

Institutional Context of Education Systems in Europe

A Cross-Country Comparison
on Quality and Equity

Edited by

R.H. Hofman, W.H.A. Hofman,
J.M. Gray and P. Daly

Kluwer Academic Publishers

Institutional Context of Education Systems in Europe

This page intentionally left blank

Institutional Context of Education Systems in Europe

A Cross-Country Comparison on Quality and Equity

Edited by

R.H. Hofman

*University of Groningen,
The Netherlands*

W.H.A. Hofman

*Erasmus University,
Rotterdam, The Netherlands*

J.M. Gray

*University of Cambridge,
U.K.*

and

P. Daly

*Queen's University Belfast,
Ireland*

KLUWER ACADEMIC PUBLISHERS

NEW YORK, BOSTON, DORDRECHT, LONDON, MOSCOW

eBook ISBN: 1-4020-2745-1
Print ISBN: 1-4020-2744-3

©2005 Springer Science + Business Media, Inc.

Print ©2004 Kluwer Academic Publishers
Dordrecht

All rights reserved

No part of this eBook may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, recording, or otherwise, without written consent from the Publisher

Created in the United States of America

Visit Springer's eBookstore at:
and the Springer Global Website Online at:

<http://ebooks.springerlink.com>
<http://www.springeronline.com>

Table of Contents

Preface	ix
About the editors	xi
Chapter 1 Institutional contexts and effectiveness of schooling	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 A conceptual presentation of assumed relationships	5
1.3 Institutional contexts of education systems	6
1.3.1 Public/private sector effects	7
1.3.2 Type of funding of public and private education	9
1.3.3 Governance of public and private education	10
1.3.4 Choice and community in public and private education	12
1.4 The within-country public/private sector model	14
1.5 Objectives and design of the international project	16
1.6 Acknowledgements	16
Chapter 2 Selection and definition of indicators	17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 Selection and description of six indicators of institutional context	17
2.2.1 Funding of schools	17
2.2.2 Indicators of types of governance	19
2.2.3 Indicators of freedom of school choice	22
Chapter 3 Country reports: education systems in Europe	25
3.1 Introduction	25
3.2 Spain	27
3.2.1 Country profile	27
3.2.2 Characteristics of Spanish compulsory education	27
3.2.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	29
3.3 Scotland	35
3.3.1 Country profile	35
3.3.2 Characteristics of Scottish compulsory education	36
3.3.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	37
3.4 Sweden	41
3.4.1 Country profile	41
3.4.2 Characteristics of Swedish compulsory education	42
3.4.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	43
3.5 Portugal	47
3.5.1 Country profile	47
3.5.2 Characteristics of Portuguese compulsory education	47
3.5.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	49

3.6	The Netherlands	56
	3.6.1 Country profile	56
	3.6.2 Characteristics of Dutch compulsory education	56
	3.6.3 Public and private education: key characteristics	57
3.7	Ireland	63
	3.7.1 Country profile	63
	3.7.2 Characteristics of Irish compulsory education	63
	3.7.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	64
3.8	Germany	69
	3.8.1 Country profile	69
	3.8.2 Characteristics of German compulsory education	70
	3.8.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	71
3.9	France	75
	3.9.1 Country profile	75
	3.9.2 Characteristics of French compulsory education	76
	3.9.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	77
3.10	England	81
	3.10.1 Country profile	81
	3.10.2 Characteristics of compulsory education in England	81
	3.10.3 Public and private education: key characteristics	83
3.11	Denmark	90
	3.11.1 Country profile	90
	3.11.2 Characteristics of Danish compulsory education	90
	3.11.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	91
3.12	Belgium (French)	96
	3.12.1 Country profile	96
	3.12.2 Characteristics of Belgium (French) compulsory education	97
	3.12.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	99
3.13	Belgium (Flemish)	104
	3.13.1 Country profile	104
	3.13.2 Characteristics of Belgium (Flemish) compulsory education	105
	3.13.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	107
3.14	Austria	111
	3.14.1 Country profile	111
	3.14.2 Characteristics of Austrian compulsory education	112
	3.14.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics	113
	Chapter 4 Quality and equity of european education	117
4.1	Introduction	117
4.2	Distribution of public and private education	117
4.3	Fair comparisons of public and private schools' performance	119
4.4	Choice of quality assessment criteria	120
4.5	International comparison	122
4.6	Overview of TIMSS mathematics assessment	123
4.7	Methodology	124

4.8	Comparison of quality and equity across European countries	126
4.9	The outcomes within a broader perspective	131
4.10	Interpreting our results in comparison to PISA outcomes	133
4.11	Educational expenditure	135
Chapter 5 Configurations of institutional contexts		139
5.1	Introduction	139
5.2	Configuration theory and multidimensional scaling	140
5.3	Towards dimensions of institutional contexts	140
5.4	Interpretation of configurations	145
5.5	Four configurations of institutional contexts	148
5.6	Public and private schools	151
Chapter 6 Reflections and explanations		157
6.1	Introduction	157
6.2	Size and funding of public and private education	157
6.2.1	Grant-aided private versus ‘truly’ private education	157
6.2.2	Selectivity of the country’s education system	158
6.2.3	Equity in education	159
6.2.4	The specific distribution of public and private schools	160
6.3	Governance and system influences in education	160
6.3.1	Types and features of school governance	161
6.3.2	Parent influences and their educational power	161
6.3.3	Influence of local educational authorities	162
6.4	School choice in education systems	162
6.4.1	School choice and the role of catchment areas	162
6.4.2	Parental school choice and admission policies	163
6.4.3	Parental choice and financial and social resources	164
6.4.4	Characteristics of school and classroom	164
6.4.5	New types of schools	165
6.5	Taking into account country-specific characteristics	165
Chapter 7 Summary and implications for worldwide education		169
7.1	Introduction	169
7.2	Key dimensions of context	170
7.2.1	Size of the ‘private’ sector	170
7.3	Types of funding	171
7.3.1	Arrangements for governance	172
7.3.2	Choice and community in public and private education	172
7.4	Country configurations	173
7.5	Do the differences affect academic performance?	174
7.5.1	Comparing the outcomes with PISA	179
7.5.2	Educational expenditure and quality of education systems	180
7.5.3	The quest for higher performance	181

7.5.4	The power of markets and the freedom to choose	182
7.5.5	Church, class and identity	184
7.6	Implications for public and private education	185
7.6.1	Strong systems	186
7.6.2	Emerging trends	187
References		191
Appendix I		197
Appendix II		199

PREFACE

Worldwide, policymakers are seeking to restructure and renew educational systems that have been struggling to keep pace with rapidly changing environmental demands. Internationally, we observe an increase in attention to governance in general and governance of schooling specifically. Especially, the concept of ‘institutional context’ has come to play an important role in the explanation of differences in ‘effectiveness’ between schools. The implication is that improving institutional policies may be a good deal more effective in increasing the quality of schooling than revising resource policies.

Educational systems emerge over time. Their formation and maintenance reflect differing historical traditions, cultural values and religious interests as well as divergent views about the role of the state in shaping the life-chances of its future citizens. The quest for higher performance through educational reform has been a worldwide phenomenon, especially over the last decade; it is a trend from which European governments have not been immune.

In the International Handbook of School Effectiveness Research, Teddlie and Reynolds (2000) claim that school effects tend to be more substantial in school systems making use of governance structures that allow individual schools more autonomy. However, what is meant by institutional context differs from education system to education system. The task we set ourselves in this volume was to find appropriate frameworks for comparison of institutional contexts which were simultaneously true to the broad circumstances of each country whilst putting some of the nuances into institutional context. We assume that at the centre of institutional context are a nexus of inter-cutting relationships pertaining to the relative sizes of the public and private sectors, the financial bases on which they are founded, governance structures and the extent of school ‘choice’ available in different countries as well as variations in decision-making, the ‘locus of control’ and the influence of parents and community.

Our research methodology was to recruit a range of country ‘experts’, who could alert us to the salient features of each educational system, and combine their views with analyses of a cross-European data-set on pupil performance. Bringing these two sources together we painted a detailed picture of the systems in 13 European countries.

Our ‘experts’ also gave us a greater purchase on the key structural dimensions which make up what we refer to as the ‘institutional context’ and underpin our analyses of performance. Any or all of these factors have been portrayed as crucial to the functioning of particular educational systems. To judge performance we employ two key dimensions which we refer to as the ‘quality’ and ‘equity’ components. Furthermore, we employed configuration theory as a tool for constructing empirically-based typologies of countries.

In the end of this volume we take up the challenge of considering what a European ‘settlement’ might look like, taking into account worldwide trends and the increasing evidence of convergence across educational systems. The outcomes of our comparative analyses seem to suggest that strong education systems in terms of finance, governance and choice seem to be preferable.

However, it seems clear from our discussions with our country experts that the European appetite for strategies which put ‘choice’ policies in the driving seat is rather limited. On the other hand there is decreasing faith in the power of highly-centralised systems to deliver change and improvement with the speed and efficiency that may be required. To a greater or lesser extent, therefore, all the systems of education operating in Europe face some common challenges. How they choose to address these will be crucial to their futures. Key elements in the current debates that we have considered each in greater detail in this volume, include changing views on:

- centre-local relations with signs of an increasing commitment to *decentralisation* as a guiding principle for developing school governance;
- school *autonomy* which is now increasingly being seen as the engine-room for school improvement, especially in relation to *sustaining* it; and
- the celebration of *community and school choice* as a means of securing higher levels of parental involvement and respecting key differences.

Finally, we like to acknowledge that this study could not have been carried out with the help of many contributors. First of all, we like to thank the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO/PROO) for their support for this international project (grant 411-203-07). This project could not have been conducted without it. In addition to this, we have to acknowledge that this project would also not have been brought to a good end without the contribution of the partners/experts from various European countries and their contribution has been recognized in several chapters.

May 15th, 2004
Rotterdam/Aduard,
Adriaan en Roelande Hofman

ABOUT THE EDITORS

Roelände Hofman is Project Coordinator and Senior Researcher at the GION Research Institute for Educational Research at the University of Groningen (the Netherlands) (<http://www.rug.nl>). She specializes in School Governance, Management and Accountability, School Effectiveness and School Improvement, and Inclusive and Adaptive Education in Mainstream and Special Education. Next to this she is Lecturer in the International MSc. of Science in Education and Coordinator of the PhD students of the Faculty of Social and Educational Sciences.

Adriaan Hofman is Professor of Education Studies at Erasmus University Rotterdam in the Netherlands (<http://www.risbo.eur.nl>). He specializes in School Effectiveness and School Improvement, Education in Developing Countries, Research Methods, Urban Education and Learning Cities. He is also director of the Rotterdam Institute for Policy research (RISBO) and the Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (IHS).

John Gray is Professor of Education at the University of Cambridge in England (<http://www.educ.cam.ac.uk>). His main research interests are in the fields of School Effectiveness and Long-Term School Improvement. He is currently working on government-funded projects to raise boys' achievement and to evaluate improvement strategies in 'difficult' or 'socially challenging' circumstances.

Peter Daly is Associate Dean (Postgraduate Studies), Faculty of Legal, Social and Educational Sciences, Queen's University, Belfast, Ireland. He teaches in the Graduate School of Education. He has research interests in comparative educational effectiveness, student enrolment variation on advanced mathematics and science courses and in school gender studies.

This page intentionally left blank

CHAPTER 1 INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF SCHOOLING

R. Hofman, A. Hofman, J. Gray & P. Daly

1.1 INTRODUCTION¹

Internationally, we observe an increase in attention to governance in general and governance of schooling specifically. Van Kersbergen and Van Waarden (2001) make this clear in their background study into “Shifts in Governance” where they claim that one of the most remarkable developments in modern societies in the past few decades has been the development of new governance arrangements. Changes have become apparent in the forms, the mechanisms, the location and styles of governance. This is the case for corporate governance, but also holds for governance in education.

Throughout the world, policymakers are seeking to restructure and renew educational systems that have been struggling to keep pace with rapidly changing environmental demands. School effectiveness and improvement during recent years shows a shift in focus on the profile of governance as a significant domain in effectiveness of schooling and this affects the fair distribution of education as a public good (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000). One perspective emerging from the literature on educational effectiveness stresses the linkage between the culture of a nations’ education system and its particular schools with the innovative capacity of societies and their educational organizations. Understanding this broader institutional context of an education system is fundamental to understanding how social change occurs within countries in general and within the schools of a given nation in particular. Recent developments within education systems show a host of new initiatives in restructuring education through changes in school-based management and an increase in parental involvement. However, the effects of such reforms can only be significant when the institutional context of the education system is taken into account.

The concept of institutional contexts has lately become a more important research topic in Dutch educational research. In July 2000 Hofman & Hofman presented two papers at the International Sociological Association (ISA) conference on “Outcomes and Governance of Schooling”. Their papers presented in the international ‘expert-meeting’ regarding “Context Effects and Governance of Schooling” showed that (a) the institutional context plays an important role in the explanation of variation in effectiveness between schools and (b) there are major differences between countries worldwide in their definition of institutional context, more specifically concerning the exact differences between the public and private sector in education. Crucial

¹ This international project was supported with a grant from the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO/PROO: grant 411-203-07)

aspects seem to be: the financial base of public-private differences, differences in the governance structure in public and private education, the degrees of freedom of school choice available in countries as well as differences in decision-making and 'locus of control' and variation in the influence of parents and community in public and private education. In short: valid comparison of public/private effects in education between countries is not available at the moment.

In the International Handbook of School Effectiveness Research, Teddlie and Reynolds (2000) claim that school effects tend to be more substantial in school systems making use of governance structures that allow individual schools more autonomy. However, the within-country variance is likely to be much smaller than the between-country variance, especially when taking differences between the public and private sector into account. A valid and fair comparison of sector effects in education can take advantage of the natural variation available between the various countries world-wide (Reynolds, 2000). In addition, one should consider that findings of school effectiveness research show that the concept of effective schooling is strongly conditioned by the countries' context of schooling and the predictors of school effectiveness differ between countries and regions (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991) as well as between sector (public/private) of the schools (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987; Hoffer, 1992; Hofman, Hofman & Guldemond, 2000). The context of schooling in developing countries is very different from the conditions in industrial countries. Furthermore, there are large differences between rich and poor countries in education attainment in public and private education (Unesco, 1997) and substantial variation between states and districts within countries is observed (Greany & Kellaghan, 1996; World Bank, 1998).

Although the context of schooling in developing countries is very different from the conditions in industrial countries, research on school and teacher effectiveness can still be supportive for improving education in developed as well as in developing countries. First of all, information on the effectiveness of inputs is important. Secondly, we have to deal with the issue of universal versus context-specific effective factors in education. There are several indications that some principles of schooling are applicable universally, while others are much more sensitive to local and cultural variation. However, research all over the world shows that schooling could be more similar than different across cultures and countries (Brophy, IAE, 2000). Generic principles focus on basic and universal aspects of schooling. Of course, they still require adaptation to the local context.

The assumption of restricted usefulness of research outcomes in geographical or cultural terms, is often based on the impact of the socio-economic position of individuals, schools and countries on educational effectiveness. First of all, some truisms will be considered:

- There are large differences between rich and poor countries in education enrolment and attainment. The difference in literacy rate of the 15+ pupils between Japan on the one hand and Bangladesh or Afghanistan on the other is 57 percentage points (30% versus 87%; Unesco, 1997).

- We observe substantial variation between states and districts within poor countries. The difference in the literacy percentage between the highest and lowest districts in India is 77 points (Census of India, 1991); larger than the one mentioned between Japan and Afghanistan.
- Third, we see different patterns in enrolment and attainment in different regions of the world: some regions (e.g. South America) reach nearly universal enrolment in first grade but in subsequent grades we observe drop-out in large numbers with low attainment as a result, while in other regions (e.g. south Asia) the observed pattern shows that a substantial part of the young population never enrol in school at all (World Bank, 1998).
- Fourth, there are enormous differences across poor countries in the so-called “wealth gap”, the difference in enrolment and attainment of children from rich and poor families. While in some countries the difference in median school years completed by rich and poor children is only one or two years (Eastern/Southern Africa), in some other countries (e.g. South Asia) the wealth gap in attainment is 9 (Pakistan) or 10 (India) years (Filmer & Pritchett, 1998, 1999).

These truisms imply that differences in the socio-economic situations are important, but not a sufficient explanation for differences in education enrolment and attainment between rich and poor countries. Of course, there exists the indisputable fact that funding is very important for quality education. However, the crucial point here is that educational choices of quality indicators can likewise make a crucial difference between good and less effective education. When governments or school management focus on ineffective schooling practices (in terms of curriculum methods, type of instruction, etc.) or the wrong use of basically good policy (e.g. decentralization of education without sufficient guarantees for quality for all) even rich countries will possibly score low in terms of education quality and effectiveness. It is also a fact that poor countries making the right choices will be able to score high by comparison. An example for this situation can be found in the TIMSS study (Third International Mathematics and Science Study) where Thailand and Slovenia score at the level of the Netherlands and even higher than the USA on mathematics (NCES, 1996). In short, a deterministic view on the relationship between socio-economic starting position and education outcomes is not empirically valid.

Of course it is a fact that many research outcomes are not simply transferable from one context to another, e.g. school leadership. In the USA a lot of research has been done in this field, “leadership dimensions” were formulated and validated and the outcomes suggested strong effects on pupil outcomes. The same leadership dimensions, however, had little impact in the educational setting in the Netherlands. Cultural differences and variation in organizational structures caused these differences in the relationship between leadership and achievement. Research clarified that leadership is important in primary schools in the Netherlands, but the kind of effective leadership dimensions used in the Netherlands differed from those used in the USA.

A study by Hallinger and Kantamara (2000) into school improvement in Thailand included educational leadership and showed the importance of culturally embedded contextual conditions within this country. These two studies are excellent examples of the universal relevance of the concept of school leadership, while at the same time showing the sensitivity of this concept to local circumstances and pointing at the importance of in-depth study of specific contexts and conditions within each country (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). The basic point here is that universality and context-specificity are in fact two sides of the same coin.

International studies can be useful in that they provide information on national performance standards, especially when they allow comparison with other countries with similar social, economic and educational circumstances (Bishop and Wössmann, 2001, Willms & Somers, 2001). Such comparisons can be useful in discussing the quality and equity of various education systems in relation to making decisions about the investments and future developments in education. However, the chief value according to Willms and Somers lies in the "... detailed analyses within each country which characterize its strengths and weaknesses, determine the extent of inequalities among advantaged and disadvantaged groups, and discern the effects associated with particular policies and practices that can be manipulated through social policy" (Willms, & Somers, 2001, p.437).

Countries participating in such international comparisons may be able to place their schooling results in a broader international context and this could yield important policy implications and long-term benefits to their education systems.

This international project on institutional contexts and effectiveness of schooling is meant to provide the base for a valid comparison of European countries in three phases.

First, by producing a 'state of the art' document about the relations between the three core features of education: public/private sector, institutional, that is, governance structure of schools and the effectiveness of schooling in EU-countries. Secondly, by conducting a pilot-study in a number of EU countries through an expert-panel approach. Thirdly, the construction of a European network with a focus on research into 'institutional contexts and governance of schooling'. In this comparative research the following research questions will be answered:

- a) To what extent the size and type of public and private education within countries are related to differences in the quality and the equity of their educational system?
- b) What relationships occur between quality and equity of educational systems and the institutional context of schooling (governance, financial base, locus of control and parental influences and choice) between countries?

The international study of science and mathematics (TIMSS and TIMSS-R) surveyed in total more than 50 countries (Asian, European, the Americas, Australia) using identical assessment measures and showed that substantive differences in quality of schooling can be found between these countries. However, assessment of

the equity of the educational systems of these countries in relationship to features of their institutional contexts has not yet been made. The research reported here describes the results of a project in which a comparative re-analysis of a set of Western-European TIMSS countries has been conducted. This analysis uses the following key features: size of the public and private sector, assessment of the quality in comparison to the equity of the educational systems, and their relationship to central components of the financing, governance and school choice of the educational system in which schooling takes place.

1.2 A CONCEPTUAL PRESENTATION OF ASSUMED RELATIONSHIPS

Research outcomes show a picture of the importance of our three aspects of the institutional context of public and private schools. The type of financing, the governance and the influences from school choice and community in public and private education seem to play an important role in the explanation of variation in effectiveness between education systems in general and public and private sector particularly. Furthermore the research literature makes clear that these are not independent effects but that they are highly interrelated.

The international project on institutional contexts and quality and equity of schooling analyses the distribution of institutional contexts of public and private education within various European countries. A valid and fair comparison of sector effects in education should take advantage of the natural variation available between the various countries world-wide (Reynolds, 2000). Furthermore, we assume that the within-country variance is likely to be much smaller than the between-country variance. The project works from the perspective that the size of public and private education within countries could well be related to differences in the quality and/or the equity of their educational system. The presumed relationships between quality and/or equity of educational systems world-wide and the institutional context of schooling (financial base, governance, and choice and community influences) within public and private sector between countries are presented in a conceptual research model. The conceptual model that relates to between country differences is shown in the next Figure.

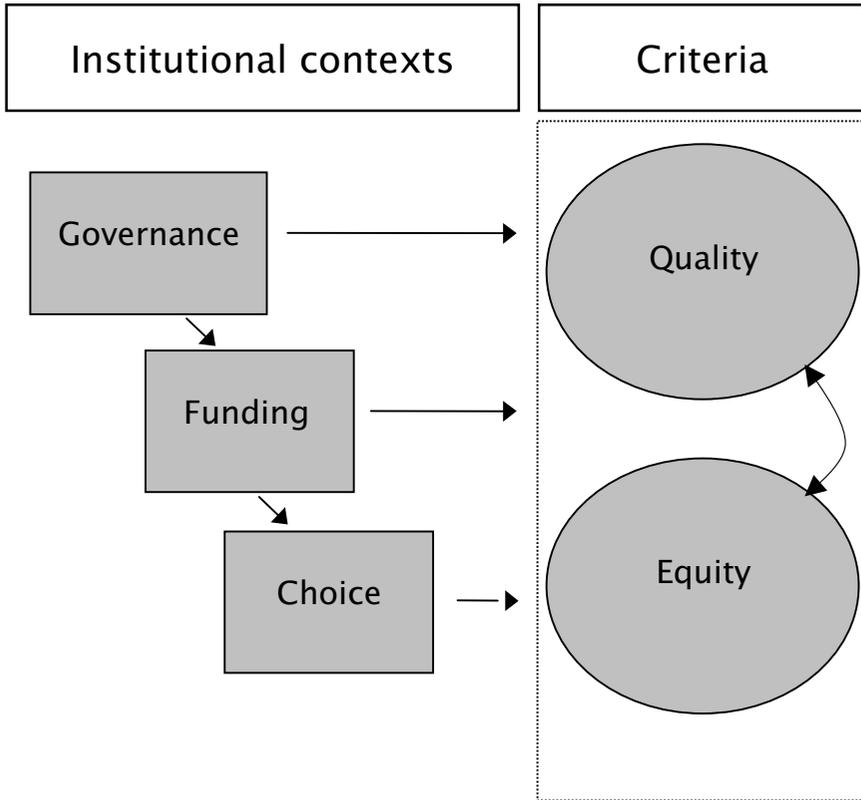


Figure 1: Conceptual model of institutional contexts

The theoretical and empirical fundamentals of the international project, as well as the objectives, design and presentation of outcomes of the international project are presented next.

1.3 INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Pupils attending private primary schools seem to achieve higher levels of achievement than pupils attending public schools. This phenomenon seems typical of the US, the UK, Ireland, and New Zealand, and this also fits the situation in the Netherlands (Bryk, Lee & Holland, 1993; Cuttance, 1988; Daly, 1995; Francis & Lankshear, 1995; Hofman et al, 2000; Rowan et al, 1991; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Willms, 1992). The question is whether these country-specific sector effects will be explained by the size of the private sector within these countries?

Public and private sectors of education vary strongly in the locus of control and the delegation of the decision-making to the school (Bryk, Lee & Holland, 1993; Coleman & Hoffer, 1987; Hofman, Hofman & Guldemond, 1996; 2000). Moreover,

Several authors point at differences in the administrative climate of public and private schools resulting from differences in the influence of several groups around the school on the schools' goals, curriculum, budget, personnel, and organizational arrangements (Hannaway, 1991; Hannaway & Talbert, 1993; Hofman et al, 1996; 2000). In general, governance and decision-making policies are sensitive to the institutional context within which they take place and certain factors like type of formal governance (e.g. LEA's, private boards, municipality as governing body) seem central to a thorough analysis of effective governance (Cuttance, 1988; Chrispeels & Pollack, 1989; Coleman & Laroque, 1990; Willms, 1992).

Internationally, we observe a rising interest in research into governance of schooling as a possible explanation for the often found sector effect. In the US, the UK, New Zealand and the Netherlands, new systems that focus on school-based governing of individual schools are rapidly developing. While funding is crucial for quality education and educational choice, more and more researchers have come to the conclusion that the indirect influence of the type of funding on the governance of schools and freedom of choice in general is as important as its direct effect if not even more so. These factors seem increasingly important in explaining differential effects in quality and equity of the educational system within and between countries. Wössmann (2000), for example, stresses that the quality of education systems is determined not by resources, but argues rather that cross-country differences in achievement are best explained by differences in the institutional context of the countries' education systems. Furthermore, Bishop and Wössmann (2001) conducted research into the expectation that countries with a greater proportion of private independent school sector may perform better. They find that certain "incentive creating" institutional factors explain 75% of cross-country variation in mathematics achievement and they argue that private schools are more likely to possess such "incentive creating" institutional characteristics. Competition from privately managed schools within a country's education system generally relate with positive effects on the quality (mathematics performance) of the education system (Bishop and Wössmann, 2001, p.28/29). A central implication of their paper is that improving institutional policies may be much more effective in increasing the quality of schooling than revising resource policies. Research on the institutional context of schooling especially into the type of governance used and the increasing role and influence of parents seems to be relevant to improving education in developed as well as in developing countries.

However, the conference on 'Outcomes and Governance of Schooling' (ISA, 2000) showed that the distinction between public and private sector is often not clear and different countries use different definitions. In this study the concepts that have to be dealt with in a comparison of public and private education in diverse countries will be clarified.

1.3.1 Public/private sector effects

The phenomenon of higher levels of achievement in private education in comparison to public education seems typical for countries like the US, the UK, Ireland, New

Zealand and the Netherlands. An interesting question is whether such country specific sector effects can be explained by the size of the private sector in these countries.

According to an Unesco survey (Unesco, 1997) countries with a significant private education sector include Ireland, the Netherlands and Belgium. Countries where the private sector is much smaller include Sweden, Germany, the UK and New Zealand.

Table 1.1. presents the percentage of private schools in primary and secondary education for a group of 15 countries from different continents.

Table 1.1. Size of the privately governed sector in a group of countries

<i>Country</i>	<i>Primary education</i> %	<i>Secondary education</i> %
<i>Large private sector</i>		
Ireland*	98	60
Netherlands	69	72
Belgium (Dutch)	63	72
Belgium (French)	32	48
<i>Medium private sector</i>		
United States	18	10
Argentina	17	30
France	15	21
Australia	10	26
New-Zealand	10	12
Italy	8	7
<i>Small private sector</i>		
England and Wales	5	8
Mexico	5	26
Germany	2	9
Japan	1	15
Kenya	1	60
Sweden	1	2

Source: Hofman & Hofman, 2000

* See Chapter 3

Three groups of countries can be distinguished taking primary education as the baseline. The first group consists of countries with a large privately managed sector (more than 30% and even up to almost 100%), in the second group the privately managed sector is of medium-size (between 5% and 30% and the third group consists of countries with a low-size private sector (less than 5%). However, note that 'private sector' refers to schools that in some sense are owned by a private body, for example the Catholic or Protestant Church, rather than the State. They are

governed by a private body. Nonetheless, in many countries these schools are unequivocally regarded as part of the state school system and in some education systems their running costs are partly or entirely borne by the state.

The size of the privately governed school sector in the US, the UK, Ireland, New Zealand and the Netherlands varies strongly: from 98% in Ireland to 5% in England and Wales (in primary education) and from 91% to 8% in secondary education. So, we have to conclude that the sector effect of higher achievement levels of private schools that has been observed in these countries obviously does not relate to the size of the privately governed sector in these countries. Ireland and the Netherlands belong to the group with a large private sector, the US and New Zealand belong to the medium-size group and the UK belongs to the group of countries with a low-size private sector, whereas, as noted above all these countries are in the group in which higher levels of attainment are found in the private (or privately governed) sector.

If size of the privately governed sector does not explain the presumed sector effect of schooling what other explanations can be found?

In this chapter research outcomes that refer to three aspects we think relevant to such effects and processes will be described: (1) the effect of the type of financing of public and private education, (2) the governance of public and private education and (3) the institutional effects of school choice and community.

1.3.2 Type of funding of public and private education

Most education systems include a private and a public sector, but differ in how they fund these. In some countries the state finances both the public and the private sectors equally and implements identical policies in these schools. In such countries, all schools, public and private, are subjected to national governmental control of, for example, the same examinations, salaries, school buildings, capital investment and so forth. In some countries the central government even controls the actual content of education by introducing a national curriculum for all schools. However, even then differences in quality between public and private education are still found.

Some countries combine the equal funding and treatment of public and private schools with free parental choice of school. Freedom in education can mean either the freedom of parents to choose a school suitable for their child or the freedom to initiate a form of education which offers an alternative to public-sector education. Some countries offer parents great freedom to choose their preferred cultural, denominational, ideological or pedagogical kind of education. These countries give the opportunity to found or choose grant-aided private schools within their public education system. Research in the United States (Chubb & Moe, 1990) and in the United Kingdom (Echols & Willms, 1995) show the importance of factors such as governance structures, school climate and social atmosphere to parental school choice. Parental choice is available under certain types of governance.

While the law in many countries may allow the establishing of private schools, it does not necessarily imply the public funding of these schools. The size of the grant-

aided private sector varies widely between countries. The outcomes of an international study of the effectiveness of schooling within 13 Latin American countries shows that the most effective schools, gauged by their schooling outcomes after taking into account of students' family background, are those with high levels of school resources, a low pupil-teacher ratio, more instructional materials, a large library, and well-trained teachers (Willms & Somers, 2001, p. 438). However, resources appear to have a larger impact in developing countries than in industrialized countries (Scheerens, 2001, p. 359).

In some countries, the private sector accounts for the majority of schools, and in others they are only a small minority. Various authors note the importance of taking a good look at countries in which education and other services are financed by the government, but operated by private nonprofit organizations, which are often religious in nature (Dijkstra & Peschar, 1996).

The balance between freedom of school choice and aims of national educational policy makes the Dutch case interesting for educators all over the world. On account of the equal subsidizing of schools, the Netherlands does not have a prestigious elite of schools outside the state subsidized sector and consequently the effectiveness of schools is not biased by the creaming-off of the most able students, nor by the financial possibilities of parents or by strong geographical constraints on parental choice (Dronkers, 1995). Hence, countries with a education system similar to the Netherlands on the one hand or very different on the other offer fruitful cases for international comparison and for exploring the institutional effects of sector in respect of financing, schools' governance structure, and the operation of freedom of school choice.

