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ABSTRACT

Education in European countries has been characterized by a tendency toward decentralization and deregulation. The Dutch ministry of Education commissioned the University of Twente to perform a comparative study of actual and future shifts in tasks, responsibilities, and authority in education in several European countries. This book presents findings of that research. The study also tried to provide more insight into the appropriateness of certain research methods in laying a foundation for structural comparisons of the Dutch education system with other countries. England/Wales, Flanders (Belgium), Lower Saxony (Germany), the Netherlands, North Rhine Westphalia (Germany), Portugal, and Sweden participated in the study. Data were derived from a survey of and interviews with a government department policy planning officer and one or two educational experts from each country. Following the introduction, chapter 2 provides a conceptual basis for deregulation and decentralization. Chapter 3 explains the rationale behind the selection of the seven participating countries and states. An overview of the existing decision-making structures of the seven countries and states is presented in the fourth chapter. The factual basis for functional and territorial decentralization, based on questionnaire data, is illustrated in the fifth chapter. Chapter 6 offers a detailed description of the present decision-making structures and the major changes that have taken place, based on interview data. Related policy issues from the respondents' perspectives are described in chapter 7. The final chapter presents overall conclusions, a methodological reflection, and recommendations for future international comparative research. Annexes contain an overview of the structure of primary and lower secondary education systems, copies of the questionnaire and interview guide, and a list of respondents. Fourteen tables and one figure are included. (Contains 31 references.) (LMI)

Decentralization in Education in an International Perspective

H.W.C.H. van Amelsvoort J. Scheerens E.M. Branderhorst US DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION Office of Educational Research and Improvement EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

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DECENTRALIZATION IN EDUCATION IN AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

H.W.C.H. van Amelsvoort J. Scheerens E.M. Branderhorst

University of Twente Faculty of Educational Science and Technology Department of Educational Administration



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PREFACE

In recent years there has been a tendency towards decentralization and deregulation in European societies. These processes can also be witnessed in the field of education.

As international developments and experiences are increasingly taken into account when developing national policies, the Dutch Ministry of Education commissioned the University of Twente to perform a comparative study on actual and future shifts in tasks, responsibilities and authority in education in some European countries, especially in neighbouring countries.

A second aim of this study is to try and provide more insight into the appropriateness of certain research methods in laying a foundation for structural comparisons of (aspects of) the Dutch education system with those of the neighbouring countries and states in the future.

England/Wales, Flanders (Belgium), Lower Saxony (Germany), the Netherlands, North Rhine Westphalia (Germany), Portugal and Sweden participated in this investigation.

We would like to thank the representatives of these countries and states for the pleasant and cooperative way in which they provided us with the necessary information.

Enschede, November 1995

Gonnie van Amelsvoort Jaap Scheerens Martien Branderhorst



| CONTENTS Paj | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | i age | | | | | | | |
| Chapter 1 Introduction | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 1.1 Objectives | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 1.2 Outline | 2 | | | | | | | |
| Chapter 2 Conceptual basis | 3 | | | | | | | |
| 2.1 Functional and territorial decentralization | 3 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2 Policy issues surrounding decentralization | 5 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.1 Budget control | 6 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.2 Less red tape | 6 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.3 Responsiveness to local communities | 7 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.4 Creative human resources management and potential for innovation | 7 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.5 Accountability | 8 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.6 Quality | 8 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.7 Equity | 8 | | | | | | | |
| 2.2.8 Scale | 9 | | | | | | | |
| Chapter 3 Research design | 11 | | | | | | | |
| 3.1 Selection of countries and states | 11 | | | | | | | |
| 3.2 Instrumentation | 11 | | | | | | | |
| 3.3 Data-collection and analysis | 12 | | | | | | | |
| Chapter 4 Decision-making structure in seven countries/states | 13 | | | | | | | |
| 4.1 Existing levels of authority | 13 | | | | | | | |
| 4.2 Decision-making structure per country/state | 15 | | | | | | | |
| 4.3 Concluding remarks on existing decision-making structure | 24 | | | | | | | |
| Chapter 5 Locus and modus of decision making | 27 | | | | | | | |
| 5.1 Introduction | 27 | | | | | | | |
| 5.2 Decisions taken at different levels of governance | 28 | | | | | | | |
| 5.3 Domains of decision making | 30 | | | | | | | |
| 5.4 Modes of decision making | 32 | | | | | | | |
| 5.5 Levels consulted in decision making | 34 | | | | | | | |
| 5.6 Levels that set frameworks for decision making | 35 | | | | | | | |
| 5.7 Concluding remarks on factual basis for decentralization | 36 | | | | | | | |
| Chapter 6 Changes in decision-making structure | 39 | | | | | | | |
| 6.1 Major changes over the past five years | 39 | | | | | | | |
| 6.2 Changes in the Organization of instruction and Curriculum domain | 45 | | | | | | | |
| 6.3 Changes in the Resources and Personnel management domain | 48 | | | | | | | |
| 6.4 Concluding remarks on changes in the decision-making structure | 52 | | | | | | | |



| | | Page |
|--------------------------------|---|----------|
| Chapter 7 | Policy issues surrounding deregulation and decentralization | 55 |
| 7.1 G | oals | 55 |
| 7.2 E | ffects | 59 |
| 7.3 H | armful side-effects | 62 |
| 7.4 S | chool size | 66 |
| 7.5 C | oncluding remarks on policy issues | 67 |
| Chapter 8 | Conclusions and discussion | 69 |
| 8.1 S | ummary and conclusions | 69 |
| 8.2 M | lethodological reflection and discussion | 77 |
| References | | 79 |
| Annexes: 1. Structu 2. Instrum | re of primary and lower secondary education systems ents: - Questionnaire decision making - Questionnaire interview | 83 91 |
| 3. List of | respondents | 93 |
| Abbreviatio | ns: | |
| ENG E | ngland and Wales | |
| FLA F | landers, Belgium | |
| | ower Saxony, Germany | |
| NET T | he Netherlands | |
| NOW N | orth Rhine Westphalia. Germany | |
| POR P | ortugal | |
| SWE S | weden | |
| | nternational Standard Classification of Education | |
| (l | evel 1 = primary education; level 2 = lower secondary education) | |



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter a brief introduction of the four objectives of this study is presented. The contents of the report are outlined in section 1.2 in shortened form.

1.1 Objectives

The general objective of this study is to compare European countries and regions according to the degree of deregulation in the relationships between administrative layers of the overall education system. In many countries the patterns of distribution of authority within the education system have been shifting in recent years. Relatively speaking, regulations from higher levels become less important when units at lower levels obtain more autonomy. Equally, deregulation with respect to the way in which higher levels control lower levels enhances the flexibility and freedom of lower-level functionaries in carrying out their tasks. Thus deregulation appears to be closely entwined with decentralization or devolution of authority. The first objective of this study is therefore to provide clarification with respect to the concepts of deregulation and decentralization.

The second objective will be a further operationalization of our solution to the conceptual question mentioned in the above. An important part of our solution being the construct of "functional decentralization" (Bray, 1994) which implies that decentralization will be taken as a multi-dimensional concept. The operationalization will be used as a basis for the choice of an available instrument for making an inventory of the patterns of decision making across nations and states (OECD, 1995).

The third objective of the study is to use the available data gathered with this instrument as a base-line description of functional decentralization in the selected countries and states (reflecting the situation in 1992). A shortened version of the instrument will be administered in all countries and states to obtain up-to-date information. For those countries on which data was obtained in 1992 the developments will be traced by comparing the outcomes for 1992 with those reflecting the current (1995) state of affairs.

The fourth objective is to obtain information on policy issues related to deregulation and devolution of authority in education. In pursuing this objective, the following topics will be used as the basis for information-gathering among relevant respondents in each of the participating countries and states:

- efficiency or cost-effectiveness
- flexibility (less red-tape or shifts in red-tape)
- responsiveness to local communities, issues of choice, and control by market forces
- creative human resources management
- accountability
- equity
- scale
- innovation potential of schools



1.2 Outline

The results of the empirical study will be summarized in a number of chapters which are merely descriptive and a chapter that is more evaluative (from the perspective of each of the participating countries/states themselves) and in which the issues listed above will be used as a general framework.

Chapter two provides a conceptual basis for deregulation and decentralization. Deregulation can take different shapes but often it comes close to vertical decentralization. A distinction is made between functional decentralization, referring to the domains of decision making in education systems and territorial decentralization, referring to the locus and the mode of decision making.

In many countries decentralization processes are surrounded by common policy aims. Therefore an investigation was undertaken of policy issues like 1) efficiency in terms of budget control and the bureaucratization, 2) the quality of education in terms of improved performance and accountability, 3) professionalization of schools in terms of creative human resources management, potential for innovation and responsiveness to local communities, 4) equity, and 5) scale.

In chapter three, the rationale behind the selection of the seven participating countries and states is explained. In addition, a description is given of both the instruments used for data-collection and the method of data analysis.

The results of the data-collection lead to an overview of the existing decision-making structure of the seven countries and states which is presented in chapter four.

The factual basis for functional and territorial decentralization, as 't was assessed through the OECD/INES questionnaire, is illustrated in chapter five.

Subsequently, a detailed description of the present decision-making structure and the major changes that have taken place in this area are given in chapter six. This information was based on interviews with government officials from the participating countries/states.

A more evaluative consideration of decentralization is presented in chapter seven, in which a description of the related policy issues is given from the perspective of the respondents.

In chapter eight overall conclusions are drawn, a methodological reflection is given and some recommendations for future international comparative research on education systems are presented.



CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL BASIS

A conceptual basis for deregulation and decentralization is given in this chapter. The constructs of functional and territorial decentralization are explained. Further, some policy issues surrounding processes of centralization and decentralization are presented.

2.1 Functional and territorial decentralization

"Deregulation" can be defined in a narrow and in a broader sense. Literally, deregulation means a diminishing of regulations. In more technical terms, used from organizational theory, one could say that in a narrow sense deregulation means less formalization (i.e. the use of official "written" rules to determine the functioning of organizations; Kieser & Kubicek, 1977, p. 138). In theory, deregulation in this narrow sense of fewer written regulations could leave the existing distribution of authority among administrative levels intact. However, in educational policy discourse deregulation is often given a broader meaning. A recent policy document from the Dutch Ministry of Education (O&W, 1994) states that deregulation of the education system implies a concentration on the constitutional core tasks of the state and the creation of conditions to ensure that schools have maximum responsibility for their own functioning. When used in this sense deregulation appears to come close to vertical decentralization, that is the devolution of formal decision-making authority to lower levels in the hierarchy. So, when deregulation involves, even less formal, steps to give more leeway to lower administrative levels (a phenomenon that is occurring in many countries nowadays) it makes sense not just to study "formalization" but also devolution of authority in the sense of vertical decentralization.

In order to be complete it should be noted that deregulation (in its broader connotation) can take different shapes than just giving more autonomy to lower levels (cf. Van Wieringen, 1994). In a multi-layer hierarchy the highest level could abstain from directly controlling the lowest level (e.g. the school) but instead restrain its control to an intermediary level (e.g. the municipality). Such an arrangement would be likely to diminish the total amount of regulations (unless of course the intermediary level were to increase direct control through formal regulations).

A second alternative form of deregulation might involve giving authority to a body outside the sphere of public administration like a parent-teacher representative body, thus enhancing parents' choice in educational matters.

Having established that the most fruitful angle from which to study current shifts in decision making authority in education systems is that of employing a broader concept of deregulation, closely related to vertical decentralization, a further refinement in the conceptualization is required. What we see happening in many systems, e.g. the UK, Australia. Canada, is a restructuring of the education system in the sense that in some domains authority is given to the school (e.g. in the area of teaching methods), whereas in other domains centralized measures are taken (e.g. a national curriculum, or a national assessment programme). So, the subject of this study could best be defined in terms of "patterns" of distribution of authority, in which different domains of decision making are taken into account. When treating decision making in education systems as a multi-facetted concept, the term "functional decentralization" is appropriate. According to Bray (1994)



Meuret et al. (1995)

pedagogical organization

- passing to higher grade
- length of schooling time
- selection school books
- grouping of pupils
- org. of remedial activities
- teaching methods
- choice evaluation methods

planning structures

- creation & suppression of schools
- creation & suppression of classes
- selection of study orientation
- selection of courses
- selection of discipline's concept
- exam format
- granting of diplomas

human resources

- assignment of students to schools
- hiring or dismissal of staff
- conditions of staff work
- fixing level of staff salary
- · influence on the career of the staff

resources

- attribution of resources
- · internal deployment of resources

James (1991)

regulations of physical facilities

- · schools must register
- health and safety standards
- standards concerning space and furniture
- · target enrollments related to facilities

academic regulations

- curriculum
- degree requirements
- calendar and timetable
- (national) exams
- specification medium of instruction

teachers and students

- specification salaries and qualifications
- criteria for hiring & firing of teachers
- budget allocations (teachers, other inputs)
- control of fees
- level of expenditure per student
- criteria for selecting students
- government representatives in school-board

decisions generally reserved for schools

- selection of specific teachers
- selection of specific students
- teaching methods
- religious instruction

Bacharach et al. (1990)

operational-organizational

- performance evaluation
- student discipline
- standard test policies
- grading policies
- reporting procedures
- student rights

operational-personal

- what to teach
- how to teach
- books available
- · books used

strategic-organizational

- facilities planning
- budget development
- · expenditure priorities
- staff hiring

strategic-personal

- school assignment
- class assignment

Leune (1994)

educational domain

- ed. processes
- ed. outcomes

administrative org. domain

- structure
- management
- organization

goals and mission

school mission

personnel management

- salaries
- delineation of tasks
- professional standards
- biring & firing

resources

- housing facilities
- freedom in spending budget
- financial administration

Winkler (1989)

school organization

curriculum & teaching methods

examinations and supervision

teacher recruitment and compensation

finance of recurrent expenditures

school construction and finance

11

Figure 1: Classification of decision areas in education systems



functional decentralization means the dispersal of control over particular activities. Having established the usefulness of the concept of functional decentralization, the next step in the conceptual analysis is to present a taxonomy of the most relevant areas or domains of decision making in education. In fact various categorizations are available in the literature. Figure 1 presents a schematic overview. The common core of domains of decision making in these classifications consist of:

- a) an educational dimension (goals, methods, evaluation procedures);
- b) on organizational, managerial, administrative dimension (excluding personnel management) (groupings and assignments, foundational regulations);
- c) a dimension concerning finance and the way financial resources are distributed.

Territorial decentralization (Bray, 1994, p. 819) is concerned with the "distribution of powers between tiers of government". In fact the concept of territorial decentralization as coined by Bray encloses two different dimensions:

- a) the locus of decision making, that is it identifies which tier or administrative level has decision-making authority;
- b) the mode of decision making, which distinguishes between degrees to which these administrative levels are completely autonomous in taking decisions, or in some way share decision making authority with other levels.

The distinction that is made between *delegation* and *devolution* speaks to the latter dimension. In a delegated system decision making powers "still basically rest with the central authority, which has chosen to 'lend' them to a local one". In some countries the term 'mandating' is used for delegation of powers. In case of devolution "powers are formally held by local bodies" (ibid, p. 819).

In this way a three-dimensional framework concerning the dispersion of decision making can be induced:

can be induced: functional decentralization¹: which domains of decision making in education systems can be

discerned

territorial decentralization: what is the locus of decision making, i.e. the dispersion over

administrative levels

what is the *mode* of decision making in the sense of the degree of autonomy with which a particular level decides

The conceptual framework that was made explicit in this chapter was used as the basis for choosing an instrument to gather descriptive data on patterns of distribution of authority across education systems (Meuret et al., 1995).

2.2 Policy issues surrounding functional decentralization

It is quite clear from the international literature on educational administration and school effectiveness that "restructuring" of the patterns of decision making authority within the education system is taking place in many countries (see for example, Townsend, 1995; Leithwood et al., 1995; Meuret et al., 1995).



It has to be mentioned that in the Netherlands a different meaning is given to these terms. Functional decentralization refers to devolution of powers to schoolboards, while territorial decentralization refers to devolution of powers to local authorities.

Although it would not do justice to the variation between countries to speak of a general pattern, there nevertheless appear to be common policy aims related to these restructuring policies. Budget control, less "red-tape", responsiveness of schools to the demands of the local community, creative human resource management, accountability, quality and increasing the innovatory potential of schools are among the criteria that are used to undergird these restructuring activities. At the same time, "side effects" like implications with respect to equity, and connected policy issues like debates about the scale of educational institutes should be considered too.

2.2.1 Budget control

In many industrialized countries retrenchment policies with respect to the public sector are being pursued. One way of keeping expenditure on education under control is to give more responsibility to lower administrative levels, in particular school-boards and schools, to ensure they keep within the limits of the budget. Some authors (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991) have mockingly described this as the "devolution of blame". It is interesting to register to what extent restructuring is indeed taking place in order to enhance cost-effectiveness in education, as stated in the official policy, and to what degree this objective is actually being reached.

2.2.2 Less red tape

According to Crowson & Morris (1985) elementary school leaders in a Chicago school district, at that time, spent no less than 36 per cent of their working time on dealing with regulations and official requirements. Their colleagues at the secondary level needed even 47 per cent of their working time for these activities. "Lump sum" financing of schools is an example of deregulation in the area of financial resources management.

Instead of having to account for each and every purchase, schools just have to manage to do their job within the limits of the overall school budget. (Of course this deregulation effect becomes strongly diminished if schools have to provide very detailed information to the government to enable it to fix the level of lump sum!). A phenomenon that has been observed in other sectors of society is that when deregulation and devolution of authority is practiced by the national government, an intermediary level body may step in and take over the formal regulative activities. so that "red-tape" just travels from one level to the next.

Ideally deregulation would free time and energy for school managers, which they then could spend on activities that are thought to be instrumental to quality and responsiveness. On the other hand, as in the example of lump sum financing, school managers are given additional responsibilities in the area of resources management; time that will thus not be available to be dedicated to instructional leadership.

To summarize, one could say that "debureaucratization" can be attained by the following measures:

- lump sum financing (which usually goes together with vertical decentralization);
- a diminishing of rules and formal regulations (de-formalization);
- globalization of regulations, for instance by using so called "frame-laws";
- simplification of the decision-making structure by abolishing a particular educational level. When using the phrase diminishing of "red tape", the associated organizational inefficiency of strongly regulated administrative control is referred to. Apart from a diminishing of regulation changes in the incentive structure, by means of enhancing market mechanisms, it is usually seen as a way of creating more efficiency. This approach is evident in applications



of public choice theory.

2.2.3 Responsiveness to local communities

To the degree that schools are less the object of control by a higher administrative level there will be more opportunities to adapt school policies to the demands of the local situation. In primary and secondary schools parents, who could be regarded as responsible for the "consumers" of education, are the most important demanding party. In vocational education the local business world could also be seen as fulfilling this role.

The most straightforward plea for school autonomy and freedom of choice is made by Chubb & Moe (1990), who also present empirical evidence showing that autonomy enhances school effectiveness. The validity of their conclusions based on secondary analysis of the High School and Beyond data set are contested, however (Witte, 1990; Scheerens, 1995). Hirsch's (1994) treatment of the advantages and disadvantages of choice of schools shows more nuances. According to Hirsch, autonomy could only be expected to enhance school effectiveness indirectly, namely to the degree that competition is likely to stimulate schools to develop strong leadership, a sense of mission and more parent involvement. At the same time "choice" is bound to enlarge inequalities in education, also in the sense that autonomy of schools will make it more difficult to monitor system-wide educational policies concerning performance standards.

Lack of control with respect to curriculum and standards for primary and secondary schools is also the major disadvantage that Leune (1994) sees with respect to autonomy in the area of the primary process of education.

As in many education systems, deregulation and decentralization towards more autonomous schools is a rather partial affair in which more autonomy in certain domains is paired with more centralized control in other areas. What effects are likely to follow from such mixed policies is an interesting issue for debate and empirical research. Would it be possible, for instance, to increase parental influence and choice, while at the same time implementing a national curriculum? Also, it should be noted that the balance between centralized control and school autonomy is likely to be valued differently for different educational levels (primary, secondary, vocational and higher education).

2.2.4 Creative human resources management and potential for innovation

The existence of national standards of minimum quality, with consequences for both the effectiveness and equity of the system, is not generally considered as a controversial point. Aspects like salary levels, opportunities for promotion, hiring and firing of teachers, teacher appraisal are more controversial. To the degree that schools are part of the public administration, these aspects are generally highly regulated. Regulations in this area are also likely to be scrutinized and defended by teacher unions. However, considering the vital importance of teacher quality for school effectiveness (see e.g. Luyten & Snijders, 1995; Hirsch, 1994), some people expect that more managerial control in this area would give schools more leverage in improving performance. Task differentiation and increased career options for teachers are also considered important to keep teachers' motivation going and prevent "burn out".

Schools perceived as "professional bureaucracies" are depicted as very conservative, "hard to change" organizations (Mintzberg, 1979). Providing schools with more autonomy and stimulating "self-management" could be seen as a way to make them more innovative.



Depending on the particular emphasis given to certain domains when functional decentralization takes place, there will be appeals to be innovative in various aspects of school functioning. One hypothesis, for instance, could be that a lot of the innovation capacity of schools will be concentrated in the areas of financial management, when it is particularly in this area that deregulation and decentralization of authority take place, while there would be virtually no innovation with respect to the primary process of teaching and learning (Scheerens, 1983).

2.2.5 Accountability

Particularly when devolution policies take the shape of a "freeing process" while at the same time sharpening output control, accountability is an important and probably controversial aspect of these policies. Chubb and Moe (1990) are quite adamant in pointing out that accountability requirements cannot be reconciled and are in fact detrimental to the ideals of choice and market control. It is a very interesting question for empirical research to investigate how combinations like this work out in practice, and to what extent ideals of greater school autonomy can still be meaningful, even though the primary process of education is centrally controlled through national curriculum frameworks, standards and assessment programmes. Specific foci of attention in such studies should be the "bureaucratic" side-effects of accountability regulations as well as the political reactions of schools when the stakes of "looking good" on performance assessments are high (cf. Beaton, 1992).

2.2.6 Quality

Two opposing hypotheses can be formulated with respect to the expected impact of increased autonomy of schools on average performance:

- a) autonomy will lead to improved performance through mechanisms like a clear mission, more pronounced leadership and greater parental involvement;
- b) autonomy, particularly with respect to curriculum and instruction, will, on average, lead to lower performance, due to the lack of a common educational core and monitoring of national standards; also autonomy could make the coordination between educational levels (e.g. primary and secondary) more difficult which could also lead to lower overall performance.

Mixed policies (free processes, monitor outcomes) might be seen as trying to have the best of both worlds, although here the question arises to what extent such policies are successfully and harmoniously being implemented, rather than one perspective dominating the other.

2.2.7 Equity

With respect to the devolution of authority to schools the ideal of greater responsiveness of autonomous schools can be extended to the notion of being responsive to the special needs of pupils (Crump, 1994), including the special needs of "low income, minority, single-parent and other excluded groups".

On the other hand, one might fear that choice and autonomy would actually enlarge inequalities because schools might become stimulated to select a high intake of more advantaged pupils, whereas middle-class parents could be expected to make better use of information provided to schools than lower-class parents (Scheerens, De Rijcke & Korevaar, 1991). In fact this latter contention is supported by empirical evidence from the UK, Gerwitz, Bowe and Ball (1994) report the following findings:



- "1. The market is a middle-class mode of social engagement.
- 2. Parental choice of schools is class- and race-informed.
- 3. Schools are increasingly oriented towards meeting the perceived demands of middle-class parents.
- 4. The cumulative impact of findings 1-3 is the "decomprehensivization" of secondary schooling."

Apparently, without specific compensatory incentives provided from some central source, calculating parents and calculating schools will jointly work towards a more segregated system when schools have to operate as competing firms.

2.2.8 Scale

More choice and autonomy in schooling could be expected to give rise to smaller, specialized units. On the other hand, a certain scale might be considered necessary to provide a diversified set of curricular offerings in a way that can still be efficient. Also, it is sometimes maintained that schools need a certain scale to be able to function as responsive, professional organizations. It is quite interesting to evaluate and see how different education systems combine or do not combine policies with respect to increased autonomy and increased size of schools.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

Chapter three provides a description of the research design. After a short introduction to the selection of the participating countries/states, the selection and development of the research instruments are described. Next, the methods used for data-collection and analysis are explained.

3.1 Selection of Countries and States

In view of the Dutch policy to cooperate in education with the neighbouring states of Flanders, Nord Rhine Westphalia and Lower Saxony, these three states were selected for the study. In addition England/Wales, Sweden and Portugal were selected as countries in which different priorities are given to shifts in functional decentralization.

3.2 Instrumentation

The instrumentation of this study encompassed three methods: 1) literature search, 2) data collection by means of a questionnaire, and 3) a semi-structured interview.

A first image of the existing decision-making structure was drawn up based on information that emerged from a literature search on existing international education systems. This description was submitted to the respondents and updated by them. A further refinement of the description of the country-specific decision-making structure was made possible by using the additional information that was provided by the respondents during the interviews.

