

WORKING CONDITIONS AND SALARIES OF SPECIALIST SUBJECT TEACHERS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN SLOVENIA

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Introduction

In Slovenia, lower secondary education is part of uniform eight-year compulsory education, which from 1999/2000 is gradually being extended to nine-year compulsory education. Generally, 7-year-old children enrol in eight-year basic education, while children aged 6 enrol in the new nine-year basic education. For international comparisons, we classify the last four years of education in eight-year basic education, and the last three years of nine-year basic education, as lower secondary education (ISCED 2A).

In this contribution, we describe the position of subject specialist teachers, who meet all the prescribed educational requirements for teaching one or two subjects and who teach the 5th to 8th in the 8-year elementary school or the 6th to 9th grade in the 9-year elementary school. Because of the single structured nature of the Slovenian elementary school, the position of subject specialist teachers has been almost entirely equal to the position of class teachers (teachers at the first primary stage of elementary school). There are some rather rare specifics, which are also mentioned in this report.

The report relies on the data from the internal documents and databases of the Ministry of education, science and sport of the Republic of Slovenia. Data on pedagogical activities and teachers are not structured by the internationally recognised levels (primary, lower secondary), and therefore cannot be presented for subject specialists separately from the class teachers.

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1. OUTLINE OF GENERAL RELATIONS

1.1. Reforms in the education system and changes in the position of teachers

In the socialist self-management social system **before 1990**, the area of education was primarily determined by Associated Labour Act and Free Exchange of Labour in Education Act. Under the Associated Labour Act, the position of schools as work organisations was the same as for any other organisation of associated labour, and the position of teachers was the same as that of other workers in associated labour. This caused numerous problems in practice, since the professional teaching functions of teachers were mixed with self-managing functions. Teachers' assemblies dealt with planning, distribution of income and self-managing decision-making regarding the distribution of personal incomes, instead of focusing their attention on professional issues and the resolution of problems arising during the conduct of classes and other educational activities.

The Free Exchange of Labour in Education Act laid down the method for the acquisition of funds for the performance of activities in the area of education. The services required for the provision of individual educational programmes were subject to self-managing agreements between programme providers (schools) and users (workers in other areas of activity and citizens). The normative philosophy incorporated into the Act led to the continuous fragmentation of norms and expansion of educational activities. Taken to extremes, the consequence of such a "measurement" approach was the planning and monitoring down to the minute of teachers' work every day of the school year. Teacher's pay for work performed also depended on the minutes and hours realised. Taken altogether, this led to many disagreements in teachers' assemblies.

Disagreements among teachers were further exacerbated by differences in the valuations given to educational services by individual municipalities. The proportion of funds allocated to individual schools for the programme of educational services depended on the economic strength of municipalities. Teachers thus received different salaries for approximately the same scope of educational work. Working conditions in

different schools varied with regard to the level of funding allocated by individual municipalities for investment in education and for the material costs of schools.

The position of teachers in the system described was the same as the position of workers in associated labour. The provisions of general legislation on labour relations applied to the conclusion of labour relations. When a school needed new workers, it advertised vacant posts. The committee for labour relations selected applicants; this was a collective administrative body, consisting of the workers in an individual school, who decided on the employment of new workers based on the self-managing principle. Principals implemented the decisions of the committee and, when necessary, drew attention to the legality of adopted decisions.

Specific provisions regarding labour relations in education were governed by sectoral legislation for this area. The Elementary School Act from 1980 stipulated that specialist subject teachers in elementary schools had to have degrees in a relevant study programme from a teacher training academy or degrees in a relevant study programme from a university or college. Under this Act, workers concluding labour relation and starting teaching work for the first time concluded labour relation as **trainees**. The institution of traineeship of that period arose from formal provisions of the law, and did not restrict the work tasks of starting teachers. Trainees started their work with independent teaching demonstrations in classes. The school selected their tutors from among a number of experienced workers; tutors were responsible for monitoring the performance of new teachers and guiding them, although as a rule both trainees and tutors taught their subjects separately and would meet only after classes. After the completion of traineeship, which generally lasted for one year (at the suggestion of elementary schools, this period could be reduced for workers with good performance, although to not less than six months), teachers had to pass a teaching certification examination. The teaching certification examination consisted of a teaching demonstration in a class, a discussion of the teaching demonstration, and oral examination on ideological-political topics and legislation. Labour relations should have been terminated for teachers who failed to pass the teaching certification examination within two years from the start of their work in education. The certification examination also had to be passed by other professionals employed as a support staff before they could begin working in education. Neither traineeship nor teaching certification examinations were conducted consistently. Schools retained teachers needed for certain subjects, even if they did not pass the teaching certification examination. Even teachers' salaries did not depend on whether or not they had passed the teaching certification examination to obtain full qualification. Teachers were not especially motivated to pass the teaching certification examination.

The work and tasks of teachers were outlined by law. Teachers had to perform 20 teaching hours a week within 42 hours of working duty for a full-time job; however, the municipal education community could also adopt a different agreement on the number of teaching hours. To protect the quality of teaching, the law set an upper limit for teachers' teaching duty amounting to a maximum of 25 hours a week. The norm for classes was 32 pupils, and for mixed classes and classes in bilingual elementary schools 24 pupils. The 1986 amendments to the law also established the possibility in exceptional cases of a higher norm for formation of classes with a maximum of 35 pupils.

In the socialist system of self-management, teachers shared the fate of all other social activities, users of revenues generated in direct production. The term user had a negative connotation, and therefore employees in social activities found it difficult to demonstrate that they nevertheless contributed to the creation of added value.

The status and attraction of the teaching profession was undoubtedly strongly influenced by the **reform of study programmes** for the initial education of teachers. With the transformation of teacher training academies into faculties of education in 1986 and 1987, and with the transformation of what had until then been college teacher-training study programmes into higher-education programmes, the profession of elementary school teachers was raised to the level of a difficult and professionally autonomous top-level profession requiring faculty education. This particular reform is described in more detail in the contextual part of analysis (Phase I).

The adoption of supplements to the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia, and of the Constitutional Act abolishing self-managing interest communities from 1 January 1990, also enabled **reform of the management and financing of education**. In 1991, two new acts important for this area were simultaneously implemented. The Institutes Act (1991) governed status issues common to institutes in the area of non-commercial activities. Programme providers acquired the status of public institutions, and their activities were

defined as not-for-profit. Specific issues regarding the activity were regulated in detail in the general law, which governed the organisation and financing of activities in the area of education. New legislation had an important impact on the position of teachers, primarily on their salaries and working conditions.

The first Organisation and Financing of Education Act (1991) established a new socio-economic status for educational organisations. The term *public service* covered the activities of schools which provided educational programmes for the acquisition of publicly recognised education, as well as the activities of pre-school institutions, music schools, institutions for education and training of children and adolescents with special needs, and halls of residence for schoolchildren. The basic source of funding for public services became the state budget, while some tasks were funded from municipal budgets.

Under this act, founding of elementary schools also remained within the competence of municipalities, while **the system of financing elementary school activities** was fundamentally changed. The state budget guaranteed funds for the salaries of employees in elementary schools providing the so-called guaranteed elementary school programme (a programme guaranteed by the state for every child). Municipal budgets provided funding for the material costs of schools and the salaries of employees providing the additional part of elementary school programmes (programmes adopted by municipalities which vary from municipality to municipality). The system of funding was no longer based on "payment according to the programme of services, the elements of which were theoretically calculated", but on "payments for actual people and approximative material costs".

The Organisation and Financing of Education Act also provided teachers with **opportunities for promotion to titles**, which had an important influence on their material position. The acquisition of a title led to a salary increase.

The first Organisation and Financing of Education Act also enabled certain **changes in working conditions of teachers**. The Act abolished certain provisions of the Elementary School Act governing specific characteristics of labour relations in this area. The teaching duties of teachers were no longer governed by primary legislation but by secondary legislation on the norms and standards for the provision of the elementary school programme. Norms and standards adopted in 1991 raised teachers' normative teaching duties to 22 hours a week. The 1992 changes in the norms benefited trainees, because their teaching duty was reduced by one quarter due to additional tasks within the traineeship programme. The systematisation of posts became a substantial legal innovation. Principals determined through the systematisation of posts the type and scope of posts required for the provision of the programme. For systematisation, they had to obtain the consent of the national administrative body competent for education. Systematisation of posts became the basis for employing staff and for obtaining funds for salaries of workers required to implement the programme.

The procedure for the conclusion of labour relations within the education system also changed. Principals, as the lowest administrative level of decision-making, were thereafter responsible for the conclusion of labour relations and implementation of rights arising from labour relations, while the council of the institution was responsible for deciding on complaints in this area. Workers no longer received resolutions on the conclusion of labour relations, but signed employment contracts.

Under the new system, standards and norms for the formation of classes and groups were set out by secondary legislation. The Norms and Standards adopted in 1991 introduced an important change regarding the number of pupils in elementary school classes. A class could still consist of a maximum of 32 pupils, but **a lower norm** of 28 pupils was set for the formation of the initial classes in the 1st year. Each subsequent school year, the norm "progressed" to higher class, until in 1997 it became generally applied to all elementary school classes. The reduction in the number of pupils in classes led to a substantial improvement in teachers' working conditions.

The changes in status and the system of funding elementary schools provided the foundations for the adoption of a uniform act on salaries in the area of education. The Act on Salaries of Workers in Public Education Institutions, introduced in 1992, is described in more detail in chapter 2. It enabled **unification of salaries for all teachers in the country**, so that teachers with the same level of education and the same title received the same salaries for the same scope of work, regardless of the municipality in which they taught. Payment for work no longer depended on the economic strength of individual municipalities and their attitude towards this

activity. Opportunities for promotion to titles also provided a financial incentive; on promotion, teachers were entitled to higher salaries and could thus improve their material positions.

The next substantial change in the position of teachers was introduced by the Act on Salary Ratios in Public Institutes, State Bodies and Bodies of Local Communities (1994). This act finally placed teachers in the **sphere of public servants**. This Act was expected to regulate salary ratios among and within individual activities. It was successful in this aim when it was implemented, although subsequently ratios were destroyed once again due to numerous supplements introduced by trade unions in individual activities through collective contracts. The new salaries act markedly contributed to the **materially improved position** of teachers only as a result of the implementation of statutory changes in 1996, which also provided teachers with opportunities for double promotion, i.e. promotion to payment classes as well. In addition, they were thereafter also entitled to a supplement for work performance, which was not the case under the law in its former form. Performance-related supplements enabled an increase in teachers' basic salary of 20% per month.

A further innovation covering all workers in the commercial and non-commercial sectors was introduced in 1994. Collective contracts for activities **reduced the working week** from 42 to 40 hours.

The adoption of the package of new school legislation in 1996 was a further step towards the improvement of the position of teachers in the new social order. The main factor behind this is **the new Organisation and Financing of Education Act** (1996); this act replaced the 1991 Act of the same name. It supplements and completely regulates all issues common to public institutions in the area of education, which were only generally regulated by the Institutes Act. At the same time, it regulates in one place all issues common to all areas of education which were hitherto covered by sectoral laws (pre-school, elementary school, general upper secondary school (*gimnazija*), vocational ...). To some extent, the Act regulates in some detail a number of issues important for the position of teachers, to wit: educational and other requirements for professional workers in education, labour relations, traineeship, financing of education and the management system within the education system.

Teachers' professional standards are set at a more difficult level, and the highest administrative level supervises them in procedures for the verification of institutions, employment of staff, traineeship and the teaching certification examination, promotion and calculation of salaries. Under the new system, the **requirement for the employment** of elementary school teachers is **4-year higher education** (previously college or 2.5-year higher education), although the Act allows teachers who were already employed at the time it was introduced and who met the educational requirements at that time to continue teaching. The security of employment of teachers who were already in the system was thus maintained, although they do not receive the same salary and do not have the same opportunities for promotion. New, more demanding requirements however apply to new employment. The **professional teacher-training content** of teacher's education is a compulsory professional component without which applicants for teaching posts cannot sit the teaching certification examination. They can obtain this professional knowledge either through initial education or after completing initial education, during traineeship, but before they register for the teaching certification examination. The **teaching certification examination** is set as a requirement for occupying a post. Teachers cannot be employed in educational system on a permanent basis until they pass this examination. Another requirement for occupation of posts is **knowledge of Slovene** as a literary language. This knowledge is tested in the teaching certification examination.

Traineeship in the area of education was also for the first time regulated by this Act in a similar manner to the regulation in other activities. Under the new system, trainees do not start to perform teaching work independently, but are gradually trained for independent work by teachers – tutors. Traineeship lasts at least six to ten months. Trainees conclude labour relations only for the period of traineeship. Schools boards must once a year advertise traineeship posts and assign trainees to those schools which can provide suitable tutors. Because schools boards have not yet been established, traineeships are advertised by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport. The selection of applicants for traineeship takes into account, where possible, trainees' wishes, the needs of schools and the possibilities for tutorship. Not every teacher can be a tutor – only experienced teachers with the title of advisor or councillor, as well as teachers with the title of mentor if they have held this title for at least three years. Regulations define traineeship training as the right of all candidate teachers who meet the educational requirements, and as a duty of the state which it is obliged to provide for all, regardless of whether or not they can subsequently be employed in the education system. Traineeship thus defined represents a substantial innovation in the area of education, and is expected to significantly contribute

to improved methodological-didactic and organisational skills of future teachers. Due to the considerable shortage of teachers with adequate education, secondary legislation still allowed, during a transitional period, traineeship in its previous form, wherein trainee teachers worked independently from the beginning, and mentors guided and directed them. This form of traineeship is, however, expected to gradually fade away.

