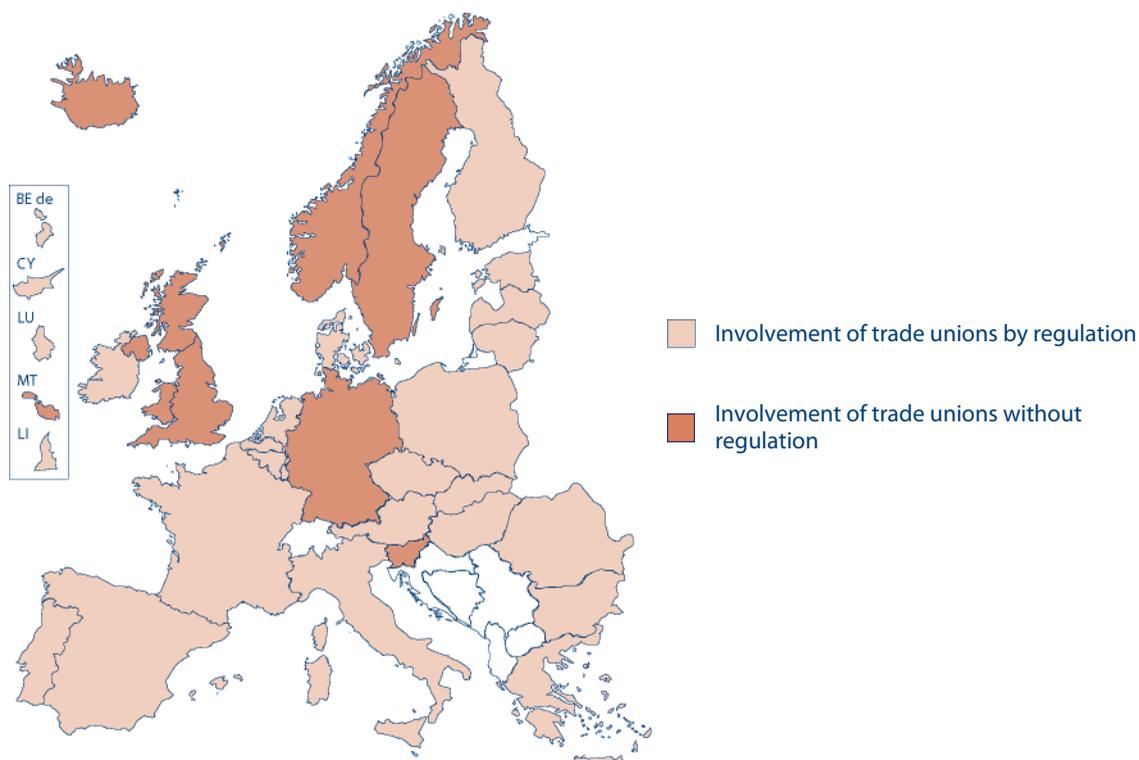
5.1. Determining the status and working conditions of teachers: the supremacy of the trade unions and collective bargaining

Today in all European countries, the pay and terms and conditions of employment of teachers are determined through **negotiations or consultation with the trade unions that represent their profession**. In many countries, this association is institutionalised in mandatory consultation with the professional organisations or participation in joint committees for monitoring reforms. This applies, for example, to Austria in which close collaboration led in 2000 to joint funding by the federal government and the trade unions of a survey on the activity of teachers, in order to prepare the new Law on the working conditions of teachers employed by the *Länder*. The three Communities of Belgium also provide for an institutionalised relation with the trade unions. Thus even though each parliament in the end takes its decisions on the basis of proposals from the respective Ministries of Education, the working conditions of teachers are subject to negotiation at an earlier stage in the institutionalised context of the Collective Agreement on Employment.

(¹) For this analysis of the development of public policies, see Gaudin J.-P. (2004) *L'action publique, sociologie et politique*, Paris: Presses de Sciences Po and Dalloz.

Until 2007 in the Flemish Community of Belgium, this procedure enabled the professional organisations to oppose certain government proposals such as a scheme to appraise individual teacher performance. In France, all reforms concerned with teachers, their career or their status must be submitted to the *Comité Technique Paritaire Ministériel* (the CTPM, or joint ministerial ‘technical’ committee). This committee consists of representatives of the administration and teacher trade union organisations in equal numbers.

Figure 5.1: Teacher or trade union involvement in reforms concerning the status and working conditions of teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

Involvement of trade unions by regulation: Obligatory consultation of trade unions, as stated by regulation, most often involving participation in mixed committees for the follow-up of reforms.

In other countries and without any commitment to an institutionalised relationship, trade unions have been crucial players in reforming the working conditions of teachers. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the 2003 *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload* agreement was signed by school workforce unions, local government employers and the government. The agreement acknowledged that the pressure on schools to raise standards had led to serious problems with teacher workload and this was having a marked effect on recruitment, retention and teacher morale. The agreement set out a series of significant changes to teachers' conditions of service to be introduced in three annual phases from September 2003. Tasks that could be performed by others, such as administrative and clerical tasks, and invigilating exams were transferred. Teachers were given guaranteed time during the school day for planning, preparation and assessment, and limits were placed on how much they could be required to cover for absent colleagues. There were also new roles in schools for adults who support teachers' work and pupils' learning.

Likewise, the 2001 *Teacher's Agreement* in Scotland, which was partly based on the McCrone committee proposals, was the subject of negotiations with the trade unions.

In the final analysis, the status and working conditions of teachers in the vast majority of European countries are the joint preserve of central government and trade unions engaged in national-level negotiations. Except in countries such as Germany, Spain, Finland, Sweden (albeit with a national minimum income) and Norway, decentralisation and growing autonomy have had a limited impact on such national arrangements. At best, the local authorities – when they employ teachers directly – are invited to the negotiating table. In Denmark, for example, negotiations have been tripartite involving the government, trade unions and local authority representatives. Similarly, in Belgium, discussions on the working conditions of teachers bring together the Ministry of Education in each Community, professional organisations and the authorities or bodies that run schools.

Except in a few countries, decentralisation and school autonomy have not resulted in decentralisation of procedures for determining the status and working conditions of teachers. In some countries that have long been decentralised, an opposite trend is even apparent. For example, following the 1991 strike in the French Community of Belgium, the unions secured acceptance of the principle that the working conditions of teachers would in future be based on a collective bargaining agreement, and no longer on decisions involving the school authorities and schools themselves.

As regards the contribution of teachers to reforms of curricular goals and content, the way they are involved varies to a greater extent.