The factual basis for functional decentralization within the selected countries or states was assessed by means of the instrument developed in the OECD-CERI-INES-project. An adaptation of the instrument, in terms of minor changes in the set of questions, a changed response format and re-edited guidelines are presented in Annex 2. Basically the instrument consists of a three-dimensional grid, the dimensions being:

- domains of decision making (four main domains are considered: "organization of instruction", "planning structures", "personnel management" and "resources", each domain is represented by 7-12 items.
- levels of decision making (four levels are distinguished: the school, a first intermediary level that is closest to the school, a second intermediary level that is closest to the central government and the central level).
- modes of decision making (three modes are identified): full autonomy at a certain level; jointly or in consultation with another level; and freely, but within a framework decided at a more central level.

Respondents completed the questions in which, for each of the 35 items, they indicated at which level a particular decision is taken and what mode of decision making is applicable.

In order to get an impression of the dynamics concerning functional decentralization in each country/state and also to make an inventory of the perspective with respect to the related policy issues, a semi-structured interview was administered to two or three respondents per country/state. These couples consisted in most cases of a policy-planning officer from a government department and one or two external educational experts.



The main topics for the semi-structured interviews were:

- major changes that may have taken place in the educational decision-making structure over the last five years;
- the major motives/goals of educational policies concerning functional centralization and decentralization, in terms of quality enhancement, efficiency, equity, more professional schools, responsiveness of education, and less red tape;
- indications of the effects of these policies in relation to their goals;
- indications of side-effects of policies in terms of shifting red tape, loosening of standards, poor vertical coordination of curricula, neglect of primary process in comparison to attention for management and organization, more elitist system;
- the degree to which policies related to the above issues are geared to policy measures with respect to scale.

3.3 Data-collection and analysis

A brief sketch of each of the education systems was made on the basis of studying the relevant literature and documents available from the participating countries. This description was updated based on additional information from the respondents. The decision-making structure of each country/state is presented in chapter four.

The procedure followed in administering the locus of the decision questionnaire consisted of a written procedure in which two or more respondents per country/state completed the questionnaire and tried to reach consensus about the answers to be given to the questions. In this way a national response format was made available. This response format was discussed and analyzed in a face-to-face session with interviewers from the University of Twente, as a check on the standardization of interpretation of items across countries/states.

The data gathered was analyzed by means of the procedure which was used in the OECD-CERI-INES project. By using the same procedure, changes could be analyzed for those countries in which data from the 1992 administering of the decision-making survey is available (Sweden and Portugal).

Each of the decision domains was given equal weight and the items were calculated to give equal importance to each of the four domains. The weight of a given level in the decision-making structure is x per cent on the basis of a system of calculation whereby 25 per cent is allocated to each of the four domains. This 25 per cent is equally divided between each of the items making up the field. The weight of a single decision (or item) depends therefore on the number of items included in the domain to which it belongs. The weights are as follows:

| - organization of instruction: | 1/8 |
|---|------|
| - personnel management: | 1/12 |
| - curriculum (planning and structures): | 1/8 |
| - resources: | 1/7 |

The semi-structured interview was administered to couples of respondents in each country/state by interviewers of the University of Twente. Countries were informed about the issues to be addressed beforehand. The protocols of the interviews were summarized in qualitative country/state reports. Information resulting from these interviews is presented in chapters six and seven.



CHAPTER 4

DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURE IN SEVEN COUNTRIES/STATES

In this chapter information is presented on the existing decision-making structure in the investigated countries/states. First a four-level framework showing an overview of the various decision-making authorities is depicted. In addition, a country-specific description of levels and domains of decision making is given. The chapter ends with a brief summary and comparison of the existing educational decision-making structure in the seven countries/states.

4.1 Existing levels of authority

In this section a description of the decision-making structure for public education in each country or state is given. Attention is paid to the decision-making authority in a country at various levels as well as to the mode and the domains of decision making. In table 4.1 an overview of the existing bodies of authority at four levels is given. These levels have been specified as follows: 1) School level. This level includes any decision maker at school level, including teachers, head teachers and parents.

Table 4.1 Educational authority levels for public primary and lower secondary education

| School level | 1 | Lower intermediate level | Upper intermediate level | Central | | | | |
|----------------------|------|--|--|---|--|--|--|--|
| Primary education | ENG: | Local Education Authority | (School Examinations and Assessment Council) | England/Wales | | | | |
| | FLA | Organizing body: ARGO / In-ichtende macht | - | - Community: Flanders - Belgium | | | | |
| | LJS | - Municipality: Gemeinde/ Landkreis - Governing body: Schul- aufsichtamt | Region: Bezirksregierung | - State: Lower Saxony - Germany | | | | |
| | NET | - Municipality as governing authority (school-board) for publicly-run schools: Gemeente als schoolbestuur | - Municipality as local authority: Gemeente als lokale overheid - (Province) | the Netherlands | | | | |
| | NOW | - Municipality: Gemeinde - Governing body: Schulanit | Region Bezirksregierung | - State: North Rhine Westphalia - Germany | | | | |
| | POR' | Municipality: Autarquia | Regional Directorates of Edu- cation: Dir. Regional de Educação | Portugal | | | | |
| | SWE | Municipality: Kommun Local Education Authority | - | Sweden | | | | |



| School leve | | Lower intermediate level | Upper intermediate level | Central | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|--|---|---|--|--|--|
| Seconda- ENG ¹ ry educa- | | Local Education Authority | (School Examinations and Assessment Council) | England/Wales | | | |
| tiOn | FLA ² | Organizing body: ARGO / Inrichtende macht | - | - Community: Flanders - Belgium | | | |
| | LOS | - Municipality: Gemeinde/ Landkreis - Governing body: Schulaufsichtsamt ³ | Region: Bezirksregierung | - State: Lower Saxony - Germany | | | |
| | NET - Municipality as governing authority (school-board) for publicly-run schools: Gemeente als schoolbestuur | | - Municipality as local authority: Gemeente als lokale overheid - (Province) | the Netherlands | | | |
| | NOW | - Municipality: Gemeinde - Governing body: Schulamt | Region: Bezirksregierung | - State: North Rhine Westphalia - Germany | | | |
| | POR ⁵ (Centres for educational support, CAE) SWE Municipality: Kommun Local Education Authority | | Regional Directorates of Edu- cation: Dir. Regional de Educação | Portugal | | | |
| | | | | Sweden | | | |

Governing board included in school level

2) Lower intermediate level. The level of decision making closest to the school, usually the local authority. It may be a municipal authority with other responsibilities or an authority that is only responsible for education. In the latter case, the authority may consist of a 'school-board'. 3) Upper intermediate level. The level closest to the central government. This may be a regional agency of the central government or a regional level that is distinct from the central government. 4) Central Government. The decision making level furthest removed from the school.

The table shows that countries with a federal structure consider the state level as the central level. This is the case for Flanders, Lower Saxony and North Rhine Westphalia.

Municipalities and/or school governing bodies are regarded as the lower intermediate level in most countries, except for England/Wales, where the Lower Education Authority is regarded as the lower intermediate level and the governing body of a school is regarded as the school level and Portugal where the governing body is also included in the school level.

In Sweden, Flanders and England/Wales few or no powers are executed at the upper intermediate level.



Local school councils included in school level

³ Only for Hauptschule, Orientierungsstufe, Realschule, Sonderschule

Only for Hauptschule, Orientierungsstufe, Realschule

Management bodies like the School (Area) Council, the Pedagogical Council and the Administrative Council included in the school level

In the following the decision-making structure of each country/state is discussed in more detail.

4.2 Decision-making structure per country/state

England/Wales

Levels and domains of decision making

Responsibility for education is shared between central government, local government, the governing bodies of schools and colleges and the teaching profession.

Central level

Central government comprises the *Department for Education in England* (DFE). It is mainly responsible for general policy, resource allocation, teacher training and curriculum matters. It also takes the initiative in the development of educational programmes.

Upper intermediate level

The School Examinations and Assessment Councils are responsible for monitoring school assessment activities; these bodies are private bodies, regulated by a central (also private) body called the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority. These councils should not be considered as being a real upper intermediate decision-making level.

Lower intermediate level

The provision of publicly-financed schools and colleges, and the employment of teachers has traditionally been the responsibility of the *Local Education Authorities* (lower intermediate level). However, the powers of the local authorities have been diminished by the 1988 Act to the benefit of the schools and colleges. The governing boards of individual schools and colleges are nowadays responsible for financial and related administration. Although the local education authorities remain the formal employers of teachers, the *governing bodies of schools and colleges* are responsible for their recruitment, appointment, management, appraisal and dismissal.

Decisions concerning teaching methods, which are made at the local level, take the form of guidelines. The practical implementation of these guidelines, the organization of course content and the choice of teaching materials, is usually left to the school governors and the teachers.

School level

Under local management of schools the schools have considerable freedom in how the budget is spent. More specifically, within a general framework set by the government, they can decide how many teachers they wish to employ and who to employ. The salary-scales for teachers are specified nationally, but schools have some latitude in determining at which level a teacher is paid (for instance by offering retention-grants and awarding points). The influence of the teacher unions in general, also concerning the remuneration of teachers has been greatly reduced due to the general policy of the conservative government with respect to trade-unions.

Flanders

Levels and domains of decision making

Central level

As of 1 January 1989, responsibility for educational matters was transferred to the Community (Flanders or Wallonia). Only three matters remain the responsibility of the Central State: fixing the start and finish of compulsory schooling, setting minimum conditions



for the awarding of diplomas and the pensions scheme.

The council and government of the Community (also considered as central level in the context of this investigation) organize and subsidize public and private education, and legislate for all educational matters other than the three mentioned above. This regional level is the highest educational authority level in the country, the national level has few or no powers. The list of subject areas and the timetabling of subjects are laid down by the government of the community. Decisions concerning teaching methods, which are made at the community level, take the form of guidelines. The practical implementation of these guidelines, the organization of course content and the choice of teaching materials, is usually left to the teachers' discretion.

Responsibility for developing educational programmes exercised at different levels. The government of the community defines guidelines, principles or criteria for the development of educational programmes. The educational programmes are drawn up under the responsibility of the community by working groups. These working groups (one per subject) are made up of teachers, teacher educators and subject specialists.

Lower intermediate level

Decisions with respect to the content of education are delegated to the ARGO (Autonome Raad voor het Gemeenschapsonderwijs; lower intermediate level). ARGO is the organizing body for community (public) education only, which involves a relatively small number of pupils in Flanders. Decisions regarding the content of subsidized public and subsidized free education are taken by other organizing bodies. Although ARGO is classified as being at the lower intermediate level, it functions through a central council and is responsible for the school educational plan, school curricula, recruitment of school staff, the management of the school maintenance and the overall educational planning.

School level

Decisions about the organization of instruction are predominantly taken at school level. Local school councils function at school level and are responsible for the provision of materials, aspects of financial management, matters related to teaching and staff policy. These councils are composed of representatives of parents, local social, economic and cultural circles, teachers and the school principal. Since 1991 each local school council has been given some decision-making powers with respect to the hiring of temporary teaching personnel.

There are no national exams in Flanders. The procedures and methods of assessing pupils are the responsibility of the school. The inspectorate safeguards the quality of private and public education (with the help of minimum qualifications). On the advice of the inspectorate the central government decides on budget allocation to schools and whether they get the approval to give certificates.

Lower Saxony

Levels and domains of decision making

Central level

In Germany, responsibility and competence for educational policy and planning are determined by the federative state structure. Under Basic Law, the Grundgesetz, responsibility for the education system lies with the States, die Länder.

Education as a whole, comes under supervision and is the responsibility of the Federal Minister of Education and Science, die Bundesregierung (central government). However, powers at national level are very limited. The central government only has responsibility in



specified areas: the content and organization of training programmes for various professions, promotion of research, regulation of in-company training and regulation of salaries, benefits and pensions to civil servants (e.g. teachers). The central government may also participate in the fulfillment of Länder duties, where these duties are important for the whole country.

The organization of the education system is a matter for the governments of the *States* (also considered as central level in the context of this investigation), the individual Länder. The governments of the Länder cooperate due to their membership of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany.

In Lower Saxony, the organization of the instruction and the determining of the contents of education are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs (das Kultusministerium). In particular, this responsibility deals with the determining of the framelines of the contents of education and the organizational structure of each school, including the timetable. The timetable consists of a list of subjects and the number of hours to be devoted weekly to each subject. Apart from this timetable, schools make their own timetable, which should be in accordance with the prescribed timetable, but which may deviate due to organizational constraints - like for example a shortage of teachers in a particular subject. In general, the timetable is fully determined for all schools and offers no room to manoeuvre. The 'Gesamtschule' is the only school for which the total numbers of hours are prescribed and more freedom is given to the school to organize variation within its time planning.

Only global prescriptions with respect to the curriculum (content and didactical principles) are set by the central government. In Lower Saxony no distinction is made between the framelines and a more detailed curriculum (such as the 'Lehrplan' in North Rhine Westphalia). The framelines include the curriculum, it is an integrated document.

Upper intermediate level

Responsibility for hiring and firing teachers sees with the Bezirksregierung (upper intermediate level). The 'Bezirksregierung' operates within a framework of rules established by the Kultusministerium; rules with respect to the number of teacher posts and sums of money available. Schools themselves have no influence on the choice of new teachers. Sometimes some influence on the selection process in favour of a particular teacher is exercised via informal channels. However, control over the personnel management of the 'Bezirksregierung' is carried out by a 'Personalrat'. The Personalrat is the staff representation body or council. The central level decides upon the number of hours teachers have to teach per week. Furthermore, the 'Bezirk' fulfills inspectorate functions for secondary education schools that do not fall under the responsibility of the 'Schulaufsichtsamt'.

Lower intermediate level

In Lower Saxony, as in many Länder in Germany, the local authorities, die Gemeinde (lower intermediate level) are the providing bodies (Schulträger) for various school forms. This means that the local authorities are responsible for funding and setting-up the schools and the maintenance of the buildings and equipment. Most municipalities determine the school areas and children are obliged to attend the school in their catchment area. However, some municipalities have not determined these areas; in these communities parents are free to select the school of their choice. Providing bodies can also be rural districts and special purpose associations of several communities and in some cases even the Land.

The central (State) level is also the resource-providing body for the salaries of everybody



who works in the school, except the janitor, the secretariat and the cleaning personnel, who are paid by the 'Schulträger'. The Schulträger also pays for the maintenance of the buildings and the equipment. Providing schools with a kind of budget for these costs is currently under consideration, but no actual plans or models have been developed yet.

Das Schulaufsichtsamt, is a decision-making authority at the same level as the Gemeinde, but it has no decision making authority with respect to financial resources. It only has responsibility for (appointing) teachers and curricula and functions as a school supporting and advisory institution.

School level

Schools are responsible for the actual time plan, the distribution and allocation of the teachers within the school, the distribution of the classes (within a framework that sets the minimum and maximum number of children within one class), the system of grouping children within the school. Schools get some budget from the 'Schulträger' for 1) the operational costs, costs incurred for the daily running of the school, 2) costs for educational materials to be used by all pupils, like maps or tape recorders.

The central (State) level is not much involved in assessment activities; only the meaning of the marks and the minimum entry requirements to move up to the following school class and the different graduation/leaving certificates are prescribed. Schools (at ISCED level 1 and 2) are responsible for setting the principles and conditions for assessment (e.g. which part per subject should be orally examined and which part should be taken as a written examination) and also for the execution of the actual assessment procedure. Differences between schools with respect to assessment are accepted. So, in popular speech, schools are sometimes labelled as 'more easy' or 'more difficult'.

The Netherlands

Levels and domains of decision making Central level

The overall responsibility for the education system (public and private) lies with the Ministry of Education and Science and the legislative power of the Dutch Parliament.

The principal tasks of *central government* are setting the structure, funding, supervision and setting central goals and examinations. In the future, the government will only lay down the objectives and the responsibilities of the authorities concerned. The education legislation of the Netherlands in the future will be increasingly that of a framework law.

Upper intermediate level

The province (upper intermediate) no longer holds any decision-making authority with respect to the creation or closure of primary schools. This level of authority fulfils only mediation and arbitration tasks and advisory tasks to the Ministry of Education. With respect to secondary education, the province stays responsible for the planning of education facilities: creation, restructuring and abolition of schools.

Further, the *municipalities* are the *local authorities* (note: this function of the municipalities was considered as being upper intermediate level in the context of this investigation) for all schools in the area. In the old system, the municipalities as local authorities did not have much say in matters. The central government formulated many rules and directives to be followed by the schools and the municipalities. Nowadays, more tasks and responsibilities have been decentralized to the local level of the municipalities like lodging school buildings, the allocation of certain funds to public, government dependent and private schools and the



support of primary education. The purpose of this decentralization policy by the central government is to realize a consistent policy that will be in line with the local situation.

Lower intermediate level

The administration and management of schools for primary and secondary education is locally organized. The municipal authorities (lower intermediate level) are the competent authority for publicly-run schools, while governing bodies like school-boards are the competent authorities for private, government-dependent schools. Nowadays, the competence of the municipality as the governing authority for public schools is under discussion. The current discussion focuses on introducing a new competent authority for publicly-run schools that will be relatively separate from local government. The municipalities, however, decide on the degree of independent management of public schools, and retain final responsibility

The competent authorities for private, government-dependent and publicly-run schools are generally responsible for the policy-making of the school (in conformity with the regulations of the central government). The practical implementation of these policies is usually left to the principal and the teachers. However, the actual allocation of tasks between the governing body and the principal varies. In general, the governing body lays down the policy in each of the areas listed. Most of the time it will be drawn up in conjunction with school management because it is its task to execute the policy.

In the Netherlands the majority of school governors has delegated a few tasks to the school management. Schools perform these mandated tasks under the authority of the governing body. So, in the case of mandating, no devolution of responsibility has taken place. Usually, school management has the mandate over educational matters. They may, for example, take decisions about teaching methods and assessment of pupils' regular work. School governors' approval is only necessary regarding basic points like the educational objectives and policy. In relation to finance most of the school managers have the mandate to spend money within the budget which is laid down by the governing body of the school. However, most of the school governors demand a regular briefing on the revenue and expenditure situation. Policy with respect to staffing remains the task of the governing body in most of the schools. Only the hiring of temporary staff and daily personnel management may be allocated to the decision makers at school level. Finally, the planning of, for example, policies on the creation or closure of a school or grade level, remains almost always the task of the governing body. School level

Responsibility for developing educational programmes for education is exercised at different levels. The programmes are partly defined by law and by the Ministry of Education and Science. The education acts provide guidelines concerning what should be taught, the school plan (the list of compulsory activities), and the number of class (advisory) hours and days. The Minister for Education and Science defines the main objectives.

The responsible authorities for the school are free to define the practical implementation of these objectives in the school plan.

The schools and teachers are responsible for defining the means to achieve these objectives: the organization of the course content, teaching materials including the choice of textbooks and teaching methods. Secondary schools are obliged to use national tests to assess their pupils at the completion of basic education (2nd or 3rd year of secondary education) and in the last year of ISCED 2 and 3.

Furthermore, schools are allowed increasingly to take decisions in full autonomy, for example, with respect to resources. A framework still exists, but it is less restrictive than in



former times.

North Rhine Westphalia

Levels and domains of decision making

Central level

In Germany, as mentioned earlier in dealing with Lower Saxony, responsibility and competence for educational policy and planning are determined by the federative state structure. Under the Basic Law, the *Grundgesetz*, responsibility for the education system lies with the *Länder*.

The education system as a whole comes under state supervision and is the responsibility of the Federal Minister of Education and Science, die Bundesregierung (central government). However, powers at national level are very limited. The Central Government has responsibility only in specified areas: the content and the organization of the training programmes for various professions, the promotion of research, the regulation of in-company training and the regulation of salaries, benefits and pensions to civil servants (e.g. teachers). The central government may also participate in the fulfilment of 'Länder' duties, where these duties are important for the whole country. The Central Government has no direct influence on the educational policy of the 'Länder'.

The organization of the education system is a matter for the governments of the *States* (also considered as central level in the context of this investigation), the Länder. However, the governments of the Länder cooperate due to their membership of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany.

The Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs (das Kultusministerium) is responsible for determining the subject areas, developing policy and educational programmes and provides teachers' salaries. It sets the overall goals for a whole school form and more detailed goals for the subjects. Furthermore, it determines to a large extent the content of the subjects and the teaching methods.

Educational programme committees (one per subject, per school form) are made up of teachers and sometimes of a scientific adviser. These committees present proposals for educational programmes to the Ministry which makes the decision. These educational programmes for one subject in one type of school appear in the form of framework regulations, obligatory for all teachers, and contain a $^2/_3$ obligatory part and a $^1/_3$ free part. The goals are not entirely operationalized but offer suggestions on how to act. As a matter of fact, the educational aims are formulated in such wide terms that they allow great latitude in the choice of educational methods and in the selection and allocation of content. With respect to primary education in particular, the Ministries of Education of the Länder define the list of subject areas and the amount of time to be spent on each subject area during the first two years. The curriculum committees are supported by the National Institute for Schools and Continuing Education (das Landesinstitut für Schule and Weiterbildung). Parents do not participate in the development of curricula.

Upper intermediate level

Responsibility for hiring and firing teachers lies with the 'Bezirksregierung' (upper intermediate level). The 'Bezirksregierung' operates within a framework of rules established by the Kultusministerium; rules with respect to the number of teacher posts and the amount of money available. Furthermore, the 'Bezirksregierung' fulfils the inspectorate functions for



secondary education schools that do not fall under the responsibility of the 'Schulamt'.

Lower intermediate level

In many Länder, the local authorities, die Gemeinde (lower intermediate level) are the providing bodies (Schulträger) for various school types. This means that the local authorities are responsible for funding and setting-up the schools, the maintenance of the buildings and equipment and transport of pupils.

Das Schulamt is a decision-making authority at the same level as the local authority (Gemeinde) but it has no decision-making authority with respect to financial resources. It only has responsibility for (appointing) teachers and curricula and fulfils the role of inspectorate for some schools.

School level

The main lines along which pupils are assessed are defined at ministerial level. The procedures and methods are the responsibility of the school. At the end of lower secondary education no (central) exams take place. Schools provide their students with a school report, a kind of qualification document, containing marks for the subjects. There is a tendency for parents to take over the function of exams, i.e. they become more and more responsible for decisions with respect to the school career of their children. Not assessing pupils' achievement through (central) exams leads to a certain extent to varying demands between schools and even between teachers. Teachers have great responsibilities at school-level and are predominantly regulated by the curriculum. Pupil-assessment by means of marks is somehow regulated by a framework regulation at central level in order to secure comparability of standards of achievement. However, much leeway is given to individual teachers on this point.

Portugal

Levels and domains of decision making

Central level

Education in general, with the exception of certain institutions attached to other Ministries, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. It involves 1) promoting the development and modernisation of the national education system, 2) reinforcing the connection between education and research, science, technology and culture, 3) preserving and divulging the Portuguese language and 4) supporting the development of an integrated sports policy.

The government is responsible for the democratisation of education, but is not entitled to direct education and culture according to any philosophical, aesthetic, political or religious orientation. State education is not confessional, but the right to create private and co-operative schools is guaranteed.

National control of the school sector has been transformed fundamentally over the last decade. The reform of educational administration deals with increasing intervention of the regional and local level structures. However, there is no devolution of authority. It is more a policy of deconcentration than a policy of decentralization or deregulation.

Upper intermediate level

The need to get the administration closer to the population it serves, as recommended in the Comprehensive Law on Education, led to the creation of regional structures whose main purpose is to integrate, coordinate and observe the educational activity. In the framework of the recommended decentralization and deconcentration, the Regional Directorates of Education (upper intermediate level) were conceived as administratively autonomous bodies responsible for the coordination and support of non-higher education establishments and for



managing their respective human, financial and material resources in accordance with national policy and objectives.

They are decentralized services that carry out the tasks of the Ministry of Education at regional level. The Regional Directorates of Education are established as "intermediary services" between the central administration and the schools with the purpose of integrating educational activities at regional level covering the pedagogic, teaching and non-teaching staff, educational equipment and school social and educational support areas. They are also responsible for furthering the collection of data to ensure the implementation of the national education policy as well as the evaluation of the system performance, to be carried out by the central administration.

Lower intermediate level

The central government is the main contributor to the financing of education in Portugal. However, based on the concept of the decentralization of central administrative powers, the municipalities (lower intermediate level) are partly responsible for educational finance and expenses: besides financing the construction, adjustment and maintenance of nursery and first cycle schools, they share with the Ministry of Education the running corts of these establishments. Teacher salaries come straight from the central department. Municipalities have no decision-making capacity at secondary education level, but the Centres for educational support (CAEs) do. These are intermunicipal/subregional bodies of authority. School level

The School Council or School Area Council is the collegiate body of direction, representing the different sectors of the community. It is responsible for the supervision of the school or school area activities with a view to the overall and balanced development of the student in accordance with constitutional principles and in the spirit of the Comprehensive Law on Education. This council is perceived as a locus of decision making open to the participation of everyone involved in the local educational process. Other school management bodies are the Pedagogical Council (responsible for the pedagogical aspects of school activities) and the Administrative Council (responsible for administrative and financial management).