All specific issues important for **employment** in the area of education are regulated in detail by the Act. The **systematisation of posts** is determined as the basis for employing workers, and is determined by principals on the basis of norms and standards, although they have to obtain the consent of the schools board on the territory of which the school is located. As schools board have not yet been established, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport issues consent for systematisation of posts. Schools advertise vacant posts on the basis of approved systematisation of posts and the consent of the minister. In mediation of vacant posts, the Ministry acts as an employment agent. The Ministry first checks whether there are any suitable redundant teachers available, and then schools can advertise vacant posts. If a particular school has a worker whom it no longer requires due to a change in programmes, norms, educational requirements or lower enrolment, the principal has to inform the Ministry. The Ministry then informs the teacher of schools which need a worker for the post for which the redundant worker meets the requirements. Schools can employ such workers without advertising vacant posts.

The Act does not regulate in detail issues regarding the procedure for the conclusion of labour relations and employment contracts itself, stipulating instead that general regulations on labour relations and the collective contract for the education sector should be used for this purpose.

The Act precisely determined the **sources of funding** for individual levels of education. All funds for salaries and other personal incomes of workers in elementary schools have since then been provided from the state budget (for guaranteed as well as for additional programmes). It is important for working conditions of teachers that part of the funding intended for material costs of elementary schools related to the conduct of educational work is also provided from the state budget. Municipal budgets however provide funds for material costs related to the use of premises and equipment of schools (heating, lighting, water, maintenance etc.), investments in school premises, and equipment. In accordance with legislation on the financing of municipalities, the state is also involved in investment in elementary schools. The extent of co-financing is determined with regard to the economic strength of the municipality.

The act also introduced an important innovation in the area of **organisation of the management** of the school system in the form of fourteen schools boards. They are expected to represent a form of decentralisation in management, since decision-making on administrative issues and the conduct of personnel, financial, organisational and other tasks of the ministry would be brought closer to the programme providers. In the six years since the adoption of the legislation, schools boards have unfortunately not yet come into being. The main obstacles were the lack of funds and uncertainty regarding the division of competence between state and local authorities, and possible regions. Some tasks which should be performed by schools boards are therefore either not performed at all or are performed only partially. One of the more important such tasks is guiding children with special needs, resulting in the need for temporary transitional solutions. It is especially important for the position of workers in education that the above-described legal model for resolving the situation of redundant workers through the mediation of work in other institutions, a task which should have been performed by schools boards, has not yet been put in place.

The comprehensive package of new school legislation from 1996 is also important for the position of teachers because of the implementation in law of a new view on **professional autonomy** of teachers and schools. The earlier period of socialist self-management was characterised by the fact that teachers were primarily performing precisely prescribed tasks and externally (outside schools) prepared detailed syllabuses and prescribed textbooks. The system of that period left both teachers and pupils in the background; it hindered individuality of teachers and pupils with regard to the organisation and content of work. Although teachers were linked through their teachers' (subject) working groups, analysis of their operation showed that teachers experienced these working groups as a branch of the national educational service for introducing ideas generated outside their circles.

Responsibility for professional decisions was basically left to structures external to schools (education institute, municipal committees, educational communities, professional councils). Administrative supervision was expressed by detailed conduct instructions established by self-governing structures, linked into a

hierarchical pyramid from schools to the national level. Lower levels (at the school level) were able to perform their self-governing mission more on paper than in fact, since, in relation to higher levels, they had much less political and social power. Instructions came from above to be then adopted and implemented in a »self-managing« process »according to the will of workers«. Self-managing activity, which was a duty of each worker (including teachers), was basically limiting teachers. It took their time and energy to introduce innovations, individualise teaching, and the like.

Towards the end of the 80s, teachers began increasingly to avoid uniformity, in order to introduce specific professional-educational aspects of their work. The late 80s and early 90s was a time of burgeoning innovation and projects to a large extent deviating from the legal framework of the period. The practice itself prepared the »ground« for a different, more autonomous position of teachers, which was then actually also implemented by the new school legislation.

The new legislation transferred a substantial part of the formerly central administrative competences to principals, and at the same time, it prescribed in detail criteria for management and financing. By prescribing clear and unbiased personnel and financial criteria under public supervision, the new school authorities wanted to create conditions for the autonomy of schools and teachers in relation to the state. The principle of autonomy is also implemented through maintenance of the secularity of school and the separation of the state (school) and the church, as well as through the protection of the individuality and privacy of pupils and teachers (stricter control over collection and use of private information).

Due to such understanding of teachers' autonomy, **educational supervision** also underwent an important change. The new view of the role of the inspection service had already been introduced in practice some years before it was implemented in law under the School Inspection Act (1996). The work area of schools inspection was limited to the legality of the work of schools and to consideration of reported violations, while it could assess teacher's professional work through specially appointed experts for individual subject areas only where there exists a suspicion:

- that the rights of pupils to achieve prescribed standards of knowledge which enable them to progress to or enrol in education on the next level were violated,
- that the right of teachers to be autonomous in their work was violated,
- that teachers do not ensure objectivity, criticism and plurality in their educational work.

The Education Institute, which used to combine inspection and advisory roles, lost its supervisory function and became a central professional institution advising teachers and supporting them in introducing innovations and in conducting educational work. A model of self-evaluation, developed in the form of projects by professional institutions and the Ministry, is increasingly being implemented for assessment of the quality of work of schools.

1.1.1. The role of teachers in reform movements

Despite some failed experiments, teachers have not in the last ten years managed to establish a professional association (Teachers' Chamber), which would represent their individual and collective professional interests. Nevertheless, there are two ways in which teachers play an important role in implementing reforms.

Teachers participate in amending schools legislation of a conceptual and content nature through discussions in their professional societies, through conferences organised by institutions for initial education of teachers, and through the highest professional bodies for the area of education in the country, in which the teachers are also represented. Teachers had an especially important role in the formation of new educational programmes, which were introduced in accordance with the new schools legislation from 1996. New syllabuses went through a number of cycles of discussion and formation of comments, in which all elementary school teachers participated. Almost 80% of teachers responded by providing their comments to the proposed syllabuses.

The other way in which teachers express their influence is primarily in the area of determining working conditions and salaries. In 1991, with the transition from the self-managing system to a market economy, a process of collective bargaining on working conditions began to develop in the non-commercial sector. Changes in systemic legislation in the area of labour relations already adopted by the former common state enabled regulation of individual rights from labour relations with reference to collective contracts instead of

with reference to self-management general acts. Trade unions and associations of employers or the state were thus given the responsibility to collectively negotiate working conditions. This responsibility was very important since individual rights were not fully specified by law or were only indicated, as the law envisaged that they would be specified in detail in collective contracts. The first collective contract for non-commercial activities was signed in 1991, and the first collective contract for the education sector in 1994. From the very beginning of the establishment of social partnerships, representative trade unions of workers in education were an important partner in forming positive changes in working conditions and salaries of teachers and other workers in the education sector.

Teachers still do not have any influence on the content of higher education of teachers.

1.2. Wider social conditions

1.2.1. Economic, social and political conditions in the country

In the initial period after independence, Slovenia found itself in a difficult economic situation: despite the fact that it was economically the most developed republic of the former Yugoslavia, it began its own statehood with a range of predominantly socially owned (state-owned), large state manufacturing companies with a great number of employees and low productivity, and especially with a loss of markets in the areas of federal republics of the former common state, to which Slovenia had hitherto exported the bulk of its products. For this reason, at the very beginning of the decade, the parliament ensured the smoothest transition to a market economy of all the former states of the socialist planned economy through legislation on denationalisation (including certificate privatisation of previously state-owned companies) and through economic restructuring. After a period of stagnation, economic growth has been positive since 1993 and has in recent years reached a level of 3 to 4% a year (according to the estimates of the Office of Macroeconomic Analysis, it amounted to 3.7% in 2001 during a general decline in the world and Europe, and the forecast for 2002 is 3.3%). According to the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, gross domestic product amounted to US\$ 9,431 per capita in 1995, to US\$ 9,847 per capita in 1998, and to US\$ 9,105 per capita in 2000. According to assessments of the Office of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, GDP per capita in 2001 is expected to amount to US\$ 9,767. In terms of GDP, Slovenia has thus already approached and is almost at the same level as members of the European Union, such as Greece and Portugal.

The period of economic restructuring was also accompanied by a major rise in unemployment, which started to stabilise in 1999, and has been slowly decreasing since. Immediately after Slovene independence, employment fell; given the development of manufacturing and restructuring, this was not surprising, although, after 1993, when the first large companies were privatised and when a number of small private companies began to grow from the remnants of former giants, it rose again, so that the ratio between the level of employment and the population as a whole is rather high in comparison with the majority of other countries in transition.

The structure of Slovene employment by sectors is rather different from those in the majority of OECD countries. The proportion of employment in manufacturing is higher, while in the service sector it is lower than in other countries. This will in any event change in the continuing process of restructuring. We can also expect the proportion of agriculture together with the self-employed will fall from the present level of around 12%. The workforce participation rate in Slovenia is high, and the transitional period has had no substantial influence on it. An exception is young people up to 25 years of age, for whom the rate fell by a third. This could partly be explained by the fact that a greater number of young people are still in education. Another area worth consideration is the low level of participation of men older than 50, amounting to approximately 46-47%. The level has not changed substantially since independence. It seems that it results from the retirement system and workers' attitude towards retirement. There is an almost general tendency for people to retire before they are 60. The median age on retirement is 53 years for women and 57 years for men. It seems that this is a consequence of various specific factors. Many older people retire due to disability. Many people do not meet the age conditions for normal retirement (60 years for women and 65 for men). People can purchase rights to reduce the required age for retirement.

With regard to normal seasonal fluctuations, estimates suggest that, at the end of 2001, there were around 101,300 registered unemployed people, or 11.5% of the active population (on the monthly level, the number in 2001 fell below 100,000 for the first time). With regard to the anticipated growth in employment,

unemployment will continue to fall in 2002 (to 11.2% of the active population), when the slow return to increased activity among the working-age population is expected to continue. Structural unemployment problems remain rather constant throughout this period, despite falling unemployment and the high level of deregistration: the proportion of unemployed people over 40 years old still exceeds half of total unemployment, and the proportion of unemployed people over 50 years old is still one quarter. The structural proportion of the long-term unemployed is still somewhat over 60%, and the proportion of unemployed people without education remains at the level of approximately 47%. Over half of unemployed people are women. For this reason, since the middle of the 90s, the state, alongside measures of the active employment policy, has been actively co-financing programmes for retraining and education, while a national programme for adult education, focusing in particular on the middle-aged generations of citizens who on average have considerably less education than the younger generations, is in preparation.

Slovenia is the first of the European Union candidate countries to prepare a Joint Assessment of priority tasks for its medium-term economic policy, in accordance with which it is expected to become a member of Economic and Monetary Union by 2005. In the area of fiscal policy, the strategic goal of Slovenia is an approximately balanced budget, which should be helped by the introduction of Value Added Tax in 1999, the pensions reform, the renewal of the social security system and the gradual reduction of subsidies to the level laid down by the European Union for state aid.

For the first time in 2001, at the suggestion of the government, the National Assembly adopted a two-year budget for 2002 and 2003, thus enabling the state to establish long-term planning of budget expenditures and revenues, as well as to more effectively formulate and implement policies and multi-year programmes in individual areas of operation of the government.

Alongside reduction in inflation, which is still considerably higher than the European average (in 2001, it amounted to 7%, and the forecast average inflation for 2002 is 6.4%), one of the basic tools of the government for stable economic growth remains controlling salary growth in the public sector, on account of which the government announced in its budget memorandum the submission of a new act on salary ratios in the public sector. In the area of privatisation, the government has yet to sell state shares in the telecommunications, banking and insurance sectors.

1.2.2. Demographic trends

Since the beginning of the 80s, when an average of 30,000 children per year were born in Slovenia, the number of newborns has been falling (1985: 25,961, 1990: 22,303, 1995: 19,012); in 1999, it reached a new low, with only 17,497 children born in Slovenia.

Alongside the general declining number of births in Europe as a whole and the increasing age at first birth, the conclusion may also be drawn with regard to Slovene women, that the marked fall in the number of births in the 90s was also influenced by the insecurity of young people in the political (establishment of a new state, insecurity on entry into the international arena) and especially the economic area, since the period of privatisation, the rising unemployment and the lack of family and housing policies did not encourage young families. Although the number of births increased in 2000, in the very next year decreased again even lower to the number of 1999.