5.2. Curricular reform: varied forms of teacher participation

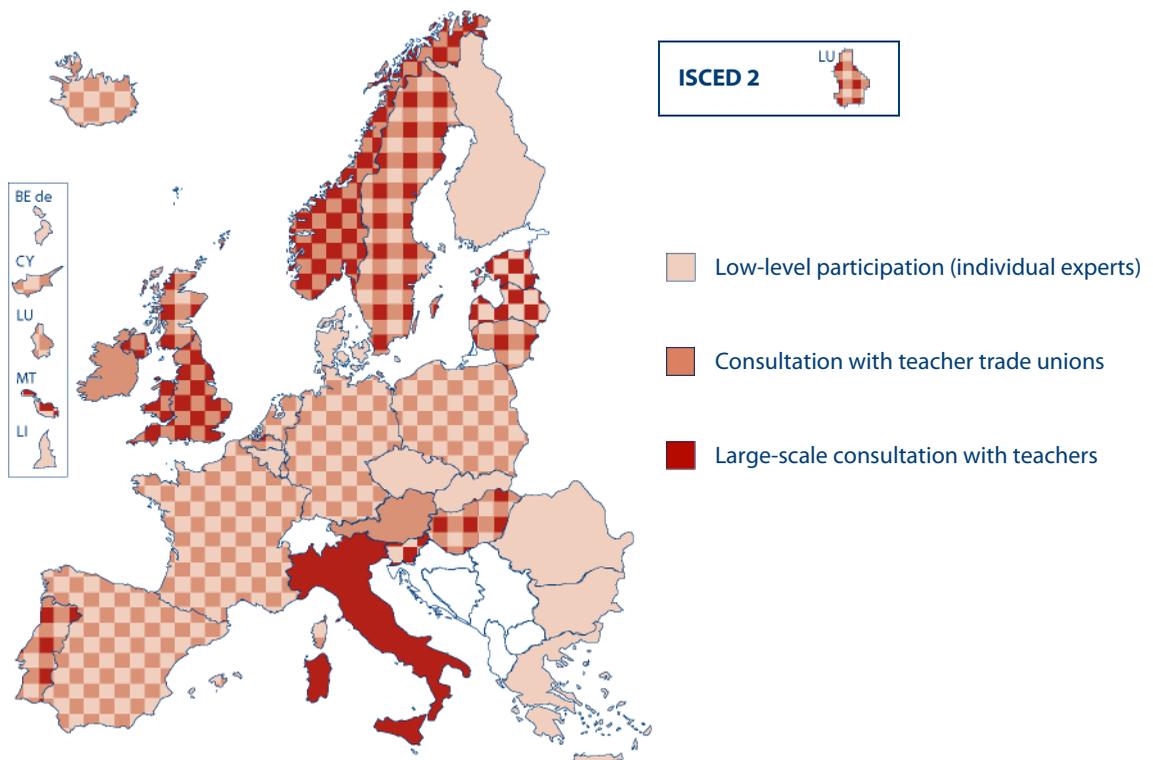
Because curricular reform has a crucial bearing on the profession and skills requirements of teachers, they have long been involved in measures relating to this field in all European countries. Formed from **just a few teachers recognised for their expertise** and/or members of associations, the working committees established to consider these matters have always provided an opportunity for teachers to collaborate. In such cases they are often appointed as ordinary teachers of the subject concerned, though recognised specialists in the field, or because of their membership of a professional subject association or an inspectorate responsible for determining curricular content. In Lithuania, the Education Act provides for consultation with the teachers' associations on all curricular reforms.

Aside from this conventional kind of individual teacher involvement, their participation has developed along two different lines in the last 30 years or so. The first corresponds to sometimes institutionalised **collective trade union participation**, and the second to steadily developing forms of large-scale consultation. Thus in the Flemish Community of Belgium, curricular reforms and, in particular, the identification of 'final objectives' in educational standards are discussed within the VLOR, the Flemish Committee for Education which includes representatives of the professional organisations. Similarly, the official regulations in Bulgaria provide for participation by the trade unions in the preparation of new curricula or the development of standards for pupil assessment. Cyprus has also established institutionalised consultation in this area since 2003. In Germany too, there are committees for curricular reform in which the unions are involved. In France, all curricular reforms have to be presented to the *Conseil Supérieur de l'Éducation* (Higher Council for Education), a joint committee with advisory status. The same also applies to Luxembourg (ISCED 1) with the Grand-Duchy Education Committee. In Norway, professional organisations are involved in developing curricula, standards and standardised assessments.

Alongside these collective forms of participation, **individual consultation is also tending to develop on a substantial scale**. Thus in the Flemish Community of Belgium, a particular working method was introduced, in order to involve teachers more closely in the reform of the basic curriculum. Consultation occurs during random sampling for performance assessment of parts of the curriculum. The sample results are widely circulated and discussed with the various parties involved. Teachers are asked to voice their opinion over the Internet, and also invited to take part in conferences at which the decision-making process and adjustments to the curriculum are discussed on a regular basis. In Italy this is also now customary practice, even though there are no regulations that lay down any obligation to consult teachers about curricular reform. In 1998/99 for example, general consultation on new programmes was initiated with all schools. Similarly, all schools will test the 'Recommendations for the Curriculum' of 2007 for two years before the final document is drafted. In Iceland, teachers are also intensively involved in policies concerned with curricular content. For example, over 100 teachers freely expressed their individual opinions in the 1999 reform of the National Curriculum. Similarly, at ISCED 2 in Luxembourg, the teachers' conference in each *lycée* submitted its opinion on the proposed measures. Consultation of this kind may be decisive. In Estonia, for example, the reform of the National Curriculum was cancelled in 2006 following negative feedback from teachers on the subject.

Besides the rather exclusive areas represented by working conditions and curricula, teachers also play a part in reforms that more broadly affect the functioning of the education system. The manner in which they do so varies and is characterised by increasingly strong individual involvement.

Figure 5.2: Teacher or trade union involvement in curricula reforms, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Czech Republic: Teachers are involved in curricular reform via the members of nationwide associations. These associations are specialised in terms of particular school subjects, educational levels or the responsibilities of their members.

Explanatory note

Low-level participation: Given their particular expertise or membership of a professional subject-based association, certain teachers are involved in curricular reforms.

5.3. Other reforms of the education system: the search for balance between collective participation and individual involvement

In the case of reforms relating neither to the working conditions of teachers nor to the curriculum, some countries generally provide for **consultation with the unions**, which may or may not be institutionalised. For example, this occurs through joint committees or consultation mechanisms in Spain, France, Cyprus, Luxembourg or Austria. In Spain, the 1978 Constitution provides for all players to contribute to reforms of the education system in institutionalised joint committees. Procedures are thus fairly similar to the one described above in discussing the working conditions of teachers.

In addition to these long-standing collective patterns of consultation, an increasing number of countries seek to approach teachers individually, partly in order to involve them in the reform process as early as possible. Individual participation of this kind assumes a variety of forms. **Teachers may, first of all, respond to regularly organised consultation initiatives or in large-scale surveys.** This occurred in the French

Community of Belgium when the 2005 Contract for the School was drawn up. In France, staff from the majority of schools, as well as other players, were brought into the so-called Thélot consultation process which sought to propose various measures to reform the education system, through the organisation of an extensive public debate. Yet the initiative resulted in no such measure in particular. Similarly in Spain, teachers across the board were consulted on the scheme known as 'Quality Education for All and Shared by All' for improving the performance of the education system. In Malta too, the 1999 reform led to a needs analysis and monitoring of its implementation. In Norway, teachers are regularly surveyed both about forthcoming reforms and their implementation. In Slovenia, teachers have been directly consulted on the 1996 reform of the National Curriculum so that they can express an opinion on the curriculum for their subject but also, more broadly, on the general appropriateness of the reform proposals. In 2006, consultation was conducted more economically, with teachers asked for their comments over the Internet.