Schools have been given greater responsibility. They are nowadays involved in a fairly high proportion of decisions, but take comparatively few decisions autonomously. School autonomy as established in 1989, is being implemented in stages, according to the conditions and resources in each school. The schools' autonomy covers the cultural, pedagogical, administrative and financial domains of school management, although this autonomy is regulated by mandatory compliance with the general and normative criteria issued by central administration. With respect to the cultural domain, the community's development and the local cultural heritage are the responsibilities of the school. Secondly, schools enjoy full autonomy to manage the national curricula. They are not allowed to define the curriculum, but they have the opportunity to define the mininum goals and develop alternative curricula for pupils with achievement problems. Further, they may define the teaching methods and methods for assessing students (although a process for the introduction of national examinations is now underway concentrating particularly on the exams at the end of secondary education). However, their autonomy is limited by a nationally fixed juridical and legal normative framework. In relation to the administrative domain, schools enjoy full autonomy in the management of their own working space and in the establishment of the conditions governing the sharing of school facilities with the community.



Finally, the schools are responsible for the management of their budget, which they are granted mainly from the state budget administered by the central services where capital and functioning expenditures are concerned, and through regional education directorates where major building maintenance expenditures are concerned. Pre-primary and primary schools (grades 1 to 4) do not have a budget of their own; all the expenses are covered by the municipalities. They also cover the expenses of school transportation.

Apart from the state money and the facilities, which are the major sources of education funding, schools are encouraged to generate their own "private" budget. They can acquire it internally from the hiring of school facilities to local associations, from the organization of fairs and festivals, and externally from "open competition" tenders, namely through the Programme for the Development of Education in Portugal (PRODEP). This is a programme funded by the European Union, the purpose of which is to support the improvement of the teaching and learning infra-structures and to encourage the professional development of human resources for both the teaching and non-teaching staff. All these funds are included in the school budget and run according to rules of public administration.

Every year an accounts report is submitted to the Accounts Court for approval, after being approved by the administrative board in each school or by the School Directorate. This is the organ responsible for the financial control of all the public administration. Accounts reports with respect to the funding from PRODEP are also submitted to the European Union services.

Sweden

Levels and domains of decision making

Central level

The Swedish school system rests on the principle of guaranteeing all children equivalent basic education, irrespective of residential locality or parental income. This is why goals and guidelines are determined by the *Riksdag* (parliament).

The Riksdag and Government lay down general goals and guidelines for schools, mainly through the Education Act and the curricula.

The National Agency for Education is a central authority and is responsible for national follow-up and evaluation in the school sector. It also has the task of developing the school system and inspecting to check whether the activities of the municipalities and schools fit in with the law. The Field Organization of the National Agency is divided into regions and working areas, each of which corresponds to one or more municipalities. Each working area has a Director of Education whose duties include taking part in evaluation and stimulating development work in schools, supporting the municipalities and supervising schools.

Lower intermediate level

National control of the school sector has been transformed fundamentally in recent years. The restructuring process in Sweden deals with both decentralization and deregulation. A substantial proportion of the powers is assigned to school and local level (the municipality).

The main principle for the distribution of responsibilities in the Swedish education system at present is that Parliament and the Government should control educational activities by defining national objectives. National and local education authorities are responsible for ensuring that activities are implemented in line with these national objectives and that they achieve the necessary results.

State funding is not directly linked to school organization: the municipalities are free to use the grant for the educational activities they choose. Within the rules, laid down by the



law, the municipalities are free to define their own priorities. Due to this financial structure, municipalities have to decide on the number of schools, teachers, school types and other details. However, the municipalities are obliged to provide equal educational opportunities for all children.

Responsibility for teaching staff and for organizing and implementing school activities was also transferred from the State to the municipalities which went into effect from 1991. However, *local education authorities* (lower intermediate level) are responsible for the conduct of school activities in accordance with the frames established by the Riksdag and Government.

School level

Decisions about the organization of instruction are the predominant type taken at school level. Within the budget the schools get, they can decide rather autonomously about educational matters with a certain amount of autonomy. The number of periods of instruction and the objectives which are to be achieved are laid down in central regulations. Sweden still has a national curriculum. Schools will, however, be given great freedom when planning their teaching and choosing their working methods and subject matters. Further, schools take decisions about the hiring and the firing of the teaching staff, although the municipalities are formally responsible. In short, the schools are involved in a fairly high proportion of decisions and take a fairly high proportion of these themselves. However, most of the decisions occur within a fixed framework.

4.3 Concluding remarks on existing decision-making structure

Some variation can be seen between existing bodies of authority in the decision-making structure in the seven countries/states, often caused by the difference between federal and nonfederal states. Educational authorities at state level in Flanders, Lower Saxony and North Rhine Westphalia are similar to educational authorities of central governments in other countries, although differences in the amount of decision-making power can be seen. In these states the central government has few or no powers on educational matters. In Sweden the National Agency functions at central level, and although not a decision-making authority, it has great influence on the educational decisions taken at all levels. In most countries regional authorities take decisions about education at upper intermediate level. No regional authorities exist in Flanders and Sweden. The School Examinations and Assessment Council in England/Wales is not really an educational decision-making authority but it has a kind of inspection function restricted to assessment matters. At lower intermediate level, municipalities and governing or organizing bodies exist alongside one another in most countries. The governing bodies are sometimes school-boards, responsible for one or more schools, but may also execute inspection, evaluation or support tasks (e.g. the 'Schulamt' in the German States). In England/Wales Local Education Authorities function at lower intermediate level while governing bodies are regarded as functioning at school level.

In all countries the central level body is responsible for general education policy. Furthermore, this level is responsible for resource allocation and funding. Also, teacher salaries are provided by central levels in the investigated countries/states. The salary levels are mostly negotiated with the teacher unions.

The evaluation and inspection function is executed mainly at central and upper intermediate level but for some schools also at lower intermediate level (German states).

In countries where the upper intermediate level plays an important role, the responsibilities



of this level lies mainly in the field of the provision of education (e.g. funding, setting-up the schools, maintenance of buildings and equipment). Sometimes more supportive and evaluative functions are found at this level (ENG, POR).

At lower intermediate level both local authorities and governing bodies of schools exist. Accordingly, at this level the provision function as well as the governing function are executed.

In most countries schools are responsible for implementing guidelines and prescriptions governing the curriculum, teaching methods and the organization of instruction and assessment. In England/Wales schools also have certain responsibilities in the field of teacher employment. All schools are given a certain leeway in managing their budget but the magnitude of this leeway depends on the kind of decentralization in a specific country. Most autonomy is given to schools in England/Wales, while schools in Flanders and North Rhine Westphalia cannot yet decide upon many financial matters.

Inter-level groups that work on the development of educational programmes exist in the two German states and in the Flemish community.



CHAPTER 5

LOCUS AND MODUS OF Decision making

In chapter five results showing the factual basis for functional and territorial decentralization are described. Information is presented on the number of decisions taken by levels of governance, on the educational domains these decisions refer to, and on the degree of autonomy in decision making at the various levels. Conclusions drawn in the last section of this chapter are focused on the degree of school autonomy.

5.1 Introduction

The factual basis for functional and territorial decentralization within the selected countries or states has been assessed by means of the OECD/INES questionnaire. The results are based on decisions in four areas. The selection of the decisions in the four domains was based on the idea that they are the most significant decisions a school could take in a totally decentralized system.

- * Domain: organization of instruction
 - bodies of determining the school attended
 - decisions affecting school careers
 - instruction time
 - choice of textbooks
 - grouping pupils
 - assistance to pupils
 - teaching methods
 - assessment of pupils' regular work
- * Domain: personnel management
 - hiring and dismissal of staff
 - duties and conditions of service of staff
 - fixing of salary levels for staff
 - influence over the careers of staff
- * Domain: curriculum (planning and structures)
 - creation or closure of a school
 - creation or abolition of a grade level
 - designing programmes of study
 - selection of subjects taught in a particular school
 - selection of programmes of study offered in a particular school
 - definition of course content
 - setting of qualifying examinations for a certificate or diploma
 - credentialling
- * Domain: resources
 - allocation of resources to the school (for (non)teaching staff, capital expenditure, operating expenditure)
 - use of resources in the school (for staff, capital expenditure, operating expenditure)

Respondents were asked to indicate for each decision in the four domains both the



authority level that takes the decision and the mode of decision making. They were asked to report the formal situation in their country.

The following definitions on modes of decision making have been used:

Full autonomy indicates that the decision is made entirely (with full autonomy) at a particular level. These are decisions subject only to constraints from outside the education system, for example the constitution, or legislation in other areas (e.g. labour laws, minimum wage laws). Jointly, or after consultation indicates that the decision is made jointly or after consultation with bodies located at another level within the education system. The consulting level does not have to accept the advice or opinion received from the consulted level. Also, if a different body at the same level is consulted (for example, if a headteacher consults with teachers), then the decision is considered to be taken entirely at that level.

Within a framework indicates that the decision is made independently within a framework established by a higher (more superior) authority level. This framework may be legal, administrative, or financial. The framework may specify a range of possible decisions or it may rule out some decisions; it may also indicate a budgetary constraint.

The four decision-making levels - the locations where these decisions are taken - are: the school, lower intermediate level (level 1), upper intermediate level (level 2) and central government (cf. table 4.1).

It is important to notice that any results are dependent on the list of decisions that were selected for inclusion in each category and must be interpreted within this context. Furthermore, all results are valid for the sample only. The results given here apply to the public sector of primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2). Results for primary and lower secondary education were taken together because there appeared to be hardly any differences between countries with respect to the locus and mode of decisior making at these education levels with the exception of Portugal where relatively modecisions at ISCED 1 are taken at school level and the lower intermediate level, whereas relatively more decisions at ISCED 2 are taken at higher authority levels.

Data from the locus of the decision-making questionnaire was analyzed by summing "scores" per domain and by weighting the domain scores by the number of items before comparing the relative importance of loci and modes of decision making. This means that 25 per cent is allocated to the four domains, equally divided between each of the decisions making up the domain. So, the weight of a single decision depends on the number of decisions included in the domain to which it belongs. When a decision did not appear to be meaningful for a particular situation (e.g. in Sweden no decisions with respect to examinations are taken at both ISCED levels) the weights of the other decisions within the domain were adjusted.

For Portugal and Sweden, the countries in which data were obtained in 1992, the current state of affairs (1995) will be compared with the outcomes of 1992. Available figures for 1992 are reported in the tables in parentheses. It should be noted that these comparisons should be regarded with caution because the data could not be obtained in a completely identical research situation.

5.2 Decisions taken at different levels of governance

Table 5.2 shows the percentage of all educational decisions taken at the four specified levels. For example, in England/Wales 64 per cent of all the educational decisions are taken at school level. Decisions taken at the four levels only include primary decision makers and



do not include a measure of whether other authorities are being consulted during the decision-making process or whether decisions are taken within a framework stipulated by another decision-making level. As a consequence, the figures should not be interpreted as an estimate of the total role the levels play in the decision-making process.

Table 5.2 Percentage of all decisions taken by level of governance, ISCED 1 and 2 public education (figures for 1992 between brackets)

| Country / State | Locus of decision making | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|---------|---------|---------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | School | Level 1 | Level 2 | Central | | | | | | | |
| ENG | 64 | 21 | 61 | 9 | | | | | | | |
| FLA | 31 | 40 | | 29 | | | | | | | |
| LOS | 29 | 17 | 28² | 26 | | | | | | | |
| NET | 543 | 20 | 54 | 21 | | | | | | | |
| NOW | 29 | 33 | 9 | 30 | | | | | | | |
| POR | 32 (42) | 9 (-) | 2 (3) | 56 (55) | | | | | | | |
| SWE | 51 (47) | 35 (47) | - (-) | 15 (6) | | | | | | | |

Regarding levels, the decision-making structure differs considers on country to country. One of the most interesting features is the proportion in the structure at school level. On that basis, the countries divide into two groups. In England/Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden, more than half of the decisions are taken at school level. In the other countries/states about 30 per cent of the decisions are taken at that level.

In Portugal most decisions are taken at central level. The figure that indicates a sizeable



This figure refers to decisions on credentialling which are taken by the School Examinations and Assessment Council.

Decisions on allocation of resources to schools for teaching staff are included in this figure. Actually, they are shared between the upper intermediate and central level. The number of posts which are allocated in the budget is a decision taken by parliament (prepared by the government). The distribution of the vacant posts to the four administrative districts of Lower Saxony is done by the ministry. The hiring of teachers and the allocation of teachers to schools is decided by the government of the administrative districts (= Bezirksregierungen).

Note that the figure for the Netherlands at school level includes decisions for which the governing body is formally responsible but that in practice have been delegated to schools.

The upper intermediate level can add money to the national resources, bound to the central regulations dealing with equal treatment of private and public schools. Resource allocation for capital expenditure in the case of primary education schools is partly being decentralized from central government to upper intermediate level.

role in the decision-making at lower intermediate level in Flanders should be interpreted with some caution. In Flanders the powers at lower intermediate level are executed by the organizing body ARGO, covering both central and local functions.

A more comprehensive typology may be grounded on the following observation. In a system where all four levels would be of equal importance, each level would take 25 per cent of the decisions. One could therefore describe a structure as having a single dominant level when one of these takes over 50 per cent of the decisions, as having two dominant levels when these two together take over 75 per cent of the decisions with none of them accounting singly for more than 50 per cent, and as being a multi-level structure in all other cases. When a single level is dominant, it is either the school (ENG. NET, SWE) or the central level (POR). Two dominant levels, as defined above, do not occur in the investigated countries but it is worth noting that within four of the selected countries or states at least 70 per cent of the decisions are taken either at school or at lower intermediate level. Three states seem to have a multilevel system (FLA, LOS, NOW).

In the three countries/states where the lower intermediate level is relatively powerful (FLA, NOW, SWE) the school level represents on average 37 per cent of the decision-making structure. In the state where upper intermediate level is particularly powerful, (LOS) the school represents 29 per cent of the decision-making structure. In the country w' ere the central level has most powers (POR) the school level represents 32 per cent of the decision-making structure.

Compared with the outcomes for 1992 in Portugal, a slight increase of powers at lower intermediate level can be seen at the expense of the influence of the school. In Sweden there has been a slight move towards the schools as they take more decisions at the expense of level 1. Also, central level takes more decisions than in 1992. The decrease in the number of decisions taken at school level in Portugal can be partly explained by the fact that regulations have become more precise.

5.3 Domains of decision making

Depending on ones perspective, one would not only be interested in how many decisions are taken at various levels but also in which domain they are taken. Teaching specialists are likely to find the decisions which deal with pedagogical organization more significant, economists will be interested in the personnel management decision distribution, whereas educational managers are expected to be particularly interested in the planning and structure domain, or in the resources (Meuret et al., 1995b).

The issue being addressed now is how the decisions taken at each level are divided over the four domains: organization of instruction, personnel management, curriculum (planning and structures) and resources.

Table 5.3 shows the decisions taken at each level divided over decision domains as a percentage of all decisions. As all four domains have been given an equal weight of 25 per cent. only 25 per cent per domain can be divided over the four levels. For example, the figure 25 for England/Wales in the first column refers to the organization of instruction decisions taken at school level. This means that in England and Wales all decisions in the organization of instruction domain are taken at school level.



Table 5.3 Percentage of all decisions in four domains of decision-making per level, ISCED 1 and 2 public education (figures for 1992 between brackets)

| | Decisions taken by level of governance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|--|-----------|----------|----------|---------|----|----|---------|---|----|---------|---|---|----|--------------------|----|-----|
| Country/ State | Schoo | i | | | Level 1 | | | Level 2 | | | Central | | | | Total ² | | |
| |] * | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | |
| ENG | 25 | 25 | 3 | 11 | - | | 6 | 14 | | - | 6 | - | _ | - | 9 | - | 99 |
| FLA | 22 | - | 9 | - | | 17 | 13 | 11 | - | - | - | - | 3 | 8 | 3 | 14 | 100 |
| LOS | 22 | - | 3 | 4 | - | - | 3 | 14 | - | 15 | 6 | 7 | 3 | 10 | 13 | | 100 |
| NET | 25 | 6 | 15 | 7 | - | 12 | 4 | 4 | - | - | - | 5 | - | 6 | 6 | 9 | 99 |
| NOW | 22 | _ | 7 | - | - | 8 | 3 | 21 | - | 5 | - | 4 | 3 | 11 | 15 | - | 99 |
| POR | 19 (19) | 8 (10) | (6) | 5 (7) | - | 2 | - | 7 | - | 2 | | - | 6 | 12 | 25 | 13 | 99 |
| SWE | 25 (22) | 15 (8) | 4 (9) | 7 (7) | - | 8 | 8 | 18 | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | 13 | - | 100 |

* legend:

1= organization of instruction

2= personnel management

3= curriculum (planning and structures)

4= resources

Decisions about the organization of instruction are the predominant type taken at school level in each of the countries (about 23%). Almost all decisions on the organization of instruction are taken at school level. In addition, there is little variation across countries in the percentage of decisions in the area of organization of instruction that are taken by the school. The number of decisions about the organization of instruction does not seem to be dependent on the degree of autonomy of the school, i.e. on how many decisions schools take.

In England/Wales all decisions, and in Sweden a substantial percentage of decisions in the area of personnel management are taken at school level. In England/Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden schools take decisions in all four areas.

Within all selected countries or states, the intermediate levels take no decisions in the area of organization of instruction.

In England/Wales, Lower Saxony, North Rhine Westphalia and Sweden many decisions in the area of resources are taken at level 1. The predominant decision domain at level 1 in Flanders and the Netherlands concerns personnel management.

Lower Saxony is an exception, a relatively high percentage of decisions in the personnel management domain is taken at upper intermediate level. However, these decisions are taken

² Totals may not add up to 100 per cent due to rounding.



The figures per level (per country) add up to the total (per country) given in table 5.2

in close cooperation with schools and central government.

Looking at the central level, it can be noticed that decisions about resources are the predominant type taken at central levels in Flanders and the Netherlands. In the other countries/states decisions about the curriculum (planning/structures) are the main type of decisions taken at this level. A relatively big part of central level decisions in Flanders, Lower Saxony, North Rhine Westphalia and Portugal is taken within the personnel management domain. Furthermore, the table shows great similarity in the division over the domains of the decisions taken at the central level of the two German states.

For Portugal and Sweden, data about the decisions taken by the schools are available from 1992. Comparing 1995 to 1992 in Sweden, the school takes more decisions with respect to the organization of instruction and personnel management. However, for both Sweden and Portugal, the number of decisions taken by the school in the area of planning and structures/curriculum has diminished. Regarding the curriculum, schools in Portugal only take decisions with respect to the choice of teaching materials.

5.4 Modes of decision making

When characterizing an education system, less importance is usually assigned to the way decisions are taken than to the level at which they are taken. However, each mode of decision making has its own inherent virtues and drawbacks; an autonomous decision is swifter and also less expensive. A decision taken in consultation is certainly slower, but may be better-grounded and more difficult to contest. Those decisions taken within a framework set by a higher authority represent an attempt to combine the virtues of the autonomy and of the existence of general standards or policies.

This last characterization may be somewhat imprecise though, since the autonomy exercised by the level actually taking the decision varies in relation to the latitude that this framework allows to it. Besides, since no autonomous decision is completely free, the distinction between decisions taken in autonomy and decisions taken in a framework was not always easy for the respondents to handle, although it was agreed that the "framework" had to be internal to the education system (Meuret & Scheerens, 1995).

Table 5.4 shows decisions at the various governance levels as a percentage of all decisions, broken down by the three specified modes of decision making: autonomously, through consultation with another level and within a framework stipulated by a higher level. For example, 39 per cent of all decisions in England/Wales are taken by schools in full autonomy.



The state of the s

Table 5.4 Percentage of modes of decision making per level, ISCED 1 and 2 public education (figures for 1992 between brackets)

| | | | | | Dec | isions | take | n by | level | of go | verna | ince ¹ | | | - | |
|--------------------|------------|-----------|------------|---|---------|--------|-----------------|------|-------|---------|-------|-------------------|------------|-----------|---|-----|
| Country / State | Schoo | ı | | | Level 1 | | Level 2 | | | Central | | | | | | |
| | 1* | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | I | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| ENG | 39 | - | 25 | - | - | - | 21 ² | - | | | 6 | - | 9 | - | - | - |
| FLA | 25 | - | 6 | - | 11 | - | 29 | - | - | - | - | - | 29 | - | | - |
| LOS | 4 | - | 25 | | 11 | 4 | 3 | - | 8 | 12 | 9 | - | 26 | | | - |
| NET | 24 | 7 | 22 | • | 10 | 4 | 6 | | - | - | 5 | - | 9 | - | - | 123 |
| NOW | 8 | - | 21 | - | 26 | 3 | 4 | - | 4 | 1 | 4 | - | 28 | 1 | - | - |
| POR | 11 (9) | 2 (2) | 19 (31) | - | 7 | 2 | - | - | - | - | 2 | - | 24 (52) | 12 (3) | - | 213 |
| SWE | 14 (15) | 10 (-) | 27 (32) | - | 26 | 2 | 6 | | - | • | - | - | 13 (6) | - (-) | | 2 |

* legend:

I = in full autonomy

2= jointly or in consultation with another level

3= within a framework set by a higher authority

4= other

In England/Wales. Flanders and the Netherlands, autonomous decision making is the predominant mode for decisions taken by schools. However, a fair number of school decisions in England/Wales and the Netherlands is also taken within a framework. Within the rest of the selected countries or states (LOS, NOW, POR, SWE) most of the decisions taken at school level are taken within a framework fixed at a higher level. Consultation by schools of another level is a mode of decision making which sometimes occurs in the Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden.

The lower intermediate level is involved in decision making in all the selected countries and states. In Lower Saxony, the Netherlands, North Rhine Westphalia, Portugal and Sweden the predominant mode for this level is to take decisions in full autonomy. In England/Wales all the decisions at level 1² and in Flanders most of the decisions at level 1 are taken within a framework set by another authority.

Compared to other countries, the upper intermediate level is involved in many decisions

Other' in the Netherlands and Portugal refers to consultation with all the authority levels and negotiations with the unions.



The figures per level (per country) add up to the total (per country) given in table 5.2.

In England/Wales decisions on creation, closure or abolition of schools and grade levels are taken within a framework set by the central government but in addition schools are consulted.

in North Rhine Westphalia and in Lower Saxony. The main mode of decision making at this level in Lower Saxony is jointly or in consultation with another level. Within the other selected countries or states level 2 either takes no decisions (FLA, SWE) or takes them within a framework set by the central government (ENG, NET, POR).

The central government is involved in decision making for the decisions included in this study in all countries. Most of the decisions at central level are taken autonomously, i.e., without the participation of other levels. In Portugal and North Rhine Westphalia, a small part of the decisions taken by the central government is taken after consulting with another decision-making level.

The figures for the Netherlands and Portugal for autonomous decision making at central level may be higher than the figures suggest, as autonomous decisions taken after consultation with unions (which are not regarded as an *educational* decision making level in this study) have not been counted as the category 'autonomously' but are reported in the category 'others'.

Compared with the outcomes for 1992, fewer decisions at school level are taken nowadays within a fixed framework. Swedish schools take more decisions in consultation. The central government in Portugal takes fewer decisions in full autonomy. Moreover, it takes more decisions in consultation with another level.

5.5 Levels consulted in decision making

Table 5.5 reports the decisions in which each level is consulted as a percentage of all decisions which are taken in consultation. For example, in the Netherlands the school is the level that is consulted in 33 per cent of all decisions that are taken in consultation in the Netherlands.

| Table 5.5 I | Percentage of decision | taken in consultation per l | level, ISCED 1 | and 2 public education |
|-------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|------------------------|
|-------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|------------------------|

| | | Levels that are consulted | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------|---------------------------|---------|---------|---------------------|--|--|--|
| Country / State | School | Level 1 | Level 2 | Central | in consultation (%) | | | |
| ENG ¹ | - | | | | 0 | | | |
| FLA | • | | - | | Ú | | | |
| LOS | 63 | _2 | - | 20 | 15 | | | |
| NET | 33 | 67 | | | 11 | | | |
| NOW | - | 19 | 19 | 62 | 5 | | | |
| POR | 12 | 21 | 68 | - | 15 | | | |
| SWE | | 100 | | - | 12 | | | |

Consultation of schools with respect to creation, closure or abolition of schools and grade levels is not reported in this table.



33

Consultation of both schools and the lower intermediate level with respect to decisions on hiring and dismissing principals is not reported in this table.

There is variation across countries in the percentage of decisions in which each level is consulted. In England/Wales and Flanders no consultation has been reported. In Lower Saxony the school, in the Netherlands level 1, in Portugal level 2, and in North Rhine Westpahlia the central level has a relatively sizeable role, i.e. it is consulted frequently. In Sweden the lower intermediate level is the only authority which is consulted.