1.3.3 Governance of public and private education

There is a rising interest in governance as a context effect on schooling and as a possible explanation of the sector effect on schooling. Various authors assume that the governance at higher levels of the school can have a substantial impact on the effectiveness of schools because schools can be seen as a system of nested layers (Purkey and Smith, 1983; Bidwell and Kasarda, 1975; Coleman and LaRocque, 1990). Within this system the quality of a higher level can enhance or diminish the quality of the level underneath. Bidwell and Kasarda (1975) state that authorities at the above school level are important because at that level decisions affecting the change of input into output of schools are made. They give, as an example, budgeting which affects the differential allocation of resources between functions (e.g. teaching versus non-academic services) or the allocation of resources between schools. This is a central office and school board responsibility.

A study of Crispeels & Pollack (1989) supports this way of thinking, stating that certain functions of districts' control were affecting input, throughput and output phases of school operations.

The interest in school governance is also visible in the intensive debate about the best possible form of school governance, especially for public schools (Chubb & Moe, 1990). In their *International Handbook of School Effectiveness Research*,

Teddlie and Reynolds (2000) expect school effects to be more substantial in school systems making use of governance structures that allow individual schools more autonomy. In the US, the UK, New Zealand and the Netherlands, new systems that focus on school based governing of individual schools are rapidly developing.

In many countries (an exception is for example the UK), (grant-aided) private schools are governed by private local autonomous school boards (a foundation or an association), while the public counterparts are governed by local authorities (or an appointed institution). The effect of this is that public education depends on the policy of the local government, while private education can function more autonomously. Furthermore, the distinction between public and private school boards often reveals an influential institutional context.

Private schools (Protestant, Catholic or ideological by nature) have school boards often consisting of individual members (mainly parents) as opposed to public schools, which are mainly managed by members of the local government. School board members in private education mostly are lay persons, very often solely parents with children attending the school they govern and they serve as representatives for all the parents. They are mostly unpaid volunteers. Public schools are in many countries governed by local authorities and we should note that their employees do not have children in the schools they govern and are paid by and elected from the local district authorities.

However, not all countries follow this pattern. In Spain and Portugal school councils govern public schools in which parents have an important weight in the decision-making process. Furthermore, recent changes have been made in the governing of public schools of many countries to assure more influence from the parents on the decision-making and school life.

Organizational theory reveals that governance exerts its influence on the effectiveness of schools through organizational structures and through the climate within the schools (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Greeley, 1982; Leithwood, Tomlinson & Genge, 1996). Scott & Meyer (1988; 1994) show that public schools demonstrate more complex higher level administrative structures, less goal coherence and less autonomy for school staff in decision-taking. The public and private sectors of education differ strongly in the locus of control and the delegation of the decision-making to the school (Bryk, Lee & Holland, 1993; Coleman & Hoffer, 1987; Hofman, Hofman & Guldmond, 1996; 2001).

Moreover, several authors point at differences in the administrative climate of public and private schools resulting from differences in the influence of several groups around the school on goals, curriculum, budget, personnel, and organizational arrangements (Hannaway, 1991; Hofman et al, 1996; 2001). Hannaway (1991) compares public and Catholic high schools in the United States and concludes that differences in the autonomy exercised by public and private principals is significant, even after possible explanations for these differences, such as: SES, student test performance, school and district size, principal experience and salary, were taken into account. Another study by Bryk, Lee and Holland (1993) concludes that effective Catholic high schools function better, amongst other reasons because of a decentralized governance structure. Altogether, research shows that

school boards vary greatly and consequently, research into governance as an institutional effect should be given more weight than at present.

Of relevance to our international project is the finding of Bishop and Wössmann (2001) based on their international comparisons of mathematics performances, that appears to imply that institutional policies of countries hold greater prospect for increasing the quality of schooling than resource policies. Research on the institutional context of schooling especially the type of governance used and the increasing role and influence of parents seems to be supportive of improving education in developed as well as in developing countries.

1.3.4 Choice and community in public and private education

A recently highlighted explanation of the sector effect of schooling using elements of organizational theory, seems to be a useful approach to a more satisfactory and empirically supported explanation for the better outcomes of private schools. Bryk, Lee and Holland (1993) and, for example, Scott and Meyer (1994) try to explain the differential sector effect of schooling by environmental differences and their relationship with the internal social system of public and private schools. They compare public and private schools by integrating the outcomes of research into effective schools and into organizational effectiveness.

Community influence is a highly relevant factor bearing on school culture, referring to the extent to which the local community, particularly parents, is stimulated to become involved in the school program (Hoffer, 1990; 1992; Hofman & Hofman, 2001; Hofman, Hofman & Guldemond, 1999). In many countries, for example Spain and Portugal, community influence has become the core of the governing of the schools and parents, together with other relevant parties, are being given very broad decision-making powers.

Parental involvement

A study by Ogawa and Dutton (1997) on parental involvement and school choice reveals that parents who are more likely to participate in intra-district options (choose special schools for their children further away from their home residence) seem to invest more in educational quality (Ogawa & Dutton, 1997). Furthermore, based on primary and secondary school research, Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore (1995) conclude that parental involvement in school affairs correlates positively with academic performances (cf. Mortimore, 1996; Mortimore, 1991). Exploring the dynamics of parental involvement in relationship with purposeful leadership using four case studies, Goldring and Shapiro (1996) reveal that principal-parent interactions are the result of unique processes in each school and are negotiated and institutionalised over time and are sometimes resulting in powerful community influences. Choice patterns of parents are becoming more and more important traits for research into institutional contexts (Goldring, 1991). Bourdieu and Smrekar (1996) argue that schools draw unevenly on the social and cultural resources of members of the society and that these cultural resources, acquired at home,

differentially affect students' adjustment to school. Smrekar (1996) extends the organizational focus on community and uses case studies to provide information on the intersection of school organization and family capital and on the character and content of family-school interactions.

Other research shows that when educators involve parents of ethnic minority pupils as partners in their children's education, these parents appear to develop a sense of efficacy which communicates itself to the children, with positive academic results (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Hofman, 1994; Levine & Lezotte, 1990; Tizard, Schofield & Hewison, 1982). Hofman (1995), as well as Mortimore et al. (1988) argue that the direct involvement of parents in schoolwork has beneficial effects particularly on pupil achievement levels. However, both authors also found that regular parent involvement in the school life and their influence on school board decision-making is more important for their own child and for the running of the school as a whole, than their influence through more formal parental associations.

In a large-scale school improvement project in Indonesia the implementation, effects and costs of initiatives to increase parental involvement were compared with those of other interventions and parental involvement turned out to be quite effective in improving student achievement (Van der Werf, Creemers & Guldmond, 2001, p. 447). An international comparison of school effectiveness in 13 Latin American countries also found that schools with a high level of parental involvement were most effective (Willms & Somers, 2001, p. 438).

Administrative control

Using these insights we assume that the nature of the type of contact between school and community on the one hand and school governance on the other is strongly influenced by differences in the bureaucratic features of public and private schools (Murphy, Hallinger & Peterson, 1986). Public schools are subject to high forms of administrative control and are in many ways dependent on the bureaucratic functioning of the local government, while private schools are able to operate more autonomously. Private schools show more mutual contact between staff and parents and are more able to develop a common educational basis within their school. Furthermore, local authorities influence public schooling also in a political way, because they promote educational experiments for policy reasons (not necessarily bad ones). Boards of private schools are strong representatives of parents and are able to withdraw from this kind of local political control (Dronkers, 1995).

Some empirical evidence is also available from school level data from a survey of 125 primary schools in the San Francisco Bay Area (see James & Levin, 1988). The authors cautiously conclude that, in the US, the organizational conditions of public schools seem to inhibit effective school features, while conditions in the private sector facilitate them. Two factors appear at the core of their study: emphasis on school climate and parental involvement. However, whether this same pattern of outcomes holds in European countries needs to be researched more thoroughly. Organizational conditions in public education differ even strongly within several European countries. For example, in the Spanish education system the teachers in

public schools earn more money than teachers in private schools and as a consequence many of the private school teachers try to find work in public schools. However, teachers in private school earn more than their colleagues in public education in many other European countries.

Quality of school boards

Hofman (1995) addresses the possible relationship between governance of schools and the relationship with community and her findings confirm the presence of a relationship between the governance features of schools and the influence of the surrounding school community on the effectiveness of the school. Her finding using multi-level analysis shows that characteristics of school boards explain an additional between-school variance. School boards do make a difference, even after controlling for student background and school characteristics. Two climate indicators of school governing seem of importance. School boards who frequently meet with various groups, especially school staff and parents affect school-well-being and mathematics achievement positively.

Furthermore, school boards show a positive impact on mathematics achievement through the influence of school staff and parents to the boards' school policy (Hofman et al, 2000). Dutch Catholic schools score highest on influence to boards' decisions followed by Protestant and secular private schools; public schools score lowest. Her research also shows that governance of public schools seem to inhibit effectiveness, while governance conditions in the private sector seem to facilitate it. However, whether this picture of governing of Dutch schools also fits the situation in other European countries requires more thorough investigation.

Using data from almost 100 secondary schools (school leaders and department heads), Hofman et al. (2000) distinguished three different styles of leadership. Of particular relevance here is the finding that schools in which school staff and other school parties, such as parents, exert relatively great influence on the school board's policy are more effective than other schools. Students at these schools reach higher achievement levels than students attending schools in which staff and other parties exercise a weaker influence on the board's decisions. These findings indicate that the responsiveness of both governance and school management to the educational knowledge of staff and other parties involved in school life, especially parents, could crucially affect pupils' schooling.

1.4 THE WITHIN-COUNTRY PUBLIC/PRIVATE SECTOR MODEL

The empirical research outcomes mentioned above show that our three aspects of the institutional context of public and private schools (financing, governance and choice and community) play an important role in the explanation of variation in effectiveness between public and private sector.

Furthermore, we assume that the within-country variance is likely to be much smaller than the between-country variance, especially when taking differences between public and private sector into account.

Next to a conceptual model that relates to between country differences it is possible to develop a within-country model.

Figure 2 shows the anticipated relationships between the above-described three relevant institutional contexts that are assumed to explain differences in outcomes of schooling in public and private education within countries.

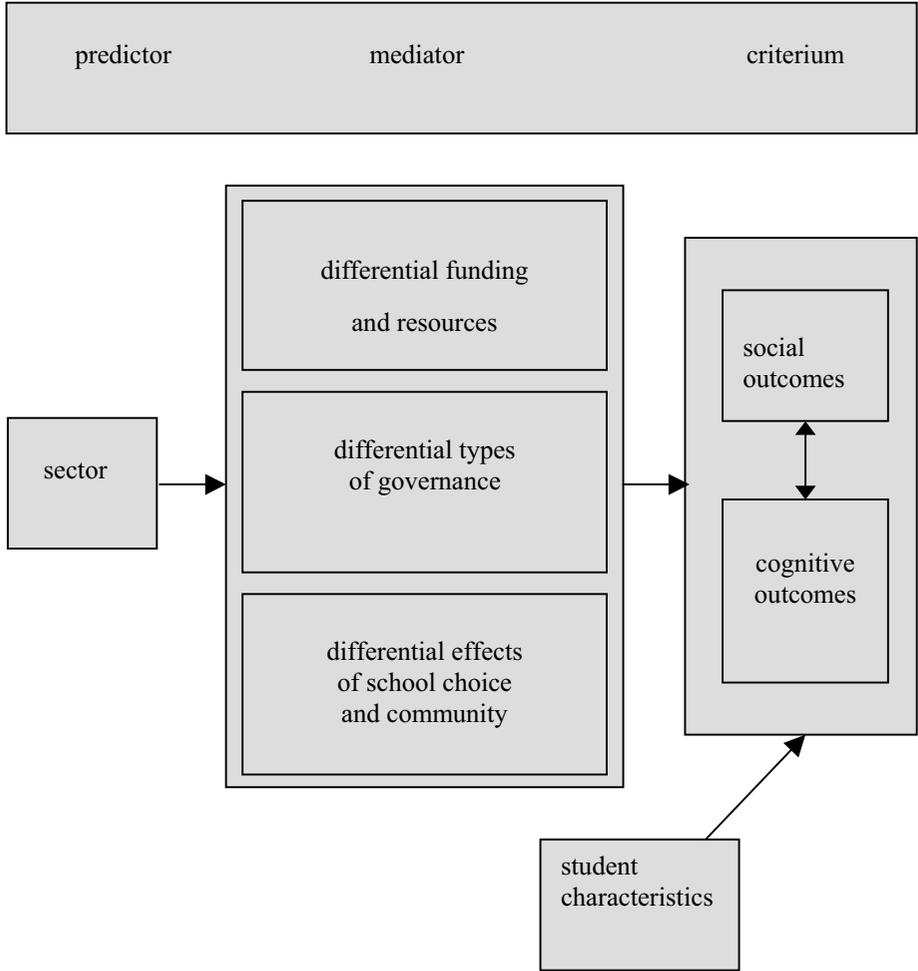


Figure 2: Conceptual within-country sector model

1.5 OBJECTIVES AND DESIGN OF THE INTERNATIONAL PROJECT

Studies sensitive to context, especially institutional contexts of schooling, have contributed to an increasing body of knowledge about predictors of school outcomes. Development of a coherent international project can benefit from these insights. The outcomes of research mentioned in the sections above and a meta-study by Hofman & Hofman (2000) established that institutional effects of schooling relate to three different perspectives that partially explain public/private sector effects: (a) the student body of public and private schools, (b) the governance structure of public and private schools and (c) differences in the parental and community relationship with public and private schools. The ultimate purpose of this study is to compare the institutional contexts of several countries and their relationship to effectiveness of schooling. In doing so we believe this will lead to increased sophistication in educational theory specifically the development of an institutional theory on quality and equity of schooling. A simultaneous objective of this international project is to exchange knowledge and expertise on governance structures, sector effects and school effectiveness in order to create an European network to develop a joint format and research approach and enhance our understanding through an inquiry of differences and similarities in sector effects among several European Member States.

1.6 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, we like to thank the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO/PROO) for their support for this international project (grant 411-203-07). This project could not have been conducted without it.

In addition to this, we have to acknowledge that this project would also not have been brought to a good end without the contribution of the partners/experts from various European countries. The partners/experts in this international project are recognized as co-authors of the country reports of their own country in Chapter 3. Furthermore, they also contributed to sections of Chapter 4, 5 and 6 in which we have sought explanations that could account for differential effects of public/private education in the countries. Moreover, the information that has been gathered in the contacts with the country experts form the basis for research proposals for the future and these are available at GION.

CHAPTER 2 SELECTION AND DEFINITION OF INDICATORS

R.H. Hofman & W.H.A. Hofman

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This international study works from the premise that the institutional contexts of schools play an important role in the explanation of variation in effectiveness between schools. Furthermore, we assume major differences between countries world-wide in the definition of institutional context, more specific concerning the exact difference between the public and private sectors in education. As we have seen in Chapter 1 crucial aspects in this respect seem to be: the financial base of public-private differences, differences in the governance structure in public and private education and the degree of freedom of school choice available. A comparative analysis of education systems in Europe requires clear concepts of the current situation in each country. The definition of indicators, used in the description of education systems in this study, will be addressed in the next section.

2.2 SELECTION AND DESCRIPTION OF SIX INDICATORS OF INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

Education systems will be typified in terms of three key characteristics of their institutional context: (a) the funding policy of education in each country, (b) the type of governance of schools in these countries and (c) the degree to which freedom of school choice is available in these countries.

2.2.1 *Funding of schools*

In all the countries of the European Union schooling is free at primary and lower secondary education, which describes the period of full-time compulsory schooling with which this study deals. Private schools may be founded in all the European countries considered. The issue of importance here though, is if there is the possibility that such schools may receive financing from public funds or are so-called grant-aided private schools. It is therefore appropriate to examine the extent to which countries extend the principle of free schooling to the way they finance the costs of private schooling by subsidising them wholly or partially.

However, we have to keep in mind that the free educational provision offered in public-sector schools does not mean that parents pay for nothing at all. School books, transport and, in some cases, meals are among goods and services needed by school pupils to benefit as they should from education. Although these expenses correspond to marginal costs in the general budget for education, they may represent a major item in household budgeting if borne by parents.

Private sector education can take different forms. Next to the grant-maintained schools in many countries there exists also a group of schools that can be described as ‘truly private’ and to assure a complete picture of each country’s education system the percent of this type of schools will be described. The concept ‘truly private’ indicates schools that are not funded by grant-aid (do not receive any funding from public (governmental) authorities), but are mostly funded by direct financial contributions by parents of pupils and, possibly, by donations from industry and by inherited funds. These schools concern entirely private money. The number of these type of schools is often limited and they can often be typified as elitist schools, while, moreover, these schools can be quite influential within the whole of the education system of certain countries. In fact in some countries the different types of schools (public, ‘grant-aided’ and ‘truly private’) are in competition with each other for students (market mechanism).

Next to identifying the size of public and ‘grant-aided’ private and ‘truly’ private education, this study uses two indicators to describe the education funding policy of each European country: (1) the size of ‘grant-aided’ and ‘truly private’ education available in each of the European countries and (2) the model of financing that is available for private education.

Size of ‘grant-aided’ and ‘truly’ private education

The size of the private sector can vary widely from one country to the other. In some cases, it accounts for the majority of schools, and in others only a small minority. Furthermore, as already stated above an important distinction has to be made within the private sector: the percent of grant-aided private sector on the one hand and the percent of the so-called ‘truly private’ sector on the other.

The size of the grant-aided private sector in different countries is related to the criteria to award grants as well as the amount of funding these schools receive. The ‘European report on finance and management of resources of compulsory education’ describes the education systems in Europe in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p. 6). Grant-aided private education refers to schools administered by private entities with support from public funding which are distinct from those directly administered by public authorities. We make use of this description and in this study we describe the countries using four types in terms of the availability of size and type of public and private education.

- Type 1 with public sector only;
- Type 2 with less than 10% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools;
- Type 3 with between 10% and 30% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools;
- Type 4 with over 30% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools.

Next to the grant-maintained schools in many countries there exists also a group of schools that we will characterize as ‘truly private’. To assure a complete picture of education systems the percent of this type of schools will be given. As indicated

above the concept ‘truly private’ refers to schools that are not funded by grant-aid (do not receive any funding from public (governmental) authorities), but are mostly funded by direct financial contributions by parents of pupils and, possibly, by donations from industry and by inherited funds. These schools concern entirely private money. These type of schools are often available in a limited number, often are elitist schools and they can in some countries be quite influential within the whole of the education system of a country.

Funding of grant-aided private education

Next to size and type of grant-aided private education it is necessary to make clear whether or not the way the grant-aided private schools are financed is similar to arrangements in the public sector. European data show variation between countries in the way their private schools are financed. Financing arrangements could be very different from those for the public sector, or similar at least for expenditure on teaching staff or grant-aided private schools could even be financed in exactly the same way as public-sector schools.

In this study we make use of four main models for funding of these grant-aided private schools. The fourth one, we called ‘model 0’, describes countries that do not acknowledge grant-aided private education within their country. The other three models can be distinguished in accordance with their degree of similarity to the financing policy of the public sector in the country (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104). The following four models have been used:

- Model 0 identifies countries in which the grant-aided private-sector is almost non-existent;
- Model 1 identifies countries with financing arrangements very different from those for the public sector;
- Model 2 identifies countries with financing arrangements that are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure;
- Model 3 identifies schools with identical financing for grant-aided private schools and schools in the public sector.

2.2.2 Indicators of types of governance

Citizens are free to found, organize and run a school under the legislation of all European countries (European Communities, 2000). In fact, the establishment of private schools is a way of putting the freedom of education into practice. The development of certain grant-aided private schools is also related to the privatisation of education in the sense of services provided by private bodies, although reliant on public funds. A ‘grant-aided private school’ is meant to be any school financed out of public funds but belonging to private entities (such as foundations, non-profit-making associations, school trustees, etc.). Included in this definition are both private schools whose right to public support is confirmed in law, and those which receive subsidies awarded at the discretion of the public authorities. In the United

Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), schools which belong to private bodies such as trustees, foundations and Churches, but are financed out of public funds, are considered to be within the public sector. In the present study, however, these set of schools will be analysed under the heading of grant-aided private schools. As noted next to this 'grant-aided' private schools there also exists a group of what we will call 'truly' private schools who receive no public support whatever. In most of the countries in Europe these 'truly private' schools count for less than 5% of the total number of schools. However, in England they add up to 7% of the schools and they are significant in this education system because these schools partly provide a selective kind of education.

Although the 'truly' private sector can be of strong influence of the entire school system, because of its limited number this section aims to define and describe indicators to clarify specifically the position of the 'grant-aided private schools' governance vis-à-vis public-sector schools' governance. However, the type of governance of the 'grant-maintained schools' in many countries resemble that of the 'truly private' type of governance or can even be described as being identical.

Grant aided private schools will be founded for different reasons. In most countries, private education essentially complements public-sector provision, and offers either a denominational or ideological alternative to it, in compliance with the principle that parents are free to choose a school offering their child their preferred kind of education. In some cases, grant-aided private schools offer an alternative in terms of teaching when inspired by an educational model other than that of the public sector. Among such schools are those based on the teaching systems of Steiner, Montessori, Freinet or Decroly. Their purpose could be to satisfy educational needs that public-sector schools are unable to meet, or, they are regarded more as a privatisation of educational provision. However important these reasons are for the founding principles of private education in each of the countries, in this study we will not analyse the reasons behind the foundation of private schools.

Some countries combine free parental school choice with equal subsidising and treatment of public and private schools by the state. This is the case in the Netherlands. On account of equal subsidising of schools, the Netherlands does not have prestigious elite schools outside the state subsidized sector and consequently the effectiveness of schools is not biased by the creaming-off of the most able students, nor by the financial possibilities of parents, nor by geographical constraints on parental choice (Dronkers, 1995). Hence, countries with an education system similar to the Netherlands and countries that are very different from such education systems offer a fruitful case for the international comparison and exploration of the institutional effects of sector from the viewpoint of financing and the schools' governance structure as well as from the point of freedom of school choice.

Our analysis addresses two aspects that we assume are very important for the way schools operate and, and as research in Chapter 1 makes clear, could also be related to outcomes of schooling in private and public education. The two aspects we will deal with here are: (1) the availability of different types of governance authorities in each country, as well as (2) the type of power of school bodies that include parents representatives.

Governance authorities

Although most countries education system include a private and a public sector, the difference between these sectors refers to a distinction in governance of schools. In general, private schools are governed by private local autonomous school boards (a foundation, an association or trustees or other kinds of governance), while the public counter-parts are governed by local or higher level authorities (or an appointed institution). The distinction between public and private school governance reveals an influential institutional context. Privately-run schools have school boards consisting of individual members (mainly parents) as opposed to publicly-run schools, which are managed by members of the local government. School board members in private education are typically lay persons, very often solely parents with children attending the school they govern and they serve as representatives for all the parents. Public schools are governed by local authorities and we should note that their employees do not have children in the schools they govern and are paid by and elected from the local district authorities. It is well possible that differences in the bureaucratic features of public and private schools influence the nature of the contact between school governance, school and school community. Public schools may be subject to high forms of administrative control and could be more dependent on the bureaucratic functioning of the local government, while private schools are able to operate in more autonomous ways.

In this study we describe each of the European countries using two indicators that we assume are important features of the governance system of the country. The kind of governance available in each of the countries will be described making use of four types.

- Type 1: countries with largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level public authorities;
- Type 2: countries with largely publicly-run schools, run by local authorities often including representatives of the parents;
- Type 3: countries with a mix of publicly-run and privately-run schools;
- Type 4: countries with schools largely privately-run by school boards.

Power of school councils

In almost all countries in Europe, there are consultative councils that include parents at school level. However, only in a few countries are such bodies made up exclusively of parents. Generally speaking the nature and the extent to which councils at school level including parents representatives exercise decision-making powers vary greatly. A comparison of countries on this basis gives insight in the considerable differences in influence given to councils and parents within them. The report with 'Key data on education in Europe' (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.37) shows the nature and the scope of the councils in which parents are involved at school level in a number of broad areas within the education system. These areas are: clarification of school rules, drafting of the schools' development plans, setting the teaching syllabus and objectives, control of expenditure and allocation of the

budget assigned to the school (o.c. p37). The scope of the power of these councils can vary strongly. In this study countries are described using the scope of power of these councils and in doing so we make use of three models.

- Model 1: countries in which these bodies in general exercise almost no power;
- Model 2: countries in which these bodies are given consultative power;
- Model 3: countries in which such bodies are allocated decision-making power.

2.2.3 *Indicators of freedom of school choice*

Freedom in education can be viewed from two perspectives. First, from the viewpoint of the freedom of parents to choose a school suitable for their child. Secondly, from the freedom of anyone to initiate a form of education which offers an alternative to public-sector education from the cultural, denominational, ideological or teaching point of view.

Countries that offer parents greater freedom to choose a preferred kind of education give the opportunity to found and choose grant-aided private schools next to free choice within the public system.

The freedom to choose a school in the public as well as the private sector may be hindered in different ways. Patterns of pupil enrolment in schools may be said to reflect two extremes. In the first, enrolment is determined by the public authorities, which define school catchment areas that vary in size. In the second, parents are free to choose the school to which they send their child. In reality, most countries stand somewhere between these extremes with a balance between public intervention and parental choice. The question of freedom of school choice, however, is bound up with that of funding schools and the abolition of all financial barriers to attendance at a particular school: free books, transport and, sometimes, meals (support which may be granted to all families or dependent on parental income);

In most countries, public authorities are involved in decisions regarding the schools attended by pupils. In several countries, they establish the norm in accordance with a plan attributing catchment areas to each school. Possible exceptions to these fairly firm criteria may make the system more flexible. The freedom of parents to choose a school other than the one proposed by the public authorities is another factor that may make the catchment area system more flexible. However, it should be noted that in all these countries, parents may have their request for enrolment refused if their preferred school is threatened with overcrowding. Furthermore, in most of these countries, free school transport is not offered to pupils who do not enrol at the school closest to their home, or who choose a school other than the one they are allocated by their municipality.

In other instances, public authorities intervene at a later stage after parents have indicated their preference. The aim of any such regulation is to correct imbalances when schools are in a situation in which they are unable to satisfy the demand for enrolment. Indeed, the right to choose a school freely does not mean that it will automatically have a place available. Finally, in a few countries, parents have considerable freedom to choose a school, in that the public authorities do not attempt to influence their decision at any stage. However, in some countries, this freedom is

compromised by geographical considerations. Long distances, in particular from home to (secondary) schools, together with the fact that transport services are organized on the basis of catchment areas, limit the options of some parents.

In this study two indicators are used to describe the degree to which freedom of school choice is available in the European countries: (1) legislation on such freedom of choice in the public sector, and, (2) the existence of grant-aided private education offering a real alternative to public education (see also Eurydice, 2000, Vol 2, p.289).

Freedom from pupil allocation

Freedom to choose a school may mean one of three things. First, the right of parents to request that their child attend a school other than the one designated by the public authorities. Secondly, their freedom to choose between several schools in which enrolment levels may then be adjusted by the public authorities. Thirdly, total parental freedom with no public intervention. Four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries can be identified: from no real choice to a total or complete free choice. The freedom of school choice is highest when the public authorities do not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools.

- Category 1: there is no real choice: pupils are allocated a school (except in cases of special dispensation);
- Category 2: pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one;
- Category 3: parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is over-stretched;
- Category 4: parents choose a school freely, with no action by the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers.

School fees in private education

However, to appreciate the degrees of freedom each country offers parents of pupils, it is not enough to consider legislation relating to the choice of a school in the public sector. The question of freedom of school choice is bound up with the degree to which there are financial barriers to attendance at a particular school. From this viewpoint the question of school fees in grant-aided private education is important. First, no obligation to pay fees is a sign that freedom to choose a kind of education distinct from that on offer in public-sector schools exists in its fullest form, since there is no financial barrier to enrolment. Secondly, schools that charge fees have a kind of selection mechanism for controlling those admitted to them. In some countries legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public sector while in others pupils may have to pay fairly low fees or fees that are earmarked for certain budgetary headings for which schools receive no public subsidy.

This further elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice from the point of school fees seems relevant and they will be analysed from two angles (Euridyce, Vol. 2, p.103). First, no obligation to pay fees is a sign that there is no financial barrier to school choice and second, schools that charge fees have a kind of selection mechanism controlling their school population. Three broad types of European countries can be identified from these viewpoint.

- Type 1: countries without school fees in private education; legislation is identical to that of public-sector schools;
- Type 2: countries where pupils (parents) pay fairly low fees;
- Type 3: countries where private school fees should be paid by parents to wholly or partially cover budgetary headings not covered by public-sector funding.

The six key indicators of the institutional context of public and private education in the European countries have been presented in this chapter. In the following Chapter we will focus on the analysis of a set of European countries based on these indicators.

*G. Amaro, P. Daly, B. Fredander, J. Gray, H. Guldemon, A. Hofman,
R. Hofman, D. Kavadias, M. Lopes da Silva, J. Murillo, F. Poupeau,
G. Thorpe & P. Weng*

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the first chapters we selected the concepts we will use for the comparative analysis of education systems in Europe. Now the current situation in each country will be presented. This cross-country analysis concerns those schools involved in the provision of full-time compulsory education, which, in general, are primary and lower secondary schools. At present, nine or ten years of compulsory schooling is the standard in most European countries.

We will carry out a descriptive analysis of the institutional context of the education systems in Europe. However, it seems appropriate to start with painting the picture of the part of the school system under study in each country. Therefore, each country report starts with a short profile in which general background information is presented. This description of some of the key characteristics of the full-time compulsory education system includes information on: the age that children start and end compulsory education, the time children spent in school in these countries, the class size and the content of the countries' curriculum and finally the use of examinations and testing in the country's education systems. The information of this general description is mostly based on the summary sheets on education systems in Europe (see: Eurydice, 2001).

Next to this more general introduction of the education systems, the institutional contexts have been analysed from the viewpoint of three concepts (see Chapter 2), namely (1) the education funding policy, (2) the governance of schools and (3) the freedom of school choice within each country.

A set of almost 15 European countries take part in the analyses. These have been selected because of their participation in the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) in 1995. In some cases the TIMSS data set includes sub samples of countries, for example the United Kingdom is divided into England and Scotland, and Belgium is separated into a French and Flemish education system. The country descriptions start with a general introduction to the country and its educational system, followed by an analysis of the institutional contexts from the viewpoint of the three above mentioned concepts. Key data on the European education systems have been found through reports of the European Commission (1996, 1997, 2000, 2001), European Communities (2000), OECD-data and reports (OECD, 1997, 2000, 2001) and databases like Eurydice (2000) and Eurybase (2001).