Teachers are also becoming increasingly involved in the early stages of policy-making, through pilot projects which, if satisfactorily completed, will provide a basis for future reforms. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, this idea of grass roots initiatives as a foundation for reform – teachers are perceived as sources of suggestions for future reforms – has led to the introduction of 'pedagogical test gardens'. This also applies to 'school quality projects' in Austria. Since 1988 in France, *Projets d'Action Éducative* (PAE, or educational action schemes) have become common practice. Each year, schools submit innovative project proposals which may be considered for funding by the regulatory authorities. Finland is also mobilising teachers at an early stage through pilot projects and participation in research that may provide a basis for future reforms. Thus even though their involvement in research is not obligatory, many Finnish teachers are taking part in these activities run by universities, the Ministry of Education and the Finnish National Board of Education. In Norway, the *Demonstration School System* established since 2002 has sought to make the most of experimentation undertaken freely by schools. Where experiments are successful, schools may become places for observation and training: 58 schools are taking part in this project and receiving subsidies specifically for it.

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In conclusion, over and above the commitment of teachers to their classes and schools, they contribute today in a variety of ways to education system reform processes. In the great majority of countries, they have traditionally done so through the close involvement of teacher unions in the joint development of education policies. This system of participation is still highly instrumental in determining the status and working conditions of teachers. Beyond this area, which is the preserve of union activity, the desire to involve teachers early on in reform processes has led to the development of many different forms of individual participation, including wide-ranging consultation, surveys and pilot projects, etc. These fresh efforts to mobilise teachers satisfy a twofold objective: first, to obtain from them, as grass-roots practitioners, ideas for reforms that correspond more closely to the realities of school and, secondly, to limit their resistance to reforms decided on unilaterally in accordance with top-down policies.

CHAPTER 6: ACCOUNTABILITY AND INCENTIVES

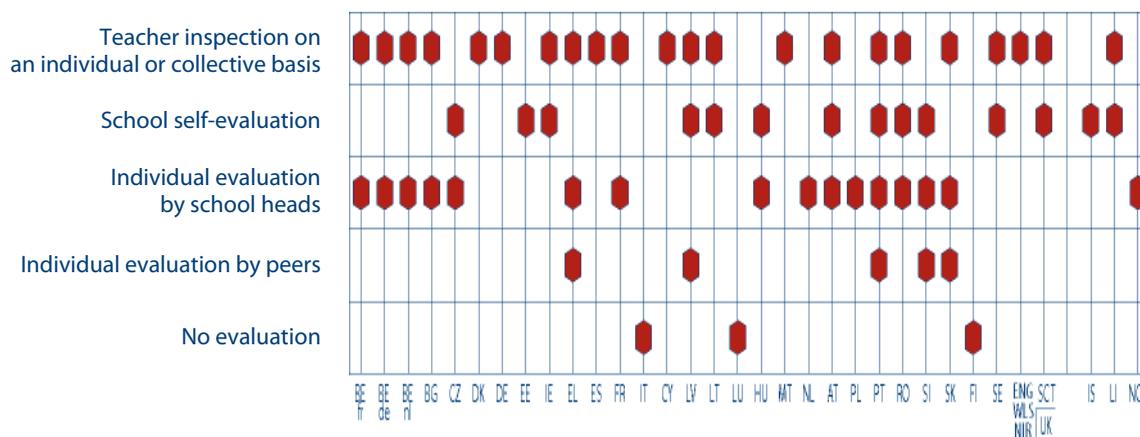
As emphasised in the first chapter, the visible expansion in the activities of teachers has rarely been attributable to structured analysis of the specific features of their profession. In most cases, a variety of laws – those concerned with developing curricular aims and content, with working conditions and continuing professional development, etc. – have cumulatively resulted in piecemeal reform of teaching activity. In the vast majority of European countries, therefore, this gradual broadening of their remit has not been accompanied by an automatic parallel trend in structured accountability and control. The implementation of appraisal mechanisms but also of incentives appears in general to be chronologically out of step with the increase in the range of teachers' responsibilities.

While there has thus been no automatic relation between the assignment of new responsibilities and evaluation of how they are exercised, a gradual increase in the monitoring of teaching activity has become apparent in the last 20 years. This growing accountability has four main features. First, it occurs in varied forms, ranging from conventional external individual inspection focused on processes to school self-evaluation, including an analysis of teaching activity, and internal evaluation interviews conducted by the school head (section 1). Next, these forms of evaluation have been characterised by the analysis of results, alongside the observations and descriptions of processes (section 2). A third feature is that evaluation currently seems to be oscillating between its collective and individual dimensions. The 1990s were noteworthy for the broadening of school autonomy and the growing accountability of school teaching staff with few implications for the actual players whereas, since the middle of the present post-2000 decade, there has been a strengthening of individual accountability mechanisms that may have considerable consequences for them (section 3). Finally, this expansion in the range of responsibilities assigned to teachers and the development of accountability measures have not in the majority of countries been associated with the corresponding development of incentives (section 4).

6.1. Accountability of teachers: varied forms of evaluation

Because the work of teachers is today viewed both in individual terms – the activity of qualified professionals – and from a collective standpoint – the results achieved by the teaching staff team at a school – the methods used to monitor this activity now inevitably vary.

Figure 6.1: Official methods for the individual or collective evaluation of teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: Individual schools might have their own procedures for evaluating teachers but no official regulations exist.

Spain: A scheme for performance-based individual evaluation is under discussion. As regards self evaluation, teachers evaluate their own general practice in some schools (internal evaluation plan).

Iceland: Each school implements its own self-evaluation methods and decides whether and how the work of teachers is to be evaluated.

Explanatory note

School self-evaluation includes a global evaluation of teachers at the school concerned.

First, many countries have continued to provide for **the inspection of teachers conducted by specialist inspectorates from outside the schools concerned**. These inspectorates may report to the national authorities as in France, or to the regional authorities responsible for education, as in Germany, Spain or Austria. In some countries, such as Sweden, both local and national authorities carry out inspections. While inspection of this kind has long been customary practice within education systems, the present period appears to be witnessing a rise in the frequency with which it is carried out and a broadening of its possible consequences.

Teaching activity may also be monitored by means of **self-evaluation**. This form of accountability has developed since the mid-1990s. It may be regarded as a first stage in the appraisal of teachers and not accompanied by any form of external evaluation. This applies to Iceland which, in the absence of any mechanism for monitoring the performance of schools and teachers, has developed self-evaluation since 1995. After abolishing its inspectorate in 1985, Hungary also introduced this form of accountability with effect from 2000. Since 2007, a formal component concerned specifically with teaching activity is an integral part of the process. At the other extreme, self-evaluation has been developed in some countries to supplement already existent external inspection, as in the Czech Republic. Similarly, in addition to inspection

by national and local authorities in Sweden, every school within the public-sector school system has to write a quality report each year as a way of evaluating its own activity. *Skolverket*, the Swedish National Agency for Education, has made recommendations concerning how the report should be written and the areas it must cover (such as staff education, staff competence in relation to the subjects taught and the organisation of work, etc.). In Slovenia, changes in the role of the National Education Institute – in which the focus has shifted from inspection activity to coordinating and encouraging teaching staff – have led the Ministry to develop a framework for self-evaluation. Other countries are also in the process of adopting similar new approaches. Thus in Ireland, a body known as the Teaching Council, which has just been established and the majority of whose members are teachers, has recently published Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers which pave the way for this type of evaluation. In the great majority of countries, the growth of this kind of accountability has gone hand in hand with more formal structuring of monitoring criteria, or with checking, by an external evaluator, of the criteria schools themselves have established.