Although autonomous decision making seems to be the predominant mode, the decision-making structure can be characterized as rather integrated. One consequence of this integrated character is that the autonomy of schools in a given country may differ greatly, according to the criterion which is used to grasp this autonomy. Here above, we used as a criterion the number of decisions taken by the school, whatever their mode, and the number of decisions taken by the school in full autonomy. Another criterion could be the number of decisions in which the school is involved, either because the school takes them or because it is consulted about them by another level.

Taking this last criterion, that is the proportion of decisions in which the school is involved, the ranking of education systems on the basis of the influence of the school is as follows: England/Wales, the Netherlands, Sweden (> 50%), Flanders, Lower Saxony, North Rhine Westphalia, Portugal (29-38%)

5.6 Levels that set frameworks for decision making

As a percentage of all the decisions taken within a framework, table 5.6 shows the decisions in which the framework is set by a particular level. For example, if a decision is taken within a framework, in England/Wales in 94 per cent of these cases this framework is set by the central government.

Table 5.6 Percentage of all decisions taken within a framework set by a particular level. ISCED 1 and 2 public education

| _ | Le | Levels that set a framework | | | | | |
|--------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|---------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Country / State | Level 1 | Level 2 | Central | taken within a framework (%) | | | |
| ENG | 6 | • | 94 | 52 | | | |
| FLA | | <u>.</u> | 100 | 35 | | | |
| LOS | 8 | • | 92 | 37 | | | |
| NET | | • | 100 | 34 | | | |
| NOW | 11 | • | 89 | 28 | | | |
| POR | | 28 | 72 | 21 | | | |
| SWE | 11 | 131 | 77 | 33 | | | |



This figure refers to decisions on duties and conditions of (non)teaching staff for which restrictions come from negotiations between teacher unions and the National Association of Municipalities.

Most of the time the central government sets the framework within the selected countries or states. Portugal and Sweden are the only countries where the upper intermediate level plays a role when it comes to setting a framework. In four of the seven countries or states, the lower intermediate level sets a framework for a small number of decisions.

Another aspect of the integrated character of the decision-making system is that, in the case of decisions taken within a framework, the most common pattern is not that of adjoining levels, but that where a school takes a decision within a framework set at the highest level in the country (upper intermediate or central government). It emerges that in some education systems relatively few decisions are taken at highest level, nonetheless this level retains a strong influence, over and above the decisions it takes itself, through the number of decisions for which it sets the framework (cf. Meuret & Scheerens, 1995).

5.7 Concluding remarks on factual basis for decentralization

Factual information on territorial decentralization has been provided by a description of the loci (school, lower intermediate, upper intermediate, central) and the modes (autonomously, jointly or after consultation, within a framework) of decision making. Information on functional decentralization has been linked to the domains (organization of instruction, personnel management, curriculum (planning and structures), resources) of decision making. The summary below will be focused on the school level and the degree of school autonomy. Decisions only refer to the decisions submitted to the respondents.

A first indication of school autonomy can be given just by looking at the number of decisions taken at a particular level. Based on this criterion it appears that in England/Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden more than 50 per cent of the decisions are taken at school level, while this percentage is about 30 per cent in the other countries or states. In Portugal more than 50 per cent of the decisions are taken at central level.

When also taking into account the mode of decision making, i.e. the degree of autonomy in decision making, the results show that in England/Wales, Flanders and the Netherlands about half of the decisions taken at school level are taken autonomously, while the other half of the number of school decisions is taken within a framework (ENG, NET). In Flanders nearly all school decisions are taken autonomously. In the other countries/states a substantial proportion of the decisions taken at school level is taken within a framework stipulated by a higher authority level.

A third criterion for measuring chool autonomy, based on both the number of decisions taken and the mode of decision making, is the number of decisions in which the school is involved, either because the school takes them, or because the school is consulted about them by another level. The school is involved in more than 50 per cent of the decisions in Fngland/Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden and in 29 to 38 per cent in the other countries/states.

Based on these three criteria, the results tentatively indicate the highest degree of school autonomy in England/Wales, the Netherlands and in Sweden. A lower degree of school autonomy can be observed in the other countries/states. However, there is little variation in this degree of school autonomy.

Some critical remarks should be made in addition to this conclusion. It must be stated that the mode of decision making is not the most precise part of the assessment of the degree of territorial decentralization. Countries have been asked to indicate for each decision the most dominant mode of decision making. Yet, it appeared that in many countries decisions are



taken both in consultation and within a framework. Besides, whether a decision should be regarded as taken fully autonomously or as independently within a framework can be considered to be rather arbitrary, depending on the latitude the framework allows for.

After these results on territorial decentralization, an overview of the results on functional decentralization can be given by presenting information on the domains in which the decisions are taken. It appears that decisions about the organization of instruction are the predominant type of decisions taken at school level. This is the case for all countries, independent of their level of school autonomy, as defined above. Intermediate bodies take decisions about resources, planning and structures (curriculum), and personnel management, not about the organization of instruction. Central level is either a predominant decision maker about resources (FLA, NET) or about curriculum (planning and structures) matters.

Looking at the decisions that are taken within a framework it can be noticed that this framework is mostly set by the central level.



CHAPTER 6

CHANGES IN DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURE

A more evaluative assessment of developments towards centralization and decentralization in a country. It is given in this chapter. In addition to the major overall changes that have taken place with respect to the dispersion of educational responsibilities, more specific changes regarding the four domains of decision making are described.

6.1 Major changes over the past five years

After having presented the factual information on the loci and modes of decision making in chapter 5, more evaluative information will be given now. This information was obtained through a semi-structured interview (see Annex 2).

One of the major forces behind the changes and developments in the decision-making structure in many countries is the tendency towards a more liberal or democratic society in which people can control their own lives (FLA, GER, NET, POR, SWE). This tendency is closely related to the more market-oriented thinking that lies behind the developments in England/Wales. In Portugal the revolution led to a reform towards democratization, with great implications for the education system. In Flanders, the establishment of the Flemish Community can be seen as an important background force, while Swedish society as a whole is in the middle of a major decentralization process. Recession and the need for budget control (NET, SWE) and the general aims of improving the quality and equality of education (ENG, NET) are other background forces behind centralization and decentralization processes. A characterization of the major changes in policies with respect to the distribution of decision-making authority is given in Table 6.1.

In five of the seven countries processes of change in the distribution of decision-making authority have taken place in the last five years. In the two German States the deregulation and decentralization issue merely takes the form of discussions or plans. In England/Wales clear tendencies of centralization can be seen from 1988. However, modifications of the original centralization measures have be seen since 1993. In Portugal the process can be characterized as deconcentration rather than decentralization.



Table 6.1 Characterization of major changes in policy over the past five years

| Country State | Characterization of major changes | Stage of developments |
|------------------|---|-----------------------|
| ENG | Since 1988, centralization has taken place in the curriculum domain, whereas in other domains like finance and administrative management the changes bave brought about more decentralization to the level of the school and the consumers of education. Since 1993 some modification of the initial centralization measures in the curriculum domain has taken place. The changes are less easily classified in terms of deregulation. | Implementation |
| FLA | The restructuring process deals with both decentralization and deregulation. The process of decentralization has led to a slight decrease in regulations, although many schools still complain about the number of rules. In 1989, legislation changed; the education legislation of Flanders can be typified as a framework law. | Implementation |
| LOS | There have been no major changes in the distribution of decision making authority over the last five years. Plans are being made that can be regarded as first steps in the direction of deregulation. Also, they are considering transfering some decision-making authority from the central level (the state) to the upper intermediate level. | Plans, discussions |
| NET | The restructuring process in the Netherlands includes both decentralization and deregulation. The education legislation of the Netherlands will become more and more a framework !aw. | Implementation, plans |
| NOW | No major changes in the distribution of decision-making authority have taken place in the last five years. Although the decision-making structure in Germany can be characterized as quite decentralized, the current discussion focuses upon further decentralization and deregulation in the sense of diminishing bureaucracy. | Discussions, plans |
| POR | Their policy is one of decentralization or deregulation rather than a policy of deconcentration. Concerning the restructuring of the whole education administration there has been a movement from deconcentration (1989) towards decentralization (1993) from central to regional structures. As far as schools are concerned, in spite of the autonomy decree-law (1989) there is not a policy of decentralization. No devolution of authority and responsibility to school-level has taken place. The process of deconcentration has led to a certain increase in regulations. | Implementation |
| SWE | One can speak of a policy of restructuring; there is still central power. The restructuring process in Sweden deals with both decentralization and deregulation. The new law can be typified as a framework law and was enacted in 1991, and in 1994 the financing system was changed. In terms of decentralization, one could say that decision-making power has been devoluted from the central level to the municipalities and the schools, while the administrative authority levels of the National and County Boards have been abolished. One can speak of a tremendous process of deregulation. The new system can be characterized as a goal-directed system that lays down the general principles. | Implementation |

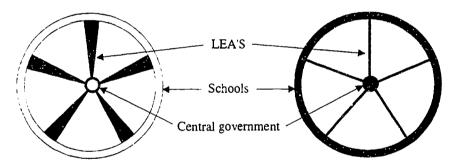


England/Wales

Major changes have arisen from the 1988 Education Reform Bill. These major changes can be summarized as follows:

In the area of the *curriculum* a centralization-oriented response was given to the completely decentralized situation that previously existed. For example, in the area of science education, one respondent spoke in terms of a "lottery" as to which subject matter and which level of difficulty would be taught to pupils. Differences between Local Educational Authorities (LEA's) could be large. With the 1988 Reform Bill a national curriculum was introduced. In 1993 modifications in the national curriculum and the assessment programme were introduced (to be further specified below).

In the area of administrative structure major changes took place, the most important one concerned the position of the LEA's. The changes in the administrative structure are illustrated in the figure below, where the mative influence of central government, LEA's and schools is shown.



Situation before 1988: much control by LEA's, department's function limited to providing sufficient places for students and a sufficiently qualified teaching force Situation after 1988: enlarged central authority in the curriculum area, increased school autonomy and reduced governing powers of LEA's

In the current situation LEA's are to operate as facilitators and not so much as administrative controllers (although some decision-making authority, to be specified later on, is still left to the LEA's).

A third pillar of the reforms since 1988 is the policy governing local management of schools. Directly related to the shift in responsibilities of the LEA's is the fact that, although schools are still funded through the LEA's, about 85 per cent of the budget for a specific school goes directly to the schools. This 85 per cent comprises the running costs of the schools. The remaining 15 per cent are used for LEA services and library facilities. The LEA's are still responsible for running the capital programmes for schools (mostly the provision of school buildings). Schools have considerable freedom in the way they spend the budget (operating costs).

The fourth aspect of the reforms is designed to stimulate parental choice in educational



matters, and in that way submit schools to the operation of market mechanisms.

In terms of the general distinction between centralization and decentralization one could say that as a consequence of the 1988 Education Reform Bill centralization has taken place in the curriculum domain, whereas in other domains like finance and administrative management the changes have breath about more decentralization to the level of the school and the consumers of education.

The changes are less easily classified in terms of deregulation. The centralization and decentralization instances referred to in the above have been formalized through legislation. In very general terms decentralization to school level is accompanied by central frameworks that somewhat limit "degrees of freedom". Decisions taken independently by schools but within a framework set by a higher (i.e. the central) authority is now an important mode of decision making in England and Wales.

Flanders

The restructuring process in Flanders deals both with decentralization and deregulation. Formerly schools did not have much influence. Nowadays, they have been given more decision-making power. Money from the government, for example, used to be granted to the schools in a very "ear-marked" way. In the new system schools are keen to receive a budget without precise rules concerning the purposes it should be used for. The finance system is changing from a very regulated ear-marked budget financing to a form of lump-sum financing. However, the inspectorate safeguards the quality of private and public education (with the help of minimum qualifications). Furthermore, schools have more freedom with respect to school-level processes. They are free, for example, in their division of school hours over the teaching-staff.

There is another important development in terms of decentralization. In the old system the central government both subsidized public and private education and functioned as a board of governors for public education. Nowadays, the central government only subsidizes the education system. The responsibilities for public education have been delegated to ARGO (Autonome Raad Gemeenschapsonderwijs), the organizing body for public education.

The process of decentralization has led to a slight decrease in regulations, although many schools still complain about the number of rules.

Lower Saxony

There have been no major changes in the distribution of decision-making authority over the last five years. However, plans for alterations are currently being made by a working group for 'Schulverwaltungsreform'. The purpose is to eliminate one (lower intermediate) decision making level i.e. 'das Schulaufsichtsamt' for efficiency reasons. The 'Bezirksregierung' (upper intermediate) will become the decision making authority for all schools. These plans can be regarded as first steps in the direction of deregulation.

No changes with respect to the decision-making authority of the providing body, the 'Schulträger' (municipality, lower intermediate), are under consideration.

Some decision-making authority is being transferred from the central level (the State) to the upper intermediate level (for example the ratification for the opening of a new school can be given by the 'Bezirksregierung', while formerly a ratification from the 'Kultusministerium' was required). Plans for diminishing regulations with respect to ratification and the transfer of this decision-making authority from central level to upper intermediate level are being



46

prepared, but have not yet been decided upon.

Also, no changes in the distribution of decision-making power with respect to the planning and structure of the curriculum are foreseen. The major responsibility for the planning and structure of the curriculum lies and will remain at central level in order to maintain certain standards. Even at the more central level ('die Bundesrepublik') a global framework with minimum standards ('die Orientierungsrahmen der Kultusministerkonferenz') has been set in order to maintain a certain comparability between the level and form of the education systems in the states and to facilitate mobility of pupils across the states. This framework has no legal status, but is widely accepted by the states and used as a guideline for the benefit of the pupils.

The Netherlands

The restructuring process in the Netherlands includes both decentralization and deregulation. The process of deregulation is progressing with difficulty. Schools are septical and afraid of a connection with retrenchments policies. A second reason for the difficult process of deregulation is the interrelated rules. Every rule is closely bound up with several other rules.

With respect to decentralization, the major changes refer to 1) Quality. The government sets objectives at central level to guarantee a common educational core and to maintain a proper control of education. The Dutch policy of decentralization puts a heavy responsibility on schools and municipalities. Therefore, the central government requires some instruments for inspection. Further, in secondary education in the future there will be less choice in terms of subjects, 2) Resources and conditions of employment (see page 50 for more details), 3) Scaling up. The central government has changed the norms for building new schools to attain an increase of scale. This process is supposed to result in more opportunities for the schools to operate successfully. 4) The role of the municipality. More tasks and responsibilities are being decentralized to the local level of the municipalities.

Central government will decentralize the budget for the funding of support services in primary education to municipalities. The municipalities are not free to spend this budget for other purposes, they have to use it for support services. Secondly, the municipal authorities will become fully responsible for the provision of school buildings at the beginning of 1997. They will get a budget from central government, but it is still subject of debate whether this will be a lump sum meant for education as well as for welfare, unemployment and the like or a more ear-marked budget. Within this lump sum, municipalities are free to set priorities. They also have the option of adding money to the sum allotted through their own tax-levying system. The school-boards are anxious about the decentralization of responsibilities to the municipal authorities. They prefer the decentralization of responsibilities to the schools rather than the municipalities. In the opinion of the central government, however, this will frustrate a consistent local policy.

Next, the municipality is seeing its role as the competent authority for publicly-run schools being challenged. Current discussion focuses upon introducing a new competent authority for publicly-run schools relatively separate from local government but under the reponsibility of the municipality.

Schools will be obliged to inform parents at a yearly basis about their objectives, methods and results.



North Rhine Westphalia

Education can be seen as one of the key-areas in which the federal structure in Germany manifests itself. Therefore, practically all decision-making authority lies with the states, "die Länder". Also, a lot of decision-making authority has been devoluted to lower levels in the education structure, i.e. the schools and the local authorities "die Gemeinde und das Schulamt". The teacher is very autonomous in the pursur of his/her profession. Although the decision-making structure in Germany can be characterized as quite decentralized, the current discussion in North Rhine Westphalia focuses upon further decentralization and deregulation in the sense of diminishing bureaucracy.

An international advisory institute has been commissioned by the Ministry of education of North Rhine Westphalia to investigate the management and administration of the education system. The investigation deals with decision making in schools as well as in the other levels of the education decision-making structure. In the report from this investigation several recommendations to further decentralize the system are made. One important recommendation deals with eliminating the 'Schulamt' (lower intermediate level) and the devolution of the responsibilities of the Schulamt mainly to the schools and for a minor part to the 'Bezirk' (upper intermediate level).

Portugal

As stated before, within the perspective of decentralization, there was a gradual process of transfer of state competences to the intermediate levels of the system. Empowered with executive functions, the Regional Education Directorates improved the administration system to the extent that they had better field knowledge and better conditions to support in time or to follow the front line actors. However, they tended to reproduce the organization and the culture of the central organization.

The progressive implementation of the main reforms launched by the comprehensive Law of Education determined a growing autonomy for schools. However, this does not mean a greater decision making capacity, but a continuing dependency on regional authorities which have been given a greater control over school activities. The locus of decision-making has been deconcentrated, sometimes decentralized, but deregulation has not come with it.

Sweden

The Swedish policy can be characterized as a policy of restructuring. However, central power still plays an important role. In the *old system* the following levels existed: the central level with the government, the Ministry of Education, and the National Board of Education and the County Boards (which can also be called a kind of intermediate level), the Municipality at the lower intermediate level and the level of the schools. In the *new system* the following levels exist: the central level with the government, the Ministry of Education and the National Agency of Education, the Municipality at the lower intermediate level and the level of the school.

In the old system the municipalities did not have much influence. The central decisions passed from the central level to the schools. The National Board and the County Board formulated many rules and (technical) directives that had to be followed by the schools and very often also by the municipalities. State money, for example, was given to the municipalities to be used in schools in a very ear-marked way. In the new system, more tasks and responsibilities have been devoluted to the local level of the municipalities. Also, schools



have been given more decision-making power, particularly for the school processes.

In terms of decentralization, one could say that decision-making power has been devoluted from the central level to the municipalities and the schools, while the administrative authority levels of the National and County Boards have been abolished.

With respect to deregulation, the old system can be characterized as a very rule-based system, rules for using money, rules for what should be done, directions for teachers and school leaders with regard to how to work. In the new system, the rules have been abolished to some extent. One can speak of a tremendous level of deregulation. The new system can be characterized as a goal-directed system that sets the general line. But, the curricula, in terms of content to be covered by the ISCED levels are still regulated. Within the frames of the goals, the schools are free to execute the educational processes, free to choose the means that can lead to a realization of the goals.

The National Agency was established in the new system. Evaluation is the main task of the Agency and the differences between the old and the new system in terms of evaluation can be stated as the difference between a system that evaluated whether schools did things right and a system that evaluates whether schools do the right things.

6.2 Changes in the Organization of Instruction and Curriculum domains

Table 6.2 provides a summary of the major changes with respect to two domains of decision making: organization of instruction, and curriculum (planning and structure). Where necessary, an explanation of the information in the table is given.



Table 6.2 Changes in the Organization of Instruction and Curriculum domain

| Country/ | Organization of instruction | Curriculum (Planning and structures) |
|----------|---|--|
| State | - | _ |
| ENG | Strengthening of parental involvement by stimulating parental choice in educational matters | A more global specification of subject-matter areas (broader outcome terms), reduction of the central assessment programme, teaching time per week open for curriculum options to be freely chosen by the school and more leeway for schools in adapting national guidelines to local circumstances. |
| FLA | More freedom for schools in deciding on the way to arrange teaching. | More decisions taken autonomously by schools, although restricted by the inspectorate. |
| LOS | | |
| NET | Increase in autonomy given to the schools, although it is still restricted by the objectives and examinations defined at central level. Over the past years, the number of rules concerning organisation of instruction has decreased. | Freedom of schools in curriculum matters is restricted as a consequence of the objectives defined by the government and the limited choice of subjects in secondary education. A subject of discussion is the central government's idea of implementing a national curriculum for the training colleges to attain quality enhancement. |
| NOW | | |
| POR | In spite of the changes introduced by the school-based management system in 1974, the powers of school managers has not changed, namely in what concerns the organization of instruction and the management of human resources. | Schools are invited to introduce local components to the centrally described curriculum. During the seventies and the eighties, examinations were progressively abolished. Now, the process of reintroducing the examinations has started. |
| SWE | Schools and teachers are given more freedom in deciding on the way they want to arrange teaching. | Autonomy is still restricted, the national curriculum states the objectives, the content of subjects and a kind of value base of what is strived for. However, previously the content of instruction was more specified. Now, the curriculum provides more room to manoeuvre. |

England/Wales

Strengthening parental involvement occurs in three areas: 1) Parents now have the right to express their preference as to which school they want their child to attend, these preferences can only be disregarded in cases where the school has already reached its maximum intake-level and a different solution will then be sought in consultation with the LEA. 2) There is a relatively strong presence of parents in the new governing bodies of schools (school-boards). For the larger schools the board consists of 19 governors, five of which are parents, two will be teachers, five will be nominated by the LEA, six are representatives of the local community (the business community in particular) and the last position in the board is taken by the school's headteacher. 3) The provision of information on school-functioning and performance to parents and the local community is being enhanced. This is done by means of a prospectus in which the aims and objectives of the school are



presented, an annual report on the way the school budget is used and the achievements that have been realized and publications of the school's educational results and figures on truancy. In addition, there will be a report on the school's functioning undertaken by the inspectorate every four years.

The original national curriculum, developed after the 1988 Reform Act, specified 10 subjects, within each subject 4 defined age-groups and rather detailed programmes of study. Besides this, expected levels of achievement were specified in detail for the age levels 7, 11, 14 and 16. They were to be tested by means of a national assessment programme comprising achievement tests in each subject.

The curriculum was developed by subject-matter experts (one for each subject). The reaction by the schools and teachers was a general sense of being overloaded. One of the respondents in accounting for this reaction blames it partly on teachers' conscientiousness in following the curriculum to the letter and their keeping of exhaustive records. In the assessment area the teacher resistance even led to a boycott of the tests. All this gave rise to a modification and review of the national curriculum in 1993. This modification consisted of a more global specification of subject-matter areas (broader outcome terms), a reduction of the central assessment programme and, generally, to more leeway for schools in adapting national guidelines to local circumstances.

The testing programme was limited to English, maths and science (levels of testing 7, 11 and 14 years, with public examinations at age 16. The tests at age-levels 11 and 14 are administered by the school and marked externally, whereas the tests at age seven are marked by the teachers. Independent external bodies, examination boards, provide guidance for the assessment by teachers. The examination boards are like private charitable organizations. The regional examination boards are controlled by the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority which is an independent body at national level. It checks whether the syllabuses of public examinations are consonant with the national curriculum.

The 1993 modifications of the national curriculum also left one of the five schooldays per week open for curriculum options to be freely chosen by the school for the 8-14 age-zone, and two days per week for the 14-16 age-zone. The educational publishers have cleverly adapted textbooks to suit the new curriculum.

Portugal

Criteria for the organization of instruction are nationally set and include aspects such as the number of hours of instruction, the size and constitution of classes, the distribution of the teaching service, the organization of time and space, and the definition of minimal learning objectives. Schools should follow these criteria or adapt them if justifiable.

In relation to the centrally formulated curriculum, schools are invited to introduce local components to the curriculum. It is for instance stated that 120 hours a year should be consecrated to the study of local components. This falls within the realm of the curriculum component 'school area'. Schools have the right to develop alternative curricula for pupils with achievement problems, and for those whom the national curriculum does not fit. Furthermore, they have the right to define the minimum level of attainment in the curriculum, the minimum goals. Although schools are not allowed to define the curriculum, the minimum goals are decided upon at this level.

During the seventies and the eighties, examinations were progressively abolished. Now, the process of reintroducing the examinations has started again, especially at the end of secondary



education. This process has been introduced downwards into the system, in acknowledgement of the fact that students were in very different conditions as assessed by the examinations. Formerly, students presented themselves for admission to universities with high marks despite the fact that they came from schools in remote places with less-qualified teachers, which resulted in a high level of failure at university.

Sweden

Changes have taken place in terms of autonomy. The schools and the teachers are given more freedom in deciding the way they want to arrange their teaching. Although there has been an increase in autonomy provided to the schools, it is still restricted. The national curriculum states the objectives, the content of subjects and a kind of value base for what is strived for. Nowadays, the schools may decide about the definition of the course content but central government still sets the framework. There is the obligation to have a local curriculum that works as a kind of regulator for the schools.

6.3 Changes in the Resources and Personnel Management domain

Table 6.3 provides a summary of the major changes with respect to two domains of decision making: resources and personnel management. Where necessary, the information in the table is explained.