In any case, smaller generations of children will also influence the position of Slovene schools. These influences will on the one hand be positive, since the number of elementary schools operating in two shifts has been falling every year. In the 2000/2001 school year, only 2.5% of classes were taught in shifts, and the problem is expected to disappear completely in several years time. In addition to demographic influences, this will also be helped by extensive investment in school premises. The average number of pupils in classes is also falling considerably. Since 1995/96, when the average class consisted of approximately 22 pupils, the number of pupils per class has fallen to approximately 20 in the 2000/2001 school year. This means an improvement in the working conditions of teachers and greater possibilities for internal differentiation and individualisation of lessons. On the other hand, the falling number of pupils is already influencing the possibilities for formation of classes in accordance with norms. The number of classes in elementary schools fell from 9,439 in 1995/96 to 9,013 in 2000/01. The fall in the number of classes will be temporarily alleviated by the general introduction of nine-year elementary schools in 2003/04, which will include the generation of six-year old children, but the fall in the number of classes will then resume. The geographical distribution of elementary schools in Slovenia is rather dispersed. Many schools are already smaller than is desirable to

ensure suitable efficiency and full employment of specialist subject teachers in line with their skills after initial education. A continuing decline in the number of classes will cause problems in terms of redundant teachers and especially a discrepancy between actual education and needs. It will be necessary to prepare programmes to redirect such teachers to subject areas in which there will still be a considerable shortage of suitable teachers and to coordinate reemployment in other institutions.

1.2. General conditions in education

The 1990s were characterised by intensive renewal movements in education; these began in the second half of the 80s, when practice began to move beyond the basis for norms and standards. The new independent state and the transformation of the social system meant that the adoption of a more modern concept of education became increasingly urgent. A broad spectrum of experts engaged in the preparation of a new concept of education, while debates also took place among the wider professional and lay publics.

The 1996 Elementary School Act transformed the structure and method of elementary-school education in Slovenia. In line with the objectives of the new Act, the new syllabuses were designed with an obvious fundamental shift from content to goal planning of lessons. Particular emphasis was placed on the need to achieve the educational objectives of higher taxonomic levels. Syllabuses in eight-year elementary school were overloaded with »factography«, with more importance ascribed to the quantity rather than the quality of knowledge. Under the new programme of nine-year elementary schools, less attention is given to content, and more to the process of learning and to the development of cognitive and social skills. At the same time, the autonomy of teachers grew significantly. Syllabuses carefully plan the objectives of lessons, while teachers are completely autonomous in the choice of content and methods to achieve the objectives. This method of work means that it is particularly important for teachers to be adequately professionally equipped, first in the process of initial education, and then also in the system of permanent professional additional training and continuing education.

During formation of the new concept of elementary education, a number of issues were raised in discussions regarding certain envisaged innovations.

The Act envisaged an earlier entry of children into elementary school. Children who reach six years of age in the calendar year in which they begin education should enrol in the first year. Even during the period of eight-year elementary school, preparation for school, referred to as »*mala šola*« (little school), which was the responsibility of pre-school education institutions, was prescribed as compulsory. The weakness of this form of preparation lay in the fact that, due to organisational difficulties, it was not implemented to the same extent everywhere, and therefore children were not in a position of equality. In the work of the professional public, and in the general public, concerns were expressed during the planning of changes regarding earlier entry to school to the effect that the future first year would be too »academic« in nature, and that it would rob children of a year of their childhood. Initial experience of the phased introduction of nine-year elementary school indicates that such fears were unfounded. The first year was well received by pupils and parents alike, as well as by teachers. One major gain is the teamwork of teachers and educators in the new first year. Educators enter the first year as a second teacher in half of the lessons under the schedule of subjects. As experts in working with young children, they contribute to »deacademicising« lessons, although the syllabus itself is prepared so as to take account of the age of the children, and the methods of instruction are also adapted to this.

There were also very intensive discussions on the differentiation of lessons with regards to the different abilities of pupils. Diametrically opposed positions appeared in connection with this question. Some people wanted to introduce differentiation after the end of the fourth year of elementary school, with the path of those continuing in general secondary education and later university diverging from that of those who would later be guided towards vocational secondary education. A second fairly vocal group expressed a distinct fear of any sort of differentiation of lessons before the age of fifteen, since this would create unequal opportunities for continuing education. The solutions contained in the concept of education published in the White Book (1995, English edition 1996) represent a form of compromise between the two extremes. In the first three years, only internal differentiation is implemented. In the second three-year cycle, flexible differentiation is gradually introduced alongside internal differentiation, with pupils divided into more homogenous groups only for certain subjects (this option is permitted for native language, mathematics and foreign language), and only for some of the lessons in the subject. In the last two years, external differentiation is envisaged for native

language, mathematics and foreign language, with lessons taking place at three difficulty levels for all the lessons of these subjects.

Such a concept of differentiation means that specialist subject teachers face new challenges. The need for teamwork is greatly increased, since differentiation can only be successful if the teachers for all three levels plan lessons as a team, and also jointly monitor the results of work. There is also an increased need for additional knowledge in the area of definition of goals at different taxonomic levels. Teachers also have considerable difficulties with assessment at different difficulty levels. A 10-level assessment scale was introduced for these subjects. The assessment is only converted to a 5-level assessment scale at the end of the school year. Together, all of this supports the fact that specialist subject teachers of subjects for which flexible and in part external differentiation is being introduced require very intensive additional education and training for the new working methods.

In recent years there has been considerably increased interest in more modern forms and methods for verification and assessment of knowledge, which should enable verification of higher taxonomic levels of knowledge (application of knowledge, comprehension ...). Discussions take place under the heading of the introduction of a new culture of assessment in schools. Experts striving to introduce a new culture of assessment often link it to criticism of the established forms and methods of assessment. Very extensive tasks of the objective type supposedly encourage short-term memorisation of factographic data, while pupils become accustomed to learning merely to obtain good marks.

Criticism is also often directed at written tests of knowledge at the end of the eight-year elementary school. Tests are compulsory for pupils wishing to enrol in secondary schools with limited enrolment. The results of these tests are converted into points, which, in addition to the learning achievements of pupils and results in national knowledge competitions, serve to rank pupils in being accepted to the school of their choice. Critics of »points obsession« have yet to propose a more appropriate model for the selection of pupils where more pupils wish to enrol in a particular secondary school than the school can accept.

In the new nine-year elementary school, external assessment of knowledge is envisaged at the end of each three-year cycle. Assessment after the first and second three-year cycles serves solely to provide feedback on the achieved knowledge objectives, while at the end of the ninth year it also serves to form final marks. Since the achievement of minimal knowledge standards is assessed, pupils who are unsuccessful in the final assessment would not be able to successfully complete elementary school. Critics of external assessment claim that external tests of knowledge feedback into lessons. Teachers supposedly only teach that which can be checked by written tests, and adapt their methods of instruction accordingly. Pupils are supposedly under considerable stress due to »testing«, and schools become productivity centred. On the other hand, the designers of the new concept insist that assessment is necessary so that we can monitor the achievement of the set goals and diagnose the situation in the system to allow for appropriate action. Results should also serve as one of the indicators of quality in the system of self-evaluation of schools. After completing school, it should contribute to ensuring equal opportunities for all pupils, since the criteria and marks of individual teachers are to a certain extent subjective.

Knowledge tests after the first three-year cycle and at the end of elementary school will be implemented for the first time in the final months of lessons in the 2001/02 academic year in those schools which began to implement the new nine-year elementary school programme as a pilot programme before the compulsory introduction. Practising specialist subject teachers are included in the working body for the preparation of these tests on the national level, while preparation of teachers for the tests is underway within the context of forms of education for specialist subject teachers organised by the National Education Institute.

One of the innovations in the new programme of nine-year elementary school is the earlier studying of the first foreign language. Students should start studying a foreign language at the age of nine, while under the eight-year elementary school programme it is included in the schedule of subjects only for pupils aged eleven and older. In practice, almost all schools have introduced earlier teaching of foreign languages prior to the introduction of the new nine-year elementary school programme, either in the form of a project or within the context of an additional programme co-financed by parents or the municipality. Parents and the general public have for some time been aware of the importance of knowledge of foreign languages for the participation of Slovenia in European integration, and so the demand for earlier teaching of foreign languages and the introduction of a second foreign language as an optional subject led to this innovation being implemented in practice before it obtained a normative basis in the new programme. In the second three-year cycle, foreign

languages may be taught by home-class teachers, who obtain additional professional knowledge, as well as by specialist foreign-language teachers, who obtain additional knowledge in the didactics of early foreign-language instruction.

At the same time as the introduction of new programmes, the ministry and professional institutions in the field of education are paying greater attention to the quality of education. In 1999, the ministry launched a series of initiatives aimed at linking various institutions and projects dealing with this issue into a single system of quality assessment and assurance for educational work. The system is conceived as self-evaluation of educational institutions on the basis of a prepared set of instruments. The project mainly actively includes school principals, with whom the suitability of indicators and sets of instruments are checked at professional meetings, while subsequent phases will also include teachers in schools involved in the pilot phase of the project.

Together with the new concept of elementary-school education, the concept of education of children with special needs has also undergone change. Previously, a segregated model of education was in place, under which almost all children with special needs were educated in dedicated institutions. Under the new concept, the proportion of children with special needs who are integrated into regular forms of education should increase, while the implementation of the programme should be adjusted to their needs, and they should be provided with appropriate professional assistance and equipment. The introduction of the new concept has been accompanied by considerable difficulties, since numerous measures are required with regards to the professional training of teachers for work with such pupils, securing suitable staff for professional assistance, adaptation of premises and equipment etc. Further problems are also caused by the transfer of tasks regarding the guidance of children with special needs from one government department to another. Professional committees for guidance of children with special needs previously operated under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, while in accordance with the new legislation in this field dating from 1995, this task has been transferred to the ministry responsible for education. While the new legislation has yet to be fully implemented in practice, the number of children with special needs in regular forms of education has increased, although the optimal conditions for this have yet to be secured.

Following Slovenian independence, many immigrants from the other republics of the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia remained in the country. They had created the conditions for living in Slovenia (employment and accommodation) and had settled here permanently. They applied for and were granted citizenship. They are trying to integrate into society as far as possible. Their children attend lessons in schools with Slovene as the language of instruction. They very often have learning difficulties due to their inadequate knowledge of their own native language as well as of Slovene as the language of instruction. They have the statutory right to learn their native language and culture, which is feasible if their parents organise themselves appropriately and request such a form of education. However, the legislation and the concept of education do not consider them as a specific group of pupils who need special forms of assistance in terms of improving their language abilities, but instead treats them as children with learning difficulties. The available forms of assistance are thus not always the most appropriate or adapted to their specific needs. Recently there has been increased debate around the idea that these children should be provided with more effective forms of assistance, and several research projects have been conducted regarding this problem.

During the years of war in the Balkans, waves of refugees came to Slovenia from the most dangerous parts of the former Yugoslavia. At first, when the number of children from neighbouring Croatia was fairly small, these pupils were included in regular classes, and after returning home they rejoined education in their own countries without major problems. Later, when there were very many refugees from Bosnia and Herzegovina, special lessons were organised in their own language. Later, once the number of refugee pupils began to fall, they were integrated into regular classes, although they were provided with learning assistance and assistance in learning the Slovene language. Refugees from Kosovo were also included in the same manner. Recently, the number of refugees has fallen considerably. Experience with refugee pupils represents a useful benefit for schools, which should foster an understanding of difference and multiculturalism.

Since the mid-90s, we have noticed increased interest on the part of the professional public and the media in the phenomenon of youth violence. Several studies have been carried out (Dekleva, 1995, Pušnik 1996, 1997, 1998) with results similar to those found in the foreign literature. According to the data, around one-fifth of pupils in elementary schools are bullied, with more boys than girls involved in violence. Formulating programmes to prevent and reduce violence in schools has in recent years become an increasingly recognised

part of the task of schools. Training school management, counselling services and teachers for this task takes place via educational programmes within permanent professional additional training.

It is clear from all of this that the 90s (although the roots stretch back into the second half of the 80s) were a period of numerous systemic and content changes in the education sector, and that these have indirectly impacted on the position and status of teachers, and of the understanding of their role in society and the conditions of their work. The introduction of innovations and modern methods of work confront teachers with numerous challenges, which they can only deal with by acquiring new knowledge and competence through forms of additional education. And it is in precisely this area that certain difficulties can still be detected. Although there exist numerous programmes and forms of education supporting the renewal and the introduction of modern forms of work, the problems with the coordination and organisation of such education are such that not all teachers can obtain suitable knowledge and information in good time. Care will therefore have to be taken for the more effective operation of the system of additional education of teachers.

2. DESCRIPTION OF THE SYSTEM OF TEACHERS' SALARIES

2.1. System of teachers' salaries before 1990

Under the pre-1990 socialist self-management system, funding of elementary schools operated under the principles of so-called free exchange of labour. The principal feature of the system at that time was a self-managing agreement of users and providers of school services (schools) on the type of education and the level of funding provided for it. Self-managing interest communities were responsible for this agreement. Elementary-school education was in the domain of 60 municipal education communities. Representatives of the economy and the school system agreed within municipal education communities on the level of funding provided annually for elementary schools in a particular municipality in their area. The level of funding for the implementation of the programme for life and work at elementary schools was determined separately for each year by the self-managing agreement between a municipal education community and individual schools.