Teachers may also be evaluated **inside schools by the person to whom they report directly**, namely the school head in the vast majority of countries. This occurs, for example, in the three Communities of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Greece, Lithuania, Austria, Romania and Slovenia. In the Netherlands, individual evaluation by the school head is the sole form of teacher evaluation.

In some countries, like Lithuania, the school management body may be involved, as may professional staff from outside the school, such as school advisors in Greece. In Latvia, evaluation is the responsibility of the teaching department head and, in most cases, the teacher in charge of those who teach a particular subject. In the United Kingdom, in the case of large secondary schools, the school head evaluates the management staff who in turn evaluate the teachers. France has its own specific arrangements. While, there too, school heads are involved in evaluating teachers, in partnership with inspectors, they are not however considered to be above teachers in the school hierarchy.

A further kind of **internal evaluation may be carried out or supported by peers**. Yet this form of accountability is today still somewhat uncommon. In most cases, it arises from a situation in which curricular content is devised on an autonomous basis calling for teamwork that in turn involves peer supervision. However, in some countries, such evaluation may be explicit. This is the case in Greece, for example, in which school advisors responsible, among other things, for individual inspections, also canvass teachers of the same subject for opinions of their peers. Likewise, in Slovenia, the school teachers' council has to approve by an absolute majority in a secret ballot the recommendations for promotion that the school head submits to the Ministry of Education for endorsement.

Finally, the middle of the present (post-2000) decade has been characterised by the emergence of **new mechanisms for appraising the performance of teachers** (see section 3). **These monitoring procedures with potentially significant consequences** are associated both with financial incentives and diversified career structures. This new form of accountability has already been established in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Bulgaria and Portugal and is being negotiated in Spain. In the United Kingdom (England and Northern Ireland), the 'performance management' systems initiated from the 1990s to support improvements in the work of teachers, now provide a means for linking their remuneration to their evaluation.

In Sweden, the government has appointed a committee under educational legislation governing the qualifications and skills required of teachers, with the task of finding new ways to appraise their performance. The committee is to propose a standard qualifications model for teachers and for national accreditation of their qualifications. The results of its inquiry are due for submission by mid-2008.

These different patterns of evaluation are increasingly tending to intersect, in some countries establishing both individual and collective internal and external evaluation networks. While, in the past, individual inspection was almost the only method used to monitor teaching activity, the varied forms of evaluation described above are now tending to overlap.

This applies to Austria in which the appraisal of teachers was long limited to conventional evaluation by the inspectorate and the school head (to whom teachers reported directly) and which since 2006 has developed a national framework for self-evaluation. Similarly, in the Czech Republic, individual assessment by the school head has been supplemented by self-evaluation since 2005. The United Kingdom also typifies the growth of these evaluation networks. The monitoring of schools by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (HMIE) involves self-evaluation based on standard structure 'Quality Indicators', as well as individual interviews.

These different forms of monitoring provide both for an analysis of teaching activity processes and results-based evaluation.

6.2. Results-based evaluation

In the past, the importance of individual evaluation by an inspectorate was based above all on the monitoring of processes. Today, the new forms of accountability emphasise the importance of results, with growing autonomy and decentralisation, by definition, increasingly lessening the imposition of national or regional requirements.

Thus in the United Kingdom, internal evaluation is among other things aimed at resolving the inconsistencies between a quality indicator reference system and school performance. In particular, examination results are analysed when devising 'how good is my school' quality indicators. Similarly, in the Czech Republic, Estonia or Hungary, self-evaluation includes the analysis of teacher performance. In many countries, such as the Czech Republic, Spain, Austria or the United Kingdom, external inspections that are increasingly based on standard principles also include an analysis focused on the results of teaching activity. Whether as part of internal or external evaluation, pupil results in national standard assessments are increasingly becoming a basis for judging the performance of a school and, by the same token, its teaching staff, as in Estonia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) or Liechtenstein.

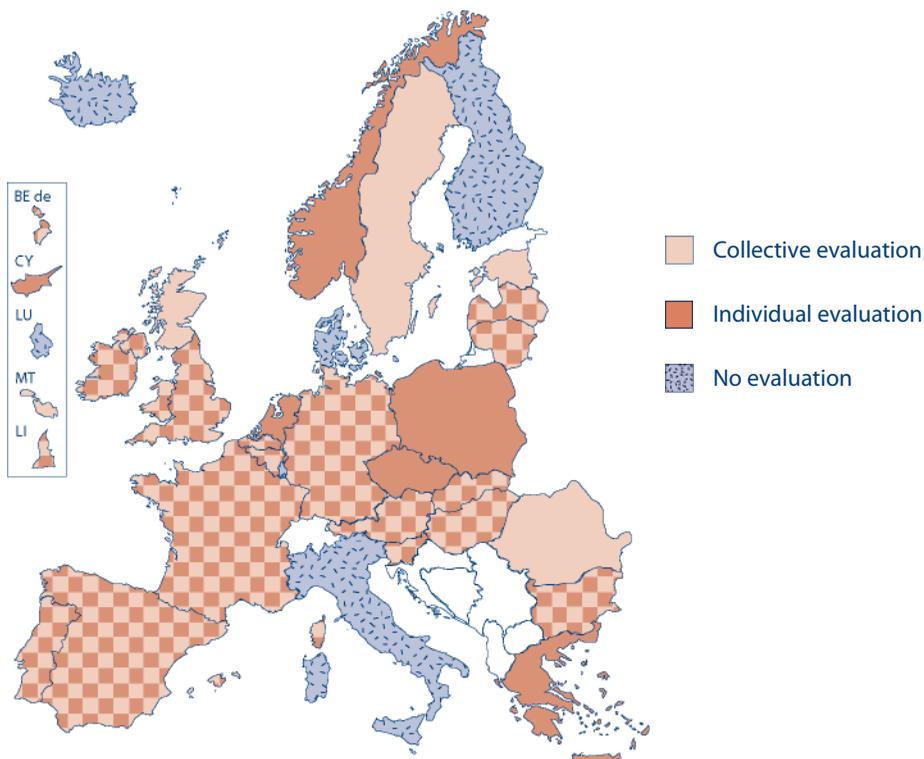
In the same way, policies for the individual appraisal of teachers, which are based on study of their results, have also developed since around 2005. In the United Kingdom (England), this has been the case since 2001. These evaluations combine a wide variety of criteria which range from the academic performance of pupils to participation in training activities or pilot project research activities, and include all possible kinds of internal school commitment (support for pupils, mentoring of new teachers, etc.).

While results-based evaluation is tending, if not to replace, at least to strongly supplement the monitoring of processes and compliance with nationally or locally established requirements, developments are less clear-cut as regards the collective or individual aspects of monitoring teaching activity.