The set includes the following European countries and these are described in the following order: Spain, Scotland, Sweden, Portugal, the Netherlands, Ireland, Germany, France, England, Denmark, Belgium (French), Belgium (Flemish) and Austria.

Each country report is finalised with a summary in which an overview is presented of our six indicators.

3.2 SPAIN

3.2.1 *Country profile*

Spain (E) is a member state of the European Union and is located in south-western Europe, largely covering the Iberian peninsula and embracing the Balearic Isles (Mediterranean Sea) and the Canary Islands (Atlantic Ocean). It also has a small territory on the North African coast. It is made up of 17 Regions (Autonomous Communities) holding extensive competencies of both a regulatory and executive nature.

Despite the separation between Church and State, public Authorities co-operate with the Catholic Church and other religious institutions. In this regard, there is an agreement between the Spanish State and the Holy See on the teaching of the Catholic faith. There are similar agreements between the Spanish State and Evangelist, Israelite and Muslim Authorities. In such agreements, the State acknowledges the fundamental right to a religious education and assumes the obligation to guarantee the exercise of this right. The Spanish Constitution guarantees freedom of ideas, religion and worship for individuals and communities, to be restricted only as necessary to ensure order. Therefore, there is no official religion in Spain, although a large majority of Spanish citizens professes to be Catholic.

According to the Spanish Constitution, Castellano (Spanish) is the official language of Spain and, therefore, all Spanish citizens are under the obligation to know it and have the right to use it. Certain Autonomous Communities have a second official language. Specifically, Catalanian, Galician, Valencian (all Romance languages, deriving from Latin) and Euskera or Basque have co-official status. In the Communities where there is a co-official language, both this language and Spanish are mandatory in education at the non-university level. The extent to which the former is used as a learning language varies from one Autonomous Community to another, depending upon linguistic recovery and normalisation policies as well as other circumstances.

Official figures of the Municipal Register show that the number of inhabitants for 1999 came to more than 40 million. The number of people aged 29 and under was 15 389 459 (38% of the population) and there were 4 437 396 young people of compulsory education age.

3.2.2 *Characteristics of Spanish compulsory education*

A comparative analysis of schools in Europe requires clear concepts to describe the current situation in each country. First, the schools that are the subject of the analysis have to be clearly specified. In this study we are concerned with those schools that are involved in the provision of full-time compulsory education, which, in general, concerns primary and lower secondary education. Before a comparative analysis will be presented in the sections hereafter, it seems appropriate to paint a picture of the part of the school system under study in each country. Therefore a description of general characteristics of the educational system is presented which

includes information on the following topics: general administration of the education system range of compulsory education; school days and lessons; class size; curriculum and finally, examinations and testing (Source: Summary sheets on education systems in Europe, 2001).

General administration of the education system. The 1978 Spanish Constitution laid down a new model for a decentralised State, establishing a sharing of powers between the State Administration and the Autonomous Communities. This decentralised administration model for the Spanish education system distributes powers among the State, Autonomous Communities, Local Authorities, and schools. The State has exclusively reserved unto itself the powers for guaranteeing standardisation and substantial unity of the education as well as those for guaranteeing equitable conditions for all Spanish citizens in the exercise of their fundamental Constitutional educational rights. The State's powers are largely of a regulatory nature and address the fundamental or basic elements of the system, although some of them are of an executive nature. With the purpose of exercising these powers, the Ministry of Education is organised into central services, which conform its basic structure, and peripheral services, through which tasks of a regional and provincial type are to be dealt with. The Senior Inspection Service in each Autonomous Community ensures the enforcement of State regulations in education matters. The Autonomous Communities have regulatory powers to expand on basic State standards and as such, to regulate non-basic elements or features of the education system, as well as executive-administrative management powers over the system in their own territory, with the exception of those powers reserved to the State. Legislation entrusts certain tasks to Municipal Councils, although the latter are not granted the status of Education Authority. Nevertheless, council powers to co-operate with the State and the Autonomous Communities in carrying out the educational task are recognised.

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory from the age of 6 to 16, and is divided into two educational levels made up of five stages, each lasting two years – the first three for Primary Education, and the other two for lower secondary. 'Educación Primaria' (primary education) ranges from 6-12 years of age and 'Educación Secundaria Obligatoria' (ESO, or compulsory secondary education) ranges from 12-16 years of age.

To enter primary education, children must be 6 years old. Certain admissions criteria (family income, catchment area, and siblings at school) apply when a school is over-subscribed. Students transfer automatically from primary to lower secondary level. Compulsory education in publicly funded schools is free of charge.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises 180 days at primary level and 175 days at secondary level, between mid-September and late June. Schools open five days a week with 25 lessons at primary level and 30 lessons at secondary level per week. A lesson lasts 60 minutes at primary level and 55 at secondary. The minimum number of annual teaching hours is 810 at primary level and 898 at lower secondary level.

Class size. The maximum class size is 25 at primary level and 30 at secondary level. Students are grouped according to age. Mixed age groups exist in rural areas where classes are very small. Primary classes have one teacher for all subjects,

except for music, physical education and foreign languages; secondary students have separate subject teachers.

Curriculum. The minimum core curriculum is determined at State level. The Autonomous Communities establish their own curriculum based on the State minimum core curriculum and schools develop and adapt the curriculum to their own context. Compulsory studies at primary level include knowledge of the environment, art education, physical education, Spanish language and literature, the official language and literature of the corresponding Autonomous Community (in those Autonomous Communities with two co-official languages), a foreign language and mathematics. The subject of religion is compulsorily offered by the establishments but is voluntary for the pupils. The lower secondary core curriculum covers Spanish language and literature, the official language and literature of the respective Autonomous Community (in those Autonomous Communities with two co-official languages), a foreign language, mathematics, physical education, natural sciences, plastic and visual education, social studies, geography and history, technology and music. The subject of religion is compulsorily offered by the establishments but is voluntary for the pupils. While in primary education, methodology is global and interdisciplinary and it must be adapted to each pupil's needs as it is in lower secondary education. In lower secondary education, methodology must also foster their ability to learn on their own as well as to work in team. Concerning textbooks, every subject area department is responsible for the choice of its textbooks, among all those already approved by the corresponding Autonomous Community.

Examinations and testing. There is no national or regional system of testing for all the students. The minimum core curriculum includes basic guidelines for assessment, which is an integral part of the curriculum and must be global and continuous. While in primary education, the form teacher is responsible for decisions on promotion, in lower secondary, all the pupil's teachers have to decide on promotion collectively. Promotion between primary education stages depends on students meeting curricular objectives; students can repeat a year if necessary. In the first stage or in each of the two academic years of the second stage of lower secondary education, students may stay one more year if they do not attain the objectives although, in principle, they may only repeat one year throughout the entire stage. On completion of compulsory schooling, students receive the certificate of secondary education ('Graduado en Educación Secundaria'), which grants access to general upper secondary education ('Bachillerato') or intermediate level specific vocational training ('Formación Profesional Específica de grado medio').

3.2.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Key characteristics to analyse the institutional context of public and private education of a country include three major indicators: (a) the education funding policy of a country, (b) the governance of schools and (c) the freedom of school choice.

Education funding policy

In Secondary Education, the Spanish regional government finance public schools. In Primary education, the owner of the building is the municipal council, and it contributes to its economical financing.

In 2000, 67,84% of Spanish students in both university and non-university levels attended public-sector schools while 32,16% attended private institutions; in compulsory education, 66,25% attended public schools. There are two kinds of compulsory-level establishments that are not in the public sector: 'centros concertados' (grant-aided private schools), which account for approximately 90% of all private schools, and 'centros no concertados' which are totally private (CIDE, 2000).

On the basis of the 'European report on finance and management of resources of compulsory education' we can describe the education systems in Europe in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.6). Schools administered by private entities with support from public funding which are distinct from those directly administered by public authorities are referred to as 'grant-aided private education'. The size of public and private education (1997/1998 data) can be described in four types: Type 1 with public sector only; Type 2 with less than 10% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools; Type 3 with between 10% and 30% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools; Type 4 with over 50% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools. Like in most countries, education provided by the public authorities is far more widespread than provision by entities operating under private law. In Spain grant-aided private education accounts for some 30%. It includes the so-called 'centros concertados', schools operating under private law which are supported by public funds on the basis of an agreement reached with the competent Regional authorities. From this point of view the Spanish education system can be identified as a type 3 country with between 10% and 30% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools (CIDE, 2000).

Next to identification of the size of the private sector, three main models used for funding of these grant-aided private schools are distinguished in accordance with their degree of similarity to the financing of the public sector (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104). Model 1 identifies countries with financing arrangements very different from those for the public sector. Model 2 identifies countries with financing arrangements that are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. Model 3 identifies schools with identical financing for grant-aided private schools and schools in the public sector. The Spanish education system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 2 type of country, teachers in Spanish grant-aided private schools are paid in the same way as in public-sector schools, but a different amount (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104). In general, financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. Thus in Spain, the scale of funding for staff and operations is similar to public education, but capital resources receive less support.

Governance of schools

Since 1983 and parallel to the process of educational de-centralisation, the Spanish education system has developed a high degree of autonomy for schools. Three areas of decision-making capacity in the hands of educational establishments may be distinguished: curriculum; economic and resource management; and personnel management. As far as the curricular autonomy area is concerned, three levels of curricular formulation have been established. Using the core curricula that the Central Government establishes for the entire State as a point of departure, each Autonomous Community draws up its own official curriculum (first level of curricular formulation). The educational establishment then adapts and expands upon this basic curriculum in what is known as the second level of curricular formulation. The third formulation level corresponds to classroom programming, which is constituted by a series of teaching units drawn up by the teacher for each concrete group of pupils, along with the necessary curricular adaptations. The second area of autonomy is that referring to economic and resource management decision-making.

Since 1995, the distribution of expenses and the contracting of projects and supplies is in the schools' hands. With the aim of ensuring efficient economic management, the establishments should annually draw up a budget, in which income and foreseen expenses for the corresponding school year are listed. Finally, personnel management is one of the domains in which schools have had the least autonomy up to the present. Public schools have scarce decision-making competence with regards to their personnel. They cannot hire teachers nor decide their numbers, professional profile nor working conditions. They may however distribute personnel throughout the establishment as they see fit, in compliance with regulations. They may also elect the head teacher, who is always to be from among the teachers accredited by the Administration.

The government of public non-university schools is entrusted to collegiate bodies (School Council and Teachers' Assembly) and to persons holding individual offices (head teacher, head of studies and secretary). Some Autonomous Communities have also regulated the existence of additional figures, such as a vice principal or assistant heads of studies.

In the case of "centros concertados", the Law establishes that there must be a head teacher, a School Council and a Teachers' Assembly. Existence of further governing bodies is left in the hands of the establishments. "Centros no concertados" enjoy autonomy to draw up their organisation and as such may establish the governing and participatory bodies which they deem fit. The School Council is the maximum governing body within the establishment in which the educational community may participate.

In public schools it comprises: the head teacher, who is the chairperson; the head of studies; one councillor or representative of the town hall; and a certain number of representatives from the teachers, pupils, parents, and administrative and service personnel. The School Council is responsible for electing the head teacher; deciding upon pupil admission and the solution of pupil disciplinary problems; laying down the guidelines for drawing up the educational project, as well as approving and

assessing it. It is likewise responsible for approving the in-house rules of procedure, the annual general programme and complementary and extracurricular activities; approving the establishment's budget; and encouraging the conservation and renovation of the school's installations. In the realm of external relations, the School Council lays down the guidelines for collaborating with other schools and institutions. Lastly, it participates in the assessment of the school's general functioning, pupil performance progress, as well as in the external assessments performed by the corresponding Educational Authority.

In private schools with educational arrangements the School Council is composed of the head teacher, three representatives of the centre's owner, four teachers' representatives, four parents' or guardians' representatives, two pupils' representatives and one representative from administrative and personnel services. The owners of this type of establishment decide electoral procedures, ensuring conditions that guarantee the participation of all the sectors of the educational community.

The powers entrusted to the School Council in "centros concertados" are similar to those entrusted to those in public establishments. They do however also have the faculty to hire and dismiss teachers and to propose to the Educational Authority the fixing of complementary economic contributions from parents for extracurricular educational purposes.

The report with 'Key data on education in Europe' (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.35-37) shows the nature and the scope of the councils in which parents are involved at school level in a number of broad areas within the education system. These areas are: clarification of school rules, drafting of the schools' development plans, setting the teaching syllabus and objectives, control of expenditure and allocation of the budget assigned to the school (o.c. p37). The scope of the power of these councils can vary from (1) no power, via (2) consultative power, to (3) decision-making power. The powers of school-level bodies which include parent representatives exercise no power in two of the five areas (the school development plan and the teaching syllabus) and they exercise decision-making power concerning the other three (school rules, control of expenditure and budget). This makes it not so easy to typify the Spanish education system of Spain. However, knowing they have decision-making power also in the hiring and firing of the principal we will identify Spain as a model 3 type of country with decision-making powers in general. In Spain the council that includes parents has decision-making powers in the area of management and monitoring of expenses up to 2 million pesetas. If the expenses exceed this amount, the council acts in a consultative capacity (Key data on education in Europe, 1998-2000, p.37).

Freedom of school choice

In this study we analysed freedom of school choice in European countries from two points of view. The first point of view concerns legislation on such freedom of choice in the public sector. The second one, concerns the existence of grant-aided private education offering a real alternative to public education (Eurydice, 2000,

Vol. 2, p.289). Generally speaking four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries can be identified: from no real choice to a total or complete free choice. The freedom of school choice is highest when the public authorities do not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools. Category 1= no real choice: pupils are allocated a school (except in cases of special dispensation). Category 2: pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one. Category 3: parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is overstretched. Category 4: parents choose a school freely, with no action by the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers. The Spanish education system can be typified as a category 3 type of freedom of school choice. In Spain, the public authorities may intervene at a later stage after parents have indicated their preference. The aim of any such regulation is to correct imbalances when schools are in a situation in which they are unable to satisfy the demand for enrolment. Thus, the right to choose a school freely does not mean that it will automatically have a place available.

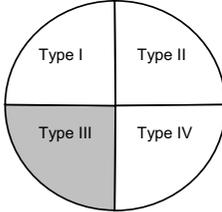
A further elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice seems relevant and this concerns the question of school fees in private education. Such school fees can be analysed from two angles (Euridyce, Vol. 2, p.103). First, no obligation to pay fees is a sign that there is no financial barrier to school choice and second, schools that charge fees have a kind of selection mechanism controlling their school population. Three types of European countries can be identified from these viewpoints. In type 1 countries there are no school fees in private education; the legislation is identical to that of public-sector schools. In the type 2 countries pupils pay fairly low fees, to avoid any social discrimination. In the third type of European countries private school fees wholly or partially cover budgetary headings not covered by public-sector funding. The Spanish education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 1 type of private school sector as there are no school fees for primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public sector. In a first group of countries, legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public sector. This applies to Spain.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in Spain

Spain

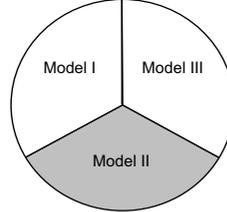
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
 Type II = less than 10% private
 Type III = 10% - 30% private
 Type IV = over 30% private

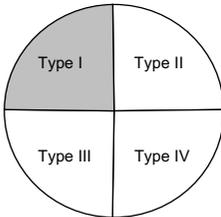
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
 Model II = financing similar to public sector
 Model III = financing identical to public sector

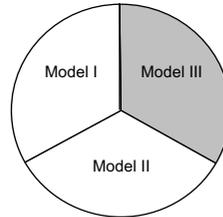
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
 Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
 Type III = mix public/private-run schools
 Type IV = privately-run by school boards

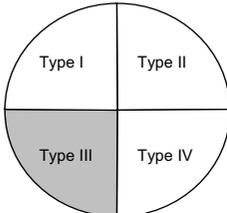
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
 Model II = consultative power
 Model III = decision making power

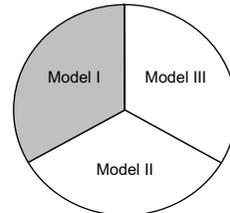
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
 Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
 Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
 Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private



- Model I = no fees
 Model II = low fees
 Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.3 SCOTLAND

3.3.1 *Country profile*

Scotland (SC) is the northern part of the United Kingdom and as part of the United Kingdom, is a member of the European Union. Scotland is governed by the Parliament at Westminster, where 72 members are selected from Scottish constituencies (Semple in: Robitaille, 1997). Certain powers are, though, devolved to a Scottish Parliament and education is one of these. The education system in Scotland differs from that in England. Education in Scotland today is almost entirely a government directed activity. The church may have rights and may be involved, and those church members who are active may be concerned about this, but by and large, they are fringe concerns, not central ones, in Scotland. Paradoxically, it's the minority Catholic church that impacts most visibly on education, because almost all the denominational schools are RC, and so people know about them, and legislation has to be adapted to meet their peculiarities. The situation is quite different to England (and Ireland North and South) where the Church of England does play a large role in educational provision.

Since the Reformation of the 16th century the established church, the Church of Scotland, has been protestant and from the end of the 17th century Presbyterian. The General Assembly, or annual national meeting of the Church very often discusses the major issues of the day, including education, and its views on them are widely reported. The General Assembly has an education committee that deals with matters in Scottish education which affect the Church. From the latter half of the 16th century until 1872 the Church of Scotland carried the main responsibility for elementary education and, even after education had become the responsibility of central government, it dominated the system of School Boards through to 1918 when they were replaced by education authorities. The Church of Scotland still has the right to be represented on the education committee of every Local Authority, if the Authority sets up such a committee. About 1 in 6 Scots would claim affiliation to the Roman Catholic Church. Most of the Roman Catholic population is descended from Irish immigrants in the 19th century, coming mainly into the west and southwest of Scotland.

Until 1918 the Roman Catholic Church had its own primary and secondary school system. By the Education Act of that year, however, responsibility for the schools was handed over to the state on the understanding that they would remain denominational. The Roman Catholic Church retains considerable influence over the appointment of staff, the teaching of religious education and the ethos of the schools. Like the Church of Scotland it has the right of representation on education committees. It has a committee, the Catholic Education Commission (CEC) which concerns itself with matters in Scottish education which affect the Church. In addition to various other Christian denominations, several other world faiths (notably Chinese, Jewish, Moslem, Hindu and Sikh) are practised, in the main by ethnic minority groups. With the exception of two Jewish primary schools, however, one private and one public, there are no schools in Scotland specifically for children belonging to other faiths.

The estimated population of Scotland in 1999 was 5.1 million, accounting for 9% of the population of the United Kingdom. In that same year, 784 381 young people were in compulsory education. Approximately 1 percent of Scotland's population consists of ethnic minorities (Semple in: Robitaille, 1997, p.321). English is the official language of education. It is spoken everywhere in Scotland, albeit alongside Scottish-English (the Scots language) in most areas and Gaelic in parts of the Highlands and many of the Western Isles.

3.3.2 *Characteristics of Scottish compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 16. All children between the ages of 5 and 16 must receive education. Primary school ages range from 5–12 years and lower secondary school ages from 12–16 years of age. Children are normally admitted to school at the beginning of the academic session in August. All pupils born before the 1st March are admitted at the age of four in the previous August, and those born after that date are admitted to school at the beginning of the next academic session. Parents have the right to send their children to the public school of their choice provided places are available. Parents have a legal right of appeal to the courts if the local authority turns down their request for a particular public school. Pupils are admitted to secondary education from primary schools when they have completed seven years of primary education (age 12). There are no restrictions on entrance.

School days and lessons. Schools are open for 190 days a year. The local authority determines the actual dates of terms. The school year usually starts in mid-August and finishes around the end of June. Local authorities operate very closely to a standard norm for the number of weekly taught hours: 25 hours for primary schools (with reduced hours for infants) and 27.5 hours for secondary schools.

Class size. The maximum class size is 33 pupils but in mixed-age classes, local authorities try to maintain a limit of 25. From August 2001, new regulations seek to ensure that classes in the first three years will have a maximum of 30. Pupils are generally taught in mixed ability classes at primary level. Secondary schools are free to group students according to academic ability, and are being encouraged to increase this practice in the first two years as well as in the third to sixth years. Primary schools are also being encouraged to make some use of attainment groups and to group students academically in the last two years of primary school in language and mathematics where this is possible. Pupils are mostly taught by generalist teachers at primary level and by subject specialists at secondary level.

Curriculum. The curriculum is not determined by statute or regulation but by advice from the Scottish executive Education Department (SEED) in various curriculum documents. At primary level, the curricular areas are language, mathematics, environmental studies, expressive arts, and religious and moral education. At lower secondary level the curriculum is divided into two stages. The first two years (S1 and S2) provide a general education following the national 5-14 programme. The third and fourth years (S3 and S4) have elements of specialisation and vocational education for all.

Examinations and testing. At primary level, pupils are assessed through a combination of teacher assessment for all curriculum areas and national tests in reading, writing and mathematics which are administered and marked internally. In the first two years of secondary education schools use continuous assessment based on coursework, and on written examinations and national tests in reading, writing and mathematics. At age 16 pupils take the Scottish Qualification Certificate at Standard Grade. Standard Grade is a two year course and pupils take examination in the subjects which they have selected.

3.3.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

In Scotland private primary and lower secondary schools are not grant aided, and it should be noted that, in Scotland, the majority of denominational schools are in the public sector. Public sector schools may opt for grant-maintained status, with direct funding from 'The Scottish Office Education and Industry Department', but to-date only two or three schools in exceptional circumstances have done so. Quality control is achieved through inspections of educational institutions carried out by Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools (Semple in: Robitaille, 1997). The school curriculum from age 5 to 14 is defined by The Scottish Office in a set of national guidelines that have been issued to schools. The 32 district education authorities are accountable to the central government and, through the Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED), are responsible for the provision of buildings and teaching resources, appointment of teachers, employment of non-teaching staff, and the delivery of education.

In Scotland the educational provision is the result of a close collaboration between local government and central government, each providing about half of the finance required. The numbers of teachers (and hence salary costs) are determined chiefly by the numbers of pupils and class size in primary schools and by a combination of these two factors and the structure of the curriculum in secondary school. In the late 1960s, comprehensive secondary education with a common core curriculum in the first two years was established. Increased financial management responsibility was delegated to school Headteachers in the mid 1960's, but the main aim of school management (primary and secondary) remains educational quality.

The education systems in Europe have been categorized in terms of four types ranging from public sector only to countries with over 50% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools. The what we called 'truly private' sector in Scotland is not large, about 5% of the school population at most, almost non-denominational. This 'truly private' sector is not funded by grant-aid but by direct financial contributions by parents of pupils and, possibly, by donations from industry and by inherited funds. It is entirely private money, apart from a few scholarships for pupils that the state sponsors. In addition Scotland does have two or three schools that come under the definition of grant-aided schools administered by private agencies. Thus, the Scottish education system has been typified as a type 1 country in which education is almost entirely public sector education (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.7). In

addition to this description of education system of Scotland in terms of size of availability of private education next to public education, this study uses three models to describe how grant-aided private schools are funded (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104). However, in the case of Scotland an additional model 0 had to be constructed to allow the Scottish education system to be typified as the type of country in which the grant-aided private-sector is almost non-existent.

Governance of schools

Education is one of the functions of The Scottish Executive. The First Minister for Scotland is responsible for the overall supervision and development of the education service. Day-to-day responsibility for education is delegated to the Ministers for Education and for Enterprise and Lifelong Learning. Local authorities have a statutory duty to provide an adequate and efficient school education. Most schools are administered by local authorities, but some 5 percent, or 35 000, pupils attend private schools. Of these students, 3058 received assistance with fees from the government Assisted places Scheme in 1993-1994 (Semple in: Robitaille, 1997). Public sector schools are funded by local authorities. Local authorities funds are obtained partly from aggregate external funding from central government, and partly from council tax levies on domestic and commercial properties. Textbooks and other teaching materials are selected by local authorities and schools. Most local authorities have advisers who assist schools in defining their needs for teaching materials (o.c., 1997). In addition, provision exists for the appointment of "School Boards" to assist with the management of individual schools. These Boards comprise interested community parties, parents, religious and other representatives.

The different kinds of governance available for schools in each of the countries in this study have been described making use of four types of governance. Scotland can best be typified as a type 2 country with a predominantly public school sector, run by local authorities, but with parental and local community representation.

Further, an analysis of the nature and the scope of Scottish school councils at school level shows that the scope of the power of these councils indicates that Scottish education system is a model 2 country in which the school-level bodies with parental representation allow in general for consultative powers. The Scottish school-level bodies which include parent representatives have no powers over the teaching syllabus or the budget, and have a consultative role in the respect of school rules, development planning and expenditure.

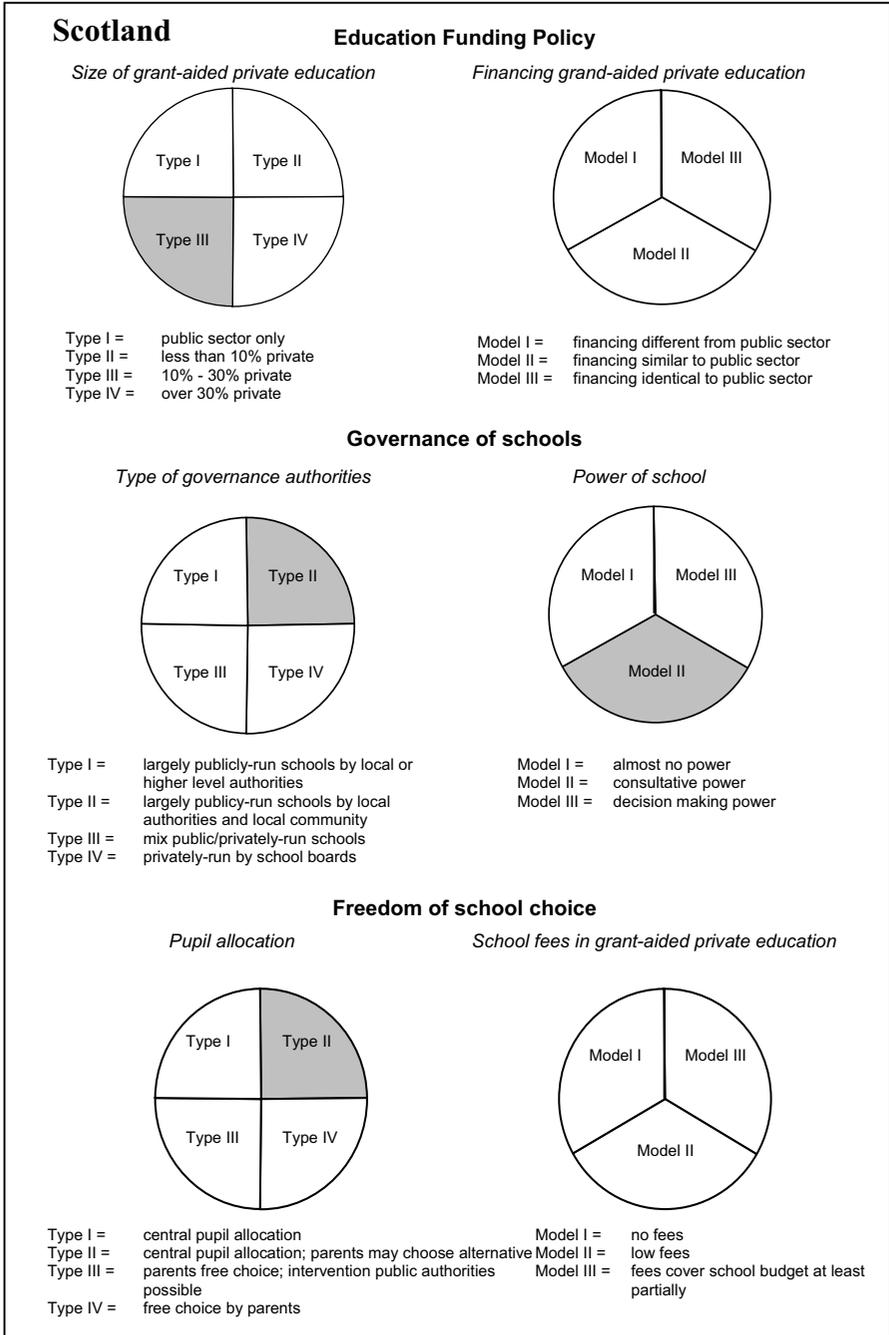
Freedom of school choice

In this study we identified four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries: ranging from no real choice to a total or complete free choice (Eurydice, 2000, Vol 2, p.289). The freedom of school choice is highest when the public authorities do not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools. The Scottish education authorities define catchment areas for each school and, until 1981, parents had to enrol their children at the school in their own area. In

that year, an amendment to the Education (Scotland) Act 1980 made it possible for them, under certain conditions, to choose another school. As, in practice, over-enrolment in schools has not been an issue, the Scottish education system can be most sensibly typified as a category 2 system where pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one. This freedom of parents to choose a school other than the one proposed by the public authorities adds some flexibility to the catchment area system. This is the case in Scotland. However, it should be noted that, as in all type 2 countries, parents may have their request for enrolment refused if their preferred school is threatened with overcrowding. Furthermore, in most of these countries, free school transport is not usually offered to pupils who do not enrol at the school closest to their home, or who choose a school other than the one they are allocated by their municipality. Thus, parents freedom to choose is constrained.

The extent of freedom of school choice can be threatened by the imposition of school fees by the private schools in the public sector (e.g. grant-aided public schools in countries that have these). There are two facets to this. First, the absence of any obligation to pay fees means there is no financial barrier to school choice and second, charging fees implies a selection mechanism controlling the school population. European countries have been categorised under three heads, in this respect. However, the Scottish education system falls outside this typology as there are essentially no grant-aided private sector schools(p104), and the private schools there are in Scotland are not part of the public education system.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in Scotland



3.4 SWEDEN

3.4.1 *Country profile*

Sweden (S) is part of Europe and has been a member of the European Union since 1995.

Sweden is a monarchy and the present King, Carl XVI Gustav, is the Head of State. The Head of State is the foremost representative of the Kingdom, but is also independent of the executive. The Head of State does not participate in Government meetings, but is kept informed on issues of national importance. In accordance with Sweden's representative and parliamentary democracy, the Riksdag enacts the laws and makes the decisions, which the Government and its agencies then implement. The Government and Riksdag have overall responsibility for education in Sweden.

Sweden is a representative democracy, which means all political parties receiving more than four percent of votes cast in the general election are allocated seats in the Riksdag. Only Swedish citizens are permitted to vote in parliamentary elections.

The Swedish state church was established by the Riksdag in Västerås in 1527. As a result the church ceased to be a branch of the international Catholic Church, becoming instead a Protestant church based on Lutheran principles. Not until 1951 was legislation enacted on religious freedom establishing the right of the individual to decide whether or not to belong to a Christian or some other religious denomination. The role of the Swedish church in society has since then changed in character: The majority of its members have either little or no connection with regular worship at church services. Earlier, all children born in Sweden automatically became members of the Swedish state church, but since 1995 the Swedish church has only received as members those who have been christened. As of 1st January year 2000, the Swedish church will no longer be a state church. As a consequence of immigration, both the Roman Catholic and different Orthodox churches have expanded greatly, and nowadays other non-Christian religions such as Islam and Buddhism are also practised in Sweden. One symptom of the privatisation of religion is the occurrence of many small local religious groups or "sects".