The educational programme for elementary schools consisted of two parts: (1) compulsory or guaranteed programme, which was the same throughout the country, and (2) optional or extended programme, which was designed by each municipality with regard to its specific needs. The guaranteed programme was the standard that the state was obliged to provide for every child of school age in the state. Although this part of the programme was implemented fairly uniformly throughout the state, it was valued differently by municipalities, depending on the economic strength of the municipality and on the importance given to the area of education by the individual municipality. Schools in different municipalities therefore received very different reimbursements for basically the same extent of guaranteed programme. The differences grew on account of different valuation of the extended part of programme, the extent of which also varied considerably from municipality to municipality.

Funds for salaries and other incomes of employees were a constituent part of these reimbursements for educational services. This took into account the type, extent and degree of difficulty of work, as well as the agreed increase or reduction of funds for the performance-related part. The salaries of individual teachers were not precisely specified, while only common basis for determining the cost of labour was stipulated by regulations. Each school had its own Rules on the formation and allocation of salaries; these determined the coefficients for salaries of workers occupying individual posts. The starting value of a salary was formed at each school in accordance with its financial capacities, with regard to the number of employees, and with regard to its capacity to pay current material costs. Schools providing the same extent of activities with a smaller number of teachers (on account of a considerable increase in their teaching duties) could allocate more funds to the salaries of individual teachers than schools with a greater number of employees. Schools also differed with regard to tasks of teachers which were considered normal duties and tasks for which teachers received additional payments. Performance-related funding was allocated in accordance with the internal rules of the school, which defined the criteria and methods for allocation of such funds. Special commissions operated in schools to evaluate the work performance of staff members in accordance with these Rules.

The salary system at the time gradually led to large and unjustified differences in the level of teachers' salaries among schools for the same post and the same tasks. This is most clearly shown by the fact that the average salary at the "wealthiest" school was 84% higher than the average salary at the "poorest" school.¹

¹ The comparison covered all primary and secondary schools in the Republic of Slovenia.

These differences were a constant source of discontent among school staff, who were consequently increasingly determined in their demands for arrangement of the conditions through their trade union representatives.

2.2. Changes to the system of organisation and financing of education after 1990; legislation on salaries in education

With the adoption of the supplements to Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia and constitutional acts (1990), self-managing interest communities were abolished, and reforms were prepared and implemented in the area of organising and financing of the school system. In 1991, the Government of the Republic of Slovenia adopted common calculation bases for evaluation of programmes in the area of social activities. This was the first step towards unification of the salary system. This was followed by the Act on Salaries and Other Incomes of Workers in Public Education Institutions (1992), which laid down uniform starting points for salaries of all employees in public education institutions from the elementary to the higher education system.

The main goals of the Act on Salaries and Other Incomes of Workers in Public Education Institutions were as follows:

- to establish uniform rules for obtaining funds for salaries,
- to establish uniform criteria for determining salaries and other personal incomes, and
- to define suitable relations among the salaries of employees occupying different posts in education.

As a basis for determining salaries, the starting salary (*izhodiščna plača*), laid down by law for the first tariff class (the simplest work for which only elementary school education is required) for full working time, was agreed in the Collective Contract for the Non-Commercial Sector, as determined by the Government of the Republic of Slovenia. The basic salary (*osnovna plača*) was determined for individual workers by multiplying the starting salary by the coefficient determined for the type of post to which the worker was assigned. The worker's salary (*plača delavca*) was determined by adding supplements (*dodatki*) to his/her basic salary in accordance with criteria laid down by law.

At the time of the introduction of the salary legislation, the education of teachers was still conducted in two ways: under the old short 2-year to 2.5- year tertiary educational programmes (which were being withdrawn) and under longer 4-year university programmes. Both types of degree were considered suitable for the post of specialist subject teacher in elementary schools, although they were valued differently in the salary. The salary legislation determined a lower coefficient for the basic salary (2.65) for elementary school teachers with short HE degrees, and a higher (3.10) for teachers with longer HE degrees.

Given that teachers with different levels of education largely performed the same tasks in schools, the differences in basic salary with regard to education were often criticised. Although the 1993 amendments to the salary legislation supposedly standardised the basic coefficients for both educational categories of teachers at 3.25, the differences in salaries remained. The same coefficient was determined for teachers with short HE degrees as for teachers with higher education but with a 15% deduction, which amounted to a total 2.75. The "education" coefficient was reduced by only 10% for teachers with more than 25 years of work period. The policy of the ministry was to foster improvement of the educational structure of employees in the elementary school system and, consequently it did not abandon salary differentiation with regard to the achieved level of education, even in later changes to the salary system. In this way, the ministry wanted to maximise the number of teachers with short HE degrees continuing in-service training to obtain the longer HE degree.

The school legislation on salaries thus established the following formula for calculation of a teacher's salary:

Salary = starting salary x (basic coefficient) + supplements

Supplements were as follows:

Supplement for level of education higher than required.

Teachers who obtained education under postgraduate study programmes for specialist degrees (*specializacija*), master's degrees (*magisterij*) or doctorates (*doktorat*), which was not required for the

performance of work in their posts, were entitled to a supplement of 0.20 coefficient for specialist degrees, 0.30 for master's degrees, and 0.50 for doctorates, in addition to the basic coefficient.

Functional supplement

This supplement was allocated to principals (1.10 coefficient), assistant principals (0.50 coefficient) and heads of organisational units (0.30 coefficient) in elementary schools. In other words, management and management staff members were basically valued as teachers but, with regard to the function they occupied, they were also entitled to an appropriate functional supplement.

Title supplement

Teachers who were promoted to a title in accordance with the relevant secondary legislation were also entitled to appropriate coefficients for the title added to the coefficient for basic salary. After the amendments to the law, these coefficients were 0.40 for mentors (*mentor*), 0.55 for advisors (*svetovalci*) and 1.00 for the highest title – councillors (*svetnik*). (The system of promotion to a title will be described in more detail below.)

Supplement for special working conditions

Supplements for special working conditions were determined by law as percentages of basic salary, which were converted into an appropriate coefficient for the calculation of teacher's salary. Teachers teaching:

- in a mixed class consisting of pupils from two classes (of different age), are entitled to a salary increase of 10%, and in a mixed class consisting of three or more classes 15%,
- in a class of the school in hospital, 10%,
- in remote and inaccessible places, 10%
- in a school where the language of instruction is the language of a national community, 15%
- in a bilingual school in a nationally mixed area, 20%

Supplement for work in less favourable working hours

Under this criterion, night work, work on days off and duty work were valued, while elementary school teachers were only entitled to the supplement for overtime work with regard to the nature of work. Workers were approved overtime work only in exceptional circumstances with the consent of the ministry, and such work was valued 30% higher than the value of working hours carried out within full working time.

Supplement for work period

The valuation of work period is probably specific in comparison with the systems in other countries and, therefore, we draw particular attention to it. For each year of work experience (regardless of whether a worker was employed in the field of education or outside it), the basic salary of the worker increased by 0.5% up to a maximum of 20%. After 25 years of work experience, the salary for women increased by 0.75% for each further year of service. In this way, women could within the prescribed work period for retirement achieve the same pensions basis as men. 35 years of work period was prescribed for women and 40 for men.

Supplement for the extended teaching hours and deduction for reduced teaching hours

The Elementary School Act stipulated a maximum workload of 25 teaching hours per week for teachers within full-time working hours (40 working hours a week). The normal teaching workload was 22 hours for all subjects in elementary schools (21 hours for teachers of mother tongue). Hours above 22 hours a week worked by a worker were valued in the salary in the form of a supplement for extended work. This supplement was calculated as a percentage of the basic coefficient for the calculation of salary. An appropriate part of coefficient was deducted from the basic salary for workers who signed labour contracts for less than 22 teaching hours. Teacher's labour relations with the reduction of teaching duty by up to a maximum of three teaching hours a week (minimum 19 teaching hours) were still considered full-time employment. If teachers had their teaching duties reduced to less than 19 hours a week, they could only conclude labour relations for part-time, not full-time employment.

Supplement for home class teaching and tutorship of trainees

Teachers tutoring trainees were entitled to a coefficient valued as 1 teaching hour per week added to their basic coefficient. Home class teaching in the first and final year of eight-year elementary school was valued as a supplement amounting to a coefficient for 2 teaching hours per week, and in other years to 1 teaching hour per week.

Deductions for inadequate education

Due to the shortage of teachers with adequate education for some subjects, elementary schools employed (and still do) on fixed-term contracts a number of teachers who do not meet all the requirements for post. The law stipulated that the salary for such workers should be calculated in proportions as follows:

- if they do not have the required education, they are entitled to 90% of the basic salary;
- if they do not have the legally required teacher-training education, they are entitled to 95% of the basic salary;
- if they do not meet either of the above requirements, they are entitled to 85% of the basic salary for the post they occupy.

2.2.1. System of promotion to a title

The law first enabled salary increases for teachers in the form of a supplement for promotion to a title. The possibility of promotion to a title in a teaching post was laid down by the Organisation and Financing of Education Act, which entered into force in 1991, while detailed provisions regarding the promotion of educational workers were supposed to be laid down by secondary legislation to be adopted by the minister. Rules on promotion to titles in elementary and secondary schools entered into force in August 1992, that is immediately prior to the beginning of the 1992/93 school year. These Rules prescribed the following procedure for obtaining a title: schools submit application with all required enclosures and evidence to the ministry; teachers obtain a title under a ministerial decision when it is established through the procedure that he/she meets all the criteria for promotion to a certain title.

The Rules determined the following criteria for promotion:

- adequate professional education and passed teaching certification examination
- a certain work period in school system
- performance in educational work
- additional knowledge obtained through the system of permanent professional additional training or further education
- other professional work.

Adequacy of professional education

Adequate education for teaching in elementary schools is laid down by elementary and secondary legislation. Before 1996, specialist subject teachers in elementary schools were required to have either short or longer HE degrees, while after 1996 they were required to have longer university degrees. The Rules on promotion to payment classes enabled teachers with short HE degrees only to be promoted to the first two titles, mentor (*mentor*) and advisor (*svetovalec*), while only teachers with longer HE degrees could be promoted to the highest title councillor (*svetnik*).

Work period in the area of education

Continuity of work in the area of education (seniority) was for the first time taken indirectly into account in promotion to titles. The work period is taken into account through a supplement to the basic salary which employees receive for every year of their work period regardless of whether or not they worked in the area of education. The requirements for promotion were: for the title of mentor (*mentor*), a minimum 4 completed years of work in education; for the title of advisor (*svetovalec*), the title of mentor (*mentor*) for a minimum of 5 years; and for the title of councillor (*svetnik*), the title of advisor (*svetovalec*) for a minimum of 5 years. It was also possible to be directly promoted to a higher title, bypassing intermediate title(s), although in this case, a minimum 10 years of work period in education were required for the title of advisor (*svetovalec*), and a minimum 15 years for the title of councillor (*svetnik*).

Performance in educational work

A teacher's performance in educational work was assessed and justified by the principal of school. He/she took into account the following elements in evaluating work performance:

- work with pupils
- cooperation with parents
- cooperation and teamwork with other workers in the school.

Additional knowledge obtained within the system of permanent professional additional training

Recommended and priority professional education (in-service training) was valued with an appropriate number of points. Rules on promotion determined the total number of points that a teacher had to acquire in line with this criterion to be promoted to a title. In this way, permanent professional additional training gained in importance and expanded considerably. The interest of teachers in participating in these forms of education significantly increased, which fed back into the quality of educational work.

Other professional work

This criterion covered professional work indirectly related to teaching, but contributing considerably to the quality of the work of individuals, the school as a whole and elementary school education in general. This involves the following tasks:

- tutoring pupils in competitions
- tutoring students within the framework of teaching practice
- tutoring trainees
- presentations and talks for teachers and parents
- management of professional bodies, both within the institution and more generally
- preparation of thematic exhibitions and performances
- organisation of research camps, competitions, seminars
- published translations, professional articles and reviews
- authorship or co-authorship of teaching materials, teaching aids and textbooks
- work in professional bodies and working bodies in the area of education, in assessment committees, panels
- development and research work in cooperation with professional and research institutions in the area of education, and teacher-training faculties, etc.

Since they were introduced, the rules on the promotion to titles have undergone many changes. It emerged that the criteria for promotion in their original form enabled promotion to the highest title of teachers of certain subjects (e.g. physical education) more than of other teachers. Therefore, the criteria for valuation of individual professional tasks were made stricter as appropriate in subsequent amendments to the Rules. The requirements for extraordinary promotion to a higher title (bypassing intermediate titles) were also changed – when the system was introduced, they were much more open in order to enable promotion to a higher title for teachers who did not have sufficient time before retirement to allow for a gradual promotion procedure. The latest amendments dating from 2001 will also enable promotion to the highest title of councillor (*svetnik*) to teachers with short HE degrees.