6.3. An alternate individual and collective emphasis in evaluation

In many countries, the evaluation of individual teachers appeared to come to an end in the 1990s, as growing school autonomy encouraged the emergence of a new collective player – the school – which became the main unit of accountability as distinct from each of its teachers (¹). As a result, the monitoring of individuals gradually gave way to the evaluation of school teaching staff collectively. Thus in certain countries such as Belgium (Flemish Community) and Romania, individual inspections were altered to place greater emphasis on evaluation of the teaching staff team as a whole. Other countries that have recently developed their external inspectorate or patterns of self-evaluation, such as Estonia or Malta, have directly established a collective monitoring system. Finally, some countries now combine individual and collective evaluation. In France, in addition to the individual evaluations carried out by school heads and the inspectorate, indicators for monitoring and classifying schools (such as school rankings based on their baccalaureate results) may be regarded as evaluations of schools and therefore collective in nature.

Figure 6.2: Types of individual and/or collective evaluation of teachers, ISCED 1 and 2, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

While individual evaluation had largely become the exception at a time during which accountability grew more collective, **it has now tended to emerge once again since the middle of the current (post-2000) decade**. In Bulgaria, the individual evaluation of teachers now forms the basis for a graded career system comprising four levels, each with its own levels of remuneration and distinct training programmes, ranging

(¹) For detailed information, see Eurydice (2005) The evaluation of schools in Europe.

from provision for those who have just begun teaching, to training for 'senior teachers' and then 'chief teachers'. This system takes account not just of the individual performance of teachers but also the working context in which they acquire their skills. Since 2007/08 in the Flemish Community of Belgium (and from 2008/09 in primary education), teachers are undergoing an interview to evaluate their performance which will be repeated every three years. Two consecutive unfavourable judgements may result in dismissal (as in the case of civil servants in general). Similarly, in the German-speaking Community of Belgium in 2006/07, the individual evaluation of teachers by school heads, which had always existed in schools administered by the Community (or by the Belgian government before 1989) was consolidated in the statutes concerning staff in the (public and private) grant-aided sectors of education. Evaluation reports ending with the comment 'inadequate' for two years in succession lead to the termination of teaching activity.

In Spain, the Ministry of Education is currently negotiating a new legal status for non-university teachers, which ties differing career prospects to individual performance and provides for 'performance bonuses'. Since 2007, Portugal has also developed individual evaluation which may result in extra remuneration and different possible career paths – a teaching career in Portugal now consists of two main stages corresponding to the two categories of 'teacher' and 'skilled teacher'. Any teacher may become a 'skilled teacher' subject to the following conditions: (s)he must have completed 18 years in service, moved up at least five grades on the career scale, received a favourable (though not necessarily outstanding) evaluation throughout the entire career, taken part in in-service teacher training and been successful in the competitive examination for prospective 'skilled teachers'.

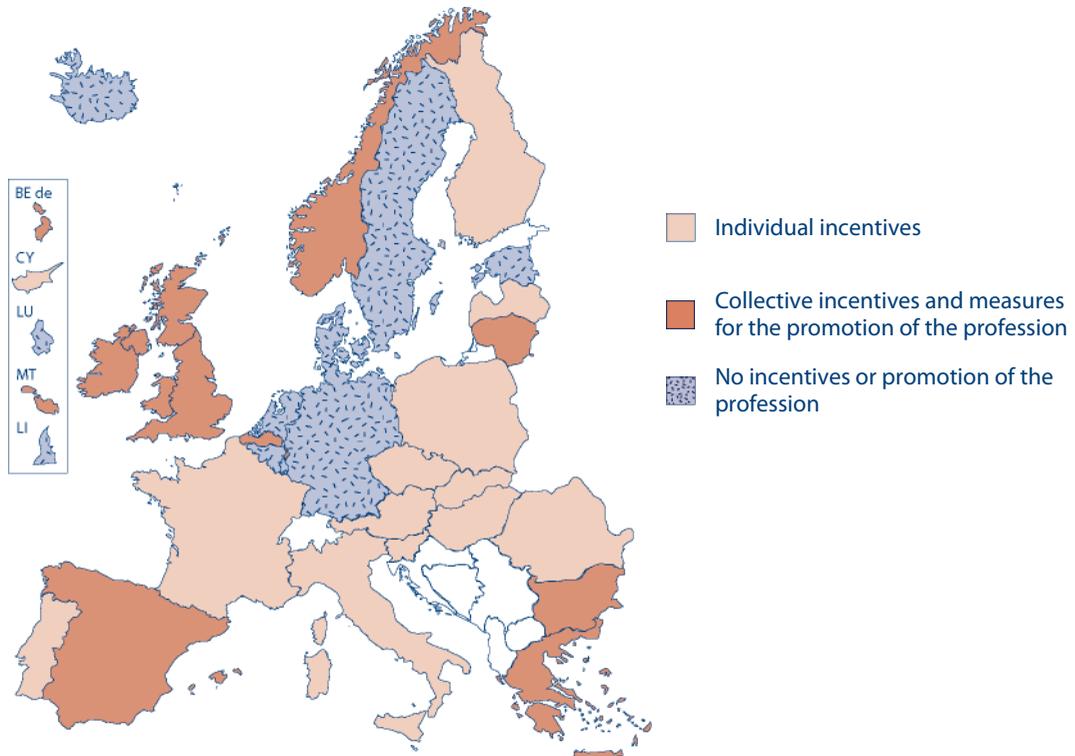
In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), schools are responsible for managing the performance of their teachers, although the arrangements for doing so are government-regulated. Revised regulations for England, with closer links to pay decisions, were made in 2006. However, the primary purpose of the arrangements, and of the broadly similar arrangements in Wales and Northern Ireland, is to assist teachers to develop and to carry out their duties more effectively, in the context of the school's improvement plan. The information collected, which includes the results of classroom observations, may also be used for other purposes, for example to inform school self-evaluation and development planning. However, as the process is internal to the school and undertaken on an annual cycle, it is quite separate from the periodic school inspections, in which external inspectors sample lessons as part of their assessment of the quality of teaching but do not focus on individual teachers.

This trend towards individual accountability has enlarged the group of countries in which the evaluation of teachers by the school head had remained the preferred form of evaluation, as in the Czech Republic, Lithuania or Slovenia. All in all, this growing overlap of individual and team monitoring seems to reflect a twofold trend in teacher accountability, in that teachers are increasingly judged both as individuals personally responsible for their classes and as members of a teaching staff team.

6.4. A broader range of responsibilities but with incentives sometimes lacking

The marked changes witnessed in the last 20 years in the responsibilities and accountability of teachers have not been universally accompanied by the formal provision of incentives. Not all countries have introduced as a matter of course measures for 'rewarding' teachers who effectively discharge their new responsibilities, whether through some form of extra remuneration, a reduced teaching load or promotion.

Figure 6.3: Individual incentives and measures for the promotion of the profession, 2006/07



Source: Eurydice.