In Sweden, the official language is Swedish. In some parts of northern Sweden, Saami and Finnish are spoken. The main language of instruction is Swedish. Saami speaking children can choose between attending a grundskola or a sameskola (with tuition to school year six), where the teaching is in both Swedish and Sami. Finnish speaking pupils can choose to be taught in their mother tongue in both the grundskola and the gymnasieskola. Since 2000 Sweden recognises several official minority languages, next to the Saami and Finnish these are also Meankieli and Jiddish. The position of the minority languages is strengthened. Since the Second World War, increasing immigration to Sweden has led to the emergence of a number of minority groups with languages other than Swedish as their mother tongue. All children who speak a language other than Swedish at home are offered mother tongue tuition in school, if there are at least five pupils to attend the tuition.

Sweden has 8.9 million inhabitants. In 1997, approximately 66% of the population aged 29 and under were in education and there were 980 000 young people of compulsory education age.

3.4.2 *Characteristics of Swedish compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Since 1962, the duration of compulsory education has been fixed at nine years. Children may begin their schooling at 6 or 7 years of age and must attend for a compulsory period of nine years. In 1998, 6% of six-year-olds attended school. "Grundskola" is primary and lower secondary school with children age from 6/7-15/16. Admission is governed by parental choice, but over-subscribed schools give priority to students living closest. All schools are free of charge.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises at least 178 days between the end of August and early June. Schools open five days a week. The school decides the length of the school day (which must not exceed eight hours, or six hours in the first two years) and hours per week. National regulations specify the minimum number of taught hours of compulsory schooling as 6 665, which schools divide over the nine years.

Class size. There are no national regulations for class size, which is determined by the local authority and the school. In the first six years, students are mostly taught by the same teacher for all subjects except physical education, art, music and crafts. Thereafter there are separate teachers for each subject area.

Curriculum. A curricular framework, setting out goals and general principles, is determined at national level. On the basis of the curriculum, each local authority is required to set out the general objectives for its school in a school plan. In addition, every school has to devise a work plan, based on the curriculum and local priorities. Within this framework, teachers and institutions have freedom to determine teaching methods and select teaching materials. New curricula, introduced in 1995, and updated in 1998 to include also the pre-school class and the after-school centres, prescribe compulsory subjects, subject syllabuses and curricular aims. Swedish, English and mathematics occupy a prominent position in compulsory school. Students also study among other things practical arts subjects, social sciences, sciences and another foreign language.

Examinations and testing. Continuous assessment is practised throughout this phase of education. Diagnostic tests in reading, writing and arithmetic may take place at the end of the second and the seventh year (in the seventh year also in English). A system of national assessment has been introduced, which involves tests in Swedish, English and mathematics at the end of the fifth and ninth years (those in the ninth year are compulsory). A 'Grundskola' leaving certificate is awarded to students who successfully complete the final year. Students who do not achieve the goals of a certain subject do not receive a grade in that subject but a written assessment. After leaving school, they can complete their compulsory school certificate by examination or further studies in an individual programme in upper secondary school.

3.4.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

In 1995, all students attended publicly funded schools, 7% of which were private institutions. Independent compulsory and upper secondary schools should be open to everyone and receive grants from the local authorities (if the school has been approved) according to the same criteria as the municipality's own schools. About 4 percent of the students are in independent school in Sweden.

In 1991 a shift occurred in the distribution of responsibilities between central and local governments. Municipalities were given total responsibility for the management of compulsory education in the public sector. They also now had greater leeway as regards the selection of resources, the way work was to be organised, and the resources to be invested in education. Municipalities could delegate to schools, some or all of their decisions regarding the allocation of resources. However, in general, a considerable share of resources was still administered at the central level of the municipalities and allocated in the form of earmarked amounts. Goals were to rationalise public expenditure on education; to establish more efficient administration and political control; to make it possible to adapt better to local needs and conditions, and to be more efficient and cost-conscious and finally to increase the influence of civil interests on municipal activities.

Before 1991, government grants were tightly and automatically linked, on the one hand, to the organisation of education approved by the state school administrative bodies (county school boards that were abolished in 1991) and the distribution of pupils among schools and, on the other, to certain specific categories of expenditure and mainly that of teaching staff salaries. The grant is calculated on the basis of the number of weekly teaching hours.

The education systems in Europe can be described in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education. Grant-aided private education refers to schools administered by private entities with support from public funding which are distinct from those directly administered by public authorities. Based on the size and type of public and private education (1997/1998 data) the Swedish education system can be identified as a type 2 size of privately-run school sector, because less than 10% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools.

Next to this the Swedish education system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 3 type of country with identical financing of private schools and public schools (Eurydice, 200, p.105). The method of funding is identical irrespective of the sector concerned and the scale on which private schools are financed is equivalent to that of the public sector. Financing is undertaken by the local authority, and so grant-aided private schools are financed in exactly the same way as public-sector schools in Sweden. Financing is undertaken by the local authority, whether one of its own schools or a grant-aided private school is the recipient.

Governance of schools

The Ministry of Education and Science has overall responsibility for education but some responsibilities, especially regarding monitoring and evaluation of the system, have been delegated to government agencies. Local authorities are responsible for providing and operating schools within a national framework of curricula, objectives and guidelines. The National Agency for Education is responsible for monitoring development in Swedish schools. A system with state education inspectors, appointed one year at a time, has recently been introduced in order to supervise the quality of education and promote the development of local quality work.

Education goals and guidelines for public sector schooling are outlined by the parliament or 'Riksdagen' in both the education act and the national curricula. Goals, guidelines and curricula are compulsory for all schools, public as well as private.

In each municipality, a municipal council appoint a political body known as the school board. The board's mandate is to ensure that activities and plans are carried out at the school level, and it issues plans containing guidelines and goals for all schools in the municipality. Each school devises a local school plan that describes how the goals are to be achieved. It is the responsibility of the school board to ensure that, despite the decentralisation of the system, all schools maintain uniform standards. The municipality provides students with free transportation, text books, health care, and lunch throughout the education system (Robitaille, 1997, 366). Each municipality is free to decide how its schools are to be run. With a few exceptions, all schools are part of the state or municipal system. Schools are funded by the municipalities who receive support from the government for their different activities. The council of each municipality, together with the local school board, determines levels of funding and distributes funds to local schools. Registered private schools, comprising about 2 percent of students, receive reduced funding. Those schools must satisfy specific standards and provide a satisfactory curriculum (o.c. p.368).

As in almost all countries in Europe Sweden also includes consultative councils that include parents at school level (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.37). Generally speaking the education system of Sweden can be typified as a country with consultative type of power in which the school-level bodies with parent representatives are asked to give advice on topics concerning the teaching syllabus, the school budget, the school rules and the development planning and allocation of expenditure of the school. However, although most Swedish school councils have an advisory function, on an experimental basis some councils have been allowed decision-making powers. Furthermore, it has to be made clear that the powers of these school councils vary between municipalities and even between schools within the same municipalities (p.37).

Freedom of school choice

We identified four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries varying from no real choice to a total or complete free choice.

To this respect the Swedish education system can be typified as a category 2 system in which pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one. However, the extent to which parents are free to choose a school varies from one Swedish municipality to the next (p.289). In fact, the freedom of parents to choose a school other than the one proposed by the public authorities is an important factor that may make the catchment area system more flexible and this is the case in Sweden in some municipalities. However, the public authorities may intervene at a later stage after parents have indicated their preference. The aim of any such regulation is to correct imbalances when schools are in a situation in which they are unable to satisfy the demand for enrolment. Indeed, the right to choose a school freely does not mean that it will automatically have a place available. This is the situation in some municipalities in Sweden, usually in big towns or cities. In these municipalities parents may have their request for enrolment refused if their preferred school is threatened with for example overcrowding. Furthermore, free school transport is not offered to pupils who do not enrol at the school closest to their home, or who choose a school other than the one they are allocated by their municipality.

A further elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice seems relevant and this concerns the question of school fees in private education. Three types of European countries can be identified and the Swedish education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 1 type of privately-run school sector as there are no school fees for primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public funded sector.

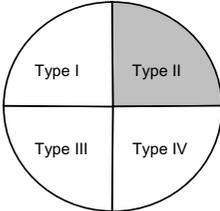
Overview of indicators of institutional context in Sweden

Sweden

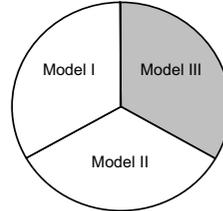
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education

Financing grand-aided private education



Type I = public sector only
 Type II = less than 10% private
 Type III = 10% - 30% private
 Type IV = over 30% private

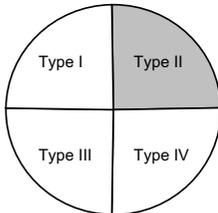


Model I = financing different from public sector
 Model II = financing similar to public sector
 Model III = financing identical to public sector

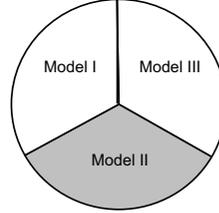
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities

Power of school



Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
 Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
 Type III = mix public/private-run schools
 Type IV = privately-run by school boards

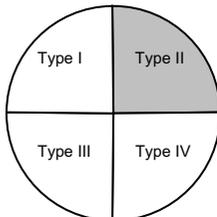


Model I = almost no power
 Model II = consultative power
 Model III = decision making power

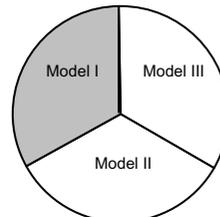
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation

School fees in grant-aided private education



Type I = central pupil allocation
 Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
 Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
 Type IV = free choice by parents



Model I = no fees
 Model II = low fees
 Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.5 PORTUGAL

3.5.1 *Country profile*

Portugal (P) is a member state of the European Union and located in the south-western part of Europe.

The principle of separation and interdependence of sovereign bodies is one of the characteristic traits of the constitutional State enshrined in the Portuguese Constitution of 1976. In accordance with the Portuguese Constitution of 1976, “the freedom of conscience, religion, and worship shall be inviolable” (...) “Churches and other religious communities shall be separate from the State, and shall be free to organise and exercise their own ceremonies and worship”.

The Ministry of Education is the government department responsible for planning national policies towards education and school sports. The administrative structure of the Ministry of Education comprises central and regional services and establishments at the various levels of education and schooling.

As a Ministry of Education central service, the Department of Basic Education, “Departamento da Educação Básica”, (“DEB”), is responsible for planning, (namely defining the national curriculum), supervising and co-ordinating pre-school education and compulsory education – “ensino básico”.

Some of the tasks of the Ministry of Education are carried out by decentralised services – Direções Regionais de Educação (DRE) -, which at regional level provide support for non-higher education establishments managing human, financial and material resources, providing school social support, and supervising school physical education and sports. In mainland Portugal there are five DRE which cover the same geographical areas as the regional co-ordination commissions.

In Portugal, the State is responsible for the democratisation of education, but it cannot arrogate to itself the right to plan education and culture in accordance with any philosophical, aesthetic, political, ideological or religious guidelines. Public education is not denominational and the right to establish private and co-operative schools is safeguarded – Constitution of the Portuguese Republic.

In 1997, the number of young people under 29 years of age accounted for 41% of the population (4 091 300) and 1 069 000 pupils were of compulsory school age. The language of instruction is Portuguese. The Portuguese society counts several ethnic minorities. The more substantial part of them are coming from African countries, such as Cape Verde, Angola and Mozambique.

3.5.2 *Characteristics of Portuguese compulsory education*

The description of the Portuguese educational system includes information on the following topics: range of compulsory education; school days and lessons; class size; curriculum and finally, examinations and testing (Source: Summary sheets on education systems in Europe, 2001).

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14.

There are three phases in compulsory basic education ('Ensino básico') in Portugal. The first stage from 6- 9 years of age, the second stage from 10-11 years of age and the third stage from 12-14 years of age.

Schools providing one or more of these three stages are called basic schools ("escolas básica"- EB). The more common arrangements are basic schools teaching only the first stage (EB1) and establishments having the second and third stage (EB2,3), the third stage being often also provided in secondary schools (pupils 15-17 years of age). Establishments including all stages of compulsory education (and sometimes also pre-school education) are now spreading in public Portuguese system.

Children aged six by 15 September must be enrolled in their first school year in that calendar year. In addition, children who reach the age of 6 between 16 September and 31 December may be authorised to attend the first stage of education, provided a request is submitted by their parents or guardians to the school nearest to their residence (or place of work) during the annual enrolment period. State-run schools are free of charge.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises 180 days, usually between mid-September and the end of June. Schools open five days a week and there are 25 hours in the first stage and between 30 and 32 in subsequent stages, depending on the level and course. Some schools operate a two-shift system. A lesson lasts approximately 50 minutes. The annual number of taught hours per year is 788 for children aged 6 and between 875 and 904 for those aged 10 or over. Even though the number of school hours remains the same, a more flexible curriculum is being implemented this school year (2001-2002). One of the changes introduced concerns 90 minutes lessons.

Class size. The maximum class size set at primary level is 25 to 30. The class size for the second and third stages varies between 20 and a maximum of 34, depending on the size of the classroom. Students are generally grouped by age, with exception of small first stage schools which include mixed-level groups. Students in the first stage are taught by the same teacher for all subjects. Thereafter, they are taught by separate teachers for each subject.

Curriculum. Ministry of Education determines the national core curriculum, defining guidelines (syllabuses) for each stage and subject. Schools have some freedom in make their own decisions in matters such as, cross-curriculum areas, optional subjects and remedial plans for pupils presenting learning problems. Teaching methods are outlined in the Ministry of Education guidelines and adapted at school level by a subject delegate, of whom there is one for each curricular area. The Ministry of Education is involved in the publication of compulsory course materials – syllabuses and sometimes support materials for the teachers – other textbooks are produced commercially. Each school or school department chooses among the textbooks available the ones considered more suitable for their pupils. Core subjects in the first stage include studies relating to the environment, Portuguese, mathematics, education for citizenship and religious education (which is optional, depending on parents' choice). In the second stage, there are seven disciplinary areas which include languages (Portuguese and one foreign language), social studies, science, artistic and technological education, physical education.

Core subjects in the third stage include Portuguese, two foreign languages (the one initiated in the second stage and a new one), social studies, science, history, geography, mathematics and physical education, as well as technological education, musical education and another artistic area decided by the school.

Besides these areas, the recent implementation of a more flexible curriculum in all stages of compulsory education introduces three cross-curriculum areas, whose content and methods are school's responsibility: education for citizenship, project development and study skills.

Examination and testing. Assessment is regulated nationally and uses formative and summative methods. Formative assessment is based on data collected by the teacher and is used to assess student needs and inform parents. In the first stage, summative assessment should not be carried out before the second year of schooling. Thereafter testing is carried out at the end of each term and stage. At the end of the third stage (last year of compulsory schooling), students must pass a test whose subjects comprise all third-stage curricular subjects (*provas escritas globais*). These tests are the responsibility of each school. Progression during the first stage and from the first to second stages is determined by teachers. During and between the second and third stages, progression is determined by student performance and decided by the class council; poor performance in more than three subjects (particularly if two of these are Portuguese and mathematics) may result in pupils repeating the year. At the end of the third stage, all those who have demonstrated satisfactory attendance and passed the examinations are awarded a basic education certificate (*Diploma de Ensino Básico*); those who have attended but failed the final assessment receive a certificate confirming that they have completed compulsory education. Only at the end of secondary education there are national tests that all pupils have to pass.

3.5.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

In 1997, approximately 82.4% of pupils attended publicly funded education, and 17.6% attended private institutions, which received 3.2% of their funding from the public sector. The State is the main contributor to the financing of education in Portugal (revenue from taxes and from national and foreign loans). The funds for education should be distributed according to the strategic development priorities of the education system. The Ministry of Education as principal financier in the area of education, by means of the allocation of funds, finances public education and central and regional services, and by means of budgetary transfers, finances private and co-operative education. Based on the concept of the decentralisation of central administrative powers, the municipalities (“*municípios*”) are partly responsible for educational finance and expenses. The regional administration of the *Regiões Autónomas* of the Azores and Madeira finance, out of their own resources and from State budgetary transfers, the educational services and establishments of the respective State-Secretariats for Education. It should be noted that, as far as other financial agents are concerned, the family is an important participant, contributing

directly to education with enrolment and tuition fees for both “ensino secundário” (secondary education) and higher education and with the purchase of textbooks and school material. These fees are, however, very low in public education (quite irrelevant in secondary education (about ten euros per year), and about sixty euros per year in higher education. As to the purchase of materials and textbooks these are also the responsibility of most parents during compulsory education.

Ensino básico, as part of compulsory public education, is free of charge. This means that no entrance fees, enrolment taxes or payments are due. This also covers school attendance, report cards, school insurance and complementary support in the fields of educational guidance and psychology, as well as school health and school social action. Moreover it covers educational expenses for the pupils coming from low income families, namely meals, textbooks and materials. This support continues in secondary education.

The education systems in Europe vary in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education and the size and type of both has been summarised into four types. Because less than 10% of the Portuguese students attend grant aided Portuguese schools, the Portuguese system can be identified as type 2 size of privately-run sector.

Furthermore, based on the three main models we have used for the description of the way grant-aided private schools are financed we describe the Portuguese education system of financing grant-aided private schools as a model 2 type of country (Eurydice, 2000, vol.2, p.104) in which financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. However, this concerns a general classification of the Portuguese education system. The next section gives insight into the way this financing regards three different types of Portuguese schools.

This general classifications concerns schools with a partnership contract. In this type of schools teachers are paid in the same way as in public-sector schools and grants for operational expenditure are similarly awarded. Although, in the Portuguese schools with a partnership contract the scale for funding for staff and operations is the same as in their public counterparts, the capital resources receive less support. Partnership contracts involve private schools providing second and third stages in places where there are no public schools providing them. In these schools pupils situation is similar to public system (no fees, etc.), but this kind of contract, on a one year basis, comes to an end whenever a public school opens in the area. In 1997 these schools received about 6% of the pupils in these stages of compulsory education, the number of pupils enrolled have increased 5,5% in 1999.

Less funded, but near model 2, are other types of grant-aided schools, one of these grants – sponsorship contract – involves schools with innovative curriculum plans or curriculum provisions that very few public schools offer, for example art schools. The grant covers at least 50% of staff and operational expenses. The fees charged are low and have to be approved by the Ministry of Education. These schools teaching also the national curriculum for second and third stages covered about 1% of the pupils enrolled in these stages, their number has increased also about 5% between 1997 and 1999.

The other of these grants – co-operation contract – is meant for special education schools that receive only pupils with severe special educational needs. The number of schools and pupils covered by this grant is, naturally, small and decreasing due to the implementation of inclusion policies.

A last way in which private schools are publicly funded, in Portugal, should be particularly stressed. This concerns the partial or total payment by the public authorities on behalf of some of the pupils, of the fees charged by non-subsidised private schools. This individual contract though not a very common arrangement in other European countries, in Portugal has become increasingly widespread in all stages of the educational system: pre-school education, compulsory education and secondary education. The higher rate of these kind of contracts is in pre-school education. This is the consequence of a policy for the development of the “beginning stage of basic education” whose aim is the enrolment of all children from 3 to 5 years of age. In the school year 1995-96, 8% of all the pupils enrolled (in public and private pre-school education establishments) received this kind of grant, in 1998-99 the rate was 9,3%. Concerning basic compulsory education the rate of pupils funded during the period of time mentioned remains the same – 3% - even although the number of pupils has increased 10%. The same trend can be observed in secondary schools where the funding rate still is 1%, although 18% more of pupils were funded during this time. The stability of rates, in spite of the larger number of pupils receiving this kind of grant, is due to the global decrease of the school population in Portugal, specially in the last two stages of compulsory education and secondary education, which is the consequence of low birth-rates.

Governance of schools

Portuguese education policy in general is determined by the Ministry of Education. A ministerial department plans and co-ordinates management and administration for each level of education, namely teachers' allocation and schools' budgets. Five regional bodies (on the mainland) implement ministerial policies and provide guidelines, co-ordination and support to all non-higher education establishments. In co-operation with the directorate general for higher education, they also co-ordinate and implement measures on admission to higher education.

Recently, more autonomy has been devolved to management bodies in each school or group of schools. In the autonomous regions of Madeira and the Azores, education administration is the responsibility of regional governments through secretariats of education. Inspection is the responsibility of the General Inspectorate of Education, which has regional delegations supervising all aspects of education.

The State maintains and administers most schools. Local authorities are responsible for constructing primary school buildings (providing first stage). Some private schools already existed before 1980, when the statute governing private schools and subsidy contracts was established. In 1971, a second stage of ensino básico (basic education) was introduced. It was to be provided using audio-visual distance learning techniques to enable relatively small numbers of pupils in geographically remote areas to receive schooling. A new statutory basis for the

autonomy, administration and management of pre-school, ensino básico and secondary education establishments was approved in 1998, to be gradually implemented until the end of the 1999/2000.

The transition to the new autonomy, administration and management model may be ensured by the members of the school board or executive directors holding office when the new legislation comes into force, or by an Establishing Committee elected for the purpose. During this process different nearby schools providing one or more stages of compulsory education were encouraged to join, becoming a sole organisation with common management and administration bodies. This form of school organisation is called a “school group” (“agrupamento de escolas”).

The new statutory basis for the autonomy, administration and management of schools defines the following four administration and management bodies: (a) Assembleia de Escola: this is a body responsible for defining the guidelines of school activities and it is the educational community’s participation and representation body, (b) Direção executiva: this is a collegiate or single-member body that is represented by an executive board or a director and entrusted with functions of direção executiva, as decided by the school or school group (“agrupamento de escolas”), which are laid down in the respective internal regulations, (c) Pedagogic council: the school’s co-ordination and educational guidance body in pedagogical and didactic areas and finally (d) Administrative council – decision-making body in administrative and financial matters.

Likewise many European countries, there are also consultative councils that include parents at school level in the Portuguese education system. The education system of Portugal includes school councils that show a tendency towards decision-making powers. The school-level bodies exercise consultative powers in the case of two areas (the curriculum and control of expenditure) and are in a decision-making capacity for the other three areas (school development plan, school rules and budget allocation). However, in general the Portuguese education system is highly centralised and is administered by the central Departments of the Ministry of Education.

Freedom of school choice

The State acknowledges the freedom to learn and teach, including the parents’ right to choose and guide their children’s education. Additionally, the Education System Act sets forth that “the establishments of private and co-operative education which fall under the general principles, aims, structures and objectives of the education system are deemed to be an integral part of the school network”. The statute of the private and co-operative non-higher education was established in 1980 by decree-law. According to this decree-law exercise of the freedom to teach may be limited only by the requirements of the common good, the general goals of educational activities, and agreements concluded between the State and private education establishments.

The education system is a set of means permitting to put into practise the right to education and guaranteeing that there are equal opportunities of access to and

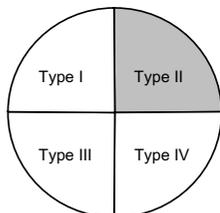
success at school. It covers all Portuguese territory – mainland Portugal and Regiões Autónomas, and, in a flexible and diversified way, the needs of the Portuguese communities living abroad. It is ensured that pupils and teachers may freely switch between public and private and co-operative systems. According to the above mentioned decree-law, the establishments of private and co-operative education are institutions created by individual or corporate bodies providing collective teaching or where activities of an educational nature are regularly carried out. Each private school may provide one or several teaching levels, each of them constituting a complete study cycle. Each private school may draw up its own school policy (“projecto educativo”), as long as it provides, at each level of teaching, an all-round education equivalent in value to that provided at the corresponding level in public educational establishments. As regards their *projecto educativo*, private schools may operate with pedagogical autonomy.

As stated before, we take into account four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries. The Portuguese education system can be typified as a category 2 system because on the one hand, each catchment area has more than one school (with exception for rural areas) and, on the other hand parents (father or mother) can choose the school nearest their workplace. Even if, in Portugal, the public authorities are involved in decisions regarding the schools attended by pupils, attributing catchment areas to each school the possible exceptions to these fairly firm criteria may make the Portuguese system more flexible. The regulations of Portuguese schools with their own courses and plans must include rules on the enrolment and admission of pupils, the minimum age to attend courses, norms on the regular attendance of pupils, and criteria for the evaluation of knowledge acquired.

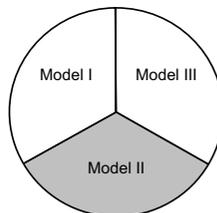
A further elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice seems relevant especially in the case of Portugal and this concerns the question of school fees in private (grant-aided) education. Three types of European countries have been identified, however, the Portuguese education system can not so easily be described within these types and another type had to be constructed for Portuguese education system. The next section explains why this is the case. First of all, in Portuguese schools with partnership contracts parents pay no fees at all and in the ones with sponsorship contracts the contribution of parents is low. However, the funding of these schools is merely granted because there are no state schools in the neighbourhood. Furthermore, the contract stops whenever a public school opens in the neighbourhood. The low or no fees in these schools would lead us to opt for the type 1 description of the Portuguese system. However, these schools are grant-aided only because they are replacing the State in its duty of providing education for all in a certain neighbourhood and they are not really meant to allow free private choice. Furthermore, as stated before, partnership contracts come to an end whenever a state school opens in the neighbourhood and if this happens parents are supposed to pay for the private originally grant-aided school or put their children in newly-open state school. Thus, the situation is therefore quite different from other countries where these grants are supposed to allow parents to choose, for instance, confessional private schools. Therefore we choose to typify Portugal constructing an additional type of country (type 4).

Only individual contracts, where authorities pay on behalf of some pupils the fees that are charged by non-subsidised private schools, allow a really free choice. The amount of the charged fees supported by the state depends on the family income and four levels are established that range from the total payment of fees to only a part of it.

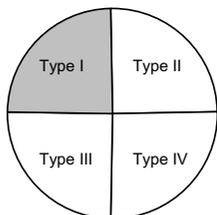
This policy follows the same principle guiding general support to public education (school meals, school transport and accommodation schemes) also based on criteria that benefit the more needy pupils. Textbooks and other school material, together with direct financial assistance, are provided exclusively to the pupils with the lowest social and economic means. Access to this support is either free of charge or subject to a contribution, depending on the pupils' social and economic situation. The level of contribution is established on a yearly basis. For the pupils attending the 1st cycle of *ensino básico*, nutritional aid is provided in the form of free milk. The law also provides for free or subsidised meals in basic schools. For pupils attending "*ensino básico*" who live in areas that have neither schools within walking distance nor public transport available, an appropriate school transport scheme will be drawn up which will be free of charge and will be organised and supervised by the pupils' municipality ("*município*"). The expenses resulting from the implementation of these support schemes in private and co-operative education may be borne by the State.

*Overview of indicators of institutional context in Portugal***Portugal****Education Funding Policy***Size of grant-aided private education*

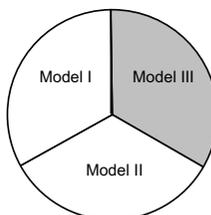
- Type I = public sector only
 Type II = less than 10% private
 Type III = 10% - 30% private
 Type IV = over 30% private

Financing grand-aided private education

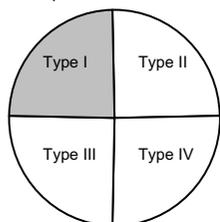
- Model I = financing different from public sector
 Model II = financing similar to public sector
 Model III = financing identical to public sector

Governance of schools*Type of governance authorities*

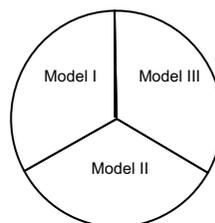
- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
 Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
 Type III = mix public/private-run schools
 Type IV = privately-run by school boards

Power of school

- Model I = almost no power
 Model II = consultative power
 Model III = decision making power

Freedom of school choice*Pupil allocation*

- Type I = central pupil allocation
 Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
 Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
 Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education

- Model I = no fees
 Model II = low fees
 Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.6 THE NETHERLANDS

3.6.1 *Country profile*

The Netherlands (NL) is part of Europe and a member state of the European Union. The Netherlands is a constitutional monarchy governed by a democratically elected parliament through a multiparty system. The Dutch Constitution guarantees freedom of religion. In the Netherlands, Church and State are separate and there is no state religion. Among those members of the population aged 18 or over, Roman Catholics form the largest single group of worshippers (32% in 1997), followed by the members of the Dutch Reformed Church (15%) and the Reformed Church (7%). 8% of the Dutch population belong to other religious or ideological groups and 39% practice no religion (Eurybase, 2001).

The Netherlands has a population of 15.76 million people (January 1999). Dutch society is becoming multi-ethnic to an increasing extent through an influx of people originating from Mediterranean countries, immigrants from former Dutch territories overseas as well as political refugees. Ethnic minorities form almost 12% of the total population (over 1.8 million). Almost 60% of them are from Turkey, Morocco, Suriname, the Netherlands Antilles, Aruba, Indonesia or the former Dutch East Indies (Eurybase, 2001). Primary education counts almost 15% ethnic minorities ('cumi') the biggest part are from Turkish (54%), Moroccan (47%) and Surinam (36%) in 1999 (MOC&W, 2000). There were 2 500 000 young people in primary and secondary education altogether (Eurydice, 2001).

The language of instruction is Dutch, except in the province of Friesland, where both Dutch and Frisian can be used. Frisian has an official status in the province of Friesland. The schools in Friesland teach both Dutch and Frisian, unless they have been exempted from teaching Frisian by the provincial executive at the school's request. Although other dialects may be used alongside Dutch, this seldom occurs.

3.6.2 *Characteristics of Dutch compulsory education*

Compulsory education. In The Netherlands full-time education is compulsory from the ages of 5 to 16. From the age of 16, students must receive at least part-time education until the age of 18. Primary education ('primair onderwijs') lasts from 5-12 year and it includes primary schools ('basisscholen') and special schools for primary education ('speciale scholen voor basisonderwijs'). Three types of secondary schools ('voortgezet onderwijs') can be distinguished and these are named after the final qualification they award. The first type is 'Voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs' (vwo) this qualifies as pre-university education. The second type is 'Hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs' (HAVO) this is senior general secondary education. The third type is called 'Voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs' (VMBO) and this qualifies as pre-vocational secondary education. Furthermore, in secondary education there is also special secondary education available ('Speciaal voortgezet onderwijs'). Children must be aged at least 4 to enter primary school. Access to each of the three types of secondary school is based on student performance at primary level. Compulsory education up to the age

of 16 is free of charge, although in secondary schools the parents bear the costs of school books.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises at least 200 days between August and June. Schools open five days a week but Wednesday afternoon is generally free in primary education. Pupils receive an average of 22 hours' teaching a week during the first two years of schooling, and an average of 25 hours a week in the following six years of primary education. During the first three years of secondary education, the recommended number of periods is intended to serve as a guideline within which it is possible to achieve the attainment targets. Teaching periods last 50 minutes and the attainment targets can be achieved in 75% of the time recommended for each subject. The minimum number of hours (60 min.) taught a year is 880 (children aged 7), 1,000 (age 10) and 1 067 at lower secondary level.