Table 6.3 Changes in the Resources and Personnel Management domain

| Country/ State | Resources | Personnel Management |
|-------------------|--|---|
| ENG | About 85 per cent of the budget for a specific school goes directly to the schools. Schools have considerable freedom in the way they spend the budget (operating costs) | Within a general framework set by the government, they can decide how many teachers to employ and who to employ. The salary-scales for teachers are nationally specified, but schools have some latitude in determining at which level a teacher is paid. |
| FLA | Financial decisions about resources are more often taken by the school and the board of governors | |
| LOS | With respect to the payment of learning materials some changes have taken place since 1991. Books and other learning materials are paid for by the State. Educational materials to be used are either paid for by the pupils themselves or the community. Before 1991 books and learning materials had to be paid for by the parents. | |
| NET | The financial decisions are more often taken by the schools. | Greater autonomy for the schools in terms of hiring teachers and arranging the personnel structure they want. In the short term, a great change will take place in secondary education. Not the central government but the unions and the school-boards will become responsible for decisions with respect to the conditions of employment. |
| NOW | | |
| POR | Beyond the normal State funding, schools may apply for extra funding through "open competitions" for submission of educational projects. The bigger schools with more and better qualified teachers benefit most from this system. Extra funding can be obtained from school initiatives and private donations. All the financial management was made more flexible, without losing central control. It became more transparent. | |
| SWE | Financial decisions about resources are more often taken by the municipalities. | Greater autonomy for schools and also for municipalities in terms of hiring teachers and in terms of hiring extra teaching personnel and in designing the personnel structure they desire. There are tendencies towards creating schemes for more individualized salaries for teachers However, at national level the salary scales, the number of hours to work and the general duties of teachers are negotiated by the teacher unions. |



England/Wales

Schools have become less dependent on direct financial control by the LEA's. LEA's in their turn are directly funded by the government for 80 per cent, whereas a ceiling is specified with respect to the LEA's own funding. School budgets are largely (80-85%) dependent on the number of pupils, additional budgets may be obtained for carrying out special projects. Schools also have the possibility of "opting out" of LEA-control altogether. In that case they become Grant Maintained Schools and are under direct control of the government.

With respect to their latitude in determining at which level a teacher is paid schools can for instance offer retention-grants and award increments. Also there are now fewer steps on the salary-scales so that teachers can be promoted more quickly. The influence of the teacher unions in general, and on teacher remuneration in particular has been greatly reduced, due to the general policy of the conservative government with respect to trade-unions.

Flanders

Earlier, schools and their governing bodies did not have much to say about the budget, it had to be used in a very ear-marked way. Schools had to spend the money within a centrally set framework. Nowadays, a tendency can be noticed to provide schools with budgets that allow for more flexibility and autonomy in spending 'he money. However, the inspectorate sets limits to the freedom of the school and their board of governors. The inspectorate safeguards over the quality of education and may take decisions on the schools' budget.

The Netherlands

Formerly, government money was given to the schools to be used in a very ear-marked way. In the new system secondary schools will get a budget without rules governing the purposes for which it should be used. However, the central exams for secondary education and the central objectives provide an opportunity to influence the quality of education. Primary schools have less capacity to develop the necessary initiatives because the schools and their school-boards are too small. For this reason they still receive an ear-marked budget although it is less ear-marked than in former times.

With respect to personnel management, the unions and the school-boards will become responsible for negotiations and agreements on employment conditions in secondary education. In primary education the government is still responsible for the conditions of employment.

Portugal

Flexibility in the management of financial resources has been introduced within the schools' autonomy framework. Contrary to a former budgeting scheme which specified in fixed and detailed categories all possible school expenses, nowadays the school budget is designed under two broad categories: structural expenditure and educational dynamics, leaving it up to the schools to decide where best to use their money.

However, afterwards schools have to account in detail for their expenditure. This system represents flexibility, rather than autonomy, because the budget is paid on a monthly basis. The decisions which refer to the total amount of resources made available to the schools are still taken by the government.

If schools want to make greater expenditures, they need to specify exactly why they need more budget in advance. Schools have to present an annual proposal for the budget and justify



why they have increased their requests for money. One of the criteria is the size of the school, the project of the school and the improvements that can be shown to have been made (e.g. a more efficient way of managing the staff). There are no significant differences in the amount of money schools receive. The great difference is that beyond normal state funding, which corresponds with the budget located to every school per year in the basis of their own proposal, schools may apply for extra funding according to the projects they are involved in. They can apply for funding through PRODEP (Programa de Desenvolvimento Educativo para Portugal) which comes from the European Community and which represents an important part of school funding. While the normal budgeting depends on some criteria that are common to every school, this other funding is not provided on an equal basis. The extra funding is tremendously important because it may double or treble the normal budget. However, getting extra money depends on a school's own capacity and initiative. This opportunity has contributed to greater disparity among schools. Some schools can apply for every kind of funding by submitting a lot of projects, whereas others have no capacity for presenting projects. The bigger schools with better qualified teachers benefit most from this system.

Schools are also allowed to raise other kinds of local funding, from industries, parents or local authorities on whatever basis: requesting, "begging", presenting a project. Schools have always been allowed to receive donations. However, all donations had to be declared to the state budget and schools had no autonomy in spending the extra money. This has changed. Now schools are allowed to receive the donations and these are administered as an extra private fund and integrated into the state budget, but they are free to manage the fund themselves. In this case one can speak of more autonomy.

Sweden

Greater autonomy has been given to the schools and also to the municipalities as part of the decentralization and deregulation programme. In terms of hiring teachers and in terms of hiring extra teaching personnel and developing the personnel structure they want. The greatest changes have taken place at school level. The municipalities possessed some sort of authority in the previous system. Schools are responsible for the hiring and firing of the teaching staff, but this has to be ratified by the municipalities. However, municipalities do not act according to a general set framework. The municipality also sets the restrictions for hiring and firing principals. A principal can be responsible for one school, two schools or even more schools or units. On the other hand, in the big schools in upper secondary education you can have more than one principal. The state level authorities have nothing to do with the hiring and firing of teachers, except that they prescribe that you should hire competent and qualified teachers. The state authorities do not give prescriptions about the number of hours that should be taught.

There are tendencies towards creating possibilities for more individualized salaries for teachers: differentiated pay schemes are coming. However, at national level the salary scales, the number of hours to work and the general duties of teachers are negotiated by the teacher unions.

In the new system, more tasks and responsibilities have been devoluted to the local level of the municipalities. With respect to financial matters, unearmarked money is given as a lump sum to the municipalities by central government. It is not stated for which purposes it should be used (e.g. education, welfare). So, money can be transferred to schools in relation to what the community wants schools to do. In addition, they have the right to levy income



taxes. The financial decisions about resources are more often taken by the municipalities.

Schools receive their budget from the municipalities. The flow from the municipal level to the schools varies. It may be a lump sum or ear-marked money related to needs in the schools' area. Generally this flow of money has become less regulated.

6.4 Concluding remarks on changes in the decision-making structure

Major changes in the distribution of decision making authority

Movements in the patterns of decision making have taken place in the past five years in all countries, be it that new policies were implemented or that discussions on changes in the decision-making structure took on a permanent form. Decentralization processes are still taking place in England/Wales, Flanders, the Netherlands and Sweden.

Decentralization and deregulation are subject to serious discussion in the German states. In Portugal many changes in the decision-making structure have taken place, but the restructuring process should be identified as more of a deconcentration process rather than as a decentralization process because no real devolution of powers has taken place.

In England/Wales also centralization measures have been taken with respect to the curriculum. Other centralization tendencies that can be noticed concern the setting of national education objectives (NET) and the (re)introduction of national tests and examinations (NET, POR).

Deregulation, in the sense of less red tape, fewer regulations, but not accompanied by devolution of decision-making power can be observed in Flanders, the Netherlands and Sweden. These three countries have also been moving towards a more global education legislation, through so-called framework laws. This can be called a form of deregulation that is closely related to decentralization. In Portugal the deconcentration process has led to an increase in regulations.

Changes in the Curriculum and Organization of Instruction domains

In five countries/states a more or less central curriculum exists: England/Wales, the two German states, Portugal and Sweden. However, tendencies to give more leeway to schools to add local components, develop alternative curricula (POR), to adapt the curriculum to local options (ENG, SWE) or being given the choice between several curricular options, can be noted. In the other two countries (FLA, NET) only the global objectives and the (advisory) timetable are prescribed; more latitude is given to schools to develop their own curricula. Tendencies in these two countries go in the direction of more centralization, for instance less choice in terms of subjects (NET) and setting minimum qualifications (FLA). While in most countries the minimum goals are set by the central level, it is remarkable that in Portugal schools can decide upon the minimum goals of achievement within the nationally described curriculum.

Whether a national curriculum exists or not, it appears that in the past five years, schools in all countries have been given more freedom to arrange the teaching process.

Changes in the Resources and Personnel Management domains

In the resources domain clear decentralization tendencies can be observed in most countries. Actually, financing systems seem to be changing from ear-marked budgets and systems based on reimbursement to forms of budget financing in which schools have more freedom to spend the money. Schools are sometimes provided with more opportunities to apply for extra funding as well (POR). However, schools in Portugal have to account in detail for expenditure after it is spent. In the Netherlands and Sweden processes to provide



municipalities with one lump sum to be spent on (at least) both education and welfare can be seen.

With respect to personnel management, relatively speaking, the greatest decision-making power on the part of schools can be seen in England/Wales, where schools have some latitude in determining at which level a teacher is paid. Tendencies to arrange a school-specific personnel structure and possibilities for differentiated pay for teachers can be observed in the Netherlands and in Sweden.



CHAPTER 7

POLICY ISSUES SURROUNDING DEREGULATION AND DECENTRALIZATION

In this chapter the opinions of the respondents on several policy issues that surround processes of deregulation and decentralization are summarized. A distinction is made between policy goals, effects, side-effects and issues relating to school size. The chapter ends with some concluding remarks on similarities and differences among countries with respect to these policy issues.

7.1 Goals

In table 7.1 an overview is given of the major goals of policies on deregulation and decentralization in the participating countries. When interpreting this table, it is important to bear in mind that in some countries policies are being implemented while in other countries (e.g. the German states) policies take only the form of plans or discussions.

The overall picture shows a great emphasis on goals like efficiency and quality enhancement. Efficiency is seen as an important goal both in terms of cost-effectiveness (ENG, FLA, LOS, NET, SWE) and in terms of debureaucratization - less red tape (LOS, SWE).

More professional schools, or responsiveness of education were mentioned less often as major goals although these issues are sometimes regarded as means to achieve quality enhancement or efficiency.

A further explanation of the goals mentioned by each country is given below.

England/Wales

The main goals of the 1988 reforms, according to the respondents, are quality enhancement and equity considerations. As pointed out before, the national curriculum was put forward as a remedy for an overdecentralized system where there were insufficient guarantees that all students would receive an adequate education. This implies the equity-objective, which in this context should be understood in terms of a more equal provision of educational services across geographical locations. Local management of schools is also seen as an approach towards enhancing quality, in the sense of having a more professional organization and making schools more responsive to the local context. If efficiency is also one of the policygoals, this should be understood in the sense that higher standards are expected to be reached through the curriculum-reforms, whith the added benefit that more professionally organized schools will not require more funds. So efficiency is not brought about by maintaining standards and budget-cuts but rather by means of higher standards and approximately the same level of funding. The new, more intensified role of the inspectorate in accrediting schools every four years is also seen as a measure of quality-enhancement.

Flanders

Quality enhancement is the major goal behind the decentralization policy. All the developments with respect to decision making are assumed to lead to more innovative schools resulting in an enhancement of the quality of education. However, despite giving schools more responsibilities, they still have to give all children an equivalent level of basic education, irrespective of drawbacks like differences in parental income.



Table 7.1 Policy goals of decentralization and deregulation

| Country/ State | Quality enhancement | Efficiency | Equity | Professional schools | Responsiveness | Less red tape | Other |
|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| ENG | higher standards through curriculum reforms, quality enhancement through local management and inspectorate | (higher standards with same level of funding in more professionally organized schools) | more equal provision of educational services across geographical locations | | | | |
| FLA | decentralization is assumed to lead to more innovative schools resulting in better quality | cost-effectiveness | all children equivalent level of basic education | | | less red tape | |
| I.OS | | in economic terms, reducing inproductivity | | pedagogical viewpoint of self- directed learning and ownership | | less regulation | |
| NET | more school autonomy is assumed to enhance quality | cost effectiveness by decentralization of financial responsibility | | creative and innovative management | schools more responsive to needs of environment | less tight and bureaucratic administrative structure | schools responsible for financial consequences of their own decisions |
| NOW | better achievement of educational objectives through ownership | (cost effectiveness by devolution of financial responsibility) | | | | less tight and bureaucratic and fewer people working in administrative structure | ownership viewpoint |
| POR | introduction of national examinations to raise standards and quality of teachers | | | | empowering of local populations in school management, introduction of local components in the curriculum, schools more responsive to needs of nation-wide development | | democratisation by increasing the schooling and cultural level of the population |
| swe)(5 | ; | 1) in economic terms, due to recession 2) the system had to be liberated, it could no longer be managed in a centralized way | | | more market-directed system, with freedom of choice for parents and for schools to develop their own profile | | Democratisation and (neo)liberation |





Furthermore, it is believed that decentralization of financial responsibilities to school-level might lead to cost-effectiveness.

Lower Saxony

The efficiency goal should be regarded in economic terms as meaning a diminishing of inproductivity.

More professional schools implies the idea that schools should become more autonomous, that they should be responsible for a broader decision-making area and that they could function with fewer regulations. These ideas of increasing schools' autonomy are based on the pedagogical viewpoint that pupils should have influence on their own learning processes. This implies that teachers as well should be made more responsible for the organization of the instruction and the teaching process.

The discussions started after parents became free to choose the school type to be attended by their children, some ten years ago. Before that time, at the end of ISCED 1, the school decided which school type to be attended by a child. Nowadays, parents have a great influence on their childrens' school careers. This liberation of parents' choice has led to major changes in the general school patterns of pupils.

Less red tape means fewer regulations.

The Netherlands

The government expects an enhancement of quality if schools have more autonomy. Also it is believed that decentralization of financial responsibility to school level might lead to cost-effectiveness (efficiency). The budget of the government will be governable when schools are responsible for the financial consequences of their own decisions. Furthermore schools should be more creative and innovative instead of waiting for guidelines from the central government.

Responsiveness should be regarded in the sense of making schools more responsive to the needs of the environment, for example the parents, the pupils or other schools. Also the whole administrative structure of the education system is regarded as too tight and too bureaucratic.

Furthermore, a main goal of decentralizing powers to the municipality is the attainment of coherence between local education policies and local welfare policies on the one hand and among schools on the other.

North Rhine Westphalia

Although no official policy with respect to decentralization has been adopted, some goals can be derived from the current discussions about decentralization. The idea is that the skilled people who do the work, those who are actually executing education and are responsible for the upbringing of children. should also have the main responsibility for the decisions that have to be taken with respect to this work. This means that on the one side the principal should be given more decision making authority and on the other side that parents, students and teachers together need to adopt a certain amount of responsibility for their own school.

The goals presented above aimed at adopting responsibility (ownership) are assumed to lead to enhancement of the quality of education and a better achievement of educational objectives.

The whole administrative structure of the education system is regarded as too tight, too bureaucratic. Less red tape, less bureaucratization could be achieved by diminishing the



number of people working in the administrative structure. A smaller administrative structure could probably also lead to fewer costs. Furthermore, the relatively high level of autonomy teachers enjoy is still experienced as a freedom within the boundaries of regulations. Examples of such regulations are: prescribed lesson time of 45 minutes, scale of the classroom, obligations of teaching only in the morning and subject-centred teaching.

Efficiency is certainly not a major goal in the discussions about decentralization. Yet, it is believed that devolution of financial responsibility to school-level might increase cost-effectiveness

Portugal

Democratisation is the major goal behind their deconcentration policy. It has to be understood in the sense of the broadening of compulsory education, i.e. increasing the schooling level of the population, supporting all the initiatives that can contribute to an increase in the cultural level of the population. Several initiatives for adult education have been put into practice.

Clearly, one of the goals is to empower local populations in this democratisation movement. The new (experimental) law on school management reflects this goal. Local education school-boards are being established which can decide on the school policy and set directions. So, initiatives for participative management have been made. Furthermore, schools are invited to add local components to the national curriculum. Responsiveness is meant also in the sense of making schools more responsive to the needs of nationwide development. An important trend, namely the concern for better qualified manpower led to the introduction of the system of professional schools and the technical, vocational tranche in secondary study programmes.

One of the important reforms introduced with respect to the notion of local and national responsibility was made with the introduction of national examinations at the level of the school or groups of schools. One of the goals stated in this reform was the introduction of more quality with respect to all aspects of the teaching process in schools. There is a movement to evaluate schools and teachers in order to raise quality and standards.

Sweden

Change started with the discussion about democratisation, giving influence to more people and devoluting influence from the central level to the periphery, the local level. Sweden is dealing with liberal and neo-liberal developments. This also applies to the schools, which were pressed to make the system more liberal, more open, more responsive to the local communities. The democratic aspect is still there, but the issue of efficiency has become increasingly important.

Efficiency can be considered in economic terms, and this is certainly applicable to Sweden which has been in the grip of a recession over the last five or six years. Efficiency can also be regarded in terms of pressure on the schools to make the system more liberal and better manageable. The education system had become so complicated that it was not longer possible to govern it from the central level. Too many people had a say and wanted a say in decision making regarding schools; it was no longer possible to manage the system in a centralized way. The system had to be liberated. By abolishing the National Board of Education a direct line from the government to the municipalities was created.

Equally, one can say that there is a tendency towards a more market-directed system, the



next step as it were, where freedom of choice is a very important concept. Freedom of choice applies to parents being given more opportunity to choose a school for their children, but also to schools being given more opportunity to develop their own profile in order to be attractive to parents and pupils. Nowadays, so called 'free schools' exist in Sweden. They are a kind of private schools, although they get state money and money from the municipalities.

7.2 Effects

Countries were asked to indicate to what extent policies of deregulation and decentralization are successful with respect to the major goals mentioned in paragraph 7.1.

An overview of their estimation of the effects is presented in table 7.2. Interpretation of this table should be undertaken with caution, because sometimes countries could only give an impression of possible (future) effects, which was dependent on the policies' progress.

England/Wales

The implementation of the Educational Reform Act of 1988 has been a turbulent process. It is too early to assess the effect of the 1993 modifications, but the feeling of the respondents is that there is now wide acceptance for the national curriculum. The objections have mostly been directed towards the way it was implemented. According to the inspectorate, there is already evidence that the national curriculum has improved the quality of education.

Local Management of Schools is also considered to be successful. The respondents note that the reforms have given education a high political visibility, and that education is now much more newsworthy than it used to be.

Flanders

Compared to earlier times, schools are more creative. More schools take initiatives to improve the quality of their education and less guidelines are expected from the government. However, the process is in an initial stage and schools are far from being as creative as the government would like.

Unfortunately, the education system is still not efficient enough. The government of the community has to subsidize too many small schools which results in fragmented budgeting. More co-operation and an increasing the size of the schools are possible ways to make the education system more efficient. Furthermore, the distinction between public and private education costs too much money. The expenditures required to achieve equal educational access and opportunity for everyone are increasing. Nevertheless, the higher budget does not seem to be providing the desired result. The accessibility of the education system has not changed over the last five years.

Schools still complain about the bureaucracy. However, the government of the Flemish community does try to give clear information without too many detailed regulations.

Lower Saxony

With respect to 'more professional schools' the school level has developed faster than the other levels. An indication for this development is the fact that headteachers will evaluate the functioning of the teaching staff in future.

Elimination of the 'Schulaufsichtsamt' will lead to a decrease in the total number of employees (one public servant will be responsible for a greater number of schools and teachers). A direct related decrease in costs cannot be estimated.



Table 7.2 Effects of centralization and decentralization policies

| Country/ State | Quality enhancement | Efficiency | Equity | Professional schools | Responsiveness | Less red tape | Other |
|-------------------|--|--|--|--|--|---|--|
| ENG | the quality of education is improved by the national curriculum | _ | too early to assess the effect | • | local management of schools seems to make them more responsive to the local context (which may enhance quality) | | |
| FLA | more schools are taking initiatives to improve the quality | not efficient enough | no change in the accessibility of the education system | • | | schools still complain about the bureaucracy | - |
| LOS | - | decrease in the total number of employees | - | in the future headteachers will evaluate the functioning of the teaching staff | - | the consultation function of the "Schulaufsichts-amt" will disappear, the inspectorate function will be transferred to the "Bezirksregierung" | schools will develop their own school profile |
| NET | too early to assess the effect | schools are more aware of the financial consequenc. | 1 <u> </u> | too early to assess the effect | no signs of effects are noticed | the administrative structure is still too tight and bureaucratic | too early to assess the effects of the responsibility of the schools for the financial consequences of their own decisions |
| NOM, | - | | - | | | | - |
| POR | greater professionalism of teachers and principals | - | - | - | 1) networks of schools, 2) financial autonomy permitted greater initiatives at school level 3) more responsibility for the municipality with respect to the management of the system | | as a consequence of more democratic schools larger parts of the population are attending schools |
| swe | | decreased bureaucratization due to the abolishment of the National Board of Education | - | - | 1)more private, free school alternatives 2)teachers develop new initiatives and are professionalising | • | too early to assess the effect |

The question to what extent the policy is successful is not applicable in North Rhine Westphalia, there are no changes with respect to decentralization.



The consultation function of the 'Schulaufsichtsamt' will disappear, the inspectorate function will be kept but will be transferred to the 'Bezirksregierung'.

The Netherlands

It is too early to assess the effects of the decentralization policy on the quality of education, on the control of the governments' estimate (i.e. whether real budget control has been achieved) and on the professionality of the schools. Some schools seem to be professionally organized and managed but it is not clear whether this is caused by the policy of decentralization or by something else.

With respect to efficiency, schools seem to be more aware of the financial consequences of their decisions.

Schools do not seem to be more responsive.

The administrative structure is still too tight and bureaucratic. A danger is a shifting of red tape to the municipalities. The bureaucratic structure of the municipal authority may take the place of the bureaucratic structure of the central government. A second reason for the bureaucratic structure is the fact that, in spite of decentralization, the central government still needs a lot of information from the schools. There are fewer rules, but the government still needs about the same amount of information.

Portugal

A lot of improvements can be observed: the effort made in the offering of training courses for teachers and principals and the demand for training courses is an important and meaningful sign. It is not only a matter of looking for credits for promotion, teachers really feel the need to update their knowledge and their efficiency. So, a trend towards greater professionalism can be observed.

More democratic schools can be found in the sense that larger parts of the population that formerly had no access to education are now attending schools. The education system of Portugal is the only one in Europe that is still expanding, especially at ISCED level 2 and 3. More youngsters, even within the age of compulsory education, are looking for a place in the system. This is possible, because there are more schools now, more qualified teachers and more student residences, even at non-university level.

More autonomy in financial terms permitted greater initiatives and dynamics at school level. It also supported local initiatives in the expansion of the system because new competencies were attributed to the municipalities responsible for pre-primary education and ISCED level 1. They were pushed towards these different initiatives as a consequence of decentralization. It will take some time, but in a few years the municipalities will also get more responsibility for the other levels of the education system. The lower authority levels will become more and more responsible for the management of the system and be given the means to run it.

Another sign is that schools were invited to associate themselves in small networks so that they would profit more from the investments on training and local dynamics. Instead of having split initiatives schools were invited to work together on a municipal basis so that they could share more power. Lateral structures between schools are appearing.



Sweden

It takes a long time to restructure a system. It is still too early to assess the effects of the policy. Sweden has always been known for its centralized system, its centralized model of welfare for example. A lot of traditions still exist. The decentralization of Swedish schools is part of the process of decentralizing Swedish society.

However, signs of effects, signs of what is happening, can be noticed. Parents are free to choose schools for their children but, still most of them choose the school nearest to where they live. There are private, 'free school' alternatives. About 20.000 pupils attend 'free schools' now. More and more 'free schools' are being created. Teachers have been given more freedom; they are supposed to - and some of them have taken the opportunity - to participate more in decision-making on the organization of the work within the school. In some schools groups of teachers are taking the opportunities and developing new initiatives and are in fact professionalising.

At municipality level, there are differences between the way municipalities organize the schools.

The National Agency is working very hard on the evaluation of the system and the spreading of information about the schools.

In relation to the goals of efficiency, it is true that the education system has become cheaper, but it is not clear if this has been caused by the recession or by increased efficiency. Budget cuts to schools and municipalities have been part of the policy. A clear effect with respect to the goal of efficiency is the decreased bureaucratization due to the abolishment of the National Board of Education.

7.3 Harmful side-effects

Countries were asked to mention which side-effects of current decentralization and deregulation policies they would consider 'harmful' or perhaps had even seen to be detrimental.

As was the problem with assessing the effects of current policies, assessing harmful side-effects led to even more hesitation in the answers.

However, a shifting of red tape, i.e. when an intermediary decision-making level steps in and takes over the formal regulative activities, so that red tape just travels from one level to the next, is feared or has actually happened in some countries, as Table 7.3 shows.

A loosening of standards due to the lack of a common educational core and monitoring system was only feared as being a possible side-effect, but not mentioned as a harmful side-effect that had already occurred.