Three characteristics are common to a minority of countries which, since the 1980s, have sought to reward teachers at a time when their responsibilities have been extended: first, these countries have in most cases developed evaluation procedures in which the main player is the school head; secondly, they are located in central Europe; and thirdly, they offer mainly financial incentives. Thus in Hungary, school heads monitor the quality and quantity of the work done by the teachers they supervise and may award them ad hoc or regular salary bonuses. Since 2007, the results achieved by pupils in standard examinations may also lead to extra bonuses for their teachers. In the Czech Republic, school heads may reward teachers for additional services or high quality teaching. This extra income may amount to up to 50 % of their basic salary. In addition, the amount of time they have to teach may be reduced. It is also possible for good teachers to receive additional remuneration in Slovakia. Their evaluation covers a broad spectrum of criteria, ranging from the academic results of their class, to participation in regional educational activities, or services and actions undertaken within the school. Latvia, Lithuania and Romania also offer bonuses to teachers.

Since the year 2000, the introduction of incentives has gathered pace. Today, they are of two main kinds, in that **benefits arising from changes in the teaching profession may be individual or collective.**

In the majority of countries, general acknowledgement that there has been an increase in the duties of teachers has led – often under trade union pressure – to a clarification of their status and responsibilities, as well as proposals for higher salaries or the re-evaluation of salary scales. Thus in the United Kingdom (Scotland), the 2001 ‘teacher’s agreement’ resulted, among other things, in sharp salary increases (23 % over 3 years), revised salary scales, a broadening of in-service training opportunities, greater freedom in the area of service obligations and a decrease in the number of teacher/pupil contact hours. Similarly, in England as already indicated, the 2003 *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload* Agreement has provided for increased pay and an improvement in the working conditions of teachers, given the new pressures on them to achieve higher standards.

In Malta, the expanded range of activities undertaken by teachers has also led to better working conditions including a general rise in salaries and, in primary education, to the allocation of one-and-a-half hours a week for developing school curricula. In Lithuania too, the trade unions have negotiated both more clearly defined working conditions and a multi-annual plan for pay increases. There have been similar developments in the German-speaking Community of Belgium. At the end of February 2008, the government presented parliament with a draft decree to upgrade the teaching profession, by providing among other things for greater job security and more attractive financial prospects with a 10 % salary increase (between 2009 and 2011) for teachers at the start of their career.

Alongside these collective approaches, other countries – as already discussed above – have developed more individual incentives. In Spain, for example, subsequent reforms to the new (2006) Education Act state that the evaluation of teachers must henceforth be considered when awarding financial bonuses and promotions. In Portugal, favourable evaluations of teachers enable them both to obtain bonuses and progress more rapidly in their teaching career. In 2007 Latvia started developing a differentiated career structure under a pilot project scheduled for completion in August 2008. Teachers take part in this project on a voluntary basis either by developing one element of the structure, such as teacher self-evaluation, tasks for pupil assessment, lesson observation and evaluation, or – in the case of around 1 408 teachers from 192 schools – by contributing to approval of the structure as a whole.

*

* *

In conclusion, while evaluation has not reflected, in a consistent body of legislation, the greater range of activities performed by teachers, the gradual development of monitoring mechanisms has been clearly apparent. In an increasing number of countries, these mechanisms are concerned at one and the same time with qualified professionals both as individuals and members of school teaching staff teams, the concrete outcome of their activities, the way in which they satisfy required standards, and the quality of their performance. In accordance with the principles of ‘new public management’⁽²⁾, this overlapping of different evaluation procedures has furthered the obligation on teachers – who are no longer totally alone and in control of their classes – to be accountable for their professional activity. The recent development of evaluation on an individual basis with substantial implications in terms of remuneration, promotion and working conditions (a decrease in the time spent teaching) constitutes a fresh stage in firmer monitoring of the work that teachers do.

(2) For further information, see Eurydice (2007) School autonomy in Europe. Policies and measures.

CONCLUSIONS

The present report has focused on how the responsibilities assigned to teachers in Europe have changed over the last two decades and seeks to identify the political context driving the reforms that have occurred. It demonstrates, first of all, that fresh duties and responsibilities casting the teaching profession in a new light have grown up alongside the traditional attributes associated with it since schooling was first institutionalised in the 19th century. Beyond the walls of the classroom and the daily interaction between teachers and their pupils, the former are increasingly obliged to take part in educational activity developing within their schools. There is also a steadily growing demand on teachers to contribute actively to matters that transcend school, during the preparation of educational reforms or the development of teaching innovations.

Of course, the well-established fundamental tasks concerned with learning activity in the classroom remain the essence of teaching as an occupation. And within this sphere, the responsibilities and autonomy of teachers are very extensive. For example, in the vast majority of countries, they appear to be almost entirely responsible for the choice of teaching methods (Chapter 2). This ‘freedom of instruction’ is sometimes even enshrined in constitutional legislation as in Italy or Belgium. The room for manoeuvre of teachers tends to become broader still where the choice of teaching materials – and textbooks in particular – are concerned. Besides countries which have customarily granted teachers total freedom in this respect, such as France, Italy or Sweden, the number of countries in which they have to choose items from a predetermined list is tending to decrease. The internal continuous assessment of pupils is another task at the heart of teaching activity. In the great majority of European countries, teachers remain the prime arbiters of how their pupils are progressing with learning. In most cases, their role is similarly all-important in decisions which oblige pupils to repeat their year due to not having achieved the required level to proceed to the next class.

Alongside these traditional tasks which are mainly concerned with classroom activity and in which there is no marked interaction with other teachers at the same school, there has been a growth in the development of new responsibilities which now oblige teachers to take part in activities that go beyond the strict confines of their daily relations with their pupils. This broadening of their overall remit is attributable to many causes. The responsibilities of teachers are changing because the school context to which they belong has itself radically changed in the last 20 years.

First, decentralisation and school autonomy, which are based in part on the precepts of New Public Management, have altered the way in which schools operate⁽¹⁾ in the fields of human resources and financial management, but also in the area of learning. This new sharing of responsibilities among central government, local and regional authorities and schools is reshaping the approach to educational activity, especially when it comes to devising curricular content. Whereas in the majority of European states, central government or the top-level authorities for education (such as the *Länder* in Germany) were in the past primarily responsible for drawing up curricula, a new subdivision of responsibilities between the main players has become the norm, significantly altering the activity of teachers in the classroom and their school. In all European countries, a situation in which school curricula have been devised at central level with no input whatever from local authorities or schools has entirely given way to one in which curricular content is finalised in several stages involving schools and teachers to a significant degree. These new forms of autonomy may vary. In one model mainly characteristic of some Nordic and central European countries, the

(1) See Eurydice (2007) School Autonomy in Europe. Policies and measures.

central (or top-level) public authority sets out a general framework outlining the main features of curricular content which are then worked out in greater detail by local and regional authorities, as well as teachers in schools. In a second model – involving a goal-based curriculum – school autonomy takes a further step forward. Here, central government does not determine curricular content but, instead, identifies educational aims that should be achieved on completion of the main stages of school education, thereby leaving schools with considerable freedom to flesh out the detail in the curriculum. Countries such as the Netherlands or Sweden, typify this model. Under the current curricular guidelines, the United Kingdom (Scotland) fits the first model, but through *Curriculum for Excellence*, is moving towards the second. Finally in a third model, two entirely separate approaches coexist with, on the one hand, national curricula defined by central government for some subjects and, on the other, teaching programmes devised by local and regional authorities and schools for other subjects. In these three novel ways in which educational practice may be organised, teachers are no longer required to follow detailed centralised curricula but are obliged instead to take part in tailor-made teaching programmes meant to cater more effectively for the pupils at their school. The model of curricular standardisation, which ruled supreme from the 19th century onwards in the majority of European countries, has given way to more individual teaching programmes whose design revitalises and broadens the activity of teachers.