Class size. There used to be no recommendations concerning class size. However, in primary education there is a class-size reduction policy in the first four years of primary education. Students are grouped by age in mixed ability classes. Primary classes have one teacher for all subjects; secondary students have separate subject teachers.

Curriculum. The Ministry of Education determines the overall curriculum and details of compulsory subjects. Schools devise their curricular plan and teaching methods and select materials. Compulsory areas of learning at primary level include sensory co-ordination and physical exercise, Dutch, mathematics, English, humanities and sciences, expressive activities, social and life skills and health education. The common core curriculum for the first three years of all secondary education comprises the core primary subjects and a second modern language, information technology (IT), economics, technology and arts.

Examinations and testing. Continuous teacher assessment takes place throughout primary and secondary education. At the end of primary school, a student's report records his/her achievement and advises on secondary school choice. Many schools use national tests designed to help guide secondary school choice. Progression depends on student achievement and students may be required to repeat a year. Secondary students who fail a year twice must transfer to a less demanding type of education. Students must pass school and public examinations set for each secondary school type to obtain the corresponding school-leaving certificate.

3.6.3 *Public and private education: key characteristics*

Educational funding policy

Since 1917, the same principles have been applied to the funding of all schools, whether public or private. Up to 1993, schools received a grant, the amount of which was based on their situation in previous years, but the State only reimbursed actual expenditure. Municipalities or authorities responsible for private education paid teachers and were fully reimbursed by the State. Municipalities could also fund additional positions with their own funds, on condition that they treated both public and private schools in the same way. Municipalities paid the operating costs of

private and public primary schools and received a grant from the State through the Municipal Fund, in accordance with the number of pupils and classes. Secondary schools received a standard grant based on state school costs for each child and class. Municipalities paid capital expenditure for which they received a standard grant based on the number of classes, type of building and year of construction.

Grant-aided private education refers to schools administered by private entities with support from public funding which are distinct from those directly administered by public authorities. The Dutch education system can be typified as a type 4 category of grant-aided private school sector (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.6). Next to the public schools by and large 65% of the Dutch schools in primary and secondary education are in fact privately-run but completely funded by the State.

In respect to the main models used for funding of these grant-aided private schools the Dutch education system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 3 type of country which identifies schools with identical financing for grant-aided private schools and schools in the public sector (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104).

Governance of schools

A distinctive feature of the Dutch education system is that it is based on a constitutional principle of freedom of education, including to found schools based on ideological or religious principles (Kuiper & Knover in: Robitaille, 1997, p.259). As a result there is a wide variety of schools in the Netherlands with two main categories of publicly-run (25%) and privately-run (65%) schools. In the Netherlands, schools are run to a very large extent by private entities, school boards of the associations or foundations that established them. Public-sector education is the responsibility of the municipalities or, more specifically, a special college of local representatives or associations of municipalities (Dijkstra, Dronkers & Hofman, 1997). The expression 'bevoegd gezag' is used to refer to the authority responsible for a school, whether a public or private entity. The duties of the 'bevoegd gezag' are almost exactly the same in the public and grant-aided private sectors, while the methods of awarding and administering resources in both are identical. The information given here about the Netherlands will thus relate systematically to all schools, irrespective of the entity responsible for them. Among the privately-run the catholic and protestant schools are the main categories. The municipal authorities have a dual role as the local authority for all schools in their area (whether publicly or privately run), and as the competent authority for public-sector schools. The state finances both the public and the private sectors equally, as enacted by the law in 1917.

The Dutch constitution lays specific demands on the educational administration of public and private education. Private schools are governed by local autonomous school boards (a foundation or an association), while the public counter-parts are governed by local authorities (or an appointed institution). The effect of this is that public education depends on the policy of the local government, while private education can function more autonomously. However, the distinction between

public and private Dutch school boards reveals an administrative context that resembles that of other countries. Private schools (mostly protestant, catholic and neutral schools) have school boards consisting of individual members (mainly parents) as op-posed to public schools, which are man-aged by members of the local government. School board members in private education are lay persons, very often solely parents with children attending the school they govern and they serve as representatives for all the parents. They are volunteers and normally do not get paid. Public schools are governed by local authorities and we should note that their employees normally do not have children in the schools they govern and they paid by and elected from the local district authorities.

However, in practice many of the powers of the publicly-run as well as privately-run Dutch schools are delegated to the school's internal organisation and management, especially the director of the school. The position of the 'bevoegd gezag' in the Netherlands under the heading of 'governing board appointed by the public authorities' calls for more detailed explanation (see Eurydice, Vol. 2, p.10). Besides being the authority responsible for a school in law, the 'bevoegd gezag' is formally assigned the task of running it directly. Nevertheless, the school management is nearly always authorised to fulfil this task. In public sector schools, the role of 'bevoegd gezag' is assumed by the municipalities (in cases were they do not delegate their tasks to another kind of public-law body). In other countries in which schools are both under the authority of and run directly by the municipalities, the latter are not regarded as operating at school level, but as intermediate authorities, so that it might seem logical to reconsider the position of the 'bevoegd gezag' in the public sector. However, various characteristics peculiar to the Netherlands- including the large number of schools administered by private law entities and the fact that the mechanisms for the management of resources are identical in both sectors – suggest that the municipalities responsible for public-sector schools should be regarded as acting at school level, in the same way as the corresponding authorities for private schools, which are private-law administrative bodies comprising denominational associations – or, more commonly – foundations. It should further be borne in mind that, in the Netherlands, the municipalities also assume the role of an intermediate authority in the funding of certain resources for both public-sector and grant-aided private schools.

The Dutch education system combines a centralised education policy with the decentralised administration and management of schools. Central government controls education by means of legislation and regulations, with due regard for the provisions of the Constitution. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science exercises overall responsibility and oversees the structure and funding of the system, inspection, examinations and student support (Kuiper & Knuver in: Robitaille, 1997, p.260). Next to this financially egalitarian policy towards both sectors, the government has an identical policy concerning these schools. In fact, all Dutch schools, public and private, are subjected to national govern-mental control of equal examinations, salary, school buildings, capital investment and so forth (Hofman & Hofman, 2001). The central government has strengthened the control on the actual content of education by introducing of a national curriculum in 1993. Dutch

government expenditures on education depend on the number of pupils and students, thus it is adjusted according to changes in enrolments every year.

The nature and the scope of the councils in which parents are involved at school level in the Netherlands are authorised with a consultative kind of power. In the Netherlands the participating council is entitled to ratify the decisions taken by the 'bevoegd gezag' (authorities) in the field of internal rules, the school development plan and the setting of the curriculum and the educational aims. The 'bevoegd gezag' consults the participating council concerning the decisions to be taken, inter alia, as regards the budget (Key data on education in Europe, 1999/2000, p.37).

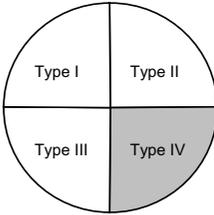
The Dutch education system recognises religious socialisation within the public funded part of the education system. However, Dutch schools in general do not set rigorous rules of religious affiliation for admission, except within the orthodox minorities. Dutch denominational schools provide religious lessons on a weekly basis. In primary education these lessons are strongly related to the private denominational tradition. This relationship diminishes in secondary education. Although the religious affiliation holds for all the Orthodox Protestant denominations. In the Netherlands it is common for public primary schools to also provide religious or humanistic lessons on a regular weekly basis. However, these lessons are optional for their pupils (Vreeburg, 1993).

Freedom of school choice

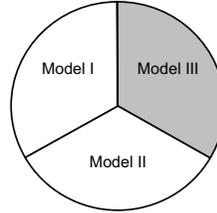
One of the Dutch system's basic principles is freedom of education, by which is meant the freedom to establish a school and organise the education provided in it. As a consequence of this constitutional principle, schools differ in ideological and denominational terms. Education is the hard core of a Dutch phenomenon known as 'verzuiling' that separates society into four social and political blocs (protestants, Catholics, socialists and liberals), and affects different sectors of social life. These four groups have struggled to achieve equal access to education in what has been called the 'school war'. Protestants and Catholics argued that they paid for education twice over: first, in the fees charged by private schools, and then in taxes used to fund state schools. In 1917, the four blocs reached an agreement, known as the 'Pacification', guaranteeing that private schools would be funded in the same way as state schools, as long as they met certain legal conditions. Since then, the number of private schools has increased considerably.

Four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries have been identified and the freedom of school choice is highest when the public authorities do not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools. The Dutch education system can be typified as a system with the highest degree of freedom of school choice in which parents choose a school freely, with no action by the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers. Note that schools administered by some municipalities have their own catchment areas. However, as they are in a minority, such arrangements cannot be regarded as representative of the Dutch education system.

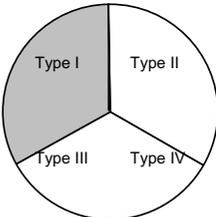
Although elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice seems relevant from the point of view of school fees, this is not the case for the Netherlands. The Dutch education system identifies as a number 1 type of private school sector as there are no school fees for primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public sector.

*Overview of indicators of institutional context in the Netherlands***Netherlands****Education Funding Policy***Size of grant-aided private education*

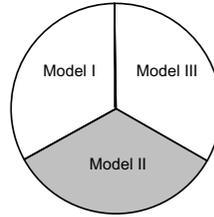
Type I = public sector only
 Type II = less than 10% private
 Type III = 10% - 30% private
 Type IV = over 30% private

Financing grand-aided private education

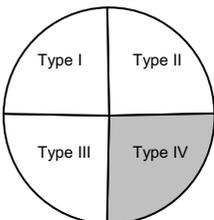
Model I = financing different from public sector
 Model II = financing similar to public sector
 Model III = financing identical to public sector

Governance of schools*Type of governance authorities*

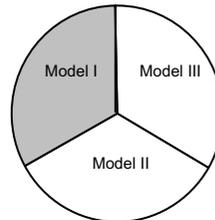
Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
 Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
 Type III = mix public/privately-run schools
 Type IV = privately-run by school boards

Power of school

Model I = almost no power
 Model II = consultative power
 Model III = decision making power

Freedom of school choice*Pupil allocation*

Type I = central pupil allocation
 Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
 Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
 Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education

Model I = no fees
 Model II = low fees
 Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.7 IRELAND

3.7.1 *Country profile*

Ireland (IRL) is a member state of the European Union. The education system of Southern Ireland is highly centralised and administered by the department of education and Science (the education ministry). The Irish education system takes the form of partnership between the State and various private entities and the State gives explicit recognition to the denominational character of schools. The Education Act, 1998, “respects the diversity of values, beliefs, languages and traditions in Irish society and is conducted in a spirit of partnership between schools, patrons, students, parents, teachers and other school staff, the community served by the school, and the State”. Under the Irish Constitution (Bunreacht na h-Eireann) the State acknowledges that the primary and natural educator of the child is the Family and guarantees to parents the freedom to decide where that education should take place. The State shall provide free primary education, supplement and give reasonable aid to private and corporate educational initiatives and if necessary provide other educational facilities and institutions. Legislation providing State aid for schools shall not discriminate between schools under the management of different religious denominations.

Concerning religion: while the Irish Free State as established in 1922 was formally non-sectarian in character the reality was that 93% of the people were Catholics. Under the Irish Constitution freedom of conscience and freedom to profess and practise religion is guaranteed, subject to public order and morality. The majority of Irish people belong to Christian denominations. According to the 1991 census 91.5% of the population was Roman Catholic, 2.86% was Protestant (2.3% Church of Ireland, 0.40% Presbyterian, 0.16% Methodist) and 0.06% was Jewish. In 1998, almost half (48%) of Ireland’s population was aged under 30, and there were 602 000 young people aged 6-15 (Eurydice, 2001).

The language of instruction depends in Ireland on whether the school lies in an Irish (Gaeltacht) or English-speaking district. Where there is sufficient parental demand, special provision is made for Irish language schools in English speaking districts. The 1996 census showed the population was 3,626,087 (Eurybase, 2001). Irish society counts no major ethnic minorities.

3.7.2 *Characteristics of Irish compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 15. Children must be aged 4 or over for schools to accept them, although compulsory education does not start until they are aged 6. When pupils complete primary education (at the age of 12), they are admitted to the ‘junior cycle’ of secondary level schooling. The terminology ‘lower secondary’ and ‘upper secondary’ is not used in Ireland. The first three years of secondary education are now called broadly ‘junior cycle’ and ‘senior cycle’. Junior Cycle consists of pupils from age 12+ to age 15+ who follow a course of three years’ duration for the Junior Certificate Examination.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises 183 days (September to the end of June) for primary pupils, and 179 days (September to the end of May) for lower secondary pupils. Schools are open five days a week. The minimum annual lesson time at primary level is 915 hours. There is no fixed number of lessons, which must be taught. Lessons generally last 30 minutes and schools follow general guidelines in regard to the amount of time per week allocated to each aspect of the curriculum. At secondary level, class periods last between 35-45 minutes, and there may be 35-42 classes in a week.

Class size. The maximum class size is 30. Primary pupils are generally grouped by age, although there are some mixed-age groups in smaller schools. Primary classes have one teacher for all subjects; secondary pupils have separate subject teachers.

Curriculum. The primary curriculum should include Religion, Irish, English, Mathematics, Social, Environmental and Scientific Education, Arts Education, Physical Education and Social, Personal and Health Education. The primary curriculum is child-centred (rather than subject-centred) and allows for flexibility in teaching methods. The curriculum in all four types of secondary-level schools, leading to the 'Junior Certificate' is similar, balancing academic and vocational subjects. Core subjects are Irish, English, History, Geography, Mathematics and Civic Social and Political Education.

Examinations and testing. There is no formal examination at the end of primary education. The 'Junior Certificate' examination is taken at the end of the compulsory stage at the age of 15. Continuous assessment is the responsibility of teachers who use their own or standardised tests. Formal tests are generally taken at the end of each year at primary level and more frequently in the junior cycle of secondary education. Progression is automatic and only in exceptional cases do pupils repeat a year.

3.7.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

It should be noted that in (Southern) Ireland, the education system is characterised by a partnership between the State and various private interests. The role of the former is to ensure that these concerns have the capacity and means to provide education, and to help them in terms of actually setting up schools in regions where they are needed. The very great majority of schools in Ireland are the responsibility of private interests, and grant-aided private education there is regarded as virtually the same as public-sector education.

In Ireland the privately-run sector has a significant bearing on educational provision, the methods used to award and manage resources for the schools concerned will receive the same emphasis here as in the case of their public-sector counterparts (Eurydice, Vol 2, p.6). The Department of Education and Science allocates primary school teachers on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled and pays their salaries directly from a central fund. Until January 1999, the 'patron' of a primary school (a private body that is often religious and is responsible for the school) had to provide

the site and contribute to investment costs (at the rate of 15%). Resources to cover staff salaries and operational costs are determined on the basis of the number of pupils in all schools. In response to local demand, primary schools may be established in which pupils are educated through the medium of Irish and 100% capital grants are available for these schools. Most of these 'Gaeltacht schools' are entitled to an ex-quota teacher and all receive an additional 50% of the normal capitation grant. Each teacher receives a special annual allowance for teaching through Irish. In practice these Gaeltacht schools function as denominational schools having the Catholic bishops as patrons. In recent years a small number of multi-denominational schools have been established in response to local parental demand, and these are funded on the same terms as denominational schools.

As we made clear in the introduction to these country reports it is possible to describe the education systems in Europe in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.6). Public and private education will be described in four types, ranging from countries with public sector only, to countries with over 30% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools. Using this definition the Irish education system (Southern) can be identified as a type 4 education system. According to recent information a case is made for regarding around 60% of the secondary sector as grant-aided private and around 40% of the secondary sector as "public" in the sense of our definition. Specifically, in a personal communication Smyth (2001) states that "In relation to the query about 'private' schools, all voluntary secondary schools can be regarded as privately managed but publicly subsidised but the other school sectors (vocational, community/comprehensive) cannot be regarded as private in this sense. For 2001, the breakdown of second-level schools was as follows: 57% voluntary secondary, 32% vocational, 10% community / comprehensive". Furthermore, "fee-paying" schools are all voluntary secondary schools and the survey data for 1994 indicated that 9% of all second-level schools, and 16% of voluntary secondary schools, were fee-paying to varying degrees while in receipt of public funds (Smyth, 2001).

Using the three main models for funding of these grant-aided private schools we distinguished in accordance with their degree of similarity to the financing of the public sector, the Irish education system can be described as a model 3 type of country. This is the case because the financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. Furthermore, in Ireland, Protestant religious authorities receive an allocation to cover grants to the most deprived children so that they can attend Protestant schools which charge fees.

Governance of schools

Irish schools are administered by private bodies throughout virtually the whole of primary education and, to a large extent, in secondary education too (Eurydice, Vol. 2, p.6). In principle, these schools belong to what conveniently could be termed 'grant-aided' private education, which refers to schools administered by private boards with support from public funding which are distinct from those directly

administered by public authorities. However, they account for by far the greater share of educational provision and, they are largely financed by the State. The schools remain in private ownership, largely owned by religious communities and are locally managed, largely by representatives' boards of management. The majority of these schools are now run by a 'board of management' which includes representatives of the founding body, but also teaching staff and parent representatives. Two parents or guardians of children enrolled in the schools (who must be a man and a woman) are elected by the rest of the parents. In fact the majority of Irish compulsory education is served in these types of schools.

A comparison of countries based on the nature and the extent to which school councils exercise specific types of powers shows considerable differences within the European countries. The powers of school-level bodies which include parent representatives in the education system of Ireland exercise a consultative functioning regarding "drafting of the school development plan" and almost no power concerning the other four areas. Consequently, Ireland has been typified as a model 1 country with, in general, no power of school-level bodies. (o.c. p37).

Freedom of school choice

In Ireland the vast majority of primary schools are in effect state-aided parish schools having been established under diocesan patronage. Irish education recognises religious socialisation within the public funded education system. Furthermore, due to local parental demand a small number of multi-denominational schools have been established.

Regarding freedom of school choice the freedom of school choice is ranked highest (category 4) when the government does not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools. The Irish education system can be typified as a category 3 system where parents have considerable freedom to choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is over-stretched. However, in Ireland, this freedom is compromised by geographical considerations. Long distances, in particular for getting to secondary schools, together with the fact that transport services are organised on the basis of catchment areas, limit the options of some parents.

Further compromising of the extent of freedom of school choice is visible in the charging of school fees in grant-aided private education. The Irish education system can generally speaking be identified as a type 1 country in which the privately-run school sector does not charge school fees for primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public funded sector. However, a government database which relates to secondary schools which are boarding (residential) schools shows that the boarding fees vary considerably from one school to the other. A few of these schools are charging around 10,000 Euros or more per year for boarding students, schools at the other end of the scale charge less than 2,000 Euros. Most of these schools also have non-residential pupils and they also have to pay fees ranging from less than 2,000 to 4,000 Euros. Some 58 secondary schools, including non-residential schools, are recognised by the state as

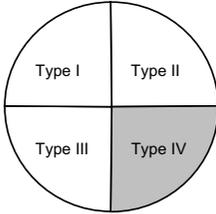
partially fee-paying while also state-funded. The crucial matter, however, is that the state pays the bill for the statutory teachers' salaries in all these schools and this is by far the largest budget item for any such school. As indicated these boarding/residential schools and other fee-paying non-residential schools are only a minority of the secondary ("private") schools, although they are "key schools" in terms of recognition by the great and the good in Irish society, as highly desirable places for their own children. Their students are disproportionately successful in securing competitive entry into Irish universities. Government is, reportedly, looking into this matter (O'Connor and Walshe, 2003).

Overview of indicators of institutional context of Ireland

Ireland

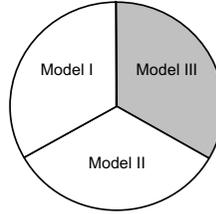
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

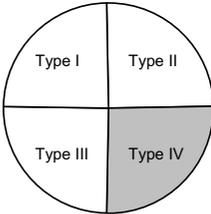
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

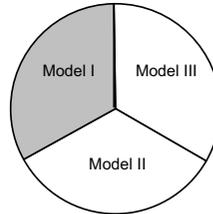
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

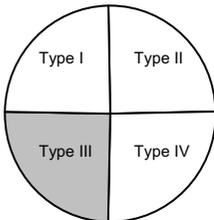
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

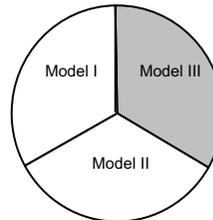
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially for a minority of secondary schools

3.8 GERMANY

3.8.1 *Country profile*

Germany (D) is part of Europe and a member state of the European Union. The Federal President (Bundespräsident) is the head of state of the Federal Republic of Germany and is elected by the Federal Convention (Bundesversammlung) for a period of five years. The Federal Convention is a constitutional body which meets only to elect the Federal President. It is made up of members of the Bundestag as well as the same number of delegates elected by the parliaments of the Länder. A major characteristic of the federal state is that both the Federation and its constituent states, known as Länder, have the status of a state. One core element of this status is, according to the constitutional order laid down in the Basic Law, the so-called cultural sovereignty (Kulturhoheit), i.e. the predominant responsibility of the Länder for education, science and culture. On the other hand, the constituent states of the federal state bear joint responsibility for the entire state. This overall responsibility both entitles and obliges them to co-operate with one another and to work together with the Federation. Since 1990, the Federal Republic of Germany has thus been made up of 16 Länder. Each Land has its own constitution –according with the principles of a republican, democratic and social state governed by the rule of law within the meaning of the Basic Law.

There is no state church in the Federal Republic of Germany; the Basic Law guarantees individual religious freedom and tolerance. The relationship between church and state has been adopted from the 1919 Weimar constitution and is characterised by the principle of the separation of church and state. In 1997, the Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches in Germany each had 27.4 million members (33.4% of the population). The Free churches and the Greek Orthodox Church as well as the Jewish communities are also represented among others. The large number of foreign workers and their families who have made their home in the Federal Republic account for some 2.6 million Muslims, the largest group of which are of Turkish nationality. According to the Basic Law, religious instruction is part of the curriculum in public-sector schools, except non-denominational schools. The Basic Law stipulates that parents have the right to decide whether children receive religious instruction. In most of the Länder, pupils who do not participate in religious education are instead taught ethics as replacement or alternative subject.

German is stipulated by law as the official language of administration and the judiciary. There are special provisions in Brandenburg and Sachsen for the use of the Sorbian (Wendish) language. Education differs from administration and justice in that there are no legislative provisions on the language of instruction. German is the normal language of instruction and training at general education and vocational schools as well as institutions of higher education. The exceptions at school include certain private schools, all bilingual schools and classes as well as instruction and extra classes in the mother tongue for foreign pupils who lack a sufficient knowledge of German. The children of the Danish minority in Schleswig-Holstein can attend private schools (Ersatzschulen) instead of the general education schools of the public sector, as long as the educational objectives of these schools essentially

correspond to those of the school types provided for in the Schleswig-Holstein education act. Lessons in these schools are taught in Danish. As a rule, German is a compulsory subject as of grade two. Parents may choose whether their children should attend schools catering for the Danish minority. They merely have to inform the local primary school (*Grundschule*) that their child has been accepted at a school which caters for the Danish minority, and thus absolve him/her from the need to attend the public-sector school. The children of the Sorbian minority in the settlement area of the Sorbs in Brandenburg and Sachsen are taught in the Sorbian language at Sorbian and other schools either as the mother tongue, a second language or a foreign language. Here, too, parents can decide freely whether their children are to attend the Sorbian schools where Sorbian is a compulsory subject.

In 1998, the number of people aged 29 or less was 27 643 700 (34% of the population), and there were 10 987 400 young people of compulsory education age. In 1997, there were 7.4 million foreign nationals, or 9.0% of the overall population. In numerical terms, Turks represented the biggest group, at almost a third of Germany's foreign population (28.6%). In 1997, one quarter of all foreign residents (25.1%) came from EU Member States, of which Italy was most strongly represented at 8.3% of the entire foreign population.

3.8.2 *Characteristics of German compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Full-time education is compulsory from between the ages of 6 and 15 or 16 (depending on the 'Land'), and part-time education is compulsory until the age of 18 for those who do not attend a full-time school. 'Grundschule' (primary education) ranges from 6-10 years of age (6-12, Berlin & Brandenburg). Lower secondary education has an 'Orientierungsstufe' (orientation phase within the different school types or as a separate organisational unit). Furthermore, there are different types of schools ['Gymnasium / Realschule / Hauptschule / Gesamtschule] offering several courses of education such as the 'Mittelschule' which ranges from 10-12 years of age and 12-15/16 years of age. Children are admitted to Grundschule from the age of 6. At primary level, children undergoing compulsory schooling enter a local primary school, which is the same for all of them. Transition from primary school to one of the school types at secondary level is subject to different regulations depending on legislation in the 'Land' concerned. The type of school attended at lower secondary level is decided by the parents on the basis of an assessment made by the primary school. Admission to the various types of secondary schools may be subject to pupils fulfilling certain performance criteria and/or a decision by the education authority. All compulsory schooling is free of charge.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises between 188 and 208 days in the period from August to July. The length of the school day and week is determined by each of the Länder. Schools open on five or six days a week (mostly mornings). Each week entails 17-23 lessons at primary school, and 28-30 lessons at secondary level. A lesson lasts 45 minutes. The number of annual teaching hours is

613 (for children aged 7), 713 (for those aged 10), and from 790 to 959 (at lower secondary level).

Class size. In 1998 there were in primary education 22.6 pupils per class on average and, in lower secondary education, on average 24 pupils depending on the school type and the Land. Pupils are generally grouped by age and, at secondary level, setting occurs in some subjects. Primary classes initially have one teacher for all subjects, whereas secondary pupils have separate subject teachers.

Curriculum. The 'Länder' ministries determine the curriculum, recommend teaching methods and approve textbooks. Core subjects in primary education generally include reading, writing, arithmetic, 'Sachunterricht' as an introduction to natural and social sciences, art, music, sport and religious education. Secondary curricula depend on the type of institution, but usually continue primary core subjects, and include at least one foreign language and natural and social sciences.

Examinations and testing. Continuous assessment based on written examinations and oral contributions is universal practice at all levels. Pupils may be required to repeat a school year. Pupils who reach the appropriate standard at the end of lower secondary education receive a leaving certificate. Assessment is teacher-led in most cases.

3.8.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

In 1998, all pupils were in publicly funded schools, 5.3% of which are private grant-aided institutions (provided and controlled by non-government bodies). One per cent of primary education pupils attend grant-aided private schools, while up to 10% of those in Gymnasien do. On average, 5% of the pupils in general education schools attend private school, although these proportions vary depending on the type of school and the Land.

The burden of funding compulsory education is divided between the Länder and local authorities, and this has been the case since the 19th century. Local authorities take responsibility for external school affairs (building construction and maintenance, equipment and facilities, teaching materials, opening and closing of schools, operational expenditure, expenses for non-teaching staff and financial assistance for pupils), while the Länder are responsible for internal school affairs (defining the curricula, prerequisites, content and structure of the system, teacher training and assessment, allocation and payment of teaching staff). Private education is funded primarily out of public funds, but the regulations governing funding vary from one Land to the next. Private schools may levy school fees, but the Basic Law prohibits discrimination among pupils on the basis of parental income. Assistance must be provided for underprivileged pupils. The stability of the education system has made it unnecessary to reform the method of distributing resources or the decision-making mechanisms for a long time in Germany.

The size and type of public and private education has been can be described in four types: Type 1 with public sector only; Type 2 with less than 10% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools; Type 3 with between 10% and 30% of pupils

attend grant-aided private schools; Type 4 with over 50% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools. The German education system can be identified as a type 2 size of privately-run school sector with less than 10% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools (see Figure 2, p. 6).

Regarding the main model for funding of the grant-aided private German schools, the German education system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 2 type of country. Financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. In Germany, grants are awarded by the 'Land' to the 'Schultrager' responsible for grant-aided private schools to cover operational and staffing costs ((Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.105).

Governance of schools

Responsibility for the German education system is conditioned by the federal structure of the State. According to the Grundgesetz (Basic Law), educational legislation and administration are primarily the responsibility of the ministries of the 'Länder'. In 1949, the Standing Conference of the Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs was set up by the Länder as a co-ordinating body to ensure that the German education system possessed a certain required degree of uniformity. The federal government has a very limited number of responsibilities with regard to education (in-company vocational training and broad regulations for public services, including the payment of teachers in particular). Most responsibility for education is divided between the authorities of each Land and the local authorities (municipalities). Individual schools are not very autonomous. They receive funds from these two players and may administer only a part of the school budget on their own, depending on the budgetary regulations at Land and municipal level.

In Germany each school has a teachers' council responsible for educational matters, and a school council (comprising teachers, parents and pupils), which decides on school regulations or disciplinary rules. The relative powers of these councils vary between the 'Länder'. Germany can be typified as a country with not much power. There exists no power for these councils in three out of the five areas. Consultative power exists for the drafting of school development plan and decision-making power for school rules. In Germany, the scope of the regulations and the framework for the participation of parents differs from 'Land' to 'Land'. However, in all 'Länder', parents can participate either at the level of the class attended by their child or at the level of the school (o.c. p. 37).

Freedom of school choice

For compulsory schooling at primary school and the Hauptschule, pupils must always attend the local school. If no Schulbezirke (catchment areas) have been fixed for a type of secondary school, parents are always able to choose which school their child attends. In this case, the capacity of the school is the only limiting factor affecting the pupil's right to admission. However, in the German education system

the freedom of school choice depends on the level and school type. In German primary education (as well as 'Hauptschule') pupils are allocated a school (Category 1). However, in lower secondary education the German education system is a category 3 type: parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is over-stretched. The aim of any such regulation is to correct imbalances when schools are in a situation in which they are unable to satisfy the demand for enrolment. Indeed, the right to choose a school freely does not mean that it will automatically have a place available. This is the situation in Germany in secondary schools without catchment areas in some Länder. In the case of secondary schools without catchment areas ('Gymnasium', 'Realschule', 'Schularten mit mehreren Bildungsgängen'), Germany is a Category 4 type of country as parents are in principle able to choose a school for their child (o.c., p.289).

Elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice seems relevant because there exists a grant-aided private sector in the German education system. The German education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 2 type of country with a grant-aided privately-run school sector. In this group of countries pupils pay fairly low fees. In Germany, the 'Grundgesetz' (Constitution) precludes any distinction between pupils based on parental financial sources. As a result, private schools only charge moderate fees, or guarantee compensation to pupils with parents of limited financial means (Euridyce, Vol. 2, p.103)

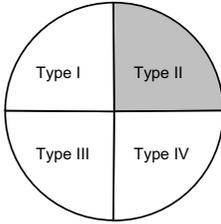
In some countries, the public-sector is in direct competition with grant-aided private schools which, at the outset, offered a denominational alternative. Naturally, for this competition to be real, grant-aided private schools have to be relatively numerous. For that purpose, their denominational identity must not be a barrier to enrolment (the religion concerned has to be very firmly established), and their enrolment fees must not be excessive. In secondary education in Germany, the presence alongside each other of Catholic or Protestant public-sector and private schools (the Ersatzschulen) ensures that parents can choose between two service providers, and thus boosts competition and innovation in education.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in Germany

Germany

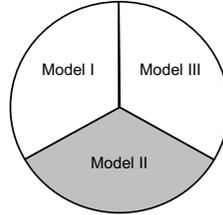
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
 Type II = less than 10% private
 Type III = 10% - 30% private
 Type IV = over 30% private

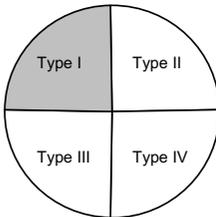
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
 Model II = financing similar to public sector
 Model III = financing identical to public sector

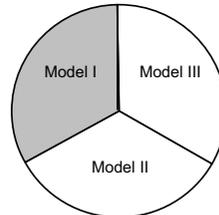
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
 Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
 Type III = mix public/private-run schools
 Type IV = privately-run by school boards

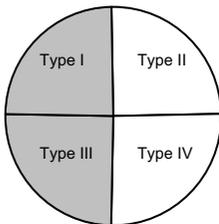
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
 Model II = consultative power
 Model III = decision making power

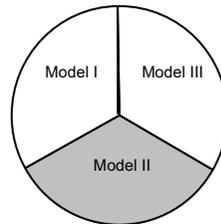
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
 Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
 Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
 Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Model I = no fees
 Model II = low fees
 Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.9 FRANCE

3.9.1 *Country profile*

France (F) is part of western Europe and a member state of the European Union. The 1958 Constitution defines a statutory domain, that is to say, regarding the legislative power (the Parliament), and a regulatory domain, concerning the executive power (the Government). As regards education, outside the ‘fundamental principles of education’ determined by the law, the definition and implementation of educational policy is the responsibility of the Government. The départements are now responsible for many other things, including school transport, and the maintenance and building of collèges.

The predominant religion in France is Roman Catholicism. The status of religion in France was laid down by the law of 1905 on the separation of Church and State. The relations between the Church and the State in France are based on three principles: Republican unity, plurality of philosophical and religious traditions, and freedom of conscience, and were redefined as follows. The State acknowledges churches (denominations) without “recognising” them. It knows of their existence in civil society without making judgement as to their spiritual or philosophical value. Legal equality with regard to the various beliefs is recognised. State aid to the various denominations is indirect. This may be in various forms, such as tax relief for voluntary gifts to cultural associations (as, indeed, to other associations); subsidies to religious, philosophical or other associations; the upkeep of church buildings (in existence in 1905) to which the public authorities have legal title but which are loaned free to churches; or a specific social benefits treatment for religious personnel. There is no denominational teaching of religion in State schools. Freedom of conscience and of exercise of a religion is fully recognised as is free participation of religious bodies and groups with religious or philosophical objects in public debate. The distribution of religious communities in 1993 shows 76.4% Catholics, 2.4% protestants, 3% Moslems and 15.5% of the people with no religion.

The official language is French, also in education. However, some regional languages, such as Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Occitan, Basque, Alsatian, and Flemish, are sometimes still in use in certain areas of France. As features of the national culture and heritage, they are taught as special optional subjects from pre-school to university levels. Courses in regional culture and languages are voluntary, both for teachers and pupils, and are used for teaching some optional subjects. In primary schools, this teaching may take the form of initiation (1 to 3 hours per week) or bilingual teaching, in which the regional language is both the language taught and the language in which the teaching is done. In some collèges, optional teaching of regional languages and culture for one hour per week from the sixth to the third classes can be offered. Furthermore, in addition to the bilingual teaching in schools, regional language departments can be set up. These departments offer regional language and culture for a minimum of 3 hours per week together with use of the language in one or two other subjects as well. In lycée, regional languages may be chosen as compulsory or non-compulsory options as second or third modern languages.

The population of France counts 59 million in 1998. In 1998/99, the school population stood at 14 435 800, corresponding to 24.5% of the total population of the country.

3.9.2 *Characteristics of French compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Education in France is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 16. Primary/elementary school ('École élémentaire') between 6-11 years of age and lower secondary school ('Collège') ranges from 11-15 years of age. Upper secondary school ('Lycée d'enseignement général et technologique', LEGT) and general or technical upper secondary school ('Lycée professionnel', LP) as well as vocational upper secondary school start from 15 years of age and above. Pupils normally complete at least a year of upper secondary education in order to comply with this obligation. The enrolment of pupils in state schooling is based on a 'sectorial' principle: pupils are normally registered in the primary school, 'collège or lycée' of the area (known as a 'district' in the case of the 'lycée') in which their parents are officially resident. State education is free of charge. Parents who wish may register their child in private education, freely choosing their school provided that places are available. In schools that have entered into a contract with the State, the fees are not usually very high.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises 180 days between September and June. Schools are open six days a week, but no classes are given on Wednesday or Saturday afternoons. Each week includes 26 one-hour lessons at primary level and 25.5 to 30 hours (55-minute lessons) in secondary education (with three additional hours for pupils who have fallen behind or for optional subjects). The annual minimum number of hours is 846 (in primary education) and 842 (at lower secondary level).

Class size. There is no recommended size for classes. Pupils are grouped in accordance with their age. Primary school classes have a single teacher for all subjects, whereas secondary school classes have different teachers for each subject.

Curriculum. The Ministry of Education establishes educational curricula and basic guidelines. The primary school curriculum concentrates on ensuring that pupils learn the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, as well as on their physical education (normal motor skills, etc.) and enhancing their awareness of the world around them. The lower secondary education curriculum consists of eight or nine compulsory subjects depending on the year of study, and optional subjects. Teachers choose their own teaching methods and school textbooks.

Examinations and testing. Pupils are continuously assessed by teachers throughout the whole of their primary and secondary schooling. Since 1989, pupil assessment at the beginning of the third and sixth years of compulsory education has enabled teachers to identify the progress and weaknesses of their pupils in French and mathematics. The work of primary schools and collèges is organised into successive stages of teaching. A year can only be repeated at the end of a complete stage following a decision by the board of teachers, against which parents can

appeal. All pupils attend collèges at the end of primary schooling, in their twelfth year at the latest. On completion of their collège schooling, pupils are awarded a brevet (national certificate) provided they obtain satisfactory results in their final two years and a national examination. However, continuation of their schooling in a lycée is not dependent on the award of the brevet.

3.9.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

The state funding of private schools has been at the centre of numerous disputes which currently appear to have died down. In the case of public-sector education, the State assumes expenditure relating to all staff in collèges and teaching staff in primary schools. Operational and investment expenditure are entrusted to the municipalities in the case of the primary schools and, since 1983, the départements in the case of the collèges. The municipal council deals with municipal business in its decisions. More particularly, it is responsible for the building, maintenance and administrative control of primary schools, via decisional powers over their creation and budget management. However, the agreement of the State representative, i.e. the préfet of the département, is required to enforce a decision to create a school or a class.

Since 1959, almost the whole of private education has been funded by the central and local authorities under the same terms as state education as far as operations and staff are concerned. Virtually the whole school population receives education financed by the State. Public-sector institutions provide schooling for 85.3% of pupils in compulsory primary education ('écoles élémentaires') and 79.4% of those in secondary education, while nearly all private schools have entered into a contract with the State, which involves the latter assuming responsibility for teacher remuneration and, in most cases, the functioning of the school.

In France education provided by the public authorities is far more widespread than provision by entities operating under private law. Thus, in France, only 20% of pupils attend what is known as 'enseignement privé sous contrat' (contract-regulated private education) at lower secondary level and, at primary level, this figure is 15%. Thus France can be identified as a type 3 country with 10% to 30% of pupils attending grant-aided private schools.

Using our three main models for funding of these grant-aided private schools the French education system can best be described as a model 2 type of country. This indicates that in France within the contract-regulated private schools the teachers are paid in the same way as in public-sector schools. Grants for operational expenditure are similarly awarded in France for the above-mentioned schools (p104). Furthermore, in France the scale of funding for staff and operations is the same, but capital resources receive less support (p.105). Thus, it may be concluded that financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure.

Governance of schools

In France, all schools, public and private, must conform to national legislation on education with decrees and rules established by the Ministry of Education. The only exceptions are some agricultural schools, which are controlled and administered by the Ministry of Agriculture (Servant in: Robitaille, 1997, 130). The State assumes overall responsibility for educational policy. The Ministry of Education lays down guidelines for teaching, draws up the school curriculum and administers staff recruitment, training and management. It also determines the status and regulations of schools, allocating them their appropriate quota of teachers and administrative staff. In order to implement this policy and the accomplishment of its numerous management tasks, the Ministry has 'external' administrative departments known as 'académies' with jurisdiction over a particular geographical area of the country. France is thus divided into 30 such 'académies' each headed by a rector acting directly on behalf of the minister. A single 'académie' covers several 'départements' (smaller administrative areas), each managed by an 'inspecteur d'académie' who runs the national education services provided for it by the ministry. Within the overall system established at national level, schools are to some extent independent as regards their administrative and teaching activity and, at secondary level (in 'collèges' and 'lycées'), their financial affairs too. In practice, this relative independence takes the form of a plan for each school, known as a 'projet d'école' and 'projet d'établissement' at primary and secondary levels respectively.

The system is supervised by several inspectorates. Two general inspectorates are entrusted with very broad responsibilities for evaluation. Furthermore, national education inspectors visit primary schools and monitor the performance of their teachers, while regional inspectors of teaching activity are responsible for marking and assessing secondary school teachers in their particular subject.

Eighty-six percent of primary schools are public and thirty-three percent of secondary schools are private and most private schools are under contract to the state, which is responsible for paying teachers. The state sets the same pedagogical requirements for private as for public schools and provides the same financing. Private schools are able to draw on their own funds (see Servant in: Robitaille, 1997, 131-132).

Based on 'Key data on education in Europe' (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.37) the nature and the scope of the councils in which parents are involved at school level in a number of broad areas within the French education system has been analysed. However, the education system of France can not easily be typified, because the school-level bodies exercise no power in two areas (setting of the teaching syllabus and control of expenditure) and on the other hand they take on decision-making power in the three other areas (school rules, school development plan and allocation of the school budget).

Freedom of school choice

The French education system has been analysed regarding two indicators of freedom of school choice. First, legislation on such freedom of choice in the public sector,

and, second, the existence of grant-aided private education offering a real alternative to public education (Eurydice, 2000, Vol 2, p.289). Four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries have been identified and the French education system can be typified as a category 1 system with no real freedom of school choice. In France strictly defined catchment areas severely limit the choice of state schools available to families. The public authorities are involved in decisions regarding the schools attended by pupils and establish the norm in accordance with a plan attributing catchment areas to each school. However, possible exceptions to these fairly firm criteria may make the system more flexible as is the case in France.

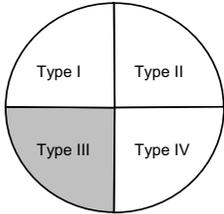
The extent of freedom of school choice has been analysed using three broad types of European countries. In type 1 countries there are no school fees in private education; the legislation is identical to that of public-sector schools. In the type 2 countries pupils pay fairly low fees, to avoid any social discrimination. In the third type of European countries private school fees wholly or partially cover budgetary headings not covered by public-sector funding. The French education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 3 type of privately-run school sector as school fees wholly or partially cover budgetary headings not covered by public-sector funding. In France, fees are earmarked for certain budgetary headings for which schools receive no public subsidy. In France, fees paid by parents contribute to the cost of buildings.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in France

France

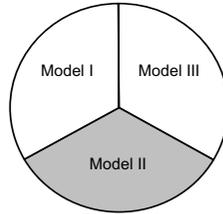
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

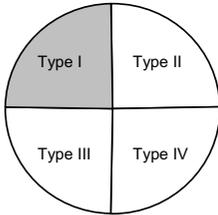
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

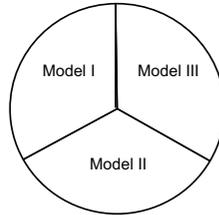
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

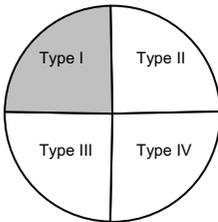
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

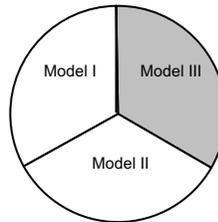
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.10 ENGLAND

3.10.1 *Country profile*

England (UK-E) is part of the United Kingdom along with Wales (W), Scotland (SC), and Northern Ireland (NI). This country report focuses on England, the next one focuses on Scotland, both being countries included in the TIMSS study.

England is a member state of the European Union. England is part of a constitutional monarchy in which the sovereign is head of state. The central government holds the authority and responsibility for the complete provision of education services, from determining national policies, and for planning the direction of the system as a whole (Davis in: Robitaille, 1997). Concerning religions there is freedom of worship. There is no judicial separation between Church and State and the established church in England is the Church of England (Protestant Episcopal). There is no established church in Wales or Northern Ireland. Religious education is a compulsory part of the school curriculum.

English is the official language spoken in England. The language of instruction throughout the United Kingdom is English too. In Wales, however, the Welsh language is part of the National Curriculum and in each local authority there is a Welsh-medium school. In Northern-Ireland there are Irish-medium schools.

The population of the United Kingdom is 59,237,000. Overall, people from ethnic minority groups represented approximately one in 15 of the population of Great Britain in Spring 1999. Nearly 805,000 nationals from other European Union Member States were living in the United Kingdom in 1991 – nearly double the number of UK nationals living elsewhere in the European Union; two thirds of those living in the United Kingdom were Irish nationals. The majority (95%) of the population in England is Caucasian, with a number of ethnic minority groups mainly from India, Africa, and the Caribbean. In 1997, approximately 54 percent of the population of the United Kingdom aged between 0 and 29 were in education and 8.260.000 young people were of compulsory education age.

3.10.2 *Characteristics of compulsory education in England*

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory from age five to age 16. In England, some LEAs operate a system of first schools (ages 5–8/9) and middle schools (ages 8/9–12/13). The primary school age ranges from 5–11 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Secondary compulsory education ranges from age 11–16. Public-funded secondary education is provided in comprehensive schools (providing general education to pupils of all abilities) and grammar schools (providing a more academically-oriented education). A new development of the last years in England is that of so-called ‘specialist’ secondary schools. These are secondary schools that are comprehensive in character, but which specialise in a particular area of the curriculum, such as technology. However, these schools still deliver the full statutory curriculum of comprehensive schools. Secondary schools also provide education for post-compulsory students aged 16–18. The admissions authority for each individual school (either the local authority or the school

governing body) establishes an admissions policy. Parents are free to choose any school for their children and schools must meet this request, subject to their admissions policy and to there being sufficient places available. Parents have a legal right of appeal if a place is not provided at the school of their choice. Currently, grammar schools (as well as the group of so-called 'truly private schools') are the only institutions to select pupils on the basis of their ability (as of January 2000, there were 162 grammar schools in England). All publicly-funded compulsory schooling is free of charge.

School days and lessons. The school year runs from August/September to June/July, depending on the area. Schools must be open for 190 days a year. Schools normally operate five days a week (Monday to Friday). Minimum recommended hours in England and Wales are 21 (for 5–7-year-olds), 23.5 (for 8–11-year-olds) and 24 (for 12–16-year-olds). The school day generally runs from around 09.00 to between 15.00 and 16.00. The length of lesson varies and is determined by each school.

Class size. The Government has introduced measures to limit the size of classes for 5–7-year-olds to 30 pupils by 2001. There are no recommendations for other age groups. Pupils are generally taught in mixed ability classes at primary level. Secondary schools may group pupils by ability for some subjects ('setting') or for all subjects ('streaming').

Curriculum. The curriculum for compulsory education in England, Wales and Northern Ireland is divided into four 'key stages' (KS); KS1 (ages 5–7, or 4–8 in Northern Ireland), KS2 (ages 7–11, or from 8 in Northern Ireland), KS3 (ages 11–14) and KS4 (14–16). There is a National Curriculum but no prescribed textbooks and teachers select their own teaching methods. In England and Wales, compulsory subjects for KS1–3 include English (and/or Welsh), mathematics, science, design and technology (technology in Wales, incorporating information technology and design and technology), information and communication technology (England only), religious education, physical education, history, geography, art and design (art in Wales) and music. A foreign language becomes compulsory from KS3, although it is not compulsory in Wales at KS4 and pupils are allowed to drop it at KS4 in England under certain circumstances. There are fewer compulsory subjects at KS4. Personal, social and health education (PSHE) in England (personal and social education (PSE) in Wales) is currently taught as a non-compulsory subject for KS1–4; it will be reviewed in 2002 with a view to making it a compulsory subject. Citizenship will be introduced as a compulsory subject at KS1–4 in England in 2002. The curriculum in Northern Ireland comprises five compulsory 'areas of study' from KS1–4: English, mathematics, science and technology, environment and society, and creative and expressive studies. In addition, at KS3 and 4, languages are included in the compulsory areas of study. In Irish-medium primary schools, Irish is compulsory and pupils are exempt from English in Years 1–3 and follow a special programme of study in English in Year 4. UK Government has just proposed a new foreign language policy – in a discussion Green Paper. There will be no compulsion after K3 (age 14 years) if this policy goes ahead (and it is likely to do so). It is being advocated in the context of a British Government commitment to the provision of a

foreign language as an option in the primary school sector. Northern Ireland is expected to implement this arrangement also.

Examinations and testing. Assessment takes place when pupils enter compulsory education and at the end of each key stage. Promotion to the next year or key stage is automatic. At the end of compulsory education, the majority of pupils take General Certificate of Secondary Education examinations (GCSEs) in a range of single subjects, although an increasing number of vocational qualifications are also available (A-levels).

3.10.3 Public and private education: key characteristics

Educational funding policy

From 1944 to 1959, LEAs received a grant from the government based on a percentage of the amount that the local authority decided to spend on education. In addition to this grant, LEAs received specific grants for certain budget items (notably school meals and a youth employment service). The remaining expenditure (about half) was raised from local ratepayers. From 1959, the specific grants were subsumed into a general grant towards expenditure incurred by local authorities in running all their services. This grant was not necessarily earmarked for education or any other particular local service. At the LEA level, elected politicians determined the amount of expenditure for education overall, and the Education Committee (made up of municipal councillors and members co-opted from the local community) allocated the amounts to be spent on each school, which left schools little margin for discretion. The number and age of the pupils determined the number of teachers allocated to each school. LEAs were responsible for teachers' salaries and expenses associated with buildings. Each school administered expenditure for books, office equipment and teaching materials. Nonetheless, the necessary funds for these expenses were retained at LEA level, where they were managed in accordance with the wishes of the individual school.

Since 1944, voluntary aided schools (grant-aided private schools) have been financed in virtually the same way as other schools funded by the LEAs. They have, in this respect, been in the same position as other maintained schools. The only real difference in their governance has been that the governing bodies of these schools have always remained in law the employer of staff while in other maintained schools the staff were employed by the LEA. In addition, legislation in 1988 in England and Wales and 1989 in Northern Ireland introduced new categories of schools: 'grant-maintained integrated schools' in Northern Ireland which were designed to provide institutions where Catholic and Protestant children could be educated together and, in England and Wales, 'grant-maintained schools' and CTCs.

These City Technology Colleges (CTC's) have been founded in the 1980s within disadvantaged areas in the big cities. These were private schools within the independent school classification, which were nevertheless financed to a large extent by government public funds. They have had to follow the national curriculum but with a special emphasis on technology. The sponsors or promoters who established the schools had to make a substantial contribution to expenditure on buildings and

equipment. These schools were set out to be specialist schools that could compete within the comprehensive schools framework. CTC's are comprehensive schools which focus on a particular area of the curriculum, often with a special emphasis on technology or computers. These colleges try to attract business support and sponsors to finance new buildings as well as the specific curriculum they use to attract students within disadvantaged big cities (e.g. magnet schools in the US). Generally speaking business partners are found, but the amount of funding they receive seems to be not very substantial.

This study refers to grant-aided privately-run education as schools administered by private entities with support from public funding which are distinct from those directly administered by public authorities. Based on information from Eurydice (2000) the size of public and grant-aided private education in the United Kingdom (England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland) has been identified as a type 1 kind of country because the privately-run sector is very limited. The percentage of pupils who attend grant-aided private schools is less than 10%. In fact the summary sheets on education in Europe (Eurybase, 2001) makes clear that in 1997, 93 percent of the pupils in the United Kingdom (including Scotland) were in publicly-funded education, with the remaining seven percent in 'private non-grant aided institutions (provided and controlled by non-government bodies). In fact, this group of approximately 7% of schools can be described as 'truly private' in the sense that they do not receive any funding from public authorities. These types of – often elitist – schools are very influential as a kind of reference group within the total of the UK education system. These schools are paid for with (high) school fees from the parents that send their children to these schools. Most of these schools are elite and selective and partly serve as a selective kind of education for the very white and wealthy elite that for example want to enrol in Cambridge or Oxford University. Selection into these schools is twofold: (a) the achievement level of students and (b) high school fees which makes it almost impossible for working class students to enter these type of schools. These 'truly private schools' are highly present in some districts such as London (12%), and in and around Oxford and Cambridge. Until 1997 these schools did receive some money from the government because of the so-called 'assisted places scheme'. Bright working class children that could benefit from these schools were given the opportunity to enter these schools and the places they took were financed by the government. In practice the children that took these places were bright children, but they came mostly from a middle-class background. In 1997 the Labour government closed down this type of funding.

Since 1997 a part of the 'grant-maintained schools' have been positioned (again) under the authority of the LEA's. The LEA's vary to a large extent in their position towards 'grant-maintained schools' depending largely on their political affiliations. Some LEA's favour these (now so-called foundation) schools and allow them public funding and great autonomy. Some of the LEA's, however, allow these schools no public funding at all and put severe constraints on the autonomy of these formerly 'grant-maintained schools'. Over 1000 formerly 'grant-maintained' secondary schools (out of 3.500 schools) opted to return to the LEA and receive funding for schools' educational needs, building and capital.

Taking this information into account we can best describe England as a type 1 country with mostly public sector education, almost no grant-aided education and nowadays up to 10% of so-called 'truly private' education.

Furthermore, using our three main models used for funding of grant-aided private schools the education system of the United Kingdom can be described as a model 2 type of education system with financing arrangements for grant-maintained schools that are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. (p104). In England and Wales ('voluntary aided schools' and 'grant-maintained schools') and in Northern Ireland ('maintained schools', 'grant-maintained integrated schools' and 'voluntary grammar schools') teachers in grant-aided private schools are paid in the same way as in public-sector schools. Grants for operational expenditure are similarly awarded in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) for the above-mentioned schools. However, the source of financing depends on the category of school. So, generally speaking financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. However, some categories of grant-aided private schools may be required to contribute up to 15% of capital costs. Grants for operational expenditure are similarly awarded in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) for the above-mentioned schools. In Northern Ireland, however, the source of financing depends on the category of the school.

Governance of schools

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), schools which belong to private bodies such as trustees, foundations and Churches, but are financed out of public funds, are considered to be within the public sector. In this report such schools are considered grant-aided private schools. Each governing body consists of the head teacher (normally), teachers (elected by their colleagues), political representatives of the local education authority, parents (elected by the parents of children in their school) and community representatives (usually co-opted). Parents serving in school governing boards (they take 20-25% of the members) are mostly not as influential as the head teacher and other persons serving on the board. Because parent governors are a minority in the governing body, their influence is very much dependent on the way the other governors value or concede their opinions. However, in some cases educated middle class parents will be more influential, although this often also depends of the way the head teacher rules the governing body. In general, however, parents exercise not so much decision-making powers but they serve more from a consultative point of view. In general, parental influence on school policy seems to be in its initial phase within the English education system.

The influence of parents within the 7% 'truly' private schools, however, can be more substantial. These parents are potentially very influential members of their governing bodies because, of course, these parents finance these schools themselves through their substantial high school fees. In general parents will tend to choose

schools that are in line with their own values and that fit to their priorities. Generally speaking the 'truly' private schools often operate in a quite autonomous way.

In England and Wales, grant-aided schools are all referred to as 'maintained schools' regardless of whether they were originally set up by private entities or state bodies. Those founded by private bodies include 'voluntary controlled schools' which were mainly established by the Church of England and 'voluntary aided schools' set up by the Catholic Church or the Church of England. Both of these categories are 'voluntarily' incorporated within the 'maintained' sector supported by public funding. In Northern Ireland, 'maintained schools' (established largely by the Catholic Church), 'voluntary grammar schools and grant-maintained integrated schools are considered to form part of the state sector and are funded by the Department of Education (Northern Ireland).

At municipal level, local education authorities (in England and Wales) and Education and Library Boards (in Northern Ireland) are responsible for organizing publicly-funded school education within their area. Governing bodies at school level have a high degree of autonomy; further and higher education institutions are fully autonomous. Since the Education Act of 1944, publicly maintained schools have had individual governing bodies, whose actual role was limited up until the 1988 Act, as they could do little more than act as a sounding-board between Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and the head teacher. The Education Reform Act (1988) established a national curriculum and national assessment in England. Northern Ireland, there are no LEAs, but five Education and Library Boards which exercise similar responsibilities.

Following the introduction of local management of schools, a provision of the Education Reform Act of 1988, most school administration and management functions are now carried out by the local institution. All state schools in England must have a school governing body consisting of representatives from the local education authority, the community, the parents, and the staff of the school. It is the responsibility of the school's governing body to allocate the budget and to determine the general direction of the school and its curriculum, subject to requirements of the national curriculum. In practice many of these powers are delegated to the school's internal organisation and management (Davis in: Robitaille, 1997, p.119-121). The grant-maintained status attributed in 1988 to schools whose governing body had opted for independence from LEA oversight, as well as to former 'independent schools', may also be regarded as a way of developing grant-aided private education defined as private sector management of education financed from public funds. However, grant-maintained school status was abolished in 1998. Most of the schools involved have now acquired the new status of 'foundation school' and, although they are once more funded by the LEA, they retain a high degree of autonomy. "Grant-maintained integrated" still exists in Northern Ireland (o.c. p110).

Next to the governance of schools it is of interest to assess the decision-making influence of parents at school level. In the education system of the United Kingdom (England/Wales and Northern Ireland) parents' representatives are included on the council (the school governing body or board of governors), but they make up only 20-25% of the members. These councils vary considerably in their decision-making powers in the above-mentioned areas within the education system. However,

generally speaking England can best be typified as a model 2 type of country with consultative power. Furthermore, in the United Kingdom school-level bodies may delegate some decisions to the head teachers (Key data on education in Europe 1999/2000, p.37).

National bodies responsible for inspection have been established in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The national education system has been administered locally since 1870. The central government's function has been limited to providing financial support to locally elected bodies and ensuring the effective execution of national policy for education. In the United Kingdom, most of the responsibilities for education have been devolved to the national authorities in England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland.

Freedom of school choice

Although it is possible to note several indicators of freedom of school choice in European countries, in this study we focus on two types. First, legislation on such freedom of choice in the public sector, and, second, the existence of grant-aided private education offering a real alternative to public education. Using information from Eurydice (2000, Vol 2, p.289) four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector could be found. The education system of the United Kingdom (E/W/NI) can be typified as a category 3 system in which parents choose a school, but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is overstretched. If this is the case the public authorities intervene at a later stage after parents have indicated their preference. The aim of any such regulation is to correct imbalances when schools are in a situation in which they are unable to satisfy the demand for enrolment. So, the right to choose a school freely does not mean that there will automatically be a place available. This applies to the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), where parents have the right to state which school they would prefer their child to attend.

This right extends to all schools financed out of public funds, including those which are classified in the present study as grant-aided private schools but are regarded as public-sector schools in the United Kingdom. All schools have a given number of places which was originally laid down in 1988 on the basis of their physical capacity. They can apply for changes to this number in accordance with national procedures. If there are more applications than there are places available, schools must admit pupils on the basis of established admissions criteria. In England and Wales, the Local Education Authority (LEA) is normally the admissions authority for county and voluntary controlled schools. Voluntary aided schools and grant-maintained schools (now foundation schools) decide their own admission arrangements but must consult the LEA. All admissions policies are in any case influenced by national guidelines. Denominational schools may also specify religion as a criterion for admission and they may be allowed to keep places empty if applicants do not meet their criteria for entry. Legislation passed in England and Wales in 1998 introduced a number of reforms to school admissions procedures, including the requirement that all parties involved in decisions about admissions to

maintained schools in a given area have to consult with each other before any change in admissions criteria.

Next to admission procedures a further elaboration on the extent of freedom of school choice concerns the question of school fees in grant-aided private education within the public sector. The education system of the United Kingdom, specifically England, can generally speaking be identified as a number 1 type of grant-aided private school sector (operating within the public sector) as there are no school fees in the grant-aided primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public sector. Thus, the legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public sector. This applies to the United Kingdom (with the exception of some voluntary grammar schools in Northern Ireland which may solicit so-called 'capital fees' as a contribution to capital expenditure). However, there are fees in the 7% of schools that are 'truly private'.

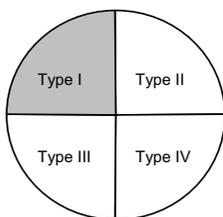
Note that a complementary relationship is not however the pattern in all countries. In some countries, the public-sector is in direct competition with grant-aided private schools which, at the outset, offered a denominational alternative. Naturally, for this competition to be real, grant-aided private schools have to be relatively numerous. For that purpose, their denominational identity must not be a barrier to enrolment (the religion concerned has to be very firmly established), and their enrolment fees must not be excessive. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), educational provision at grant-aided private schools (in particular the voluntary controlled schools and voluntary aided schools in England and Wales and the maintained and voluntary grammar schools in Northern Ireland) has always supplemented that provided at schools run by the public authorities. The inter-school competition which developed following legislation in 1988 and 1989 transcended the distinction between schools administered by the public authorities and those belonging to private bodies and was based on the quality of educational provision and the level of pupil attainment.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in England

England

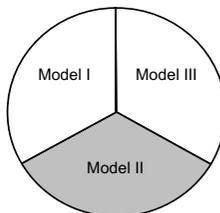
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

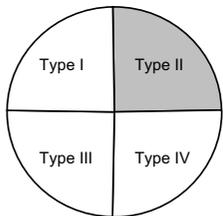
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

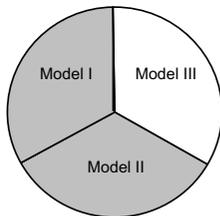
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

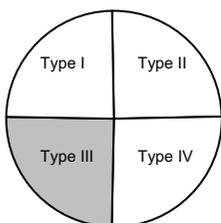
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

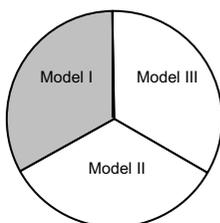
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.11 DENMARK

3.11.1 *Country profile*

Denmark (DK) is part of Europe and a member state of the European Union. Denmark has been a democratic state since 1849, when the absolute monarchy was replaced by a free constitution. Denmark is a constitutional monarchy. The Queen is formally the highest administrative power, but this power is in real terms executed through the ministries. From 2000 onwards central government consists of eighteen ministries, each with a member of the Government at its head with sole responsibility. The ministries carry into effect the government's policy and implement the legislation passed in parliament within their respective areas. The ministries responsible for education are: the Ministry of Social Affairs (nurseries, kindergartens), the Ministry of Education (primary and lower secondary education, upper secondary education, vocational training, higher education, adult education), the Ministry of Labour (adult vocational training/continuing training), and the Ministry of Cultural Affairs (degree courses at the Royal Academy of Fine Arts, the music academies, the schools of librarianship, the schools of architecture). The Evangelical Lutheran Church is the Danish National Church, and as such it is to be supported by the State. The National Church has no specific influence on State matters.