Bad vertical coordination of curricula - in the sense that autonomy could make the coordination between educational levels more difficult which could in turn lead to lower overall performance - is not feared for or experienced in any of the countries.

Only two countries (NET and NOW) mention a neglect of the primary process in favour of attention to management and organization as a possible harmful side-effect. It may be that a lot of a schools' capacity will be concentrated in the areas of (financial) management, at the expense of the primary process of teaching and learning.

Although guaranteeing equity is seen as a major task of the education system, it is feared by some respondents that the system could become more elitist due to decentralization.



Table 7.3 Harmful side-effects

| Country/ State | Shifting of red tape | Loosening of standards | Bad vertical coordination | | More elitist system | Other |
|-------------------|--|--|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| ENG | regulations with respect to the national curriculum and the new tasks of schools to | | of curricula | process | | |
| | account for their functio- ning towards local communities have led to some increase in red tape | | | | | |
| Fl.A | national institutions who represent schools might take over the power of the schools | | | | | |
| 1.08 | | | | | | inisinterpretation of auto- nomy; loss of a supporting level (Schulaufsichtsamt); perhaps more state inspection; more pressure from school environment on the primary process |
| Ni I | municipal authority may take the place of the bureaucratic structure of the central government | | | principals get many new tasks for which they are not yet qualified | more variation between schools may lead to elitism | |
| NOW | | too much decentralization may lead to inequality with respect to overall achievement levels | | more time spent on manage- ment at the expense of time to spend on educational matters | | government should keep the ultimate responsibility for education |
| POR | | | | | | rebureaucratization |
| SWI | | | | | diminishing of pluralism, more focus on the clites, disadvantaged learners will fall more behind | |



Other possible harmful side-effects of decentralization processes, mentioned by the German States deal with the overall responsibility for education, which should - in their opinion - stay at central level. Also, autonomy should not be misunderstood by schools as being complete freedom of action. Rebureaucratization was mentioned as a harmful effect by Portugal although it should not be regarded as a side-effect, because it was foreseen. A more detailed description of the harmful side-effects mentioned by the respondents is given below.

England/Wales

The regulations with respect to the national curriculum and the new tasks of schools to account for their functioning towards local communities have led to some increase in "red tape".

The respondents doubt the seriousness of an alleged "elitist" and social segregation side-effect of the new marker-oriented school-policies. Although it is recognized that parents of lower socio-economic status will generally be in a worse position to profit from the school achievement lists published in the local media, they doubt that schools are becoming more socially selective. They feel that schools can only marginally select student intake although they have greater power to expel pupils and a tendency towards higher referrals to special education. Respondents underline the importance of presenting value-added results in providing parents and local communities with information on the schools' performances.

In general there has never been a strong public opposition against the substance of the current educational reforms.

Flanders

Shifting of red tape has occured a little. The decision-making power has been devoluted from the community level to the schools. However, the influence of the national institutions who produce educational directives has increased at the expense of the power of the schools. The government of the community is afraid that these institutions will take the decisions instead of the schools.

No signs of other harmful side-effects. There is a tendency for schools to select only more advantaged pupils, but this is not regarded as a side-effect of deregulation.

Lower Saxony

It will be difficult for small schools to develop towards more professionalism; the role of the headteacher in those schools is more 'primus inter paris'.

In the discussion about increasing schools' autonomy, respondents were a little uncertain about how this greater autonomy would be interpreted; it should not be interpreted as 'being completely free to act' but more like freedom within boundaries.

The disadvantage of eliminating the 'Schulamt' is the loss of its individual and system counselling function. It will lead to more State inspection and that is not what is aimed for because this is regarded as contra-productive to autonomy. Also it could be said that a support-level will disappear; no replacement has yet been found for this support.

A positive side-effect is the expectation that schools will develop their own school profile, although this could mean that objective standards and possibilities for comparative tests may disappear.

Headteachers may need to spend a lot of time in discussion with the parents and community in order to clarify and explain the policy of the school. Schools may not always



have the potential to offer resistance to powers from outside the school.

It may lead to pressure that could cause disadvantages for the primary process.

The Netherlands

The danger is a shifting of red tape to the municipalities. The bureaucratic structure of the municipal authority may take the place of the bureaucratic structure of central government.

At present, schools have to invest much more in the area of (financial) management. Principals have been given many new responsibilities for financial matters, administration and organization, although they are not qualified and skilled to perform those tasks. Therefore, it is felt that time spent on management detracts from the time being spent on the primary process of teaching and learning. In the long term this harmful side-effect might be neutralized because principals will get used to their new tasks.

In future there will be more variation between schools. Some schools may want to select more advantaged pupils. Other schools, however, will promote themselves by emphasizing equal access and opportunity to education for everyone. In addition, it is highly questionable whether more variation is a harmful side-effect.

No loosening of standards or signs of bad coordination between curricula are feared, because of the goals and examinations defined at central level.

North Rhine Westphalia

In the discussions, teachers fear that too much decentralization leads to inequality with respect to overall achievement levels.

Headteachers have been given many new duties with respect to financial matters, administration and organization. They are not qualified and skilled to perform those tasks and there is no support personnel available to them. So, it is felt that more time spent on management and organization detracts from the time spent on educational matters.

In the discussion, adversaries stress the idea that the (national) government is responsible for education and should keep that responsibility.

Some people fear that the special characteristics of the different school forms (e.g. Gymnasium) will disappear if schools become fully autonomous.

Portugal

Schools complain that bureaucracy is increasing. Starting from a very bureaucratic system and moving to many informal ways of regulation and communication in the late seventies and early eighties, some order was slowly recovered. Now, there is an upsurge in the cult of bureaucracy. It could be called a rebureaucratization process due to a reformalization in the control of the system. According to the inspectorate, nowadays the bureaucracy controls the schools. A recent development is that all the activities at each authority level are controlled by the next level in the hierarchy.

There are two kinds of regulations. On the one hand schools are obliged by regulations to submit plans, to be accountable and to develop projects. In the accountability mechanism, which focuses mainly on the financial domain, the regulations are very strict. The rules are less strict with respect to the school plan of activities which has to be presented in a certain period and be approved by the regional authorities. The regulations are much less strict with respect to the educational project for each school.

Another kind of strictness concerns regulations that rule the daily life of the schools,



defining the procedures to be followed, reflected in the tremendous number of circulars and letters schools receive from the regional departments. Schools were not used to being autonomous. So when they were given autonomy they did not benefit from it enough and they continued to conform to the rules. Schools even asked for more rules or asked for specification of the guidelines given to them.

Sweden

One problem that occurs has to do with disadvantaged pupils. Harder times have arrived in their case, not only because of the decrease in money being given to education, but also due to the distribution of money to schools within the system. In some communities there has been more focus on the elites, so, the disadvantaged pupils will increasingly fall behind. The school is contributing to segregation. In the Swedish system it has always been a major aim to have children with different backgrounds together in one class. The pluralism of society was reflected within a school and within a class. The 'free schools', the profiling, the choice options for the parents have led to a diminishing of this pluralism in public schools because some pupils have been taken out. The integrative socialization function of schools is loosening up. However, it is stated in law and in the curricula that everyone should have equal access to education. This major aim of equity is safeguarded by the National Agency through the inspectorate function.

Shifting of red tape occurs a little because associations (e.g. the association for municipalities) and networks are being created.

Loosening of standards may arise due to diversification. On the other hand, local influence on standards has increased. This has brought a new dimension to evaluation; focusing on differences in outcomes. Loosening of standards is not regarded as a harmful side-effect; it is more a matter of redefining standards.

Neither signs of bad coordination between curricula nor signs of neglect of primary processes has been noticed. The administrative duty of the principal is more or less the same.

7.4 School size

Table 7.4 shows whether there is a combined policy within the selected countries or states with respect to increased autonomy and increased size of schools.

Apart from the Netherlands, there is no connection in any of the countries between policies that stimulate school autonomy and policies with respect to school size. In the Netherlands, scaling-up is seen as a necessary condition for more autonomy. It is believed that small schools run too many risks under a policy of decentralization. They have not enough capacity to develop the necessary initiatives with respect to (financial) management and organization.

In Flanders and North Rhine Westphalia there is no combined policy of school size and decentralization but it is subject to serious discussions. In Flanders there are some experiments in secondary education. Increasing the size of schools seems to be desirable for reasons of:

- efficiency, as a result of co-operation schools can attain more goals within their existing budget;
- professionalism, as a result of co-operation schools have more power and are less dependent on national institutions;
- quality, as a result of co-operation pupils have a higher chance of getting the best suitable education.



Table 7.4 Combined policies

| Country / State School size and decentralisation | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| ENG | no combined policy | | |
| FLA | no combined policy, although there are some experiments in secondary education | | |
| LOS | no combined policy | | |
| NET | combined policy | | |
| NOW | no combined policy, although it is subject to serious discussions | | |
| POR | no combined policy | | |
| SWE | no combined policy | | |

In North Rhine Westphalia it is suggested that tasks from the "Schulamt" be devoluted to the schools. Many small primary schools will not have the capacity to perform these new tasks adequately. Therefore, it is recommended that five or six schools combine and appoint one headteacher for the whole group.

7.5 Concluding remarks on policy issues

When summarizing the main evaluative statements of the respondents with respect to the goals, effects and side-effects of existing policies, variation among countries can be seen, although comparable tendencies were reported everywhere.

Quality enhancement and efficiency are the most important goals of centralization and decentralization policies or processes. In many countries the goal of enhancing the quality of education is thought to be achievable by giving schools more responsibilities, by stimulating schools to function as professional organizations, and by making schools more responsive to the needs of the local environment (parents, pupils, local policies). In some countries quality enhancement is strived for through centralization measures like the national curriculum (ENG), national education objectives (NET), setting minimum qualifications (FLA), national tests and examinations (ENG, NET, POR).

Efficiency is another important goal mentioned by the respondents. Most of the time the concept was interpreted in terms of cost-effectiveness. Cost-effectiveness either in the sense of achieving the same level of performance with a lower budget (FLA, LOS, NET, NOW, SWE), or cost-effectiveness by achieving higher standards through the same level of funding (ENG). A lower budget may be the result of budget cuts but devoluting financial responsibility to schools is thought to be a good way to improve financial management and prevent regular budget increases. Efficiency in some countries is seen in terms of debureaucratization, not so much in the sense of less red tape, but in making the system more manageable by creating shorter lines of communication, sometimes by dispensing with a whole administrative level - which may stimulate cost-effectiveness as well. Reducing regulations (less red tape) is a goal closely related to debureaucratization and often associated with changes in responsibility for decision making.

Looking at the effects and the successfulness of current centralization and decentralization



policies can only be done with the utmost caution. Many countries are hesitant to do so because it is, on the whole, too early to assess effects and some decentralization processes are still in a very early developmental stage. The overall picture shows movement in the education field. Schools are taking over responsibilities, are adapting to new challenges, are becoming more responsive and more professionally managed. Enhanced quality, increased efficiency or equity cannot yet be reported as policy effects.

The same caution should be maintained when looking at the possible harmful side-effects of decentralization policies. Shifts of red tape can be noticed in some countries, where another intermediary level steps in and takes over the formal regulatory activities. Some countries fear a loss of the overall responsibility for education or are worried about the system becoming more elitist. Neglect of the primary process in favour of management and organization was seen in only a few cases as an expectable side-effect of more autonomy being given to schools.

With respect to the issue of school size, it is only in the Netherlands that combined policies of increasing school size and stimulating school autonomy are actually taking place.



CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

In this final chapter integrative conclusions on the issues addressed in this study are drawn. The discussion part deals with both a critical reflection on the applied research methodology and some recommendations for future international comparative research on features of education systems.

8.1 Summary and conclusions

Deregulation takes the form of vertical decentralization in most countries, meaning that not only a reduction in regulations, but also a devolution of formal decision-making authority to lower levels in the hierarchy is aimed for. Although one could speak of centralization and decentralization tendencies in the investigated countries/states, the concept is not adequate for the various processes controlling patterns of distribution of authority. In this study, associated terms like restructuring and deconcentration, which indicate change and more flexibility respectively, were used as well. Also, one should be aware of many practices of delegation of decision-making authority, which could not fully be covered by this investigation. It is important to mention the difference between formal responsibility and the way decision making is occurring in practice. For instance in Sweden and the Netherlands, where certain tasks are delegated or mandated to the schools, we see that while a higher level (i.c. the lower intermediate) is formally responsible, in practice the school decides. The formal responsibility merely takes the form of ratification or approval.

The distinction between functional (refering to domains) and territorial decentralization (refering to loci and modes) proved to be a useful one. It appears that in some domains authority is given to the school or the lower intermediate level whereas in other domains centralized measures are taken. The global picture indicates devolution of decision-making authority in the domains of resources and organization of instruction, while in the curriculum domain centralization measures are taken to ensure the achievement of quality standards.

When looking at the factual situation on decision making, one could say that more than 50 per cent of all submitted decisions are taken at school level in three countries (ENG, NET, SWE). This percentage is about 30 in the other countries/states investigated. Regarding the mode of decision making at school level, it appears that decisions are taken either autonomously or within a framework. Central level decisions are mostly taken autonomously. Decisions in the domain of organization of instruction are predominantly taken at school level, while in the domain of resources or in the domain of curriculum decisions are taken at central level. The degree of school autonomy could - with some caution - be deduced by looking at the number of decisions in which the schools is involved, either because the school takes them, or because the school is consulted about them. Based on this criterion of school involvement in decision-making, the figures reveal a relatively high degree of school autonomy in England/Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden.

When looking at the stage of development of current centralization and decentralization processes, one could say that the situation in the Netherlands is changing relatively fast towards decentralization in all domains, while at the same time some centralized measures are being taken to ensure the achievement of standards. In the federative structure of Germany, in which overall responsibility for education has traditionally been concentrated at



state level, processes to further decentralize merely take the form of plans and discussions. In England, traditionally very decentralized with much educational decision-making power concentrated at the lower intermediate level, processes to further decentralize from the LEA's to the school level, together with centralization in the curriculum domain can be seen, followed by some decentralizing measures with respect to curriculum modifications. In Flanders, Portugal and Sweden, policies on restructuring the decision-making structure are still in the process of implementation.

Regarding functional centralization and decentralization, according to the respondents schools have been given more freedom to arrange the teaching process. This tendency can be observed in all countries/states, whether a national curriculum exists or not. Decentralization tendencies can also be observed in the resources domain. In many countries the finance system has become less regulated, meaning a change from very regulated and ear-marked budgets to forms of budget financing that allow for more control over the budget at school level.

The evaluative part of this study was focused on goals, effects and side-effects of current centralization and decentralization policies, as perceived by the respondents. The major goals of these policies are quality enhancement and efficiency. On the one hand quality enhancement of education is strived for by giving schools more responsibilities and stimulating them to function as professional organizations, thus making them more responsible to the needs of the environment. On the other hand centralization measures in the curriculum domain are also taken to ensure the overall quality of education. In many countries efficiency in terms of cost-effectiveness is regarded as another important goal of decentralization.

Although some movement in the field of educational responsibility can be seen, according to our respondents clear effects from centralization and decentralization policies in terms of enhanced quality, increased efficiency or equity have yet to be witnessed.

A schematic overview of the mair conclusions is presented below.



Schematic Overview of the main conclusions

| Existing levels of authority | |
|---|--|
| Central level | - Ministry of Education (ENG, NET, POR, SWE) - Ministry of Education of the State (FLA, LOS, NOW) |
| Upper intermediate level | regional authority (LOS, NOW, POR) municipality (NET) absent (ENG, FLA, SWE) |
| Lower intermediate level | - local authority (LOS, NOW, POR (ISCED 1), SWE) - governing body/local educational authority (all countries/states) |
| School level | - school (all countries) - schoolboard/school council (ENG, FLA, POR) |
| Factual basis for decentralization | |
| Terntonal (locus) | more than half of decisions taken at school level (ENG, NET, SWE) about one third of decisions taken at school level (FLA, LOW, NOW, POR) more than half of decisions taken at central level (POR, |
| Terntonal (mode) | decisions taken at school level either autonomously or within a framework set by central government decisions taken at central level mostly autonomously |
| Functional | - school level decides upon 'Organization of Instruction' - intermediate levels decide upon 'Resources', 'Planning and Structures' (curriculum), and 'Personnel Management' - central level either predominant on 'Resources' or on 'Curriculum' (planning and structures) |
| Degree of school autonomy | - highest involvement in decision making by schools in ENG, NET, SWE |
| Changes in decision-making struct | ure |
| Major changes past five years | - decentralization processes: ENG, FLA, NET, SWE - decentralization plans: LOS, NOW - deconcentration: POR - centralization measures: ENG, NET, POR - deregulation processes: FLA, NET, SWE - deregulation plans: 1.OW, NOW - more regulation: POR |
| Changes in Curriculum and Organization of Instruction domain | - more freedom for schools to arrange the teaching process - more leeway for schools (in some countries) to interpret the curriculum within the boundaries of central prescriptions on standards. |



| Changes in Resources and Personnel management domain | - decentralization in financial matters in most countries/states - movement towards more budget financing - relatively speaking more powers at school level in ENG with respect to personnel management - tendencies towards more school autonomy in personnel management matters |
|---|---|
| Policy issues surrounding decentre | alization |
| Policy goals | - quality enhancement - efficiency |
| Policy effects | not yet assessable in terms of quality enhancement or efficiency or equity more responsibilities to schools, more professionally managed schools, more responsiveness to school environment |
| Harmful side-effects | - shift of red tape in some countries - fear for loss of overall responsibility for education - fear for neglect of primary process due to more time spent on management and organization |
| Policies on school size | - only in NET combined policies of increasing school size and stimulating school autonomy |

8.2 Methodological reflection and discussion

This study aimed to define the developments that are taking place in the administration and management of some European education systems. Moreover, the study was meant to provide an overview of the actual shifts in the distribution of responsibilities within the education systems of these countries. Comparisons among countries and between the Netherlands and these countries were to be made available in a conveniently arranged presentation.

A second aim of this study was to explore the usefulness and appropriateness of the research methods and instruments in order to lay a foundation for more structural comparisons of the Dutch education system with those of the neighbouring countries/states in the future.

The current state of affairs in comparative studies on international education systems is generally reflected in two kinds of publications. On the one hand many country-reports containing qualitative descriptive information are available. Publications that report quantitative information often deal with indicators which - by their nature - can only provide global and limited information. A clear advantage of the qualitative country-reports is the level of detail in which the information is presented. Yet, these reports have their limitations when it comes to comparisons between countries. Quantitative indicator reports do meet the requirements for international comparisons but are often criticized for their lack of detail and background information.

The challenge of this study on patterns of decision making was to benefit from the advantages of both methods of presenting information on international education systems. Rather detailed information about an aspect of education that affects the whole system - its administration • was to be presented in a way that allowed for easy comparisons.

Three integrated methods have been used to capture patterns of functional and territorial decentralization.



First a compilation of available information from the literature and official documents on the existing levels of authority in each country or state was made. These existing levels were categorized in the OECD/INES framework which distinguishes four levels: the school, two intermediate levels and the central level. This compilation was submitted to the seven countries/states while respondents were requested to update the information on their decision-making structure and to check the classification of their governing bodies according to the framework.

Secondly, the OECD/INES instrument for data-collection on the modes and loci of decision making was administered in order to yield information on decentralization on a factual basis. This factual basis comprises comparable information on the proportion of educational decisions in four domains taken at each of the four distinguished levels of authority. In addition, information about the degree of autonomy under which these decisions are taken was collected

The dynamics in the dispersion of educational responsibilities were assessed by means of a semi-structured interview. Respondents provided information on the major changes in the educational decision-making structure of their countries/states over the past five years. These changes were categorized in accordance with the concept of functional decentralization by using the four domains of decision making: organization of instruction, curriculum (planning/structures), resources and personnel management.

In addition to this assessment of the dynamics with respect to territorial and functional decentralization, more evaluative statements from the respondents on policy issues surrounding processes of decentralization were collected through the interview.

When reflecting on the research methodology, it could be stated that the integration of the constructs of functional and territorial decentralization in the three methods used for data-collection has proved to be feasible. Moreover, this method provided a useful supplement to former attempts at collecting information on centralization and decentralization by means of the OECD/INES instrument alone. Yet, some aspects of the instrument proved to be problematic. First, the classification of the existing bodies of authority in a country into four prescribed decision-making levels causes problems if - for instance - more than four levels exist. Secondly, variation across states in federal states is not reflected when the questions are completed at country level. Next, the three possible modes of decision making are considered not to be mutually exclusive and, in addition, difficult to deal with. Fourth, although the legal/formal situation in a country is explicitly asked for in the questionnaire, the difference between the formal situation and general practice - often reflected in delegation of responsibilities - is experienced as difficult to handle as the questionnaire did not take this into account. Finally, the need is felt for more clarification on the wording of the decisions.

To some extent these criticisms could be allayed by modifying the instrument and by extending the procedure for data-collection with other instruments. The country-specific description of the decision-making structure proved to be a good starting point for classifying the existing decision-making authorities in accordance with the four-level framework. It led to more standardization in the classification and made it relatively easy to complete the questions about the locus of decision making. Also, respondents felt that the decision-making structure of their country - although depicted within the boundaries of the framework - was better reflected and covered through this additional description. Finally, this country-specific information functioned as a reference point for the interpretation of the factual basis of decentralization.



In order to tackle the second problem - neglect of variation across states in federal states -, it was decided to outline the decision-making structure at state level, by categorizing the state level as central level, which allows for comparisons between states on the one hand and comparisons between countries and states on the other. This solution was also considered to be in accordance with the fact that the state level in federal states usually has overall responsibility for education, while few powers on educational matters are executed at country level.

The third problem - modes not mutually exclusive - could not be completely solved within the context of this study. Definitions were further explained during the interview in order to achieve standardization in the answers. In addition, changes in the modes of decision making were addressed during the interview too in order to tune the information acquired through the questionnaire on the degree of autonomy in which decisions are taken.

With respect to the problem of the difference between the formal/legal situation and the general practice of decision making, it was decided to allow for reporting general practice if a country had made the delegation or mandating of certain responsibilities explicit or formal. Furthermore, if applicable, additional information or notes on the phenomenon of delegation was given.

The last problem, concerning the definitions of the concepts, was resolved by further refinement of these definitions.

It has to be noted that the improvement of this instrument was delineated to certain boundaries due to the need to compare data over a period of time in order to detect changes in the educational decision-making structure of a country/state.

Although the refining process of the OECD/INES instrument has been substantial, the most important improvements have been yielded from the use of the additional data-collection instruments, also based on the core constructs of the questionnaire: functional and territorial decentralization. However, further improvements are possible and desirable, especially with respect to the distinction of the modes of decision making "d the wording of the items. Also, the selection of items to represent the four domains of decision making could be reconsidered. Depending on one's perspective and focus on autonomy, new items could be added while deleting or re-ordering others.

Regarding the second aim of this study, i.e. providing a foundation for more structural comparisons of the Dutch education system with those of neighbouring countries/states, further elaboration on the use of the three-dimensions: levels, domains and modes of decision making is recommended.

Apart from this reflection on the instruments used in this study, some other methodological remarks should be made. The scope of this study was rather limited. Only information on public primary and lower secondary education could be collected, whereas especially in Flanders and in the Netherlands a large proportion of pupils attend private, government dependent schools.

Also, a relatively small number of seven countries/states could be investigated within the context of this study. Yet, the selection of countries with different priorities with respect to shifts in functional and territorial decentralization has compensated to some extent for this shortcoming.

In each country/state two or more respondents participated in the investigation, one of them being a policy maker from the department of education, the other an educational expert. It is worth bearing in mind for future research that it might be wise to interview representatives

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from schools too in order to avoid a certain 'policy-maker bias' in the answers. This seems particularly relevant for the evaluative part of this study in which opinions on the effects and side-effects of centralization and decentralization policies were collected. It is likely that effects of - for instance - deregulation policies are experienced differently by developers of policies than they are by the executers of these policies.

Attached to the themes of decentralization and deregulation - or more generally the shifts in patterns of centralization/decentralization in some countries - are some problems that could only be partially dealt with in our study. These problems would require further analytic and empirical investigation for a complete answer.

Equity and efficiency issues revisited

It has been a limitation of our study that our respondents were predominantly government officials. Particularly in the case of ENG their assessment of recent reforms differs from contributions by educational researchers. These latter contributions are much more critical with respect to side-effects in the area of social inequality. For example, Gerwitz et al. (1994), state that the United Kingdom policies aimed at enhancing public schools favour middle class parents and pupils, because they are most likely to actually use the increased options to their own advantage. These authors note that "schools are increasingly oriented towards meeting the perceived demands of middle class parents". They say that the cheapest and most labour-efficient way for schools to improve their league-table position is to recruite able children and keep children with special education needs to a minimum. This latter phenomenon is also reported in a study by Evans and Lunt (1995) who conclude that "schools with large numbers of students with special needs are weak players in the educational market and are likely to be less popular with parents, especially middle class parents".