2.3. Systemic changes; uniform salary legislation in the public sector

The next step in upgrading the system of teachers' salaries was achieved by adoption of Act on Salary Ratios in Public Institutes, State Bodies and Bodies of Local Communities (1994). The Act unified the starting points and criteria for determining the salaries for all categories of public servants with the exception of deputies of the National Assembly and officials, constitutional court judges and judges, public prosecutors and their deputies. The law intended to establish suitable ratios in the area of salaries both within and among individual activities, and therefore its supplement determined the coefficient for basic salary categorised in tariff groups with respect to the level of difficulty of posts. The level of difficulty of posts was determined by the level of education required for a post.

Because new supplements were put into force every year through collective negotiations in individual sectors, the statutory relations quickly deteriorated again. In addition to the act on salary ratios, some provisions of the old Act on Salaries of Workers in Public Education Institutions remained valid for those employed in the education sector. These were primarily provisions determining supplements to salary, specific calculation of salary for teachers with short HE degrees and the calculation of salaries for workers with inadequate education.

The act on salary ratios established the following formula for calculation of the salary of individuals for all public servants:

Salary = Basic salary in coefficients + supplements under criteria of a certain sector + work performance

On the basis of the salary ratios act, teachers were once again entitled to a monthly supplement for work performance. Before this act, they were not entitled to the supplement for work performance under the pretext that they had the opportunity to be promoted to titles. Only non-educational workers could receive such supplement for work performance, amounting to 10% of basic salary. Principals determined the new performance-related supplement for teachers for each month of the year. It could amount to a maximum of 20% of the basic salary of individuals. Criteria for determining work performance were adopted by the council of the institution. Funds for this purpose were limited to a maximum 2% of total funds intended for salaries of employees within the institution.

The amended act on salary ratios established one more substantial gain for teachers which they had never had before – the opportunity for horizontal promotion or **promotion to a higher payment class** in the same post. Initially, promotion to payment classes was not possible for teachers, who already had their own system of vertical promotion to titles – only the supplements received by teachers on promotion to a title were increased. Promotion to payment classes was thus first introduced only for non-educational workers in schools. Following persistent and intense opposition to the provision excluding teachers in schools from promotion to payment classes, representative trade unions of those employed in education ensured that they too had the possibility of such promotion. Under the 1996 amendments to the act on salary ratios, teachers, like other public-sector employees, were also given the possibility of promotion to payment classes. In 1996, Rules on the promotion to payment classes of employees in nursery schools and schools, which previously applied only to non-educational workers, was therefore amended so as to enable promotion to payment classes for teachers as well. Teachers with university education could be promoted up to a maximum of 5 payment classes, and teachers with short HE degrees up to a maximum of 4 payment classes, once every 3 years. With the change of the Rules in 2001, the restriction to a 4 payment classes was abolished, and now also the teachers with short HE degrees are entitled up to the 5th class promotion.

Rules stipulated that employees who meet the following conditions could be promoted to a higher payment class:

- they must have adequate education and meet other requirements for the post to which they are appointed
- they must have a minimum of 3 years of work period, or at least 3 years should have passed since their last promotion to a payment class
- the principal must evaluate their work performance as at least average
- they must meet other requirements for promotion, which are:
 - *Additional functional knowledge*
Each obtained and certified additional professional qualification, which is not required for post and which was not taken into account in the promotion to a title, is awarded a certain number of points. These are diplomas obtained under postgraduate study programmes, certificates for foreign-language knowledge, certificates for active participation in various seminars and programmes for permanent professional additional training, etc.
 - *Interdisciplinary qualification*
Under this criterion, qualifications for performing work in more posts, qualifications for organisation and management, and participation in professional groups at different levels, from school to state, are taken into account.
 - *Independence and reliability at work*
Under this criterion, the qualification for professionally justified and independent performance of work in a post is valued.
 - *Creativity*
Under this criterion, the following activities are valued: teacher's contributions to the development of new methods and forms of educational work, teacher's activities which contribute to the reputation of the school in public, teachers activities in developing the profession and wider presentation and establishment of professional achievements. These activities exceed the framework of the teacher's work tasks in post.

As a rule, teachers whose performance at work is normal and average, are promoted every three years by one payment class. The Rules also enable accelerated promotion when 18 months have passed since the last promotion, and extraordinary promotion by more than one payment class. In both cases, the condition is the principal's evaluation that the teacher's work performance is above average and therefore exceeds the number of points required under the aforementioned criteria by at least 100%.

When the Rules entered into force in 1997, the initial allocation of teachers and other professional workers to payment classes was carried out. The initial allocation of educational workers in schools was performed by principals, who also had to obtain the consent of the ministry. Somewhat different rules applied to the initial allocation. Teachers who had more than 6 years of work experience at that time could be promoted by two classes instead of one, and the small number of teachers whose performance was very high, could be promoted by several classes at once, or even to the fifth payment class. Severe budgetary constraints meant that the proportion of such promotions was later limited, leading to ill feeling in teachers' assemblies and resulting in a number of court cases. In 2001, the Constitutional Court overturned the provision limiting the number of extraordinary promotions and ordered the ministry to enable extraordinary promotion for teachers whose performance was evaluated as above average but who could not be promoted to the fifth payment class due to the subsequently adopted limitation, and to pay them salary difference in arrears.

The entry into force of promotion to payment classes influenced changes in the system of determining coefficients for teachers' basic salaries. In the tariff annex to Collective Contract for Educational Activities, coefficients for basic salaries of teachers with higher education were thereafter determined in such a way as to take account of promotion to titles. Coefficients for the basic salary were 3.25 for teachers without titles, 3.60 for teachers with the title of mentor (*mentor*), 3.80 for teachers with the title of advisor (*svetovalec*) and 4.20 for teachers with the title of councillor (*svetnik*). Promotion to a title began to be incorporated into the basic salary, and supplements were thus calculated on a higher basis. Coefficients without titles were already determined by the tariff annex to the act on salary ratios, while coefficients for promotion to a title, which were introduced by the Act on Salaries of Workers in Public Education Institutions, were converted in the tariff annex to the collective contract into coefficients for the basic salary. This change also introduced new posts for teachers with different coefficients for basic salary, depending on the title achieved. Because promotion to a payment class was also calculated in the basic salary, the number of coefficients for basic salary increased considerably (see Table 1).

Some specific provisions of the old Act on Salaries of Workers in Public Education Institutions remained in parallel with the Act on Salary Ratios. Calculations of coefficients were retained for teachers with short HE degrees, whose basic salary is determined on the basis of the coefficient for a university degree, with a 10% deduction for teachers with more than 25 years of work in education, and a 15% deduction for younger teachers. These educational characteristic were then followed by calculation of a portion of basic salary to cover the title achieved and the payment class. Thus, a very complex system of coefficients arose, which essentially provides 60 possible ways of calculating the basic salary for specialist subject teacher in elementary schools. When selecting the coefficient for the basic salary of an individual teacher in the table, check the teacher's education, work period, the title achieved and the payment class, and then look for the value of the relevant coefficient. Most of the coefficient values appear in the table several times and, therefore, the number of coefficients with different value is actually less than 60. The current system for determining the coefficient for basic salary of specialist subject teachers is shown in the table below. The system is actually much more extensive because it also contains all possible coefficients for all other employees in education. Only the parts used for elementary school teachers are shown for the purposes of this analysis.

Table 1

COEFFICIENTS FOR POSTS IN INDIVIDUAL TARIFF GROUPS WITH COEFFICIENTS FOR INDIVIDUAL PAYMENT CLASSES

Post	basic coefficient.	1 payment class	2 payment class	3 payment class	4 payment class	5 payment class

University degree	without a title	3.25	3.40	3.60	3.80	4.00	4.20
	with the title of mentor (<i>mentor</i>)	3.60	3.80	4.00	4.20	4.40	4.70
	with the title of advisor (<i>svetovalec</i>)	3.80	4.00	4.20	4.40	4.70	5.00
	with the title of councillor (<i>svetnik</i>)	4.20	4.40	4.70	5.00	5.30	5.60
Short HE degree	with more than 25 years of work period without a title	2.93	3.06	3.24	3.42	3.60	3.78
	with more than 25 years of work period with the title of mentor (<i>mentor</i>)	3.24	3.42	3.60	3.78	3.96	4.23
	with more than 25 years of work period with the title of advisor (<i>svetovalec</i>)	3.42	3.60	3.78	3.96	4.23	4.50
	with less than 25 years of work period without a title	2.76	2.89	3.06	3.23	3.40	3.57
	with less than 25 years of work period with the title of mentor (<i>mentor</i>)	3.06	3.23	3.40	3.57	3.74	4.00
	with less than 25 years of work period with the title of advisor (<i>svetovalec</i>)	3.23	3.40	3.57	3.74	4.00	4.25

2.4. Collective Contracts

In addition to the statutory arrangements for the salary system for teachers, agreement between the government and representative trade unions for this sector is also an important factor in regulating salaries in the education sector. Since 1994, when the first Collective Contract for Educational Activities was signed, amendments to the collective contract enabled the introduction of a number of additional benefits related to specific features of posts in education, as well as the introduction of a number of new supplements to salaries. In the last few years, these have primarily been used as an instrument for salary increase and are no longer used for the valuation of specific differences within the school system, which was their original purpose.

The group of supplements used for valuation of differences in the level of difficulty and complexity of work among teachers contains the following supplements:

- *Supplement for externality*. It is received by specialist subject teachers teaching mother tongue and mathematics in elementary schools. Pupils who enrol in secondary schools with limited enrolment, have at the end of elementary school external assessment of knowledge in these two subjects, the results of which influence their options for enrolment in the school of their choice.
- *Supplement for teaching three or more subjects*. It is received by specialist subject teachers teaching three or more different subjects who are adequately trained for teaching all (three) of them.
- *Supplement for mobility* is received by specialist subject teacher teaching in two or more institutions.
- *Additionally increased value of teaching hours*, set by standards for tutorship of trainees and home class teaching (in the case of home class teaching, the increased value depends on the number of pupils in the class)
- *Supplement for work in shifts and afternoon work and supplement for split shifts*.

The group of supplements received by all teachers and therefore basically used as an instrument for salary increases in recent years contains the following supplements:

- *Supplement for work with children, adolescents or students*. This supplement increased with the amendments to the Collective Contract so that it increased from the initial coefficient of 0.15 to 0.60.
- *Supplement for qualifications for tutorship*. This supplement is received by all teachers meeting basic requirements laid down by law for performing the function of a tutor to trainee teachers (they must have

held the title of advisor (*svetovalec*) or councillor (*svetnik*), or the title of mentor (*mentor*) for at least 3 years).

- *Supplement for special psycho-psychical burdens.* This supplement varies with regard to the title achieved and, for teachers without a title, it amounts to a coefficient of 1.48, for teachers– mentors (*mentor*), a coefficient of 1.43, for teachers – advisors (*svetovalec*) or councillor (*svetnik*), a coefficient of 1.38. The supplement was not introduced in full at once, but over an extended period from 1 January 2001 to 1 December 2001.

The Collective Contract defines many other supplements intended for other employees in education, but we have however limited ourselves to listing only those that can be received by specialist subject teachers in elementary schools.

Following Slovene independence, the representative trade unions had an important role in implementing the rights of teachers and in finding solutions for a suitable role of education within the framework of non-commercial activities, particularly in the area of adequate valuation of their work in the form of salaries.

It should also be mentioned that, throughout this period teachers also receive the following incomes in addition to salaries: annual leave allowance, loyalty bonus, retirement bonus – redundancy, solidarity assistance and reimbursement of work-related costs (food allowance, travel expenses for official travel and travel to and from work).

2.5. Changes envisaged in 2002

In 2002, analysis showed that the salary system in the public sector was extremely fragmented and therefore unclear. In addition to the general systemic law (1994), the area of salaries is governed by another 40 sectoral regulations (including school regulations) based on different, mutually contradictory principles. General law prescribes a uniform salary structure, determines payment classes and coefficients, and governs uniform rules for promotion, allocation of performance-related pay and supplements. Because in recent years, sectors (including the education system) increased salaries primarily through various supplements on the basis of their regulations and through amendments to collective contracts for specific activities, the initial relations among comparable professions were destroyed and the system became uncontrollable. In some areas, such as for example the education system, the proportion of salary formed by supplements exceeded the basic salary. In the teaching profession, the differences between salaries of individuals, due to supplements, became excessive and unjustifiable. In the education system, 23 types of possible supplements were introduced. All of this together led to confusion and disproportion in the salary system. Salaries today reflect the power of particular professions and trade unions more than justified differences.