Danish is the official language. Among the most common minority languages can be mentioned: German, which is spoken by a small minority in Nordschleswig, Turkish, Serbo-Croatian, Pakistani, Arabic. Mother tongue teaching is provided for children of migrant workers.

In 1998, there were 581,429 children of compulsory school age, and approx. 32.6% of the population aged 15 to 34 were receiving education – with 80.2% for the 15-19-year-olds. The language of instruction is Danish.

3.11.2 *Characteristics of Danish compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory from between the ages of 7 and 16. In fact these 9 years of schooling are a must in Denmark for everyone between the ages of 7 and 16, whether they receive education in the publicly provided municipal school, in a private school or even at home. It is important to stress that the Danish parents have a free choice as long as the standards set by the government are met. So, although these 9 years of education are compulsory, the place where it can be received can vary, from in school to out of school places like at home. Primary and lower secondary education ('Folkeskole') ranges from 7-16/17 years of age. Most 'folkeskole' institutions offer a voluntary pre-school class and many a voluntary 10th year. Children enter compulsory education in August in the calendar year of their seventh birthday. Parents are free to choose any school within their municipality. The education in the 'folkeskole' is free.

School days and lessons. The school year comprises 200 days between August and June. Schools are open for five days a week, and there are between 20 and 28 lessons a week, depending on the age of the children. Each lesson lasts 45 minutes.

The annual number of taught hours is between 600 and 720 (7 years of age), 720 (10 years of age) and between 780 and 1200 in the upper years of the ‘folkeskole’.

Class size. The class size is up to 28 pupils. The average number today is approximately 19 and the pupil-teacher ratio at the moment is 10.4. Students are grouped by age. Students are taught by separate teachers for each subject throughout the ‘folkeskole’.

Curriculum. The Ministry of Education lays down general curricular aims and optional guidelines. There are no prescribed textbooks. The core curriculum for the first two years of the folkeskole includes Danish, mathematics, physical education, Christian studies, science, creative art and music. Thereafter compulsory subjects are gradually introduced with, for example, English taught from the age of 11. From the age of 13, pupils may choose from a number of optional subjects. Teachers must meet the needs of all individuals in mixed ability groups. This is done through differentiated teaching.

Examinations and testing. The pupils may take formal examinations in up to ten subjects at the end of compulsory education. The Ministry of Education sets written examinations, while teachers conduct oral exams. Assessment throughout the ‘folkeskole’ is continuous, and progression to the next year is automatic. General progress (no mark) in each subject is reported to parents at least twice a year until the seventh year. From the eighth year, a mark is awarded in those subjects in which the leaving examination can be taken. Examinations are offered on two levels – Leaving Examination after grade 9 and the Advanced Leaving Examination after grade 10. The examinations are not compulsory in Denmark. The children are free to decide, normally after consultation with teacher and parents. All students receive a leaving certificate listing subjects taken at school, marks awarded for the year’s work and examination results, if any.

3.11.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics

Education funding policy

In 1998, 88.1% of the pupils attended public-sector primary and lower secondary schools, and 11.9% attended private institutions, which receive approx. 85% per cent of their operational funding from the State. Because of the firmly established equality principle in Denmark, balancing mechanisms ensure the same opportunities to all municipal schools in terms of the services offered. Municipalities manage and finance the folkeskolen (public-sector schools). They are free to determine the expenditure level since education is entirely financed by their own tax income (which is marginally supplemented by block grants from central government). If municipalities decide to improve the standard in the folkeskole, they will have to increase taxation. If they reduce standards, the savings can be used to lower the tax rate. This financing scheme, which follows the subsidiary principles and the principle of coherence between financing and decision-making, was completed – by and large – in 1970, after many years of reform. Grant-aided private schools are financed by central government, and the responsible school boards have full

autonomy, with restrictions only for teacher salaries, which must respect the collective agreements.

The education system of Denmark has been described in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.6). The Danish education system can be identified as a type 3 size of country in which approximately 12% of pupils enrol in grant-aided private schools.

In addition to this existence of 12% of Danish students within grant-aided private education the type of model that has been used for funding of such grant-aided private schools is distinguished. The Danish education system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 1 type of country (see Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104). The Danish way in which grant-aided private education is financed differs considerably from funding in the public sector. In Denmark the subsidy consists of two grants paid directly by the government which are allocated with respect to the number of pupils. The first is earmarked for staff and operational costs, and the second for capital expenditure. In a few countries, public grants on top of fees cover all costs without the necessity for any other private contributions. This applies to Denmark, in which staff and operational resources are funded by the government which also offers grants for buildings.

Governance of schools

Education is largely the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The Ministries of Social Affairs and Labour are responsible for some areas of pre-school or adult vocational education, and the Ministry of Cultural Affairs is responsible for some artistic higher education programmes. The legislation covers the aims and framework of education, funding and in some cases curricula, examinations and staffing. The Ministry of Education jointly oversees the one year of pre-school education and the 'folkeskole' with the municipal councils. The Ministry of Education shares control of the 'gymnasium' and 'Højere Forberedelseseksamen' with the county councils and school or course boards. Vocational education and training is controlled by the Ministry of Education, and higher education is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Cultural Affairs, and the Ministry of Research. There is no national inspectorate, although there is a national corps of subject advisers. Inspection is the responsibility of the municipal or county authorities, which also offer teaching support centres. The Danish system is organised, in part, according to the subsidiarity principle: decisions must be taken at the level closest to the citizen. If a municipality can provide a service, it should do so and not the government or the counties. This principle implies the decentralised distribution of tasks and responsibilities and a legal and financial context that authorises and makes possible local autonomy. Such a context was created by the reforms of the 1970s. As regards grant-aided private schools, a strong tradition of private education reflecting a real demand for it in society, has developed since the Constitution was adopted in 1849. It corresponds to needs expressed by religious denominations and linguistic and ethnic minorities.

Local government is exercised through 275 municipalities, each with their own elected council and mayor. For the undertaking of tasks spanning larger areas and applying in particular to roads and hospitals, the country is divided into 14 counties, each with its own elected county council and council chairman. The municipalities of Copenhagen and Frederiksberg make up their own administrative units. In 1970 the number of municipalities was reduced and they were given new responsibilities. The country was divided into 14 counties to rationalise the administration of the country, and reform local authorities, particularly the management and funding of the folkeskolen.

The type of governance available in each of the countries in this study has been described making use of four types. Type 1 country with largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level public authorities. Type 2 country with largely publicly-run schools by local authorities including representatives of the parents. Type 3 country with a mix of publicly-run and privately-run schools. Type 4 country with schools largely privately-run by school boards. The governance structure of the Danish education system can best be described as a type 2 country with largely publicly-run schools by local authorities including representatives of the parents.

The scope of the power of school councils that include parents at school level can vary from (1) no power, via (2) consultative power, to (3) decision-making power. Using 'Key data on education in Europe' the Danish education system can generally speaking be typified as a country in which these consultative councils exercise power (into the above mentioned areas) which can be typified between a consultative function and decision-making power (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.37).

Freedom of school choice

The basic rules governing compulsory education and the freedom of choice were defined by the Constitution of 1849. Municipalities must divide the area under their jurisdiction into a certain number of districts, and parents must enrol their children in the school of their district. The application of the principle of equality at times gives rise to tensions. From the citizen's viewpoint, this principle in theory guarantees equivalent content and equality throughout the country in the folkeskolen. In grant- aided private education, the principle takes the form of very liberal legislation. There is a broad political consensus behind this state of affairs, and the two networks coexist peacefully. Indeed, the system is largely based on consensus (no reforms have been imposed without a political majority and jointly agreed action). The topic of education is seldom considered from a narrowly political perspective, and reforms generally entail long- term implementation.

Concerning freedom of school choice freedom is highest when the public authorities do not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools. European education systems are analysed using the following four categories. Category 1= no real choice: pupils are allocated a school (except in cases of special dispensation). Category 2: pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one. Category 3: parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its

enrolment capacity is over-stretched. Category 4: parents choose a school freely, with no action by the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers. The Danish education system can be typified as a category 2 type of school system. Pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one. The freedom of parents to choose a school other than the one proposed by the public authorities is a factor that may make the catchment area system more flexible. This is the case in Denmark. However, it should be noted that parents may have their request for enrolment refused if their preferred school is threatened with overcrowding. Furthermore, free school transport is not offered to pupils who do not enrol at the school closest to their home, or who choose a school other than the one they are allocated by their municipality.

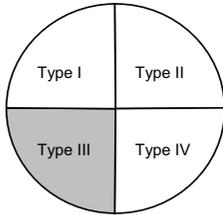
When analysing the Danish education system in terms of the obligation to pay fees it is considered that school fees are a sign that there is financial barrier to school choice and second, schools that charge fees have a kind of selection mechanism controlling their school population. Three types of European countries have been identified. In type 1 countries there are no school fees in private education; the legislation is identical to that of public-sector schools. In the type 2 countries pupils pay fairly low fees, to avoid any social discrimination. In the third type of European countries private school fees wholly or partially cover budgetary headings not covered by public-sector funding. The Danish education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 3 type of country.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in Denmark

Denmark

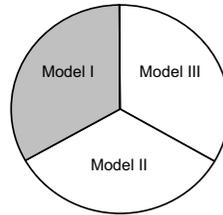
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

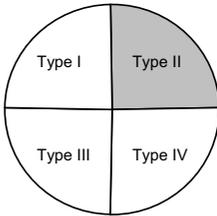
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

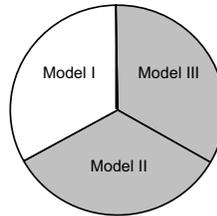
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

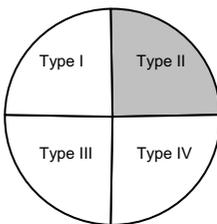
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

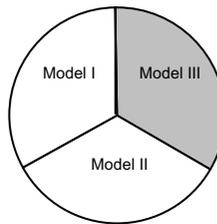
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.12 BELGIUM (FRENCH)

3.12.1 *Country profile*

Belgium French (Bel Fr) is part of Europe and a member state of the European Union. From its creation in 1830, the Kingdom of Belgium, a constitutional parliamentary monarchy, was a unitary State. Belgium has however become a federal State with three distinct Communities: the French Community, the Flemish Community and the German-Speaking Community. These Communities mainly have responsibility for cultural, employment and language matters as well as in the fields of education, teaching, childhood, youth and research. The Constitution guarantees the separation of Church and State. Freedom of religion, public worship and freedom of speech on any matter are guaranteed, except for the suppression of offences committed in the use of these liberties. In 1990, 75% of the population was estimated to be Catholic, however two thirds are no longer practising. All students subject to compulsory schooling are entitled to moral or religious education, the costs of which are borne by the Community.

The Constitution established from the very beginning a thorough freedom of choice in education (the current article 24 of the Constitution). Belgian political history has known two so-called 'school wars'. The first beginning in 1881 (persisting till 1886) and the second beginning in the 1950s. In both conflicts partisans of the secular 'official' (public) education system were pitted against partisans of 'free' (private) and essentially Catholic education for influence. These rivalries were rooted in the cleavage between secular and Catholic groups already present when the country was founded (Wynants, 1998). In 1951, the second 'school war' broke out and lasted for seven years. Catholics argued that the Church had the right to organise an autonomous system of education and obtain the necessary subsidies for it, and that the State only had the right to play a supplementary role where private initiative did not fulfil this task. Secular groups, however, argued that state education should have, if not a monopoly, at least priority and opposed the award of grants to private schools. In 1955, the Collard Act established that municipalities could only admit private schools after they had created public-sector ones and only where a need for them was felt. In 1959, the 'school pact' resolved tensions between the different ideological and philosophical parties in society and maintained centralised control over funding in particular. It established the 'school peace' in an exceptionally broad agreement between the three major political groups in Belgium: the Socialists, Christian-Democrats and Liberals. It guaranteed families the opportunity to exercise genuine free choice. The State also had the right to create schools at all levels wherever they were needed (the number of schools was no longer limited), in order to ensure parents the freedom to choose their school. In public-sector schools, religious instruction had to be provided alongside secular moral instruction.

The official languages are Dutch, French and German. The Belgian language system is based on the four linguistic regions: the French-speaking region, the Dutch-speaking region, the German-speaking region and the bilingual region of Brussels. The official language of instruction is the same as the official language of

the linguistic region. Therefore, the official school language is Dutch in the Dutch-speaking region, French in the French-speaking region, German in the German-speaking region and, depending on the choice of the head of each household, Dutch or French in the bilingual region of Brussels. Some aspects of foreign language teaching are also governed by legislation on language. For instance, in the bilingual region of Brussels, the first foreign language in French-speaking schools is Dutch, which is compulsory, and vice versa. However, in the French-speaking and Dutch-speaking regions, students are free to select their first foreign language (Dutch, German or English).

On January 1, 1998, the population of Belgium was 10,192,000, 9.4% of whom live in the Brussels Region, 33% in the Walloon Region (of which 0.7% are German-speaking), 58% in the Flemish Region. In 1995/96, 979,033 pupils and students were enrolled in full-time education. The Italian, Moroccan and Turkish nationalities are particularly well represented, but there are variations according to Regions. On January 1, 1998, there were 903,000 foreigners living in Belgium i.e. 9% of the total population.

3.12.2 *Characteristics of Belgium (French) compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 18. It is full-time until the age of 15 or 16, and in principle includes six years of primary education. Primary education ranges from 6-12 years of age and secondary education from 12-16 or 18 years of age. If young people have not completed the first two years of secondary education by the age of 15, they may be obliged to continue their full-time schooling until they are 16. If they have completed (though not necessarily satisfactorily) their second year of full-time secondary education, 15-year-olds no longer have to attend full-time compulsory schooling. The requirements of part-time compulsory schooling are satisfied if adolescents continue full-time secondary education, or if they undertake part-time vocational secondary education, or some form of recognised training that satisfies the requirements of compulsory schooling. The six years of primary education are divided into separate stages of two years each. The most widespread form of secondary education (known as 'common education' or 'enseignement ordinaire') also includes three stages each lasting two years. Within the first of these stages, a further year is provided for pupils who, at the end of the second year, have not reached the level corresponding to certain basic standards of knowledge, and who wish to continue in the transitional or qualification streams of general, technical or artistic education. Primary education normally begins in September of the year in which children reach the age of 6. There is no special condition governing admission. In general, children are aged 12 when they enter secondary education. They can usually begin their first year if they have obtained their 'certificat d'études de base' (the CEB, or certificate of primary education). In both primary and secondary education, parents can freely choose their child's school. Access to compulsory education is free of charge.

School days and lessons. Primary and secondary school activity covers five days a week from Monday to Friday in both morning and afternoon, with the exception of

Wednesday afternoon in primary school. It may start from 8 o'clock in the morning and last, in principle, until 5 p.m. All pupils have at least one hour free in the middle of the day. Teaching is organised into periods of 50 minutes. In primary education, all pupils have 28-31 such periods a week and, in secondary education, 28-36 periods a week. The school year comprises 37 weeks (182 days).

Class size. Primary education is organised into six classes. When the school population is not big enough to form a class for each age-group, pupils are placed in classes corresponding to the stage of primary education they have reached. Teachers give lessons in all subjects, except those responsible for physical education and languages, who are subject specialists. In secondary education, each class corresponds, in principle, to an age-group and the teachers are subject specialists.

Curriculum. In primary education, pupils have, in accordance with the law, to acquire linguistic skills by being taught a modern language other than French, and also through 'immersion', by being taught in a (modern) language of instruction other than French. The law also states that they must have lessons in religious or (secular) moral instruction, reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of language, geography, the history of Belgium, drawing, the natural sciences, hygiene, singing, physical education, road safety and handicrafts. In the common secondary education, a compulsory common curriculum in the first two years involves the following: all pupils have to study religion or ethics, French, mathematics, history and geography, a foreign language, sciences and physical education; pupils have to choose further subjects from a range of options including education using technology, artistic education, mathematics and other possibilities. The administrative authority responsible for a school may submit its own primary and secondary education curricula for ministerial approval. These curricula have to be drawn up in accordance with certain basic standards of knowledge (which should be achieved by the end of the first stage of secondary education), and with final levels of attainment corresponding to the end of secondary education, which apply to all sectors. Administrative authorities that do not have their own curriculum have to use the official curriculum of the French Community. Curricula followed in the grant-aided sector are approved by the government after consulting with the 'Commission des Programmes' (committee on curricula).

Examinations and testing. In primary education, each administrative authority may decide on its own assessment procedures and the way results will be communicated, provided they comply with the relevant legislation. Pupils are assessed by each teacher on the basis of his or her own aims and individual teaching. A school report sent to parents informs them about their children's results and progress at school, as well as their attitude and approach to learning and the development of their personality. Examination results supplement this formative assessment. The decision as to whether pupils have satisfactorily completed their school year is taken by the class teacher, often in consultation with the school head and, sometimes, the other teachers. The CEB is obtained at the end of the sixth year of primary education. In secondary education, each school administrative authority may adapt its assessment methods to the different levels and forms of teaching, the various areas of subject specialisation and circumstances peculiar to the school environment. Neither of the first two years may be repeated. A 'certificat

d'enseignement secondaire du deuxième degré' (certificate of the second stage of secondary education) is awarded to pupils who have successfully completed the first two stages. An upper secondary education certificate (the CESS, or 'certificat d'enseignement secondaire supérieur') is awarded to pupils who have successfully completed the final two years of general, technical or artistic secondary education. For pupils undergoing vocational education, the final years lead to a qualification certificate. The Department of Education organises no central examination common to all schools. It acknowledges their responsibility for awarding qualifications, provided the latter are formally approved. The inspectorate is responsible for ensuring that standards in education are upheld.

3.12.3 Public and private schools: key characteristics

Education funding policy

In 1995/96, 49% of pupils in primary and normal secondary education attended a public-sector school (governed by the French Community itself, or one of its provinces or communes), while 51% attended a grant-aided private school, which received the major part of its financial allocation from the Community.

The Constitution established that, during the period of compulsory education, schooling would be provided free of charge. The provisions of the school pact prohibited discrimination generally and financial discrimination in particular between the various school sectors. The legislation thus provided that education not administered by the State would be subsidised in return for which it would be subject to some form of control. School funding was a complex issue. Each sector received funding in accordance with a separate system and was controlled by separate regulations, but the central government financed its staff salaries and operational expenditure. Each administrative body ('Pouvoir organisateur/Schulträger/Inrichtende macht'), defined as the individual person or collective entity accepting full responsibility for the school, was autonomous in terms of teaching matters. The parental right freely to choose the school was enshrined in the Constitution. As a result of the school pact, education expanded and the state budget for education increased considerably as new schools were created and subsidies for private schools were increased. It also led to an excessive proliferation in the number of schools. In 1970, the first institutional reform of the State was introduced. Responsibility for education was transferred respectively to the French and Flemish Communities, but it was subject to significant restrictions. The Communities' power was limited to marginal interventions. The electoral weight of the Catholic Party, which has been systematically present in all coalition governments except in the 1950s, serves to explain developments in funding for grant-aided private education.

Analysing the Belgium education system in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education the (French Community) education system can be identified as a type 4 size of privately-run school sector. In fact, in Belgium, the grant-aided private sector is very well developed and a large proportion, if not the majority of the pupils, attend grant-aided private education.

Public-sector education is the responsibility either of an education ministry (in the French and German-speaking Communities) or the provinces and municipalities. In the first case, the terms used to describe provision are ‘enseignement de la Communauté or Gemeinschaft-unterrichtswesen or Gemeenschapsonderwijs’ (corresponding to ‘Community education’) and, in the second, enseignement officiel subventionné or Offizielles subventioniertes Unterrichtswesen or Gesubsidieerd officieel onderwijs (equivalent to ‘subsidised public sector education’). The expressions pouvoir organisateur, Schulträger, inrichtende macht or schoolbestuur are employed to refer to the authority that ‘organises’, or administers, each school whether this is the (Community) ministry, the ARGO (the autonomous council for the community education), a province or municipality, a Lorgo (local council of community education) or a private entity (o.c., p.7; Verhoeven & Elchardus, 2000).

In the Belgium (French Community) education system the sector has a significant bearing on educational provision, the methods used to award and manage resources for the schools concerned will receive the same emphasis here as in the case of the public-sector counterparts (o.c. p.6). However, the Belgium (French) system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 2 type of country (o.c. p.104). The bodies responsible for administering private school obtain funding similar to that received by the local authorities for schools under their jurisdiction. However, the provinces and municipalities have to partially finance the buildings of the schools they administer. The private bodies responsible for running grant-aided private schools also have to partially fund their own buildings. In the French Community the conditions governing the award of grants for school buildings are different in both sectors. The share of funding earmarked by municipalities for the capital expenditure of their schools has no equivalent in the private sector. The ‘fringe benefits’, on the other hand, that municipalities may award their schools (optional assistance corresponding to social kinds of requirement) also have to be available to grant-aided private schools on the same terms (o.c. p.105). In Belgium, subsidies for grant-aided private schools are identical to those for schools administered by the provinces and municipalities. As buildings are the property of the body that runs a particular school, government or other public-sector support, where applicable, more often involves underwriting a loan or subsidising the interest on it.

Governance of schools

The Government of the French Community is the top-level authority for education in the Community (and, in this capacity, establishes its structures, curricula and methods, and manages its schools), also laying down regulations for the schools that it subsidises. They include schools governed by other public authorities (the provinces or ‘communes’), or private persons (independent schools governed by a private person belong to the private sector, and constitute what is known as ‘free education’). For entitlement to a subsidy, schools are expected to comply with regulations relating to their organisational structure, security, health standards and

courses. The private sector in its strictest sense, which comprises schools that receive no subsidy from the French Community, but which may be recognised by it (as in the case of just one school up to now), is very small. The community inspectorate for schools ensures that the administrative authorities responsible for them fulfil their obligations and, in particular, make appropriate use of the public resources they receive. It oversees the entire system, with the exception of higher education institutions offering more than a single stage of studies. Respect for appropriate norms in the latter is based on a system of self-evaluation.

Freedom of education is one of the most important principles governing the Belgian education system and a consequence of this is the diversity of the existing educational streams or networks. An educational network may come under the authority of the community, province, municipality, or public official, as well as under private persons or associations (see Robitaille, 1997, p.51). Traditionally, there have been three networks: (a) community education, which comprises schools that were originally set up by the state but are now the responsibility of the community, (b) subsidized official education, which is organised by the provincial authorities, and municipal education, which is set up by the municipal authorities. [This was the case till 1975], (c) subsidised private education, which operates on the initiative of a private person or organisation. It consists of denominational (mainly catholic), nondenominational, and pluralistic education. Education organised within the first two networks is called official education; education provided by the third network is called private education. The networks are largely autonomous and free to choose their teaching method, timetables, and curricula, subject to governmental approval (see Monseur & Brusselmans-Dehairs In: Robitaille, 1997, 51). Each network has its own pedagogical support service, providing the schools with guidelines, methods and handbooks (Verhoeven & Elchardus, 2000).

The nature and the scope of the power of European councils in which parents are involved in areas at school level like: clarification of school rules, drafting of the schools' development plans, setting the teaching syllabus and objectives, control of expenditure and allocation of the budget assigned to the school, varies substantially (o.c. p37). Like most European countries the Belgium education system includes such consultative councils with parents at school level. In the education system of Belgium (French Community) the councils act in a consultative capacity (type 2) for virtually all decision relating to the school (o.c. p.37).

Freedom of school choice

It is a point in case that Belgium has compulsory education, but not compulsory school attendance. The main philosophy was that each private or legal person should be entitled to provide education (Tyssens & Simon, 1999). The parental right freely to choose the school was enshrined in the Constitution. This is one of the most important principles governing the Belgian education system, meaning that educating institutions may not be submitted to restrictive measures and parents may choose the school or type of education they wish for their children. In some countries, the public sector is in direct competition with grant-aided private schools

which, originally, offered denominational schooling. However, for this competition to be genuine, grant-aided private schools have to be relatively numerous. Their denominational identity must not be a barrier to enrolment (the religion concerned has to be very firmly established), and their enrolment fees must not be excessive. Belgium, in which Catholic grant-aided private education enrolls a significant proportion of pupils illustrates this fairly well. The denominational identity of some of the schools concerned does not discourage the enrolment of pupils from non-religious backgrounds, as the quality of education provided, as well as the sociological characteristics of the school population, are what count most for them.

Four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries can be identified and within these the Belgian (Fr) education system can be typified as a category 4 system with the highest degree of freedom of school choice in which parents choose a school freely, with no action by the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers. Parents have considerable freedom to choose a school, in that the public authorities do not attempt to influence their decision at any stage. Such is the case in Belgium. In Belgium, transport is also organised to enable parents to enrol their child in the school closest to their home offering their preferred kind of education.

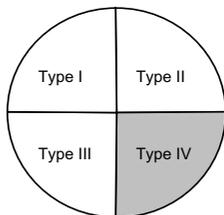
Further analysing the question of school fees in private education, the Belgian (Fr) education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 1 type of privately-run school sector as there are no school fees for primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public funded sector.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in Belgium (French)

Belgium (Fr)

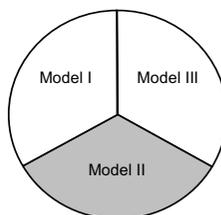
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

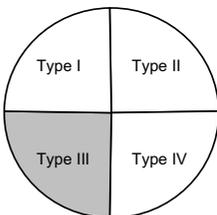
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

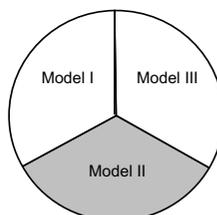
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

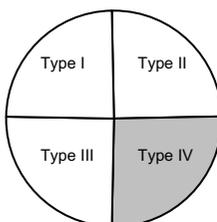
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

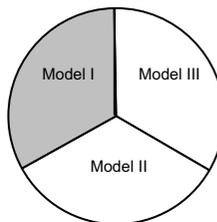
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private



- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.13 BELGIUM (FLEMISH)

3.13.1 *Country profile*

Belgium Flemish Community (Bel NL) is part of Europe and a member state of the European Union.

The Constitution turned over all responsibilities in relation to the educational system to the Gemeenschappen (Communities) with the exception of three: fixing the beginning and end of the compulsory education period; establishing the minimum conditions for granting diplomas and maintaining the pension system. These first two exceptions were made to safeguard a minimum degree of coherence in the educational systems of the three Communities. For the pension system, the case is different. The pensions are still part of the national social security system for which there still is a national funding system based on solidarity of the Communities and the Gewesten (Regions). As a consequence, the responsibility for educational matters has been effectively in the hands of the Community Council and the Community Minister since 1 January 1989. Therefore, the Flemish Community governs its own education system.

The Belgian Constitution guarantees the separation of Church and State. In addition, many social, cultural, and educational matters are governed by the principle of subsidiarity. This explains why the Government in Flanders has no direct influence on the curricula. The Government only has a well-defined right to review those curricula. There is also no 'official religion' (or 'state religion'), although the State does recognise several religions by law. The recognised religions are: Catholic, Protestant, Jewish, Anglican, Islamic, and Orthodox Christian. The Constitution guarantees the right of all children in primary and secondary education to attend a philosophical or religious course (2 periods a week) at state expense. The official educational establishments 'gemeenschapsscholen' (community schools) and 'gesubsidieerde officiële scholen' (grant-aided official schools) must respect the philosophical options of all the parents, and offer a choice between a religion-based course and a philosophical (secular) one. The government has no authority over the content of these courses as long as they do not contravene the democratic principles of society. A choice can be made for one of the recognised religions mentioned above or for a non-confessional ethics course. In special cases, pupils can be excused from these courses (e.g., Jehovah's Witnesses). In vrije gesubsidieerde scholen (grant-aided free schools), there is no choice. The majority of these schools are Catholic, with the Protestant, Jewish, and Steiner schools constituting a small minority group. A special arrangement has been made for alternative method schools, such as the Steiner and the Freinet schools.

Belgium has four language areas: Dutch, French, German, and the bilingual region Brussels Capital (Dutch and French). The only official language of the Vlaamse Gemeenschap (Flemish Community) is Dutch. Many people in Flanders have a good working knowledge of at least one or two other European languages (English, French, German, Spanish, Italian). The language of instruction is Dutch. Officially, there are no legally recognised minority languages in Flanders, with the exception of French in certain communities along the language border

(administrative facilities). In the Vlaamse Gemeenschap (Flemish Community) the teaching language is Dutch. French is taught as a second language starting in the fifth year of primary education (in the region of Brussels it starts in the third year). English is taught as a third language starting in the second year of secondary education. Depending on educational choices, other languages can be learned at school.

The languages of migrant populations are not legally recognised as minority languages. Nevertheless, a special policy has been instituted within the education system to provide for adequate learning opportunities, especially for children within compulsory education. This policy is called the *onderwijsvoorrangbeleid* (educational priority policy). This policy is applied at the primary and secondary levels in municipalities with a significant number of migrant or refugee children. Three main lines of action are presented. First, there is a scheme that promotes equal representation of these children in all schools of a region (at the secondary level this is not always possible because not all courses of study are available or organised in every school). Second, special attention is given to the quality of the teaching of Dutch as well as to the teaching of the native language and culture of the pupils involved. Third, for those pupils who have insufficient knowledge of Dutch, special language classes are organised. Extra teaching periods are provided to the schools.

In 2000, the population count of Flanders was 5,940,251 or 58.0% of the total Belgian population. In 1998/1999, 35.4% of the population were aged under 29, and 923 488 pupils were of compulsory education age. The Flemish Region has a foreign population of 4.9% (in 1998). About a fourth (24,6%) of the foreign population is Dutch, more or less 15% is Moroccan, 13% is Turkish and about 9% is Italian.