This new approach has a whole series of repercussions for the work of teachers. Whereas curricular standardisation formerly enabled them to teach in relative isolation, the development of new school education plans is increasing the need for teamwork. In virtually all European countries, official legislation or regulations now require teachers to collaborate in developing subject-based curricular content, interdisciplinary activities and common assessment methods.

Over and above school autonomy, compulsory education has also been assigned fresh responsibilities for quality and for socialising young people, which are reshaping the teaching profession. In contrast to the post-war years up to around 1970, in which education systems were under pressure to provide for universal access to secondary education, the issue of quality in educational provision, linked to human capital theory ⁽²⁾, as well as much tighter restrictions on expenditure, have cast education in a new light. Pupil attainment has now become a central element in the evaluation of education systems. Standardised national and international surveys of pupil skills, which were developed from the 1970s onwards, have acquired new significance. The *School effectiveness* ⁽³⁾ movement has also attached importance to the ‘teacher effect’, namely the strong relation between the individual characteristics of teachers and the quality of learning by pupils. Meanwhile, schools are also facing fresh social pressures as a result of increasingly broader access to lower secondary education, the development of the comprehensive school model in the great majority of European countries since the 1970s, the need to assimilate immigrants and new objectives for the integration of children with special educational needs.

Confronted with these latest goals – among them increased effectiveness and a reduction in inequality at school – the teaching profession has had to modernise. The emphasis placed on the quality of learning has raised fresh questions about the professional skills for which teachers should be trained. CPD (continuing professional development) is now perceived as absolutely vital (Chapter 4). Further collective action to improve the effectiveness of the education system in general and schools in particular has also become a

⁽²⁾ In outline, this theory has drawn attention to the relationship between the capacity of countries for economic development and the quality of their human resources, for which the quality of their education systems is partly responsible.

⁽³⁾ A school of research which has grown up since the 1980s and which seeks to highlight characteristics with an impact on learning that are related to the teacher, the functioning of the class and the school.

priority. Thus the need to replace absent colleagues or supervise teachers new to the profession is now taken for granted in over half of all European countries. Outside school, teachers have also become involved via broader consultation mechanisms in drawing up educational reforms, especially in the area of school curricula (Chapter 5). In addition, they have budgetary and legal parameters within which to carry out pilot projects to develop teaching innovations that ultimately enhance learning. In the last two cases, the aim is both to exploit the knowledge and skills of those active at the grass roots and to develop their involvement and motivation, through their contribution to reforms and innovative projects.

The broader range of activities incumbent upon teachers has been reflected in a revised contractual definition of their working time (Chapter 3). Whereas previously, their timetable commitments in virtually all European countries were exclusively expressed in terms of their actual teaching time (i.e. a given number of contact hours with pupils), they are now also defined in the vast majority of countries as a total amount of working time. Some countries – Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) – no longer even refer to teaching time.

The broader remit of teachers, which is clearly apparent in almost all European countries, raises questions concerned with their autonomy and accountability and the means made available for them to exercise these new responsibilities.

The first such question is how autonomous are they in this new working environment? Increasingly called upon to act in a broader range of situations, are they freer to act as they wish? Now that they are more at liberty to intervene in areas previously unfamiliar to them, has their room for manoeuvre become correspondingly broader? Paradoxically, the reply is not fully affirmative. Close observation of the power-sharing mechanisms established in the majority of countries has not revealed a direct link between the broader responsibilities of teachers and their freedom of action.

It does appear, first of all, that even if central government or the top-level authorities for education have indeed transferred some of their powers in this area to schools, a new distribution of power now emerging is contributing to increased supervision of the daily work of teachers. Decentralisation and school autonomy have led to specialisation among those involved in the field of education: central governments and the top-level authorities for education define the conceptual frameworks governing the 'rules of the game' for education systems; practitioners working in the field transform them into concrete action plans and are responsible for daily management. While, therefore, the new curricula are such that their content can be readily adjusted to local requirements in virtually all countries, compulsory curricula remain restrictive, with the majority of schools left to decide which subjects should be optional and how the timetable should be structured. In some countries, opposite trends involving the return to a more centralised curriculum may even be observed. Thus after totally liberalising the content of its curriculum, Hungary reintroduced a national curriculum in 2003. Sweden is also at present considering the appropriateness of its goal-based curriculum model which appears to result in greater inequality between schools. Similarly, even though the room for manoeuvre of schools or education providers remains considerable in countries that have long been decentralised, such as Belgium and the Netherlands, this same trend towards centralisation through insistence on new standards is clearly apparent.

Analysis of the new division of responsibilities in the area of pupil assessment (Chapter 2) leads to identical conclusions. Admittedly, teachers retain substantial daily room for manoeuvre in this area. However, their activity is increasingly guided by new frameworks. For example, while decisions about whether pupils should redo a year at school are still taken locally in virtually all countries, there are many countries, such as Belgium, Spain or France, in which this practice is now governed by national legislation aimed at limiting it. Similarly,

as regards the monitoring and evaluation of pupil attainment, new forms of external standard assessment, which are increasingly used with large samples of pupils, are seeking to impose a second round of evaluation, alongside the assessment performed by teachers. In countries in which teacher assessment is the traditional model of assessment at the end of compulsory education, the model of internal assessment is also giving way to increasingly external evaluation. In short, teachers are in charge of assessing how pupils progress from day to day, but the critical stages in educational assessment are now handled outside the school in many countries.

The oversight exercised by the national (or top-level) education authorities is also clearly felt when it comes to determining the pay and terms and conditions of employment of teachers. The decision-making powers of schools and the capacity of teachers to negotiate individually remain weak and highly restricted by the regulations promulgated by the top-level authorities, on the basis of consultation with the trade unions. The situation in Belgium, Spain, the Netherlands or certain Nordic countries such as Finland or Sweden stands in some contrast to these centralised regulations: while legislation in the field of education emanating from the national authorities does exist, the regional or local authorities or the education providers nonetheless enjoy significant room for manoeuvre in this area.

All in all, in the great majority of European countries, educational tasks in the strict sense and the management of those whose role in them is decisive – teachers – are distinct from other areas relevant to education. For example, while it has been possible to grant schools substantial autonomy in budgetary and financial matters and for local players (local authorities or schools) ⁽⁴⁾ to manage human resources unrelated to teaching, central governments or the top-level authorities for education have in the great majority of countries retained their grip on the strategic responsibility for education and teaching as such, mainly by laying down the framework in which they must occur. In those particular fields and in the management of teachers themselves, with few exceptions, local authorities and schools do not determine any local policy but are active in policy implementation. Since school autonomy is highly restricted, the room for manoeuvre of teachers is necessarily limited.