The Government has therefore decided to change the system, and has already submitted statutory amendments. In its proposals, it is pushing for a uniform system for all parts of the public sector (including deputies of the National Assembly and officials, judges and prosecutors), and uniform salary structures, methods for their calculation and monitoring of the possibilities for increases. The salary of public servants should contain the following three elements: **basic salary in nominal amount + supplements in accordance with the law + portion of salary for work performance.**

The basic salary will henceforth be a nominal amount for a certain payment class from the uniform pay scale, which will incorporate the post of, for example, a teacher. Coefficients will be abolished. In the first part of every year, social partners will agree on the level of payment classes with regards to inflation, rising costs of living and other relevant circumstances. The level of education prescribed for posts will be the basic criterion for determining payment groups. In one payment group, consisting of several payment classes, the posts will have equal criteria in terms of education, and multiple payment classes will, in addition to educational criteria, enable the establishment of other criteria regarding the level of difficulty of a post, and not just educational criteria.

The dual system of vertical and horizontal promotion will remain. The system of vertical promotion should take into account the criterion of additional professional activities and professional growth of professional workers, while in the system of horizontal promotion, every employee will be eligible for

promotion depending on work performance, independence, reliability, creativity and newly obtained knowledge and skills which have to be used for post. Vertical promotion is expected to remain within the domain of individual sectors. In the area of education, the established promotion to titles mentor (*mentor*), advisor (*svetovalec*) and councillor (*svetnik*) will therefore remain.

The Government has decided through the law to reduce the number of supplements, and proposes to retain the following supplements: for position, work period, tutorship to a trainee, specialist degree, master's degree or doctorate (where not required for the post), bilingualism, unfavourable working conditions, additional burdens and night work. This will particularly affect the area of education, since salaries in this sector were increased through supplements, while the level of the basic salary has fallen behind in comparison with other professions.

The possibility of transferring the portion of the salary covered by supplements to premiums of collective voluntary additional pensions insurance will also be a systemic innovation.

It is not yet known the payment class to which teachers will belong. This will depend on the evaluation of the level of difficulty of the post or the title. Very tough negotiations with trade unions are currently underway. The unions are demanding long-term correction of inadequate relation for teachers among basic salaries in the public sector. School trade unions compared salaries for officials, judges, doctors and teachers, attempting to show that the relations have been completely destroyed to the detriment of those employed in education. They backed up their arguments by announcing a strike, and the government has therefore promised that adequate relations will be completely regulated in the new Public-Sector Employees' Salaries Act. Trade unions recommended that the ratio between the starting salary of teachers with higher education and the starting salary of general practitioners should be set at 1 : 1.2 under the act. This means that the starting salary of teachers would be only 20% lower than doctors' salaries, and not 60%, as at present.

According to the trade unions argumentation, public-sector salaries increased unevenly in comparison to salaries in the commercial sector in 2001. State administration was 20% above the average for the commercial sector, and health care almost 10%, while education was only 2% above this average. At the same time, the educational structure of those employed in education was substantially better. In health care, about 20% of employees have higher education, in education 43%, and in state administration about 34%. This means that inter-sectoral differences between comparable professions are even greater if we take account of the educational structure. These are the arguments of trade unions.

The government hopes to control salary increases better after the adoption of new legislation, and has therefore envisaged special procedures and responsible parties for monitoring and analysing salary trends and the method for justifying claims for salary increases and for negotiations with trade unions.

3. SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

3.1. Changes to the status of teachers and employment contracts

Under the socialist self-management system, the status of teachers was equal to the status of all other workers in associated labour. On concluding labour relations, teachers received a resolution on acceptance into labour relations which did not contain a description of their work duties. Even at that time two forms of labour relations were possible: fixed-term and permanent. Fixed-term labour relations were concluded in the event of replacement of a worker absent from work for an extended period (maternity leave, extended sick leave), or when it was impossible to obtain a worker with suitable education.

After Slovenian independence and changes to the social system, educational institutions acquired the status of not-for-profit public institutions, and workers the status of public servants. On concluding labour relations, workers sign a labour contract binding on both parties. Both fixed-term and permanent labour relations are still possible, with the reasons the same as stated in the previous paragraph. Employment contracts stipulate the main duties to be performed by the teacher, with an annex to the contract being signed when such duties change. Contracts also state all elements in accordance with which the teacher's salary is determined.

Attention must be drawn to an important change introduced with the adoption of the new legislation in 1996 in the area of traineeship and the status of trainee teachers. In accordance with the previous legislation schools could employ trainee teachers on a permanent basis if it could be shown that there was a permanent need for their work. Teachers were obliged to sit the professional examination within two years of starting work in the education system, otherwise their labour relations would be terminated. Schools appointed a mentor to trainees, providing advice and assisting them in their work, but trainees ran lessons independently. Teaching duties were reduced by one-quarter, and they received 70% of the salary of a teacher who had passed the professional examination.

Under the new legislation, trainees are trained with a mentor and do not work independently. The professional examination is defined as a job requirement, and so trainees cannot be employed on a permanent basis. Only once they have passed the professional examination can schools employ them permanently, provided that there is a demonstrated permanent need for their work. Trainee salaries also under the new legislation are set at 70% of the salaries of teachers who have passed the professional examination, but they do not have teaching duties, since within their traineeship they only conduct model lessons under the leadership of the mentor.

3.2. Employment security

In the period following the establishment of Slovenian statehood, the teaching profession (together with others in »social activities«) was and remains one of the most secure forms of employment – especially in the years of privatisation of major socially owned companies, redundancies in the commercial sector and uncertain start-ups of many small private companies. Under conditions of a declining number of children, the issue began to be raised of mass redundancies of teachers, and so in 2000 at the initiative of teaching unions, the Ministry of Education prepared a projection of the situation and analysis of the demand for teachers in the 2000-2004 period.

Data analysis shows that in the years up to the 2003/2004 school year, no redundancies are to be expected among home class teachers, a situation which can be ascribed to the gradual introduction of year 1 of the nine-year elementary school (phased introduction began in 1999, with all Slovene elementary schools joining the new programme in September 2003). This will temporarily compensate for the gradual decline in the number of classes in individual years of the eight-year elementary school resulting from demographic trends, and will even result in an increase in the number of classes in the 2002/2003 and 2003/2004 school years. We anticipate that it will be possible to satisfy demand for new workers in this area through the inflow of graduates, since in recent years 275 home class teachers have graduated on average each year.

The demand for other teachers in year 1 of the nine-year elementary school can be covered through the inflow of nursery school teachers, while the demand for new staff due to the new extended-stay classes for six-year-old pupils can in part be covered through nursery school teachers, and in part by specialist subject teachers who may no longer be required as part of specialist subject lessons.

The situation is similar for subject levels. Comparisons between the syllabuses of eight-year and nine-year elementary school shows a minor surplus of staff in certain subjects, while given the expected shortfall of teachers in other subjects, we expect that »redundant« teachers will be able to make up their teaching duties by teaching other subjects (e.g. compulsory optional subjects) or by training to teach the shortfall subjects, which will require the development of suitable programmes.

Taking account of the proportion of teachers with insufficient education who were employed on fixed-term contracts and who cannot receive the rights of redundant workers when the need for their work ceases, large-scale redundancies for specialist subject teachers in elementary school cannot be expected in any subject area.

The representative trade unions in the education sector have signed an agreement with the competent ministry for the period from 1999-2004, within the framework of which the manner of dismissal of redundant workers and the formation of suitable instructions to schools for action in the event of temporary or permanent cessation of the need for labour were agreed. Termination of labour relations is an extreme measure only, with priority to be given to the search for all options for transferring the staff member within the institution or to another institution.

Under the law, principals are obliged to inform the ministry of redundant staff. In accordance with the law, the ministry is obliged to forward to schools information on institutions needing to employ staff with relevant education. If the ministry fails within eight days to provide a response, the school continues the redundancy procedure in accordance with the law or collective contract. In cases involving only a single staff member due to the withdrawal of the post to which he or she was assigned, this worker only is considered in the redundancy procedure. In cases where the redundancies arose due to a reduction in the extent of work in posts

in which several workers work, the criteria for determination of the redundant worker or workers defined in the collective contract for the education sector need to be applied. These criteria, which are evaluated by the appropriate number of points, are: professional education, work performance, work period and social status of the worker. In the programme for the dismissal of redundant workers, the following possible solutions to the problem need first to be checked:

- Reassignment to a post with less demanding work within the institution (the worker must consent to such a solution),
- Reassignment to another institution at a distance requiring daily travel to and from work of up to 2 hours (if the worker rejects such an option, his or her labour relations are terminated),
- Purchase of work period for workers only slightly short of meeting the conditions for retirement (the worker must consent to such a solution).

When the problem cannot be solved in one of the aforementioned ways, the labour relations are terminated of the worker or workers defined in accordance with the criteria as redundant. On receipt of the final resolution on the termination of labour relations, the worker has the right to remain in labour relations for a further six months and to receive salary compensation amounting to 80% of his or her salary. Workers who had been employed in education for more than two years are entitled to redundancy payment amounting to 50% of their average salary in the previous three months for each year of work in education.

The following categories of workers are permanently protected against termination of labour relations:

- Workers with the status of disabled person,
- Older workers with less than five years of insurance period until retirement,
- One spouse if both spouses are employed in the institution,
- Workers whose spouses are registered as unemployed with the Employment Service,
- Single parents with children up to two years of age or workers with children with special needs.

These categories of workers may only have their labour relations terminated by redundancy with their consent.

3.3. Workload of teachers

The 1980 Elementary School Act stipulated that, for the evaluation of guaranteed programmes, teachers would be considered to perform 20 hours of teaching per week. However, this was only the norm for the calculation of the guaranteed programme in a municipality and for solidarity transfers of funds among municipalities. Municipalities collecting more funding through contribution rates for education than they required for the implementation of the guaranteed programme were obliged to transfer funds to municipalities with funding deficits. Teachers mostly taught more hours. Due to the low salaries, it was in the interest of schools that they carry out their work with fewer staff, so that the staff could gain part of their salary through overtime. Teachers, especially specialist subject teachers, mostly taught 26, 27 or even more hours. In order to protect the quality of instruction, the law incorporated a protective clause under which teaching duties should not have exceeded 25 hours, but breaches of this limit in practice were common. Through overtime payments, which were not subject to special limitations, school management attempted to improve the salaries of unsatisfied teachers, although the quality of instruction suffered.

Under the Resolution on determination of the norms and standards for the performance of educational activities in elementary schools, lower music schools and halls of residence for elementary schoolchildren (Ur. L. RS no. 9/91), the norm was set at 22 hours of instruction for elementary school teachers. Teachers receive a full basic salary for 22 hours of teaching. The remaining hours up to full working hours (42 hours previously, 40 hours a week from 1994) are intended for other work duties relating to the implementation of lessons and other work duties set out by legislation and the annual work plan of the school. Teachers' teaching duties can be increased within the framework of full-time work by a maximum of 5 hours a week. These hours are calculated for teachers as hours of extended work and are not considered overtime. Overtime is only possible in exceptional cases, most often when an absent worker needs to be replaced and no suitable substitute worker can be obtained. They must be ordered by a decision of the headmaster and approved by the ministry.

The norm of 22 hours a week has been amended twice since 1991. In 1997, the norm for specialist subject teachers of native language was reduced to 21. The tendency for differentiated teaching duties with regard to the teaching of different subjects has been and continues to be very widespread. However, only teachers of native languages have succeeded in demonstrating that their workload from checking the written work of

pupils is such as to exceed the normal workload of other teachers in this area and must therefore be taken into account in the formation of the norm for teaching duties.

From 1994, thanks to the efforts of the trade unions, protection has been established for older workers regarding the workload of teaching hours. Female teachers with at least 30 years of work period, at least 20 of them in education, and male teachers with at least 35 years of work period, at least 25 of them in education, have their weekly teaching duties reduced by 2 hours.

3.4. Work duties of teachers

Throughout the period from 1980 to the present, the law defined the scope of the work of elementary school teachers within the framework of the working week: teaching, preparation for lessons, correction and marking of pupils' work and other educational work. Other educational work is defined as encompassing:

- Participation in the professional bodies of the school,
- Performance of the duties of a home-class teacher,
- Organised professional education and additional training (!),
- Collection and processing of data relating to pupils,
- Mentorship for pupils and trainees, and cooperation with teacher-training academies and faculties,
- Arrangement of cabinets, collections, libraries, school workshops, gymnasiums, playing fields and plantations,
- Work with parents, companies and the local community,
- Organisation of work and humanitarian campaigns, cultural, sporting and other events,
- Preparation and leadership of excursions, trips, competitions, nature schools, holidays, camps,
- Performance of other tasks.

Preparation for lessons includes continuous daily content and method preparations and preparation of teaching aids. Before 1996, the law specifically defined that the annual and semi-annual preparations for teaching and administrative duties of teachers should be assigned to lesson-free days.

Other work duties of teachers are not quantified. The headteacher assigns the tasks derived from the regulations, and other tasks defined by the Annual School Plan. Sometimes it leads to a discontent of staff who would require a standardisation of tasks and precise quantification of time needed to carry them out. The Ministry would argue, that increasingly regulated tasks and duties should affect on the school autonomy in a way to reduce the flexibility of organisation and division of tasks among teachers considering that individual schools have specific needs.