In other empirical studies from the United Kingdom the supposed beneficial aspects of Local Management of Schools with respect to efficiency and democracy are seen as doubtful. Deem and Brehony (1994) found that the new school boards were not particularly democratic, and too removed from the primary educational process to have any possible effect on increased efficiency. Both these authors and Henshaw et al. (1995) conclude that the school boards are a new arena of political power struggles and sources of conflicts - with parents and teachers as weaker players than politically appointed nominees and "business governors".

The, supposedly, effectiveness-enhancing potential of autonomous schools is also seen as doubtful in some of the comments on Chubb and Moe's (1990) study in the USA (cf. Witte, 1990; Scheerens, 1995). Analyses of effectiveness-enhancing mechanisms should be part of further work regarding the effectiveness enhancing potential of decentralization and deregulation. According to Scheerens (1995) "choice" can hardly be seen as a convincing candidate among such mechanisms, particularly at the level of elementary education and the first phase of secondary education (also see Hirsch et al., 1994).

"Workable" combinations in functional decentralization

The concept of functional decentralization worked well in our study in allowing for different emphases on centralized or decentralized tendencies in different domains of schooling. A further question, when detecting various "mixtures" of domain-tied centralization and decentralization tendencies regards the extent to which such combinations can actually work. To be more concrete, a currently popular option is to centralize educational outcomes (through standard setting, national assessment and accountability requirements), and to decentralize educational administration (financial and resource management), while leaving



the educational process as professionally autonomous (decentralized, deregulated) as it has been traditionally in most national systems.

Particularly the combination of "centralized in terms of outcomes" and "decentralized in terms of process" appears to be inherently problematic. Outcome standards and national assessments will stimulate uniformity in the area of the curriculum and perhaps even in preferred teaching methods. This latter connection can be stimulated by educational publishers who will seek to gear text-books to learning routes that appear to be efficient to attain standards and central objectives. The combination of decentralized financial and resource management and centralization of outcomes appears to be less problematic. Here too, more in depth study would be required to check to what extent these mixtures of centralization and decentralization function in educational practice.

The symbolic nature of decentralization and deregulation policies

Inherently conflicting tendencies in current policies with respect to decentralization are also the focus in Weiler's (1990) analyses of these phenomena. He summarizes his conclusions in three points:

- 1) The notion of decentralization as redistribution of power seems largely incompatible with the manifest interests of the modern state in maintaining effective control and in discharging some of its key functions with regard to economic production and capital accumulation.
- 2) Decentralization as a means to enhance the efficiency of educational governance by both generating additional resources and using available resources more effectively seems to have some potential (especially where the utilization of resources is concerned), but also appears to depend on premises which, when studied more closely, are rather precarious.
- 3) Lastly, the notion of decentralizing the contexts and contents of learning as a means to recognize the diversity and importance of different cultural environments in one society is generally considered meaningful and valid. At the same time, however, it encounters the conflicting claims for a kind of learning that is less geared to the specifics of cultural contexts and more to the national and international universalities of dealing with modern systems of technology and communication.

Weiler goes on by wondering whether, given these internally conflicting tendencies, there might perhaps be other motives behind the current fashion of decentralization. He concludes that an "overt commitment to decentralization in educational governance has its own political utilities" (p. 439). He sees these advantages in the use of decentralization as a means of conflict management and a "compensatory legitimation". In the case of the former, highly contested educational issues (he uses the efforts to establish a comprehensive middle school in Germany as an example) are diffused and insulated by delegating them to lower administrative levels. The latter phenomenon rests upon an increased distrust of the state with the impersonal coercive and dehumanizing quality of its administrative bureaucracy", p. 44)-and the upsurge of cultural regionalism, dialects and folkloric traditions. Overt decentralization policies can meet changes in the perceived legitimacy of the central level, perhaps even if they are doing no more than paying lip-service to the general run of feelings: "anything that can make the state appear less centralized and monolithic and more attentive to internal variations of needs and conditions could well be seen as a potential source of added legitimacy".



Decentralization and deregulation at grass-root level

Weiler's implication that decentralization policies may be partially symbolic could be investigated by assessing the degree of autonomy and (de)regulation experienced at school level. Despite all overt policies aimed at deregulation and decentralization, doubts about the real impact of these measures are often heard. From our study it appeared that in the two German states very little, as yet, has been done to decentralize and deregulate the systems. In other countries, such as the Netherlands and Sweden, where there has been an overt policy to deregulate and decentralize for quite a few years now, it would be very interesting to conduct a follow-up study to measure the actual deregulation and increased autonomy at school level.



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Annex 1 Structure of primary and secondary education systems

England/Wales

The National Curriculum, which is now in place for all maintained schools in England, has a clearly defined structure for pupils of compulsory school age (age 5-16). It is divided into four key stages which correspond to different school year groups. Key stages 1 and 2 constitute the primary phase and key stages 2 and 4 the secondary phase. The curriculum is designed to be continuous and cumulative through all four key stages.

The National Curriculum in England includes:

- the subjects which must be taught;
- attainment targets for each subject:
- the subjects, aptitudes and programmes of study which must be taught in each subject in order to meet the objectives;
- the means of assessment.

Primary education

Compulsory schooling starts in the first term following the child's fifth birthday. The first two years of primary school currently constitute the first key stage: the remaining four years (for children age 8 to 11) constitute the second key stage.

Primary classes group children by age. For practical reasons, however, a class may include children of different ages. As a general rule, one teacher is responsible for all subjects for one or more years in small schools. In some schools, specialised teachers take charge of physical education, music and, very rarely, language courses.

At the end of stage 2 there is a national examination. The debate is over whether or not the national examination can be considered a criterion for admission to a greater number of schools.

Secondary education

Secondary education comprises both general education and vocational education courses. Although, the majority of schools are comprehensive, some areas also have grammar and secondary modern schools which cater specifically for children in the higher and lower ability ranges, respectively.

Similarly, in most areas a two-tier system of primary and secondary schools operates, with children transferring from one sector to the other at age 11. Some area have a three-tier system of first, middle and upper schools, and the development of secondary schools specialising in particular subject areas such as technology.

Secondary general education is based on the National Curriculum and provides entrance qualifications for the university.

Vocational education leads to vocational qualifications and is subdivided into four levels: a foundation level, an intermediate level, an advanced level and a higher education level. Students have to decide whether they want to follow the general or the vocational course.



although transferability between the two types of courses is possible.

In secondary education students have several teachers, each teacher being responsible for one subject area.

Flanders

In Belgium there are three Regions (Flanders, Wallonia and Brussels) and three Communities (a Flemish, French and German Community). For each community there is a separate education system.

Within each of the systems, educational establishments at primary and secondary education level make up three networks:

- education organized and financed in total by the Communities (gemeenschapsonderwijs, about 12%);
- education organized by the provinces and communes and subsidized by the Communities (gesubsidizerd officiael onderwijs, about 13%);
- 'free' education organized by private bodies and subsidized by the Communities (gesubsidizerd vrij onderwijs, about 75%).

Education is compulsory from 6 to 18 years of age. Compulsory education is full-time until at least 14 years of age. From the age of 15 students can continue in part-time education until the age of 18.

Primary education

Compulsory education begins at the age of 6. All children of compulsory school age attend the primary school. Primary education is organized in three successive stages of two years each. Pupils are often grouped together in a class by age. Usually, only one teacher is responsible for teaching all subjects during a school year. Schools may call on specialised instructors to teach classes such as physical education and religion.

Official documents in the Flemish Community include references to the conditions for admission and transition from primary to secondary school. A service for educational development is seeking to improve the continuity between the two programmes. A range of strategies has been implemented, such as the rearrangement of class timetables and remedial classes.

Secondary education

Secondary education lasts for 6 years and is aimed at children from 12 to 18. The present organization of secondary education was adopted in 1989 and consists of three successive stages of two years each. The first two years of secondary school constitute an observation phase (de basisvorming). The curricula of these two years, particularly the first year of secondary school, are for the most part harmonised. The second stage of secondary education is the orientation phase. Students have to choose between the following school types:

- Algemeen Secundair Onderwifs: a secondary general school, prepares pupils for higher



education:

- Technisch Secundair Onderwijs: a school which comprises both general education leading to further pursuit of studies and technological education geared more to vocational preparation;
- Kunstsecundair Onderwijs: a school which offers a combination of general education and art teaching:
- Beroepssecundair Onderwijs: practical education, prepares pupils for a specific occupation;
- Deeltijds Beroepssecundair Onderwijs: a part-time vocational school, which can be offered in combination with in-company training.

However, students may move between different forms of secondary education, although there are some restrictions. The third and last stage of secondary education constitute the determination phase.

All forms of secondary education (general, technical, arts and vocational) give access to higher education.

The Netherlands

Primary education

In the Netherlands pre-school education is integrated directly with primary education. Primary education begins at the age of 4 and finishes at the age of 12, when secondary education starts.

One teacher is responsible for teaching all basic subjects during a school year. However, in a lot of schools pupils are taught by two or three teachers, due to part-time working and specialization.

Schools have freedom to decide whether or not to assign a different teacher to a class for the next school year.

Secondary education

Secondary education comprises school provisions from age 12 to 18. In secondary education pupils have several teachers, each teacher being responsible for one subject area.

Secondary education offers both general courses leading to the further pursuit of studies and technological courses geared more to vocational preparation. It is subdivided into various school types:

- Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs: a secondary general school, prepares pupils for the university.
- Hoger Algemeen Voorbereidend Onderwijs: a secondary general school, prepares pupils for higher vocational education.
- Middelbaur Algemeen Voorbereidend Onderwijs: a secondary general school, prepares pupils for secondary vocational education.
- Voorbereidend beroepsonderwijs: practical education, it offers a combination of general and vocational education.

The first preparatory years of secondary school constitute basic education (de basis torming).



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The curricula of these years are for 70 per cent harmonised in all schools. After these years, pupils have to make a definitive choice between the above-mentioned school types.

Germany

Primary education

At the age of 6, compulsory schooling begins for all children in the Federal Republic of Germany. All children of compulsory school age attend the common primary school, die Grundschule, which comprises the grade levels 1 to 4 (in Berlin and Brandernburg the grade levels 1 to 6).

Children usually have only one teacher during the first two years. From the third year complementary subjects are taught by other teachers, in order to prepare pupils for secondary school where they will have a different teacher for each subject.

Lower secondary education

The lower secondary education, Sekundarbereich I, comprises school provisions from age level 5 (or 7) to 10 in the sphere of general education. It is subdivided into various school types:

- Hauptschule: a secondary general school, prepares pupils for lower vocational education.
- Realschule: an intermediate school, prepares pupils for intermediate vocational education or grammar schools.
- Gymnasium: a grammar school, prepares pupils for h. ther and university education.
- Gesamtschule: a comprehensive school.

The first two years of Gymnasium, Real- and Hauptschule constitute an orientation phase. The purpose of these phase is to assess whether a student is capable for the chosen school type or whether it is better to change. The same subjects are taught in the three school types, but their content is different.

Upper secondary education

The upper secondary education, Sekundarbereich II, provides both general education and vocational education courses leading to the right to enter the higher education sector or to vocational qualifications. It comprises all educational provision which builds on lower secondary education, that is to say, mainly levels 11 to 13.

Vocational education is very important with respect to the upper secondary education of Germany. It is characterised by a great variety of educational institutions and comprises in general the following types:

- Berufsschule: a part-time, very popular vocational school, which is offered in combination with in-company training.
- Berufsgrundschuljahr: a basic vocational training year, prepares pupils without qualifications for a berufs(fach)schule.
- Berufsfachschule: a full-time vocational school which qualifies for admission to a Fachschule.
- Berufsaufbauschule: a vocational extension school for adolescents who are at the same



time undergoing vocational training or pursuing an occupation.

- Fachoberschule: a specialised grammar school providing entrance qualifications for the higher vocational education (Fachhochschule).

- Fachgymnasium (Höhere Be ufsfachschule mit gymnasialer Oberstufe): a vocational grammar school providing general higher education entrance qualifications.

 Fachschule: a trade or technical school which are attended by pupils after completion of vocational training and practical occupational experience.

Portugal

The structure of the Portuguese education system was reformed by the Comprehensive Law of Education (Law 46/86). This law establishes the general framework for the education system, covering pre-schooling education, schooling education (basic, secondary and higher education) and non-formal-schooling education.

The education system, which covers all Portuguese territory, comprises a set of facilities that ensure the right to education and guarantee equal opportunities to both access to schooling and success at school.

Primary and Lower Secondary Education (compulsory)

Universal, free and compulsory basic education, Ensino Básico, lasts nine years (age 6-15) and covers primary and lower secondary education. In Portugal Ensino Básico is organized into three multi-annual cycles linked so as to form a progressive sequence, providing a complete unit of basic education.

The first cycle of basic education, previously called the primary cycle, lasts for four years and is aimed at children from 6/7 to 9/10 year old age group. Throughout this whole cycle, one single teacher is in charge of the class and is responsible for teaching the basic subjects. Generally, classes take pupils from the same age-group. However for practical reasons, a class may include pupils of different age groups.

The second cycle of basic education, previously called the preparatory cycle, lasts for two years and admits all pupils who have completed the first cycle. It is organized as a basic introduction to interdisciplinary subject areas, usually with one teacher per area.

The third cycle comprises three schooling years (the 7th. 8th and 9th years) and is intended for 12 to 15 year old pupils. It is taught according to a standard curriculum, covering different technological subject areas, with one teacher per subject or group of subjects.

This cycle corresponds to the first cycle of secondary education in the majority of countries. Lately some schools integrating all the three cycles of basic education have started to operate on an experimental basis.

Transition between cycles depends on the results of the summative assessment at the end of each cycle, based on the pupit's overall development in terms of the general objectives of the



course. This assessment is accompanied by a continuous formative assessment of the pupil.

There is no examination at the end of each cycle. Pupils who successfully complete their basic education are awarded a diploma which entitles them to enter secondary education.

Upper Secondary Education (post-compulsory)

Upper secondary education consists of a single cycle of three years (the 10th, 11th and 12th years). It comprises both general courses (the CSPOPE) leading to the further pursuit of studies and technological courses (the CT) geared more to vocational preparation. Pupils must decide whether to pursue a general or a technological course although transferability between the two types of courses is guaranteed.

Upper secondary education courses (both general and technological ones) are organized into four main subject areas, according to the nature of the subjects they include, and taking into account the needs of the pupil: natural sciences, arts, economics and social sciences, and humanities.

All the courses are made up of three components:

- 1) The general education component, common to all courses in the same subject area, whether oriented towards the continuation of studies or to the entry into active life. The outline is the same for all schools, no subject options being available either for schools, nor for pupils.
- 2) The specific education component, including two or three core subjects, which establish a common outline for the various courses in the same subject area of both streams, thus creating a freedom of movement between them. This component also includes some option subjects to be chosen by the pupils (among those which the school is able to offer, within a national curriculum) up to the limit of their timetable.
- 3) The technical education component, providing the greatest flexibility in so far as it enables each pupil to develop his/her own interests and projects, and allows each school to integrate more easily its won physical, humanistic, and social characteristics. Emphasis is placed on the pupil's freedom to choose within this component. It is even possible to exceed the set timetable, as a result of the pupils' own interests and projects.

In upper secondary education pupils have several teachers, each teacher being responsible for one subject area.

Pupils who attain pass marks at the end of upper secondary education are awarded a diploma starting the type of education received, and in the case of courses mainly oriented towards entry into active life pupils also receive a certificate stating the qualification obtained for the purposes of getting a job.

Sweden

Compulsory education in Sweden (Grundskolan) takes the form of a 9-year comprehensive school for children aged 7 to 16. However, since 1991 children have had the right to start



compulsory school at age of six years.

Compulsory school is currently divided into three levels:

lower level (lâgstadium):
 intermediate level (mellanstadim):
 upper level (högstadium):
 7th-9th year

Education at lower and intermediate level could be classified as primary education and upper level education as lower secondary education.

However, as from the 1997 - 1998 school year new curricular guidelines for the whole school system will be fully implemented. The compulsory school will no longer be divided into levels. Instead, the new national syllabi for each subject will state the objectives which are to be achieved by the end of the fifth and ninth year of school. This will provide an opportunity for nationwide evaluation of school achievements after the fifth year.

There are no examinations in compulsory schools. Marks only have to be awarded in grades 8 and 9 as a basis for upper secondary school entrance.

Primary education

Pupils frequently attend the same school all the way through lower and intermediate levels, although at intermediate level they usually change teachers. Teachers at both these levels take the children for practically all subjects; there are specially-trained teachers for music and very often for craft subjects, pictorial studies and physical education.

Lower secondary education

At upper level, pupils are taught by several different subject teachers specializing in two or three subjects. Upper level often brings a change of school as well.

All pupils receive a certificate which qualifies them to apply for upper secondary school, irrespective of the optional subjects taken at the upper level of compulsory school.

Upper-secondary education

Since 1970 upper-secondary education was divided into about 25 different lines of two, three of four years' duration. Most lines were practical/vocational lines of two years' duration. In principle, the 3-year lines prepared pupils for university-level studies. The 4-year lines provided access, after three years, to higher technical studies.

However, a new system of upper secondary education was introduced in the 1992-1993 school year, this will be fully implemented by the school 1995-1996. Since 1992 municipalities are obliged to provide three years of upper secondary schooling for all pupils leaving compulsory school.

In the new upper secondary school all education is organized in study programmes of deeper knowledge than the pre-reform vocational studies. There are 16 nationally determined programmes, 14 of which are primarily vocationally oriented and two preparing primarily for university studies.



Annex 2

89

Annex 2 Instruments



INTERVIEW



DECENTRALIZATION AND DEREGULATION IN AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

CHECKLIST AND ANSWER FORM FOR THE INTERVIEWER

Introduction

This interview is designed to gather information on policy issues related to the process of decentralization and deregulation in the education system of your country. It is to be regarded as a supplement to the questionnaire on the Decision-making structure. The interview is prestructured in order to optimise the possibilities to compare the information.

The interview consists of two parts:

- I Changes in the decision-making structure over the past five years
- II Goals and (side) effects of policies concerning functional decentralization

I Changes in the decision-making structure over the past five years

Introduction

The primary objective of this first section is to provide a thorough description of the changes that have taken place in relation to the decision-making structure in the education system of your country.

It contains questions about the nature of the legislation, about the areas and locus of decision-making and about the forces behind the developments with respect to the decision-making structure.

- What have been the major changes in the distribution of decision-making authority over the last five years?
- a. Do you think that one can talk of a policy of decentralizing in your country? Or is it more a matter of deregulation? Note: see glossary
- b. Can the national primary and (lower) secondary education legislation be typified as framework law(s), as detailed regulation or as some combination of both?

Note: In answering question b, please pay attention to the following elements:

- Is the nature of the legislation changed over the past five years?
- If it did, when and why was the legislation enacted?
- Does primary and secondary education legislation fall within the realm of the state/province of the national/federal competency (if applicable)?
- c. Are there any measures taken with respect to the modes of decision-making in your country over the past five years?

If 20, what was the impact of these measures on the modes of decision-making?

Note: Please specify your answer for the four levels of decision-making (school, intermediate level 1, intermediate level 2 and the central government) and indicate whether there are

- more decisions taken in full autonomy.
- more decisions taken in conjunction or after consultation with bodies located at another level within the education system; or
- more decisions taken independently but within a framework set by a higher authority?



d. In which areas has the decision-making structure, in relation to primary and (lower) secondary education, changed over the past five years?

Note: Areas you can think of are organisation of instruction, planning and structure, personnel management and resources.

In answering this question please indicate the role the various actors (like the school, the intermediary institutions and the central government) play in each area and the changes regarding their roles that have taken place or are taking place.

e. Which major forces lay behind the developments in the decision-making structure with respect to primary and (lower) secondary education in your country?
Note: Issues that can be of interest in answering question e are the demographic developments, general political ideas, an increasing influence of the market, the economic condition of the country and the like.

II Goals and (side) effects of policies concerning functional decentralization

Introduction

The objective of this section is to obtain insight in the major motives and goals of educational policies concerning decentralization and deregulation. The second part of the section refers to indications of the effects and the side-effects of the policies. The questions regarding this section are designed to provide you with a frame of reference. However, as each education system has its own peculiarities, these questions are not limitative in nature. Please, feel free to elaborate on certain elements or add others.

2. If a process of decentralization takes place in your country, what are, in your opinion, the major goals of this policy? Note: see glossary. Please specify each goal applicable.

| Quality enhancement | [] |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| * Efficiency | [] |
| * Equity | [] |
| More professional schools | [] |
| Responsiveness of education | [] |
| * Less red tape | [] |
| Other, please specify | ñ |

- 3. To what extent is the policy successful with respect to each of these criteria?

 Note: When answering this question, please consider the degree to which the policy has been implemented in your opinion.
 - * Quality enhancement
 - * Efficiency
 - * Equity
 - * More professional schools
 - * Responsiveness
 - * Less red tape
 - * Other, Please specify



| * shift of red tape (when an intermediary level steps in a formal regulative activities, so that rea from one level to the next) | | |
|--|--|--|
| * loosening of standards (please consider the possible loosenin to lack of common educational core as standards. Please, also consider the re devolution in the sense of "freeing pro control/accountability) | nd inonitoring of elationship between | |
| * bad vertical coordination of cu (autonomy could make the coordination levels (e.g. primary and secondary) make could lead to lower overall performance | on between educational ore difficult, which | |
| * neglect of primary process in of to attention for management an (it could be the case that a lot of cape will be concentrated in the areas of (fi management, at the costs of attention primary process of teaching and learn | nd organisation [] acity of schools inancial) being paid to the | |
| * more elitist (less equalitarian): (instead of becoming more responsive pupils, schools could also become sum high intake of more advantaged pupils parents could be expected to make bet | to special needs of nulated to select a whereas middle-class | |
| * other | | |



4.

5.

LOCUS OF DECISION-MAKING SURVEY

GUIDE

This guide is divided into the following sections: 1) Principles underlying the design of the survey and 2) Instructions for answering the questions.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE SURVEY FORM

Several decisions have been made that affect the type of information that should be provided for the Locus of Decision-making Survey. Please consider the following points carefully as you complete the questionnaire.

1. Confine your description of "at what level" and "how" educational decisions are made in your country to A DESCRIPTION OF THE LEGAL SPECIFICATIONS, which may be quite different from the practical reality.

It is important to recognize - while completing the survey - that the survey addresses the topic of how the system is supposed to work. Further, the purpose of the survey is to ascertain predominant patterns, not subtle complexities or incipient trends.

However, in cases where some formal allocation of authority is manifestly disregarded, please mention this in a note.

2. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Do not include pre-primary and special education in your response. These two types of education are organized differently from mainstream education.

In addition, you are only asked to describe the system at ISCED levels 1 and 2, PUBLIC (defined below).

3. TERMINOLOGY

ISCED classification: Given that schools are arranged into levels in a variety of ways, this survey relies on the standard ISCED classification of levels. Two ISCED levels are considered:

ISCED Level 1, First level: Starts at age 5, 6 or 7, and lasts 5-6 years.



February 24, 1995

University of Twente

ISCED Level 2, Second level-first stage: Starts at age 11 or 12 and lasts 3-4 years. Also known as lower secondary education. It usually coincides with the end of compulsory education. In most countries, it consists of general education, although in some cases there is a pre-vocational stream. The pre-vocational stream, however, is not designed to provide students with occupational or job training.

Teaching staff: Teachers are fully qualified teaching professionals who teach the theory and practice of one or more disciplines at different educational levels. Former teachers, people who work occasionaly or in a voluntary capacity in schools, people who provide services other than formal instruction, e.g. supervisors or activity organizers, are excluded Teaching staff includes 1) Classroom teachers (teachers responsible for a group of pupils, as well as subject matter teachers e.g., physical education, art, religion) and 2) Special education or other teachers (providing instructional services outside of students' regular classroom or class group, e.g. remedial teachers).

<u>Non-teaching staff</u>: Professional educational support staff (including speech therapist, school nurse, psychologist, librarians, etc.) and other support staff (including administrative support, janitors, aides, caretakers, etc.).

<u>Capital expenditures</u>: Capital expenditures are expenditures for assets that last longer than one year. The latter include outlays for construction, renovation, and major repair of buildings and expenditures for new or replacement equipment.

<u>Operational expenditures</u>: Operational expenditures are expenditures for goods and services consumed within the current year, and which need to be made recurrently to sustain the production of educational services.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire

The questionnaire should be completed for public systems at ISCED levels 1 and 2 during the 1994-95 school year.



February 24, 1995

The questionnaire includes 35 items representing the major activities involved in the operation of an education system. These activities fall into four major categories:

- . Organisation of Instruction (items P1 to P8),
- . Personnel Management (items R1 to R4),
- . Planning Structures (items \$1 to \$7), and
- . Resources (items F1 to F2).

For each item, you will be asked to indicate AT WHAT LEVEL and HOW each of the corresponding decisions is made.

The answer form provides four LEVELS at which educational decisions are typically made. The number of levels used will depend on the count, extra levels can be added if necessary. The four levels are:

<u>School</u>. This includes any decision-makers at the school level, including teachers, headteachers and parents.