Besides the existence of national regulations, the individual freedom of teachers in performing their new duties is also limited daily by a new collective ethos among teachers and various forms of supervision that schools have to exercise. Indeed, close analysis of the new responsibilities exercised by teachers reveals that, in the majority of countries, they have been allocated not so much to individual teachers as to the entire teaching staff team, either separately or together with the school head. As regards school education plans, continuous assessment, the choice of teaching methods or the selection of textbooks, the growth of internal coordination mechanisms at schools is in practice very substantially limiting the freedom of teachers in educational matters and conferring a new role in educational leadership on school heads.

The second question raised by the expanding remit of teachers is concerned with the relation between their broader responsibilities and their accountability (Chapter 6). Is there a link between the increase in their duties and the frequency of checks on how they perform them? Is there a correlation between the degree to which they are autonomous and certain evaluation mechanisms? The analysis undertaken in the present report provides some insight into these matters. First, the mechanisms for evaluating teachers have rarely been developed at exactly the same time as the range of their activities has broadened. Except in the case of a few countries, there is no direct link in legislation between teachers' new responsibilities and the supervision and monitoring of activity. That said, the development of accountability mechanisms with a time lag is apparent. These kinds of evaluation assume a variety of forms that appear unrelated to the real increase

⁽⁴⁾ For further information, see Eurydice (2007), op. cit.

in the responsibilities of teachers. Results-based evaluation, self-evaluation and inspections etc. are developing in circumstances that vary widely in terms of autonomy and responsibility.

However, there are examples of situations running counter to this tendency to monitor and evaluate teaching activity. For instance, Finland has been characterised both by very strong curricular autonomy delegated to local and regional authorities and schools, and the total lack of individual or collective external mechanisms for teacher evaluation since its inspectorate was abolished at the beginning of the 1990s. The process in which teachers have assumed broader responsibilities has not therefore always been accompanied by the extension of external evaluation.

The relation between the attributes and responsibilities of teachers and the growth of incentives is even less clear. The evidence of this study points to the striking weakness at present of policies to support teachers in the area under consideration. The broader range of tasks undertaken by them have not always led to an improvement in their working conditions in all countries. Admittedly, some countries have introduced schemes for individual or collective salary increases or for improving working conditions in the profession by (for example) limiting the amount of teaching time. But such measures are far from universal. Furthermore, these incentives have not been in proportion to the growth in the responsibilities of teachers. As a result of the capacity of teachers to mobilise en masse, the likelihood that they may retire in large numbers (with a consequent need to boost the attractiveness of the profession), and the findings of surveys on their low level of motivation, there has been a widespread introduction of incentives.

Neither do the means placed at the disposal of teachers for carrying out these new responsibilities always match the tasks they have to perform. There appears to be a significant disparity at present between official requirements, what exercising new responsibilities really means in practice, and the resources made available to achieve the aims concerned. The case of teamwork – especially as it relates to the development of school education plans – is noteworthy. While virtually all European countries have now included in their legislation an obligation to determine curricular content, assessment procedures, and interdisciplinary activity on the basis of teamwork, very few have provided any means specifically designed to facilitate this novel form of organisation. It remains uncommon for further time to be allocated specifically for teachers to coordinate their activity, or for special premises to be made available for teamwork. In many countries, CPD also symbolises this incongruity between formal requirements, what actually occurs in practice and the means made available. While the great majority of countries consider that CPD should now be an integral part of the professional duties of teachers (Chapter 4), this requirement is not compulsory in all cases, or linked to a given number of hours or a special budget. Apparently therefore, a great many countries that have already identified these new teaching responsibilities and then their corresponding evaluation mechanisms, now have to consider how best to implement them and the further measures required for this purpose.

The present mismatch between the greater range of activities undertaken by teachers, policies to support them and provide them with incentives, and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, is indicative of a particular approach to the development of education policies. In the majority of countries, all these measures are the outcome of many different laws that have gradually accumulated without any consistent overall strategy to underpin them. Comprehensive plans to define and upgrade the status and working conditions of teachers have only finally been drawn up after the foregoing measures have been tested in the field in the face of individual or collective resistance on the part of teachers, clear signs that teacher morale is low, or difficulty in recruiting suitably qualified persons. Some countries such as Spain, Lithuania, Portugal and the United Kingdom, have pointed the way forward. France is also considering an overhaul of the working conditions of teachers. Other countries, such as Finland, have upgraded their working conditions and pay

and then developed methods of local governance to expand their remit smoothly without encountering strong opposition. In short, in 2008 education policies to determine the status, working conditions and responsibilities of teachers are apparently still in a state of flux and far from consolidated in many European countries.

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

Key codes

- : Data not available
- (-) Not applicable

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	Fig. 2.1a		Fig. 2.2a		Fig. 2.3a		Fig. 2.4a		Fig. 2.5a		Fig. 2.6a		Fig. 2.7a		F. 2.8a
	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 2												
BE fr ⁽¹⁾	3	3	1 a	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	(-)
BE fr ⁽²⁾	3	3	1 a	2 e	1 a	1 c	1 c	1 c	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	(-)
BE de ⁽¹⁾	3	3	(-)	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	(-)
BE de ⁽²⁾	3	3	(-)	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	(-)
BE nl	3	3	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 b
BG	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 c	1 c	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	3
CZ	1 b	1 b	(-)	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 c	1 c	1 a	1 a	(-)
DK	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	2 e	2 e	3
DE	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	3
EE	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3
IE	2 e	2 b	(-)	2 e	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	3	1 b	3
EL	3	3	3	3	3	1 a	3	3	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	1 a
ES	3	3	(-)	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 e	2 e	(-)
FR	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d	1 b	1 b	3
IT	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a
CY	3	3	3	3	1 a	1 a	3	3	1 a	1 a	2 d	2 d	3	1 a	1 a
LV	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	3	3	3
LT	2 e	2 e	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	3
LU	3	2 d	(-)	1 b	1 a	1 a	3	2 e	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	3	3	3
HU	2 d	2 d	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 a	(-)
MT	3	3	(-)	(-)	1 a	1 a	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	2 d	2 d	3
NL	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3
AT	3	3	3	2 d	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	(-)
PL	3	3	2 d	2 d	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3
PT	3	3	3	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	2 e	2 e	1 b	1 b	2 e	2 e	1 b
RO	3	3	1 c	1 c	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3
SI	3	3	2 e	2 e	1 b	1 b	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	(-)
SK	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	(-)
FI	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	4	4	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	(-)
SE	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	(-)
UK ⁽¹⁾	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	1 a	1 a	3
UK-NIR	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	2 e	2 e	3
UK-SCT	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 b	1 b	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3
IS	3	3	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 b	1 c	1 c	3
LI	3	3	3	1 b	1 b	1 b	3	3	1 a	1 a	2 e	2 e	(-)	2 d	3
NO	3	3	1 c	1 c	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	1 a	3	3	3

UK⁽¹⁾ = UK-ENG/WLS

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note (Figures 2.1a to 2.8a)

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.

Key

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

Local authorities may delegate their decision-making powers to schools and the situation varies from one municipality to another.

(-) Not applicable

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