3.5. Team work

Teamwork is established in the programme of eight-year elementary school primarily in the planning and implementation of cultural, natural science and sports days defined in the syllabus as elements of the programme. Educational activities on these days are conceived interdisciplinarily, and pupils learn certain content from different aspects, thus requiring the cooperation of teachers of different subject areas.

Project and research work within the framework of lessons or within the framework of interest activities alongside lessons requiring the involvement of teachers of different specialities is also quite common. Such forms of work are established in schools wanting to improve the quality of educational work through modern approaches, but are not incorporated to any great extent in the programme of the eight-year elementary school. The situation with the nine-year elementary school is different, with teamwork given a significant emphasis. This form of work is incorporated into the new first year for six-year-olds, with educational work implemented by teachers and educators together in half of the hours under the syllabus. They must also prepare for such work and analyse the results together.

Teamwork is also essential for the successful implementation of flexible and partial external differentiation within the framework of subject lessons. To implement lessons at three difficulty levels, teachers must prepare together and also analyse results together.

More than was previously the case, the programme of the nine-year elementary school should encourage links among subjects; this will also require the establishment of teamwork. In practice, there are still certain obstacles in this regard, and so teachers will require intensive training within the context of programmes of permanent professional additional training for this type of work.

3. 6. Professional standards

Before 1970, the Educational Council SRS (a national body on the level of the republic), established by law in 1965, was responsible for discussion of teachers' professional standards.

In 1970, the Federal Assembly of Yugoslavia adopted a policy resolution on the development of education in the country, on the basis of which a number of changes were later implemented. Among other things, the resolution defined teacher's professional profile as follows »Teachers must master a certain area of science or art, as well as teacher training, psychological, methodical and socio-economic areas. They must have higher education (short 2,5-year or 4-year degree programme), while those with inadequate qualifications must supplement their qualifications, wherein they must be ensured financial conditions or substituted by staff with adequate qualifications. Permanent education should also include teacher training and psychological components ... faculties must provide opportunities for specialisation of methodologists for teaching individual subjects, and, for this purpose, faculties should develop strong centres for teacher training, and for psychological and socio-political studies.«

In the same year, the National Educational Council was abolished by law, and its tasks were transferred to the Education Institute of SRS and its professional council (educational-supervisory body).

The method for acquiring teaching qualifications was laid down by regulations under which the Education Institute for teachers with short high-school education, teacher training academies for teachers with further education, and faculties providing teacher-training study programmes for teachers with higher education, were also made competent for training and issuing certificates of qualification. The contents of teacher training were the responsibility of providers of teacher training, while the councils of higher education organisations adopted study programmes.

In 1980, the adopted new elementary school act laid down general educational conditions for teachers: "diploma in a relevant study programme at a teacher training academy or diploma in a relevant programme at university college or college." One year of traineeship, teaching-certification examination and compulsory permanent education and additional training were also prescribed. Elementary-school teachers had no influence on the contents of teacher training. The contents were determined by the providers of teacher training (teacher training academies and/or faculties) on the basis of rather specific and detailed syllabuses. Educational communities and their professional councils took on the responsibility for the content of education (and therefore for the content of teacher training as well). Teachers' professional standards, which were a component of educational programmes, were adopted by the teacher-training educational community and its professional council, consisting of school teachers, university college teachers, researchers, socio-political workers and students.

Following Slovene independence, legislation adopted abolished self-managing interest communities and re-established the autonomy of universities, especially with regard to the adoption of study programmes. In the initial phase after the abolition of special educational communities, a gap arose in this area. Professional services of the Education Institute and national professional councils decided on the education/diploma requirements for teachers, while universities and faculties decided on the knowledge to be acquired by the holders of such diplomas. Teacher-training components were curtailed in study programmes of faculties of education, which primarily strengthened academic elements, while demand arose for extended study of "teacher-training" programmes, but was rejected for financial reasons. The imbalance between supply of and demand for teachers of individual subjects (mathematics, physics, English language) began to increase.

After 1992, the Ministry of Education and Sport established school personnel statistics and began to prepare statutory solutions for the model of agreement and decision-making in the area of teacher training. Determination of the educational requirements for teachers has thereafter been the responsibility of the minister in consultation with government professional councils, which adopt schedules of subjects and advise the minister regarding the knowledge teachers of individual subjects must have. The minister, however, decides what study programmes are adequate for providing the knowledge required for teaching. Responsibility for the content of study programmes, enrolment conditions and enrolment, as well as for the progress of students until they obtain teaching qualifications, remained with the universities. In 1993, the Council for Higher Education, which has a committee specifically formed for education of teachers, adopted the Criteria for assessment of inclusion of teacher-training professional contents in study programmes. These

criteria require that study programmes proposed by universities be denied budget funding if they do not have an adequate disciplinary-professional structure. If higher education institutions and universities fail to prepare adequate study programmes for professional additional training, the law allows the minister to determine such programme him/herself. Professional additional training for teachers takes place within the system of permanent professional additional training.

For now, Slovenia does not have a special professional-consultative body on the state level to monitor the situation and effectively bring together all interested parties in developing professional standards. The minister ensures the link among the higher education system for teacher training, teachers and professional bodies, and the public interest.

3.6.1. Code of ethics of teachers

At the start of the 90s and before the new school legislation was developed, there was discussion of the justification of and need for the adoption of a special code of ethics for Slovene teachers. Parliament gave the initiative, while the Ministry of Education asked the professional organisation – the Association of Societies of educational Workers of Slovenia – for its views regarding the need for and contents of the code.

It then established a special committee which, on the basis of a report in September 1992, decided not to propose a code of ethics which would be morally binding on some or all Slovene teachers. The committee was of the opinion that few other European countries have such a code, that implementation of basic human rights and the rights of the child was already ensured by the constitutions and legislation of individual countries, and that the status of teachers was additionally secured by collective contracts. The Association therefore proposed the integration of adequate principles on democracy, tolerance, equal rights for all participants and the protection against all forms of discrimination into school legislation, as legal protection against abuse and violations is also stronger than that offered by a merely morally binding code. However, Societies of Educational Workers can, if they so choose, develop a code for their own members.

Basic values mark Slovene school system and forming a framework for teacher's activities were thus included among the goals of education in Article 2 of the Organisation and Financing of Education Act:

- ensuring optimal development of individuals irrespective of sex, social and cultural origin, religion, national identity and physical and mental constitution,
- teaching for mutual tolerance, development of awareness of equality of the sexes, respect for difference and cooperation with others, respect for the rights of the child and human rights, as well as fundamental freedoms, development of equal opportunities for both sexes and thus the development of the ability to live in a democratic society,
- the development of language abilities and skills, and raising awareness of the position of the Slovene language as the official language of Slovenia; while in the areas defined as nationally mixed, the preservation and development of Italian and Hungarian languages in addition to Slovene,
- promoting the awareness of the integrity of individuals,
- development of awareness of citizenship and national identity, and of knowledge of Slovene history and culture,
- enabling participation in European integration processes,
- establishing opportunities for choice at all levels of education,
- enabling education appropriate to the level of development and age of individuals,
- ensuring equal opportunities for education in areas with specific development problems,
- ensuring equal opportunities for education for children from less socially encouraging environments,
- ensuring equal opportunities for education for children, young people and adults with special needs,
- promoting lifelong education,
- enabling general education and acquisition of professions for the whole population,
- maximising the level of education for as many people as possible while retaining already achieved level of difficulty,
- enabling the development and achievement of a maximum level of creativity for as many people as possible.

Principals are responsible for guaranteeing legality in schools, while schools inspection deals with violations of among others the aforementioned principles.

However, a few codes of professional ethics appeared in the 90s: the Code of Ethics of Special Educators of Slovenia (1993), the Code of University Professors of Slovenia (1991), the Code of Ethical Conduct in Nursery Schools (1996), the Code of Ethics of Undergraduate Students (1998), and the Code of Ethics of Members of the Society of Catholic Educators of Slovenia (1997). The last of these also deals with the overall relationships among teachers, pupils, parents, school and the environment on the basis of the world-view of the Society. Among the basic standards, the code also lists the teacher's need for "deeper inner nature, the law of love of and the call from God written in the heart, empathic feelings for young people whom we accompany along part of the path of their development and maturing..."

After the adoption of a package of schools legislation in 1996, public discussion on the need for a code of values among Slovene teachers died down somewhat. Debate was renewed by the prime movers behind the establishment of the Chamber of Teachers, who believe that the existing forms of uniting teachers in Slovenia – primarily through trade unions and social forms – do not provide members with full professional representation in society. In 1996, the draft Chamber of Education Act, which classifies "adoption of the code of teachers' ethics and the assessment of teachers' work in accordance with the code" as one of the tasks of the chamber, was submitted to the National Assembly. In December 2000, the Act received its first reading (the legislative procedure consists of three readings). It is hard to predict when the act will be adopted, because the legislative proposal consists of several provisions (compulsory membership for all teachers, public authorisations by the Chamber, the level of cooperation with other bodies ...), with respect to which, neither political nor professional consensus has been achieved to enable a smooth parliamentary procedure. The procedure has therefore ground to a halt for the moment.

3.7. Forms of assistance to pupils and teachers (support staff)

Classes in elementary school bring together pupils with different abilities and personality traits, different interests and different learning motivations. Pupils come from different family and social backgrounds, as well as different language environments. All of these factors, and many others, influence their ability to learn and the educational results they achieve. Teachers must deal with all of this heterogeneity, and must adapt their educational work to the needs of pupils. They often require help here, since they do not have enough specialist knowledge to deal appropriately with children with difficulties in a particular area. Most often, they obtain this assistance from the counselling service, which in Slovenia is organised in each individual school.

The basic educational goal of counselling services in schools is the optimal development of the child, irrespective of sex, social and cultural background, religion, national identity and physical and mental constitution. The counselling service (the work of which is by law performed by psychologists, educators, social workers, social educators and defectologists) operate in schools with the basic intent of ensuring that all individual participants in schools and educational institutions as a whole are as successful as possible in realising basic and general and special educational goals.

Its basic task is, on the basis of its special professional knowledge, through an advisory relationship, and in a professionally autonomous manner, to engage in the complex resolution of educational, psychological and social issues of educational work by helping and working with all participants in schools – pupils and teachers as well as parents and school management – and where necessary also appropriate outside institutions. The basic principle is the principle of interdisciplinarity, or joint solution of problems and difficulties, both in connection with the diverse specialist knowledge of counsellors and in cooperation with teachers, parents and outside experts.

Article 67 of the Organisation and Financing of Education Act defines the following tasks of counselling services:

- counselling children, pupils, trainees, secondary school students, teachers and parents;
- cooperating with educators, teachers and school management in the planning, monitoring and evaluation of the development of the nursery school or elementary school, and in the performance of educational work;
- providing vocational counselling;

- cooperating in the preparation and implementation of individualised programmes for children with special needs.

School counselling services thus participate in all forms of work and life in schools: in learning and teaching, on the level of school culture, education, climate and order, physical, personal (cognitive and emotional) and social development, education and vocational orientation (through individual and group counselling, presentation of various options for continuing the vocational path to pupils and their parents) and in the area of socio-economic difficulties.

The roots of counselling services in Slovenia can be traced back to the 1950s; at the end of the 1960s, under the patronage of the Education Institute, the first counselling teams were introduced to schools. In the 1990s, the number of counselling staff in schools rose to around 570 (in 448 schools). 1996 legislation established systematic placement of counselling staff in schools (1 counsellor per 20 classes) and also enabled the formation of teams in such a way as to enable the participation therein of professional staff formally employed in other schools.

In addition to counselling staff, teachers also receive help in educational work with children with learning difficulties from teachers for individual and group help for pupils. In accordance with legislation, schools are entitled to half an hour per week per class for the provision of such assistance. With regard to this definition of the scope, schools may employ a staff member for such help, or may obtain for the appropriate number of hours an external worker employed in a school for children with special needs, who thus provides such assistance within the context of a mobile service. Help is provided in various ways depending on the needs of the individual child or group of children. The teacher may participate in lessons in the class as a second teacher focussing his or her attention on the individual pupil or group, or may provide the help in a separate location. In the 1999/2000 school year, the number of hours of such assistance was roughly equivalent to 204 full-time teachers.

For pupils with special needs sent to a general elementary school, the decision also specifies the extent of professional assistance to be offered in lessons and education by a professional member of staff appropriate for such assistance. Due to the great need for the provision of such professional assistance, the ministry began to approve this type of assistance even before the full entry into force of the new legislation in the area of education of children with special needs. In the 1999/2000 school year, the number of approved teaching hours for the provision of such assistance was roughly equivalent to 44 full-time teachers.

3.8. Permanent professional additional training for teachers (in-service training of teachers)

Permanent professional additional training for teachers has a long tradition in Slovenia. Immediately after the end of World War 2, there was a great shortage of teachers, and as a result applicants with completed lower-secondary school who had completed 3-month teacher-training courses were employed. In 1947, a decree was adopted on degree examinations for teachers who attended courses. Later, teachers had to attend in-service courses to extend their knowledge of the subjects they taught. Those who did not pass degree examination and attend additional courses lost their jobs.