Lower Intermediate (L1). The level institutionally closest to the school, usually the local authority. It may be a municipal authority with other responsibilities or an authority that is only responsible for education. In the latter case, the authority may consist of a "school board" or "school committee".

<u>Upper Intermediate (UI)</u>. The level closest to the central government. This may be a regional agency of the central government or a regional level that is distinct from the central government (e.g., the Land in Germany, the canton in Switzerland, the state in the United States).

<u>Central</u>. The level institutionally furthest from the school, i.e. central government (national or federal).

If there are more than four levels of decision-making, please indicate. Also, if there is any ambiguity related to the definition of the school level, particularly in the case of small schools that are grouped together for some administrative functions, please add a note.



February 24, 1995

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Modes of Decision-Making

Modes of Decision-making refer to HOW decisions are made:

- <u>Full autonomy</u> indicates that the decision is made entirely (with full autonomy) at this level. These are decisions subject only to constraints from outside the education systems, for example the constitution, or legislation in other areas (e.g., labor laws, minimum wage laws).
- <u>Jointly</u>, or after consultation indicates that the decision is made jointly or after consultation with bodies located at another level within the education system. The level that consults is not required to accept the advice or opinion received from the consulted level. Also, if a different body at the same level is consulted (for example, if a headteacher consults with teachers), then the decision is considered taken entirely at that level; the consultation is not reported on the questionnaire.
- Within a framework indicates that the decision is made independently within a framework established by a higher (more superior) authority level. This framework may be legal, administrative, or financial. The framework may specify a range possible decisions or it may rule out some decisions; it may also be a budgetary constraint.

If, for a given item, more than one procedure is used for decision-making, report the most commonly used procedure. If this causes severe problems to your country, please add a note.

Please indicate for each decision on the page 'Notes' whether the given answer was based on formal regulation or not. If yes, mention the source of this regulation. If not, indicate if your answer was based on an estimation of the common practice.



February 24, 1995

10:4

GLOSSARY

Decentralization: The devolution of formal decision-making authority to layer levels

in the hierarchy;

Deregulation: Less formalization, diminishing of regulations. Deregulation may

leave the existing distribution of authority among administrative

levels intact;

Efficiency: Cost-effectiveness; achieving goals with least possible costs;

Equity: Fair distribution of educational goods to various categories of

recipients; any success in education will depend in no way on the

social category, place of birth, degree of handicap, etc;

Professional schools: Schools that function as professional organisations, implying aspects

as: strategic planning, task diversification, quality control and cre-

ative human resource management.

Red tape: Regulation, bureaucratization;

Responsiveness: r'otential to adapt school policies to the demands of the local situati-

on, i.e. the 'consumers' of education such as parents or the local

business world.



Questionnaire

Locus of Decision-making

| Country: | |
|-------------|--|
| Respondent: | |

103

104

| | THE MODIFIED WILLIAM TO THE OFFICE CONTROL OF THE C | | |
|---|--|--|-----|
| P1 BODIES DETERMINING THE SCHOOL ATTENDED | | | |
| P1-i At what level is decided what school a child should attend? (tick only one per ISCED level) • If pupils/parents are free to choose the school to attend, tick 'school'. | SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | | |
| P1-2 How autonomously are decisions on the school attended taken at this level? SCEDI ISCEDI j in full autonomy | P1-3 Which body of authority is consulted? | P1-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government | |
| P2 DECISIONS AFFECTING SCHOOL CAREERS P2-1 At what level are decisions affecting pupils' school careers taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) △ Decisions to promote to a higher grade or repeat a grade, or to transfer to another stream or another school. △ If these decisions are taken differently, answer about the ones with the highest consequences for the pupils. | SCEUI ISCED? [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | ************************************** | |
| P2-2 How autonomously are decisions affecting school careers taken at this level? | P2-3 Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI INCEDI School lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government | P2-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI ISCEDZ | 100 |
| bruary 27, 1995 | page 2 | University of Twente | |

| 3 11 | ISTRUCTION TIME | | ************************************** |
|---------|---|--|---|
| | At what level is decided how many periods of instruction are receively a pupil per year? (tick only one per ISCED level) | red [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| | P3-2 How autonomously are decisions on the number of instruction period taken at this level? SCEDI SCEDI [] [] in full autonomy | P3-3 Which body of authority is consulted? P4 SCEDI ISCED? P3-3 [] [] school P3-4 [] [] lower intermediate level | P3-4 Which body of authority sets the Iramework? SCEDI ISCED? Ower intermediate level; upper intermediate level; central government |
| Bresse. | | | |
| | HOICE OF TEXTBOOKS At what level are decisions determining the choice of textbooks tak (tick only one per ISCED level) | [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| | At what level are decisions determining the choice of textbooks tak | en? [] [] school | P4-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCED1 SCED2 [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| | At what level are decisions determining the choice of textbooks tak (tick only one per ISCED level) P4-2 How autonomously are decisions determining the choice of textbook taken at this level? SECTOT ISCEDS [] [] in full autonomy | en? [] [] school | SCEDI ISCED2 [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level |

ERIC Fruitded by ERIC

| P5 G | ROUPING PUPILS | | | |
|------|--|---|---|-----|
| P5-1 | At what level is decided how pupils are grouped within schools? (tick only one per ISCED level) • Decisions concerning the criterion for grouping (for example ability, gender, age, interest, subjects). | [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | | |
| | P5-2 How autonomously are decisions affecting the grouping of pupils taken at this level? SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] in full autonomy | P5-3 Which body of authority is consulted? | P5-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI ISCED2 | |
| P6 / | SSISTANCE TO PUPILS | artikus kan | | • |
| P6-1 | At what level are decisions on additional support activities to pupils within schools taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) • For instance assistance to pupils with learning difficulties, individual tutoring. • Not meant is assistance to pupils with their homework. | scen iscen [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] central government | | |
| | P6-2 How autonomously are decisions on support activities to pupils taken at this level? | | | |
| G: | | P6-3 Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI INCEDE | P6-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI SCEDZ | 110 |
| Feb. | ruary 27, 1995 | page 4 | University of Twente | |

page 4

| www. | Valle biographic control of the cont | | |
|--------------|--|---|--|
| P7 T | EACHING METHODS | ###CC################################# | 10000000000000000000000000000000000000 |
| P7-1 | At what level are decisions determining the choice of teaching methods taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) • Instructional strategies, didactical principles | SCED1 SCED2 [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| | P7-2 How autonomously are decisions determining the choice of the teaching methods taken at this level? | D7.2 Milhigh hady of puthority is seen that 0 | 07.4 1/1/1.1 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 |
| | [] [] in full autonomy> go to P8 [] [] jointly or after consultation with another authority> go to P7-3 [] [] within a framework set by a higher authority> go to P7-4 [] [] other, please specify> go to P8 | P7-3 Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI SCEDI | P7-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? |
| 28 A 28-1 | SSESSMENT OF PUPILS' REGULAR WORK At what level is decided how pupils' regular work is assessed? | ISCEDI ISCED? | NATE OF THE PROPERTY OF THE PR |
| | (lick only one per ISCED level) ▲ Methods of assessment such as assessment periodicity, scale of notation, content of proofs, nature of tests. ▲ Excluding joint examinations or tests administered to pupils from a number of different schools. | [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| | P8-2 How autonomously are decisions on assessment of pupils' regular work taken at this level? | | |
| | Sceot Sceot Sceot | P8-3 Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCED2 | P8-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI ISCED2 [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| | 111 | | 1 |
| ebr | uary 27, 1995 | page 5 | University of Twente |



| Note | es: |
|------|--|
| P1 | Bodies determining the school attended |
| P2 | Decisions affecting school careers |
| P3 | Instruction time |
| P4 | Choice of textbooks |
| P5 | Grouping pupils |
| P6 | Assistance to pupils |
| P7 | Teaching methods |
| P8 | Assessment of pupils' regular work |
| 1 | 1 |

University of Twente

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

| | | *************************************** |
|--|--|---|
| R1 HIRING AND DISMISSAL OF STAFF | | |
| R1-1a At what level is decided on hiring and dismissal of the person for the j of the principal? (tick only one per ISCED level) • The decision deals with the choice between person A and person B to be appointed to a particular job. • The decision deals with the dismissal of a certain person from a job. | [] [] lower intermediate level | |
| R1-1b How autonomously are decisions on the hiring and dismissal of the person for the job of the principal taken at this level? SCEDI ISCEDI | fc [] [] school fd [] [] lower intermediate level | R1-1d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| R1-2a At what level is decided on hiring and dismissal of the person for a give teacher post? (tick only one per ISCED level) A The decision deals with the choice between person A and person B to be appointed to a particular job. A The decision deals with the dismissal of a certain person from a job. | [] [] lower intermediate level | |
| R1-2b How autonomously are decisions on the hiring and dismissal of a given teacher post taken at this level? SCEDI SCEDI in full autonomy | 2c [] [] school 2d [] [] lower intermediate level | R1-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government |
| 11 5 | | 116 |
| February 27, 1995 | page 7 | University of Twente |

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

| R1-3a At what level is decided on hiring and dismissal of the person for a given non-teaching post? (tick only one per ISCED level) A The decision deals with the choice between person A and person B to be appointed to a particular job. A The decision deals with the dismissal of a certain person from a job. | | | |
|---|---|--|-----|
| R1-3b How autonomously are decisions on the hiring and dismissal of a given non-teaching post taken at this level? SCEED SCEED | R1-3c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISSEED2 | R1-3d Which body of authority sets the framework? scedi isced? [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| R2 DUTIES AND CONDITIONS OF SERVICE OF STAFF R2-1a At what level is decided what the duties and conditions of service of the principal are? (tick only one per ISCED level) • Dutie refers for instance to the minimum amount of hours to be worked per week or per year, responsibility for the school facility, supervising and evaluating teachers, etc • Conditions of service refer to working conditions of the principal. | ISCEDI ISCED2 [] [] school [] [] tower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | todississis saadaa kaalaa k | |
| R2-1b How autonomously are decisions on duties and conditions of service of the principal taken at this level? SCEDI INCEDE | R2-1c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI INCEDIZ | R2-1d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI SCED2 [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | 118 |

February 27, 1995

page 8

University of Twents

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

| ebruary 27, 1995 | page 9 | University of Twente |
|---|--|--|
| R2-3b How autonomously are decisions on duties and conditions of sthe non-teaching staff taken at this level? SCEDI 190502 in full autonomy | R2-3c Which body of authority is consulted to R3 Scent Sce | ? R2-3d Which body of authority sets the framework? lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government |
| 2-3a At what level is decided what the duties and conditions of service non-teaching staff are? (tick only one per ISCED level) ▲ Dutie refers for instance to the minimum amount of hours to be we per week or per year. ▲ Conditions of service refer to working conditions of the non-teaching | [] [] lower intermediate level rked [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| R2-2b How autonomously are decisions on duties and conditions of sthe teaching staff taken at this level? SCEDI ISCEDI in full autonomy | R2-2c Which body of authority is consulted to R2-3 scent iscent iscent to R2-2c [] [] school to R2-2d [] [] lower intermediate level | R2-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI INCEDE lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government |
| 2-2a At what level is decided what the duties and conditions of service teaching staff are? (tick only one per ISCED level) Dutie refers for instance to the minimum amount of hours to be ween per week or per year, non-teaching duties, etc Conditions of service include the time schedule, the size and level the groups to teach, the importance of ones subject in the program of the class, the ability of the pupils, etc. | [] {] lower intermediate level rked [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government of | |

| R3 FIXING OF SALARY LEVELS FOR STAFF R3-1a At what level are the salary levels for principals fixed? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCEDI SCEDI | | |
|--|--|--|-----|
| R3-1b How autonomously are decisions on the salary levels for principals taken at this level? Sector ISCED2 | R3-1: Which body of authority is consulted? | ### ################################## | |
| R3-2a At what level are the salary levels for teaching staff fixed? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCEDI SCEDI [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central govcent | | • |
| R3-2b How autonomously are decisions on the salary levels for teaching staff taken at this level? SCEEDI INCREDIT INC | R3-2c Which body of authority is consulted? Consulted School Consulted Cons | R3-2d Which body of authority sets the Iramework? scen scen [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper Intermediate level [] [] central government | ₹Ç. |
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| R3-3a At what level are the salary levels for non-teaching staff fixed? | ISCED! ISCED2 | TOPAS diferentiale del majori reconstruir de consistinto in proprieta del del del majori del media consistencia del consisten |
|--|---|--|
| (tick only one per ISCED level) | [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| R3-3b How autonomously are decisions on the salary levels for non-teaching staff taken at this level? Section INSERT Section | R3-3c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCED2 | R3-3d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCERI ISCERI [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| R4 INFLUENCE OVER THE CAREERS OF STAFF R4-1a At what level are decisions that influence the career of the principal taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) • It deals with career options within and outside the school | SCED1 ISCED2 [] [] school [] [] tower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level | |
| R4-1b How autonomously are decisions that influence the career of the principal taken at this level? | [] [] central government | |
| SCEDI ISCEDI SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] in full autonomy | R4-1c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDT SCEDZ | R4-1d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI SCEDI |
| 123 | | 124 |
| February 27, 1995 | page 11 | University of Twente |

| R4-2a At what level are decisions that influence the career of the teachers taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) It deals with career options within the school (for instance becoming a department head) | [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | | |
|---|--|---|-----|
| R4-2b How autonomously are decisions that influence the career of the teachers taken at this level? SCECO SCECO | R4-2c Which body of authority is consulted? school lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government | R4-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI ISCED? [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| R4-3a At what level are decisions that influence the career of the non-teaching staff taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) • It deals with career options within the school | ISCEDI ISCED? [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | | |
| R4-3b How autonomously are decisions that influence the career of the non-teaching staff taken at this level? scr., scept [] [] in full autonomy | ### ################################## | ### ################################## | 120 |
| 127 | | | |

February 27, 1995

page 12



| Note | PS: |
|------|--|
| R1 | Hiring and dismissal of staff |
| | |
| R2 | Duties and conditions of service of staff |
| | |
| R3 | Fixing of salary levels for staff |
| | |
| R4-1 | Influence over the careers of staff |
| | |
| R4-2 | Influence over the careers of teachers |
| | |
| R4-3 | Influence over the careers of non-teaching staff |
| | |
| | 127 |

February 27, 1995

page 13



| S1 C | REATION OR CLOSURE OF A SCHOOL | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---|--|
| S1-1 | At what level are decisions on the creation or closure of a school taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCEDI SCEDI [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | | |
| | S1-2 How autonomously are decisions on the creation or closure of a school taken at this level? | | | |
| | SCEOI ISCED? [] [] in full autonomy [] [] jointly or after consultation with another authority [] [] within a framework set by a higher authority [] [] other, please specify | S1-3 Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI SCEDI SCEDI SCEDI School ower intermediate level oper intermediate level central government | S1-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI INCEDI lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government | |
| | | | | |
| S2 (| PEATION OF AROUTION OF A CRADE LEVEL | | ANTONIANON PROTEIN POR PROPRIA PROTEIN ANTONIANO ANTONIANO ANTONIANO ANTONIANO ANTONIANO ANTONIANO ANTONIANO A | |
| | REATION OR ABOLITION OF A GRADE LEVEL At what level are decisions on the creation or abolition of a grade level taken? | SCEDI ISCED? | | |
| S2 (0 S2-1 | | ISCEDT ISCEDT [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] cantral government | ARTICIANO I PERSANTIA PARA CARA TARA TARA TARA TARA TARA TARA T | |
| | At what level are decisions on the creation or abolition of a grade level taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level | | |

February 27, 1995

| *************************************** | | |
|--|---|---|
| S3 DESIGNING PROGRAMMES OF STUDY | | ************************************** |
| At what level are decisions on the more specific design of programmes of study taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) A programme of study refers to the set of courses taken by a student during a specified period of time (one year or one ISCED level). Designing programmes of study refers to determining which courses are included, for example how many courses in math, mother tongue, etc., and what levels these courses must be. | [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| S3-2 How autonomously are decisions on the designing of programmes of study taken at this level? SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] in full autonomy | S3-3 Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCED2 [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | S3-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCED1 SCED2 |
| S4-1 SELECTION OF PROGRAMMES OF STUDY OFFERED IN A PARTICULAR SCHOOL S4-1a At what level are decisions on the selection of programmes of study offered In a particular school taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) • Decisions refer to the amount and kind of programmes offered in a particular school. • This refers, for example, to wether the school offers a general or a vocational programme. • The choice of the programme as a global entity is meant. | SCEDI ISCED2 [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| S4-1b How autonomously are decisions on the selection of programmes of study offered taken at this level? SCEDI INCEDE [] [] in full autonomy | S4-2c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCE02 [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | S4-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| February 27, 1995 | page 15 | University of Twente |

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| #585/BV0V | | MATERIA (NO CONTROL O CONT | #K;************************************ | |
|-----------|--|--|---|-----|
| S4-2 | SELECTION OF SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN A PARTICULAR SCHOOL | | | |
| S4-2a | At what level are decisions on the choice of the range of subjects taught in particular school taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) • Is the school free to choose the subjects taught or is the range of subjects to be taught (or the set of subjects among which the school may choose) decided elsew. • This refers to selection of subjects that are taught within the programme(s) of study offered by the school. | [] [] lower intermediate level | | |
| | S4-2b How autonomously are decisions on the choice of the range of subjects to sceno sceno? [] [] in full autonomy> go to S5 [] [] jointly or after consultation with another authority go to S4-2c [] [] within a framework set by a higher authority> go to S4-2d [] [] other, please specify> go to S5 | S4-2c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCED? | S4-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government | |
| S5 [| DEFINITION OF COURSE CONTENT | | *************************************** | |
| S5-1 | At what level are decisions on the definition of course content taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) This refers to deciding what will be included in a particular course, including to covered and levels of difficulty that students are expected to reach (objectives) | | | |
| | S5-2 How autonomously are decisions on the definition of course content taken at this level? SCED. SCED. [] [] in full autonomy | S5-3 Which body of authority is consulted? | S5-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCED1 SCED2 [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | 134 |

February 27, 1995

page 16



| #566KW159K | 4500.6600. | | | |
|------------------------------|---|--|--|-----|
| S 6 S S 6-1 | At what level are decisions on the setting of qualifying examina a certificate or diploma taken? (lick only one per ISCED level) A This refers to deciding (1) creation or abolition of certificates or diploma subjects are included in the exam for the certificatie or diplomatical to the respective weight given to each subject. | Itions for [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level | neder , code 1,00° necessité sité s'autobion distribution de l'action de l'act | |
| | | S6-3 Which body of authority is consulted? to S6-3 [] [] school to S6-4 [] [] lower intermediate level | S6-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI SCEDI | |
| S7 C | REDENTIALLING | ************************************** | | |
| S7-1 | At what level is decided on credentialling? (lick only one per ISCED level) This refers to making the practical arrangements for holding examinawarding of credentials. Practical arrangements including (1) deciding who determines the questions, (2) deciding who marks/reviews the examination to determine student has passed and (3) deciding on arrangements for the admit | [] [] central government examination ermine whether the | | |
| | | S7-3 Which body of authority is consulted? to F1 secent receive to S7-3 [] [] school to S7-4 [] [] lower intermediate level | S7-4 Which body of authority sets the framework? scen scen [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | 136 |
| Febr | uary 27, 1995 | page 17 | University of Twente | |

| 450000000 | |
|-----------|---|
| Note | s: |
| S1 | Creation or closure of a school |
| | |
| S2 | Creation or abolition of a grade level |
| | |
| S3 | Designing programmes of study |
| | |
| S4-1 | Selection of subjects taught in a particular school |
| | |
| S4-2 | Selection of programmes of study offered in a particular school |
| | |
| S5 | Definition of course content |
| | |
| S6 | Setting of qualifying examinations for a certificate or diploma |
| | |
| S7 | Credentialling |
| | |
| | |

137

130

| F1 ALLOCATION OF RESOURCES TO THE SCHOOL | | |
|--|---|---|
| Decision areas in the F1 group refer to decisions about the total amount of resource are allocated to the school in broader categories by one level, and a more inferior teaching staff; or the amount for staff and the amount for operating expenditures), | level may allocate the resources into individual area | as le a the amount for teaching and the amount for non- |
| F1-1a At what level are decisions on allocation of resources to the school for teaching staff taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) F1-1b How autonomously are decisions on allocation of resources to the school for teaching staff taken at this level? | | |
| SCEDI SCED2 | F1-1c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI INCED2 | F1-1d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI INCEDI [] [] tower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| F1-2a At what level are decisions on allocation of resources to the school for non-teaching staff taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCED1 SCED2 | |
| F1-2b How autonomously are decisions on allocation of resources to the school for non-teaching staff taken at this level? | F1-2c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCEDI [] [] school [] [] tower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | F1-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? scen scen scen [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government |
| 139 | () () central government | 140 |
| February 27, 1995 | page 19 | University of Twente |



| February 27, 1995 | page 20 | University of Twente | _ |
|---|--|---|-------|
| 14 i | | | ¥.4.7 |
| F1-4b How autonomously are decisions on allocation of resources to the scho for non-teaching staff taken at this level? SCEOI ISCED2 | F1-4c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCED2 | F1-4d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI SCED2 | 1.42 |
| F1-4a At what level are decisions on allocation of resources to the school for operating expenditure taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCEDI ISCEDZ | | |
| F1-3b How autonomously are decisions on allocation of resources to the scho for capital expenditure taken at this level? SCEDI ISCEDZ | F1-3c Which body of authority is consulted? SCED1 SCED2 | F1-3d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCED1 19CED2 [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
| F1-3a At what level are decisions on allocation of resources to the school for capital expenditure taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCEDI ISCEDZ [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | | |

| F2 USE OF RESOURCES IN THE 3CHOOL | | |
|--|---|---|
| ▼ Decision areas in the F2 group refer to deciding how expenditures available for in | ndividual schools are allocated within the school wit | th respect to the three areas listed. |
| F2-1a At what level are decisions on the use of resources for staff taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) The decision refers for instance to the question who decides whether a maths rather than a English teacher is hired. | | |
| F2-1b How autonomously are decisions on the use of resources for staff taken at this level? | | |
| Social Indicator Social Indi | F2-1c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI ISCEDI | F2-1d Which body of authority sets the framework? lower intermediate level upper intermediate level central government |
| F2-2a At what level are decisions on the use of resources for capital expenditure taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | SCEDI SCEDI | |
| F2-2b How autonomously are decisions on the use of resources for capital expenditure taken at this level? | | |
| SCEDI ISCED2 [] [] in full autonomy —> go to F2-3 [] [] jointly or after consultation with another authority —> go to F2-2c [] [] within a framework set by a higher authority —> go to F2-2d [] [] other, please specify | F2-2c Which body of authority is consulted? SCEDI INCEDE School School | F2-2d Which body of authority sets the framework? SCEDI SCEDI |
| 143 | | 144 |
| February 27, 1995 | page 21 | University of Twente |



| 2-3a At what level are decisions on the use of resources for operating expenditure taken? (tick only one per ISCED level) | [] [] school [] [] lower intermediate level [] [] upper intermediate level [] [] central government | |
|---|---|---|
| F2-3b How autonomously are decisions on the use of resources for operating expenditure taken at this level? | | |
| ISCEDI ISCEDI | F2-3c Which body of authority is consulted? | F2-3d Which body of authority sets the framework? |
| [] [] in full autonomy | ISCEDI ISCED2 | ISCEDI ISCED2 |
| [] jointly or after consultation with another authority> go to F2-3c | [] [] school | [] [] lower intermediate level |
| [] [] within a framework set by a higher authority go to F2-3d | [] [] lower intermediate level | [] [] upper intermediate level |
| [] [] other, please specify | [] [] upper intermediate level | [] [] central government |
| | [] [] central government | |

146

145

February 27, 1995

| Notes: | | |
|--------------|---|--|
| F1-1 | Allocation of resources to the school for staff | |
| F1-2 | Allocation of resources to the school for capital expenditure | |
| F1-3 | Allocation of resources to the school for operating expenditure | |
| 50. 4 | | |
| F2-1 | Use of resources in the school for staff | |
| F2-2 | Use of resources in the school for capital expenditure | |
| F2-3 | Use of resources in the school for operating expenditure | |
| | | |

147

Thank you very much for your cooperation

148

Annex 3 List of respondents

England/Wales: Mr. A. Clarke

Ms. V. Berkeley

Mr. S. Williams

Flanders: Mr. P. Michielsen

Ms. M. Scheys

Ms. N. Speleers

Lower Saxony: Mr. Quak

Ms. H. Henckels

Ms. Lampe

Netherlands: Mr. Muntingh

Mr. F. de Rijcke

North Rhine Westphalia: Mr. Schulz-Vanheyden

Mr. Thöneböhm

Portugal: Ms. C. Climaco

Ms. S. da Silva Araujo

Sweden: Mr. E. Lindskog

Mr. E. Wallin





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150