In 1951, the Education and Culture Council of the Peoples Republic of Slovenia (*national council*) took on responsibility for permanent professional additional training of teachers. Between 1955 and 1961, the Educational Centre was responsible for this, while thereafter it was the responsibility of the Institute for Progress in Education (*service for development and inspection*). During this period, trade unions and the Folk Education, Folk Technical Science and Physical Culture Association of Slovenia professional organisations were also responsible for additional training of teachers in subjects.

A teacher training college (*višja pedagoška šola*) founded in Ljubljana in 1947, was renamed as the teacher-training academy (*pedagoška akademija*) in 1964, and in Maribor in 1961. In 1968, the first independent regulation, the Rules on compulsory permanent professional additional training of teachers, was adopted. Training was conducted during school holidays, and was compulsory for all teachers.

In 1972, the Education Institute founded the Centre for additional teacher training of educational workers. The training programme also included educational-psychology and social training, which should have enabled monitoring of the development of their own profession.

With the adoption of the 1980 Career-Oriented Education Act, permanent professional additional training was reduced to a moral obligation of teachers. Schools themselves took on responsibility for this. Certain contents were also prescribed by special educational communities, especially the special educational community for the area of teacher training, which was responsible for teacher education and training.

Wide-ranging changes in Slovenia at the start of the decade, the formation of an independent state and the establishment of a multi-party system, also required changes to the education system. Special educational communities were abolished, while the new system of organisation, management and funding introduced in 1991 established a new framework for the operation of schools as a public service. The autonomy of schools in relation to the state was ensured through new methods for funding and for employment of educational staff and other workers, under which laws and regulations determined selection criteria, while everything else was left to schools. The new Organisation and Financing of Education Act linked permanent professional additional training to the system of promotion to titles of professional educational workers. This link enabled strong growth in the supply of new contents, forms and methods on the one hand, and considerable response of teachers on the other hand. In the 1992/93 school year, programmes for permanent professional additional training began for the first time to be valued in points in accordance with the rules on the promotion. This activity was thereafter continually extended and enhanced also with new programme providers. In addition to faculties, schools, nursery schools, halls of residence for schoolchildren, societies and associations, institutes, educational centres and private providers have also become providers.

The adoption of new school legislation in 1996 encouraged even greater demand for professional additional training, first for those engaged in preparing the reform, and then for those who were directly implementing innovations in nursery schools and schools. At first, teachers were somewhat critical in adopting the new system. Making promotion conditional on points obtained through training was particularly subject to criticism, since the provision of programmes was initially limited and therefore unbalanced among professions, resulting in an inability to provide equal opportunities for the acquisition of points in all subject areas.

In 1998, the minister of education issued Rules on professional additional training, education and training of professional staff members in education, and on the procedure for programme selection. These Rules provided the system with all the required legal foundations, thereby giving effective support to renewal.

Every year, the ministry of education publishes public tenders for programmes for permanent professional additional training. A special ministerial Programme Council for Permanent Professional Additional Training and Education, consisting of representatives of professional councils, institutions for teacher education and training, the ministry, associations and trade unions, conducts a professional selection of submitted programmes and determines their value with points for promotion. In so doing, it uses fixed objective criteria. The minister takes the final decision on programmes, which are then fully or partly funded by the ministry. Selected programmes are published in a special catalogue at the beginning of the school year to inform schools and teachers about opportunities.

The number of published training programmes has doubled in the last six years. In the last three years, the number of providers has increased by a third; the activity of private providers, schools and institutions has particularly increased, while the provision of programmes by faculties has been reduced. Between 50 and 60 percent of published training programmes were actually attended. During the same period, interest among teachers increased by 20 percent. Teachers are primarily motivated by a desire to learn and exchange experiences, as well as by the requirements of their posts, although to a lesser extent they are also motivated by the prospects for promotion and by the recommendation or instructions of their principal. Annual internal evaluations of the system of permanent professional additional training show that the quality of the system is higher every year.

3.9. Comparison with other occupational groups in the public sector

(Annex 2)

3.9.1. Comparison of specialist subject teachers in elementary school with teachers at other levels of education

The regulations governing the salaries of workers in education are uniform for all levels of education. As a result, secondary-school teachers with the same level of education have the same basic salary as specialist subject teachers in elementary schools. There are however differences in the norms for weekly teaching duties. Secondary-school teachers have two fewer hours of teaching duties (teachers of native language 19 hours, other subject teachers 20 hours).

Instruction in secondary school is also otherwise more valued than instruction in elementary school. Teachers of general education subjects with higher education thus tend at the first opportunity to swap employment in elementary schools for employment in secondary schools. Particularly attractive are *gimnazije*, since they attract the best pupils with the best results. The populations of such schools are therefore not as heterogeneous, and in this regard the work of teachers is less demanding. In addition, *gimnazije* have the most stringent personnel conditions, especially in the natural sciences, further raising the status of teachers in such educational institutions.

From a review of the data on the titles achieved by teachers on the secondary-school and elementary-school levels, we can conclude that in secondary schools there are significantly more teachers with the highest title of councillor (*svetnik*), which also results in significantly higher pay, than there are in elementary schools. The proportion in secondary schools is 4.7% compared to 0.6% in elementary schools. Secondary-school teachers, due to the numerous programmes at this level of education, have considerably greater opportunities to participate in various professional working bodies on the national level, and to participate in the preparation of new programmes, text books, etc., representing the most highly valued professional work, thereby enabling promotion within the context of a professional career. This fact is another reason why teaching in secondary schools is more attractive and enjoys a better social reputation than teaching in elementary schools.

3.10. Working environment

In the 1970s, urgent needs (favourable demographics) led to the construction of a series of new school buildings, which were however built using cheap materials. The bulk of investment was carried out with the help of contributions of local residents. The 1981 federal legislation prohibited all investment in the infrastructure of social activities, and so there was no major investment in school premises in the 1980s. Most elementary and secondary schools were therefore outdated and non-functional, while in a series of buildings

inspection services discovered serious deficiencies. Since the adoption in 1994 of the Act on securing funds for certain essential development programmes of the Republic of Slovenia in education, Slovenia began an intensive programme of construction and adaptation of school premises, thereby providing for improvements in the working conditions of pupils and teachers.

Since 1994, around 230 (over 50%) of elementary schools have been suitably adapted, upgraded or completely reconstructed. The investment cycle (and partly also the falling numbers of pupils) has also influenced the favourable trend towards reductions in shift teaching in Slovenia. In the 2000/2001 school year, shift teaching was still taking place in 226 elementary school classes (2.5% of all elementary school classes), and it should completely disappear in the coming years.

When the »full-frontal« transition to nine-year elementary education takes place in 2003, not all school buildings will completely suit the new requirements of the programme (enough classrooms for differential lessons, group work, computer classrooms, libraries, suitable space for physical education). We can nevertheless conclude that the majority of elementary school premises in Slovenia have been renovated since the mid-1990s.

4. MONITORING DEVELOPEMENT AND RESEARCH

The corresponding research in the field of education and training of teachers, traineeship period, teaching certification examination and the status of teachers accompanied all the past reforms. The results of that research supported the overall review of all the important issues and the search for appropriate solutions in the introduction of the reform. The most of the research work was carried out by the Educational Research Institute, the only specialised institution for the educational research in Slovenia, many of research projects were carried out also by university researchers and educational research teams in the faculties of education. The White Paper on Education in Slovenia (English edition, 1996), prepared as the groundwork for the subsequent reforms, presents a comparative review of the situation in the field of education and the proposals for necessary changes to the system, which had all derived from the reassert and assessment work. The elementary schools had been paid a lot of attention. The conceptualisation of the professionalisation of teaching was based partly on the expertise of dr. Barica Marentič Požarnik. She focused not only the issues of the teacher training system, various models of teacher training curricula, representation of the professional content in teacher training programmes, the practical training dimension, but also referred to the questions of the status and some viewpoints of the attractiveness of teaching profession. Except the studies preceding the White Paper, there have not been any other systematic researches in the topics, such as salaries, social position and respectability of teachers, teacher traineeship and other related topics.

Some of the research projects concerning the status of teachers have been carried out lately (or are on the drawing board) within the framework of evaluation of schools project (See the monograph on the Eurydice study on the methods of evaluation of schools). The main purpose is to obtain a clear measure of progress in the school reforms after 1996. The studies, which are currently funded on a project bases, and have been confirmed, are dealing with the issues of the professional autonomy and responsibility of teachers and other support staff, in-service training, motivation and various standpoints of teachers regarding the reform.

Significantly more importance has been attached to the measurement of the quality of schools. A few projects have already been initiated. In the school year 2001/2002 the experimental methods and instruments for measuring and assuring the quality are to be initiated. The national project has been devising for the last two and a half years.

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Annex 1: Table of the most important changes (reforms)

Date	Change	Reasons	Goals	Context
1980	Elementary education reforms	Need of the governing structure to increase the ideological influence on the development of »self-managing socialist personality«, since schools had begun to avoid such influence	To introduce full-day elementary school, and to change schools into centres for establishing official policy in the social environment and in families, to strengthen the upbringing function of schools and link it to the area of work	Reform of the whole education system in Yugoslavia within the framework of general political project to reinforce socialist self-management
1986 1987	Reform of initial education of teachers (from 2-year to 4-year programmes)	Ill-equipped teachers, especially in the area of profession (and professional knowledge), academic ambitions of teacher-training academies, professional ambitions of teacher associations	To raise the educational standards of teachers, professionalisation of the teaching profession, new role of teachers: thoughtful and investigative practitioners.	Trend for higher educational standards of teachers in Europe, trend for further education colleges to become higher education institutions.
1990	Abolition of self-managing interest communities	Need to harmonise the status of social activities with new socio-economic system	To establish a new system of social management and financing in the area of social activities	General changes in the socio-economic system
1991	Changes in the status of educational organisations	Lack of explicit status for educational organisations in the new socio-economic system	To establish a new system of social management and financing in the area of education	General changes in the status of social activities
1991	Centralisation of the system of financing elementary schools, transfer of funds for salaries from municipal to national level	Differences in the economic strength and policies of municipalities regarding education, need for central supervision and establishment of order	To achieve equal pay for equal work for teachers throughout the country	Establishment of new relations between municipal and national budgets
1991	Introduction of »sliding« norms for the formation of classes in elementary schools (28 pupils per class)	Falling birth rates, expected decline in elementary school numbers, need to preserve teachers' jobs	To achieve optimal possibilities for differentiation and individualization of lessons, to improve working conditions for teachers	Pre-reform movement in the whole schools system, preparation of comprehensive reforms
1991	Signing of the first collective contract for non-commercial activities	Establishment of a social partnership in new social conditions	To ensure protection of the rights of workers	Changes in the socio-economic system
1992	Establishment of uniform legislation for salaries of workers in education	Dissatisfaction of teachers due to differences in salaries between municipalities and between schools	To ensure a uniform and transparent system of salaries for the education sector, to increase the salaries of	Establishment of a new system of education financing

			teachers (in relation to other sectors)	
1992	Establishment of a system of promotion to titles of teachers	Teacher dissatisfaction with the »uniform« system of payment for work, which failed to reflect individual differences in quality and work experience (seniority), need to install motivational mechanisms	To increase interest in IST (in-service training), to influence the quality of work of teachers, to increase the salaries of teachers (in relation to other sectors)	Establishment of social partnership in salary arrangements and working conditions for teachers
1993	Amendments to legislation on salaries, raising salaries of teachers with further and higher education	Falling behind of salaries in education compared to other sectors of social activities, excessive differences in salaries with regard to achieved education under equal work duties	To improve the salaries of teachers, to reduce salary differences with regard to equal levels of education	Trade union unrest, strike movements
1994	Establishment of uniform legislation for public servants	Disorder and non-transparency in public sector salaries	To establish a transparent system and appropriate ratios in the salaries of public-sector workers	Government policy in setting budget frameworks for public expenditure
1994	Signing of the collective contract for the education sector	Establishment of social partnership in the education sector	To ensure protection of the rights of workers in the education sector and to introduce certain additional rights	Establishment of social partnership in the new socio-economic system
1996	Introduction of a system of promotion to pay scales for teachers	Teacher dissatisfaction with salary system	To increase salary ranges with regards to quality of work and work period in education (seniority)	Trade union demands, teacher strike
1996	Statutory requirement for exclusively higher education for teachers (no longer further or higher)	New concept of elementary school education, shift from content to goal planning of lessons	To ensure professional autonomy of teachers	Renewal of elementary school and all other education
1996	Establishment of new form of traineeship	Unsuitable arrangements for initial training for independent work, insufficient practical contents in programmes of initial teacher education, pressure from universities to extend study programmes due to criticism regarding insufficient practice	To ensure appropriate practical experience for teachers under professional guidance of mentors	Renewal of the education system at all levels
1999	Prescribed additional education requirements for teaching new subjects in 9-year elementary school	Divergence between requirements of new programme of elementary school and initial teacher education	To ensure teachers are appropriately professionally equipped for the implementation of the new programme	Renewal of elementary-school education