3.13.2 Characteristics of Belgium (Flemish) compulsory education

Compulsory education. Full-time education is compulsory from the age of 6 to 15 or 16. From then on, education remains compulsory until the age of 18, but pupils may continue it on a part-time basis. Primary school education ('*Basis onderwijs*') ranges from 6-12 years of age and secondary School ('*Secundair onderwijs*') from 12-16 or 18 years of age. The six years of secondary education are divided into three levels each lasting two years. Primary education normally starts in the September of the year in which children reach their sixth birthday. There are no specific admissions criteria. Pupils are generally aged 12 when they are admitted to secondary education. In most cases, they are able to begin the first year when they have obtained the '*Getuigschrift basisonderwijs*' (Certificate of Primary Education). Parents are free to choose both primary and secondary schools for their children whose education is free (without fees).

School days and lessons. In primary and secondary education, activities are five days a week, from Monday to Friday, morning and afternoon, with the exception of Wednesday afternoon. They may start from 8 a.m. onwards and continue until 5 p.m. (4 p.m. in primary education). All pupils have at least one free hour around midday. Teaching is organised in 50-minute periods, with 28 periods a week for all

primary school pupils and 32-36 periods a week in secondary school. Schools must provide at least 182 days of classes annually, but are shut during July and August.

Class size. Primary schooling is structured into six classes and three levels. When the school population is not big enough for a class corresponding to each age-group, classes are formed through arranging pupils by level, or even placing together children of different levels. In general, teaching methods are not geared to individual needs so teaching is broadly uniform. Teachers are not normally subject specialists. In secondary education, each class is normally meant to correspond to a single age-group.

Nevertheless, this is not always the case, given that age is not a formal admission criterion and years can be repeated in the course of schooling. Teachers are subject specialists.

Curriculum. The Flemish Community of Belgium lays down the elementary compulsory content or aims of the curriculum. Courses of study are then determined by the administrative authorities and approved by the Department of Education. There are no specially prescribed textbooks or teaching materials, and schools can by and large follow their preferred methods of teaching. The primary curriculum has to include the mother tongue, reading and writing, mathematics, history, geography, observation of the environment, science, religious or moral instruction, physical education, music, handiwork, civic instruction and road safety. A common curriculum in the first year of secondary education gradually gives way to increasing scope for choice in the subjects studied. The compulsory common curriculum initially includes the mother tongue, mathematics, literature, science, a foreign language, art, technical education, physical education and religion or morals. At the end of the second year, pupils choose between general, technical, vocational or artistic education. This choice, however, is not socially or academically at random. It is in fact the translation of tracking in the Belgian context, with the general education being the 'highest' track and vocational education being the 'lowest' track (Pelleriaux, 2001).

Examinations and testing. Assessment is undertaken by the teachers who act on their own in the case of primary education, and within a class committee supervised by the head teacher in secondary education. Parents are regularly informed of their children's results, as well their progress and classroom behaviour, in a school report. All tests and examinations are organised and marked by the teachers. An exam has to be passed each year before the following year can be started. Pupils may revise their choice of subjects studied except at the third level, where their decision has to be final. Pupils in difficulty can repeat a year. The 'Getuigschrift basisonderwijs' testifies to the satisfactory completion of primary education, while the 'Diploma secundair onderwijs' is awarded at the end of secondary studies (after six years in the case of general, technical and artistic education, and seven years in vocational education). The Department organises no common examination for all schools, and formally recognises their authority to award certificates. Inspectors ensure that educational standards are fully satisfactory.

3.13.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

In 1996/97, 30% of pupils in primary and secondary education were in state schools (attached to the Flemish Community, the provinces or communes), while 70% attended grant-aided private schools receiving their subsidies from the Community. The federal government awards financial resources to the Flemish Community for education. The Community parliament exercises legislative powers, and the Community government exercises executive power as regards the organisation and administration of education.

The Belgium (Fl) education system can be identified as a type 4 size of privately-run school sector. In fact, in Belgium, the grant-aided private sector is very well developed and a large proportion, if not the majority of the children attend grant-aided private education. In the Flemish Community more than half of all pupils enrol in grant-aided private education.

Furthermore, the funding of these grant-aided private Belgium schools can be distinguished in accordance with their degree of similarity to the financing of the public sector. In the Belgium (Flemish Community) education system the sector has a significant bearing on educational provision, the methods used to award and manage resources for the schools concerned, receive the same emphasis here as in the case of the public-sector counterparts (o.c. p.6). All in all, the Belgium (Flemish) system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 2 type of country (Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.104), because the financing practice is similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. In Belgium, subsidies for grant-aided private schools are identical to those for schools administered by the provinces and municipalities. As buildings are the property of the body that runs a particular school, government or other public-sector support, where applicable, more often involves underwriting a loan or subsidising the interest on it. In some countries, the buildings are made available to the school administrative body. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, the percentage of public funding for expenditure on buildings belonging to grant-aided private schools is much higher than in other comparable countries (o.c. p105).

Governance of schools

Private schools may be founded independently of the public authorities, but must comply with Community decrees if they are to award recognised qualifications and get Community subsidies. Different administrative authorities are responsible for running the various categories of school. In schools responsible to the Flemish Community, these authorities are a central board ('Raad van het Gemeenschapsonderwijs') and local boards ('Lokale raden van het gemeenschapsonderwijs'). The communes or the provinces are themselves the administrative authorities for all state schools under their jurisdiction, whereas private schools subsidised by the Community are run by separate authorities. The Community inspectorate is regarded as an instrument enabling the Community to

supervise respect for obligations incumbent on the administrative authorities, particularly regarding quality and aims. It exercises oversight of the entire system, with the exception of higher education. State officials who conduct inspections are responsible for the control of financial management and respect for conditions governing funding.

Pupils attend so-called ‘free (‘libres/freie/vrije’) schools which are administrated by private persons or entities and cannot charge fees. Public-sector education is the responsibility of the ARGO (the Autonomous Council for Community Education) in the Flemish Community or, alternatively, the provinces and municipalities. In the first case, the terms used to describe provision are ‘enseignement de la Communauté or Gemeinschaftunterrichtswesen or Gemeenschapsonderwijs’ (corresponding to ‘Community education’) and, in the second, enseignement officiel subventionné or Offizielles subventioniertes Unterrichtswesen or Gesubsidieerd officieel onderwijs (equivalent to ‘subsidised public sector education’). The expressions inrichtende macht – schoolbestuur, pouvoir organisateur or Schulträger, are employed to refer to the authority that ‘organises’, or administers, each school whether this is the (Community) ministry, the ARGO, the local boards, a province or municipality, or a private entity (p.7). In 1997, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, the term ‘schoolbestuur’ (school board) was introduced as a synonym of ‘inrichtende macht’ by the government in the new legislation on ‘basisonderwijs’ (basic education). Under a decree which came into force in 2000, most of the responsibilities of the ARGO are gradually being transferred to the local school bodies in order to introduce a structure that will permit greater decentralisation of school administration.

A consequence of the Belgian freedom of education is the existing diversity of educational networks or streams. An educational network may come under the authority of the community, province, municipality, or public official, as well as under private persons or associations (Robitaille, 1997, p.51). Traditionally, there have been three networks: (a) community education, which comprises schools that were originally set up by the state but are now the responsibility of the community, (b) subsidised official education, which is organised by the provincial authorities, and municipal education, which is set up by the municipal authorities, which was the case till 1975, (c) subsidised private education, which operates on the initiative of a private person or organisation. It consists of denominational (mainly catholic), nondenominational, and pluralistic education. Education organised within the first two networks is called official education; education provided by the third network is called private education. The networks are largely autonomous: free to choose their teaching method, timetables, and curricula, subject to governmental approval (see Robitaille, 1997, 51).

Besides the governing instances of public and private education, there are consultative councils at school level, which include parents. Based on data on education in Europe the nature and the scope of the councils in which parents are involved at school level in a number of broad areas has been analysed (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.37). The Belgian (FL) education system can from this viewpoint be typified as a country with model 2 consultative powers. The councils act in a consultative capacity for all decision relating to the school (o.c. p.36).

Freedom of school choice

One of the most important principles governing the Belgian education system is freedom of education. The constitution guarantees this freedom, meaning that educating institutions may not be submitted to restrictive measures and parents may choose the school or type of education they wish for their children (idem for French and Flemish Community; current article 24 of the Constitution of Belgium). There also has to be an active admission policy at the local school level in order to guarantee all young persons the freedom of school choice and to promote the presence of foreign pupils in all the schools and all the courses of study in a certain area. A proportional presence of foreign young people will be striven for by means of local agreements between schools on admission policy. Measures have been taken by the government to support such a policy. For the so-called *basisonderwijs* (basic education) (2000-2001), schools in 28 municipalities are involved in such agreements; for secondary education, schools in 18 municipalities have concluded one. (Information received from the Ministry of the Flemish Community, Education Department).

Using our four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries the Belgian (Fl) education system in general can be typified as a category 4 system with the highest degree of freedom of school choice in which parents choose a school freely. Thus, in Belgium (Fl) parents have considerable freedom to choose a school, in that the public authorities do not attempt to influence their decision at any stage. In Belgium, transport is also organised to enable parents to enrol their child in the school closest to their home offering their preferred kind of education.

Looking at freedom of school choice from the viewpoint of school fees three types of European countries have been identified. The Belgian (Fl) education system can generally speaking be identified as a number 1 type of privately run school sector as there are no school fees for primary and secondary schools or legislation relating to fees is exactly the same as that enforced in the public funded sector.

In Belgium, the public sector is in direct competition with grant-aided private schools, which at the outset offered a denominational alternative. Naturally, for this competition to be real, grant-aided private schools have to be relatively numerous. For that purpose, their denominational identity must not be a barrier to enrolment (the religion concerned has to be very firmly established), and their enrolment fees must not be excessive. Belgium, in which Catholic grant-aided private education enrolls a significant proportion of pupils, illustrates this fairly well. The denominational identity of some of the schools concerned does not discourage the enrolment of pupils from non-religious backgrounds, as the quality of education provided, as well as the sociological characteristics of the school population, is what count most for them.

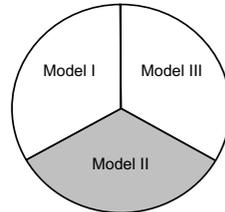
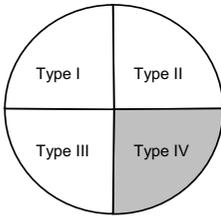
Overview of indicators of institutional context in Belgium (Fl)

Belgium (Fl.)

Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education

Financing grand-aided private education



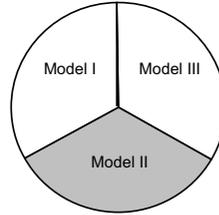
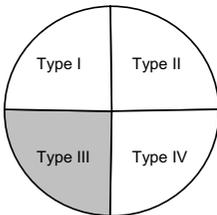
- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities

Power of school



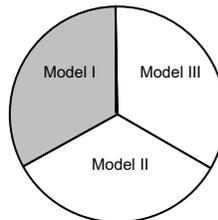
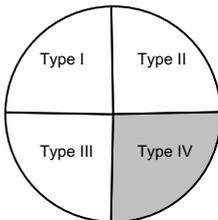
- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

3.14 AUSTRIA

3.14.1 *Country profile*

Austria (A) is part of Europe and a member state of the European Union. Austria is a land-locked country located in southern Central Europe. Austria is a parliamentary democracy. According to the leading principles enshrined in the Constitution, Austria is a federal state and governed by the rule of law.

There is no state church in Austria. The Church and the State are separate entities, organisationally as well as institutionally. In Austria, a distinction is made between the officially recognised churches, religious communities and denominations, and other churches and religious communities. This distinction does not affect the freedom of creed and conscience and the public and private practice of religion. The officially recognised churches and religious communities enjoy a status of public-law entities and these include the Catholic church, the Protestant church, the Armenian-Apostolic Church, the Greek-Oriental Church (in addition to the Greek-Orthodox community also the Serbian, Russian, Romanian and Bulgarian Orthodox communities), the Syrian-Orthodox Church, the Methodist church, the Mormons, the New Apostolic Church, the Islamic, Jewish, and the Buddhist communities. Despite the organisational and institutional separation of the Church and the State, there is co-operation on social policy issues, such as religious education, subsidiation of denominational private schools. Religious instruction taught as a compulsory subject at Austrian schools is not restricted to the Roman Catholic church, but includes the teaching of other officially recognised churches and religious communities as a compulsory subject. This religious instruction is financed by the state.

The official language in Austria is German. In the mixed-language districts of Carinthia and Burgenland, Slovene/Croatian and Hungarian are admitted as further official languages. The language of instruction is predominantly German but, in regions with a linguistic minority, instruction at primary schools is divided between German and Slovenian, Hungarian or Croatian in bilingual institutions.

In addition to the Slovenes, Croats, and Hungarians, the Czechs and Slovaks (in Vienna), as well as the Roma (in Burgenland) and the Sinti (in Carinthia) exist as minorities. In Carinthia, instruction in the first three grades of Volksschule (primary school) is bilingual for the Slovenian minority, i.e. instruction is split equally between German and Slovenian. From grade 4 of primary school onwards, and in general secondary school, instruction is in German. For members of the Slovene minority, Slovenian is taught four hours a week as a compulsory subject. In the city of Klagenfurt there are a Slovenian-language Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule (academic secondary school) and a Slovenian secondary commercial school Handelsakademie. Similar rules apply to the Hungarian and Croat minorities. Instruction is split equally between German and Hungarian and German and Croatian in the first four years of primary school. Oberwart (in Burgenland) runs a bi-lingual "Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule" for the Hungarian and Croat ethnic groups. Instruction must be held in equal parts in the respective ethnic group language and in German.

The share of foreign residents in Austria was 6.6% or 517,690 persons in 1991: 57,310 German citizens, 197,886 citizens of former Yugoslavia and 118,579 Turks. In 1997, approximately 38% of the population aged 29 or under were in education, and there were 840 000 young people of compulsory education age.

3.14.2 *Characteristics of Austrian compulsory education*

Compulsory education. Austrian education has been compulsory between the ages of 6 and 15 since 1962. Only 6% of pupils are enrolled in private schools. Primary school students must be aged six by 1 September of their year of admission. Children born between 1 September and 31 December may start early, if they are able to follow the lessons mentally and physically. Transfer to lower secondary schooling requires successful completion of grade four of primary school. In general, pupils need to attend one year at an upper secondary institution to complete compulsory schooling.

The first phase in Austrian primary education ranges from 6-10 years of age and is called 'Volksschule' or 'Grundschule'. The next phase includes students from 10-14 years of age and is called lower secondary education. It includes two types of schools, 'Hauptschule', which is lower secondary school and 'Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule', which includes secondary academic school at lower level. From 14 years of age there are three possibilities: (a) year one of upper secondary education (grade 9), (b) 'Polytechnische Schule' (pre-vocational year) or any other upper secondary school. Admission to 'Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule' depends on achievement. With the exception of education in private schools, compulsory schooling is free of charge.

School days and lessons. The school year normally comprises 215 days between the first or second Monday in September and the Saturday between 28 June and 4 July, or between 5 July and 11 July (depending on the region). Schools open five or six days a week. The number of lessons a week ranges from 21 (first year in primary school) to 39 (in engineering colleges). An average lesson lasts 50 minutes. In 1999, the minimum number of hours taught each year was around 630 for children aged 7, 750 for those aged 10, and 870 at lower secondary, and 960 at upper secondary level.

Class size. The maximum class size is 30, while the minimum is 10 in primary school and 20 in 'Hauptschulen'. Pupils are grouped by age, but there is some grouping by ability in German, mathematics and modern foreign languages at secondary level. Primary school pupils have one teacher for all subjects except religion and crafts; secondary school students have separate subject teachers.

Curriculum. On the basis of proposals drafted by the relevant curricular task force, the Minister of Education, Science and Culture establishes a curricular framework in a consultation process that includes district and provincial educational bodies and organisations of teacher representatives. The Minister also approves textbooks. Schools are free to make their choice, and have some freedom to adapt the curriculum to the local context. Primary school compulsory subjects include religion, humanities, German, mathematics, music, arts and crafts, physical

education and road safety. From the third year of primary school onwards, pupils study a modern foreign language. Since the beginning of the 1999/2000 school year, foreign language teaching at primary schools is being gradually extended to the first two years, thus covering the entire period of education. At lower secondary level, pupils continue these subjects plus sciences and technical subjects. A special committee composed of teachers and parents (and, at upper secondary level, students also) has the right to be consulted on this issue.

Examinations and testing. There is no formal external testing during compulsory education. Teacher-generated assessment is based on classroom participation and oral, written, practical and graphical work. Primary school pupils have to sit written exams in German and mathematics in the last year. Pupils receive reports at the end of each semester and at the end of the academic year. There is no specific certificate at the end of compulsory schooling. At the 'Hauptschule', there is a final report at the end of the fourth year. Promotion depends on achievement in all subjects; where achievement in a particular subject is unsatisfactory, promotion is at the discretion of teachers (following a decision at a staff meeting).

3.14.3 *Public and private schools: key characteristics*

Education funding policy

In 1995, 92% of Austrian students attended state-funded education establishments. Private institutions accounted for the remaining 8%. In Austria schools are funded out of taxes and administered by the State. The State determines the allocation of resources, and the expenditure required. The provinces pay and employ teachers in *Compulsory education*. They are reimbursed by the federation. Repayment of the salaries of teachers is total in general compulsory education and stands at 50% in compulsory vocational training.

Based upon the 'European report on finance and management of resources of compulsory education' the education systems in Europe have been analysed in terms of the existence of a grant-aided private sector as an alternative to public education. From that viewpoint the Austrian education system can be identified as a type 2 size of private school sector. In Austria less than 10% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools (see Eurydice, 2000, Vol. 2, p.6)

In addition, using the three main models for funding of these grant-aided private schools the Austrian education system can be described as a model 2 type of country. In Austria the financing arrangements for the denominational schools are similar for staff as teachers are paid in the same way as in public-sector schools. Austrian grant-aided private denominational schools receive no regular public financial support for their operational expenditure. However, they may receive subsidies at the discretion of the public authority concerned. The subsidy for expenditure on buildings is very different from that of the public sector (p.104-105). In Austria, operational costs are not covered by the public authorities, buildings are made available to the bodies responsible for maintaining schools (p.105). Under the Private School Act in Austria, denominational schools are entitled to call for the allocation of teachers who are paid and appointed by the public authorities. Private

schools which do not belong to a religious body do not have this entitlement. The decision as to whether they will be allocated teaching staff paid for by the public authorities is at the latter's discretion. (p104). Thus, financing arrangements are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. In Austria (denominational schools) teachers in grant-aided private schools are paid in the same way as in public-sector schools. By contrast, Austrian grant-aided private denominational schools receive no regular public financial support for.

Governance of schools

Responsibilities for legislation and its implementation are divided between the federation ('Bund') and the 'Länder' (where it is executed by the parliaments of the 'Länder' and the 'Ämter der Landesregierungen'). In specific matters enumerated in the Constitution, the federation sets the framework, while detailed legislation is implemented by the parliaments of the 'Länder' ('Landtage'). The Federation exercises considerable responsibility for the education system as a whole and the rights and conditions of education staff. As regards administration, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture is responsible for primary, secondary and higher education and the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Labour, for in-company apprenticeship training. The 'Länder' (federal states) are mainly responsible for secondary legislation and the provision of public-sector compulsory education. They have sole responsibility for crèches and kindergartens.

Schools enjoy some autonomy over budgetary management and, up to a point, are free to adapt the curriculum to local needs. Provincial inspectors in each of the nine Austrian Länder (assisted by district school inspectors for compulsory schools, and subject inspectors for intermediate and upper secondary level) are responsible for inspections.

According to the Austrian Constitution, education is the responsibility of the State. While legislation in matters of education is mainly the business of the 'Bund' (federation), administration and funding are divided between the federation, the Länder (provinces), and the 'Gemeinden' (municipalities). The Gemeinden are in charge of constructing, equipping and maintaining schools providing compulsory education. However, the provinces provide their teachers. Teachers and other categories of school staff may be accorded civil servant status.

As was stated before many countries include consultative councils with parents at school level. The education system of Austria can be typified as a model 2 country in which the school-level bodies have a consultative function concerning four of the five areas (clarification of school rules, drafting of the schools' development plans, setting the teaching syllabus and objectives, control of expenditure and allocation of the budget assigned to the school. In Austria, these councils that include parents only have a decision-making power in the case of school rules (European Commission, 1999/2000, p.36).

Freedom of school choice

Four categories of freedom of school choice in the public sector in the European countries can be identified: from no real choice to a total or complete free choice (Eurydice, 2000, Vol 2, p.289).. The freedom of school choice is highest when the public authorities do not take action to regulate the number of pupils in schools. Category 1= no real choice: pupils are allocated a school (except in cases of special dispensation). Category 2: pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one. Category 3: parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is overstretched. Category 4: parents choose a school freely, with no action by the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers. The Austrian education system can be typified into two categories depending on the level of education. Austria is a category 2 country in the case of primary education (pupils are allocated a school but parents may choose an alternative one) and a category 3 type of country for 'Hauptschulen' and allgemeinbildende höhere schulen. Within these latter type of schools parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is over-stretched.

So, the freedom of parents to choose a school other than the one proposed by the public authorities, which is the case in Austria in primary schools, the Hauptschulen and the Polytechnische Schulen is a way that may make the catchment area system more flexible. However, it should be noted that parents may have their request for enrolment refused if their preferred school is threatened with overcrowding. Furthermore, free school transport is not offered to pupils who do not enrol at the school closest to their home, or who choose a school other than the one they are allocated by their municipality. In other instances, the public authorities intervene at a later stage after parents have indicated their preference. The aim of any such regulation is to correct imbalances when schools are in a situation in which they are unable to satisfy the demand for enrolment. Indeed, the right to choose a school freely does not mean that it will automatically have a place available. This is the situation in Austria in the allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen.

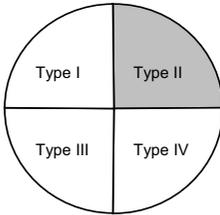
The last perspective to look at the extent of freedom of school choice concerns the possibility that parents have to pay school fees in (grant-aided) private education (Eurydice, Vol. 2, p.103). The Austrian education system of financing grant-aided private schools can be described as a model 3 type of country, fees are earmarked for certain budgetary headings for which schools receive no public subsidy. In Austria this is the case for school fees that have to cover operational costs (p.103). Thus, in this type of countries, fees are earmarked for certain budgetary headings for which schools receive no public subsidy. In Austria, this obligation to pay fees is a sign that there is a certain financial barrier to school choice and second, Austrian schools that charge fees have a kind of selection mechanism controlling their school population.

Overview of indicators of institutional context in Austria

Austria

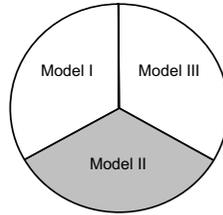
Education Funding Policy

Size of grant-aided private education



- Type I = public sector only
- Type II = less than 10% private
- Type III = 10% - 30% private
- Type IV = over 30% private

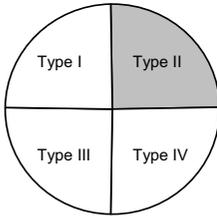
Financing grand-aided private education



- Model I = financing different from public sector
- Model II = financing similar to public sector
- Model III = financing identical to public sector

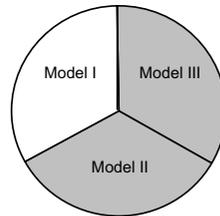
Governance of schools

Type of governance authorities



- Type I = largely publicly-run schools by local or higher level authorities
- Type II = largely publicly-run schools by local authorities and local community
- Type III = mix public/private-run schools
- Type IV = privately-run by school boards

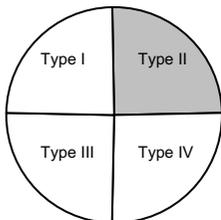
Power of school



- Model I = almost no power
- Model II = consultative power
- Model III = decision making power

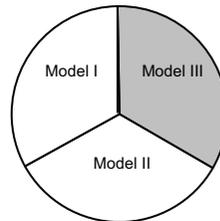
Freedom of school choice

Pupil allocation



- Type I = central pupil allocation
- Type II = central pupil allocation; parents may choose alternative
- Type III = parents free choice; intervention public authorities possible
- Type IV = free choice by parents

School fees in grant-aided private education



- Model I = no fees
- Model II = low fees
- Model III = fees cover school budget at least partially

H. Guldemon, W.H.A. Hofman & R.H. Hofman

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Internationally an increase in attention for institutional related aspects of schooling is observed. Most research has taken place in individual countries. A thorough international comparison of specific institutional effects of schooling could merit important policy implications for individual countries and be useful in that they provide some indication of how the country is performing in comparison to other countries with similar social, economic and educational circumstances (Bishop and Wössmann, 2001; Willms & Somers, 2001).

Although a lot has been published about the quality of countries' education systems it is still not very clear how much is in fact explained by institutional characteristics. Furthermore, multilevel between-country studies focusing on institutional features of education systems are scarce. The objective of this Chapter is to analyse the relative impact of parameters of institutional contexts on quality and equity of schooling systems in general. This bears relevance because students in some education systems do not have the same educational opportunities than in others and this inequality could well be related to variation in institutional contexts. Research should make clear what produces such variations and what factors are related to more equal opportunities for pupils. Another reason is that international comparison of education systems shows that institutional factors seem to explain substantial cross-country variation in student performance (Bishop and Wössmann, 2001). Furthermore, these researchers argue that privately-governed schools are more likely to possess "incentive creating" institutional characteristics and that competition from privately-managed schools within the country's education system seems to be associated with positive effects on the total quality of the education system.

4.2 DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION

While the majority of students attend public schools, a significant minority in several countries attend privately-governed and in some case privately-financed schools. However, educational opportunities are not equally distributed among students from various social backgrounds. Pupils from the lower socio-economic classes and non-native minority pupils are well known to have less opportunities than the higher socio-economic pupils.

In judging an education system in terms of quality and equity an international comparison of attainment or achievement levels is a favourable approach. Such an approach will provide insight into the achievement gap between native and minority

pupils in European countries and show us if some European countries are able to close this gap between minority and native pupils while others are not.

The Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS 1995 and TIMSS 1999) surveyed more than 50 countries (Asian, European, the Americas and Australia) using identical assessment measures and showed that substantive differences in quality of schools can be found in these countries. The number of participating countries, the number of grades tested, and the simultaneous assessment of mathematics and science has resulted in TIMSS becoming the largest, most complex IEA study to date and one of the largest international study of educational achievement ever undertaken (TIMSS, 1997, 1-3).

Next to the two recent assessments in 1995 and 1999 TIMSS will offer a state-of-the-art assessment of student achievement in mathematics and science at the fourth and eighth grades in 2003. Countries participating in the eighth-grade assessment will be able to study trends from 1995, 1999 and 2003, while countries participating in the fourth grade will have trend data available from 1995 to 2003. TIMSS 2003 has developed new assessment frameworks articulating the mathematics and science knowledge and proficiency that will be assessed at fourth and eighth grades in 2003 and in subsequent measurements.

The assessment of the equity of the educational systems of these countries in relationship with the institutional context and governance seems very important in light of the topics discussed in Chapter 1. The assessment and interpretation of such relationships are included in the present Chapter. It results from a comparative re-analysis of the TIMSS Study.

Using the TIMSS data-set of 1995 the quality and equity of the education systems of a set of European countries has been determined and these outcomes have been discussed with an international group of experts. These experts have interpreted the outcomes and possible relationships for their own country as well as looked into the broader picture of quality and equity in an European perspective.

In a set of typical countries, experts have been contacted to gain more insight into the implications of differences between public/private sector and governance on educational processes.

The central questions of this Chapter are:

- Are their major differences achievement levels of students in European education systems?
- Do Western-European countries differ substantially in the existing achievement gap between their native and their minority pupils?
- Which relationships between quality and equity of education systems and certain institutional characteristics of these Western-European countries occur and, if so, what kind of explanations can be based upon them?

Many studies on school effectiveness have shown that differences in student achievement are often mainly due to differences in student characteristics and

students home backgrounds. Hence, a fair comparison of public and private education requires taking into account such differences in school population. Therefore, individual student characteristics, that could possibly interfere with the outcome measures, must be accounted for in a study of school effectiveness. Before going into design and methodology of our study the next section addresses issues related to a fair comparison of quality and equity of education systems.

4.3 FAIR COMPARISONS OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS' PERFORMANCE

Several studies suggest that private schools, especially Catholic schools, have a positive effect on academic achievement (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Chubb & Moe, 1990; Coleman & Hoffer, 1987; Hofman, 1998). However, critical remarks have been made about the empirical status of these findings. One of the most serious criticisms is that it is possible that individual characteristics of students' home environment interact with school results. Private schools can select the students they enrol and dismiss students who misbehave, or have learning problems which they cannot or will not deal with. Furthermore, private schools could attract students with greater academic potential than public schools, not only through the schools' selection procedures, but also as a result of parental school choice. Thus, favorable private school effects could be a result of (self) selection rather than causation (Gamoran, 1996; Sander & Krautmann, 1995).

This is an important issue in itself, but also because some researchers use the differential effect of public and private schooling as an argument in their solution to the problems in various school systems for example in the United States, Britain and New Zealand. They perceive parents choice for private schools as an answer to problems in public education in big cities. Therefore it is important to investigate the differential effect of public and private schooling thoroughly while taking into account the possible selection effects through private school choice (Schneider, Schiller & Coleman, 1996). It is necessary to take into account the differences in student population using variables like socio-economic background, ethnicity and intelligence. Recently published studies, taking into account the different socio-economic background of student populations, conclude that although the sector effect is getting weaker, private schools still seem to be more effective in facilitating certain types of student achievement than public ones. Sander & Krautmann (1995) in their study of the Catholic school sector conclude that after adjusting for a selection effect, Catholic high-schools still have favorable effects on the dropout rate. They add, after taking other background factors into account, that seniors in Catholic schools are not more likely to acquire more schooling than seniors in public schools. Gamoran (1996) also addresses the influence of selection effects on achievement in schools. His results suggest that the positive effect of attending Catholic schools on test scores in mathematics could not be explained by selection bias. On the contrary, the coefficients appear even larger in the so-called selection-biased model where the differences in pupil intake into the schools are accounted for.

Research addressing educational opportunities should take into account that pupils from the lower socio-economic classes and non-native minority pupils are well known to have fewer opportunities than native higher socio-economic pupils. The assessment of quality and equity of various education systems and the possible relationship with characteristics of institutional contexts will be investigated using TIMSS data. The following section presents an overview of TIMSS and next to that the design, methodology and results of our study will be described in this chapter.

4.4 CHOICE OF QUALITY ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

TIMSS represents the continuation of a long series of studies conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The IEA conducted the First International Mathematics Study (FIMS) in 1964, and the Second International Mathematics Study (SIMS) in 1980-1982. The First and Second International Science Studies (FISS and SISS) were carried out in 1970-71 and in 1983-84, respectively. Since the subjects of mathematics and science are related in many respects and since there is broad interest in many countries in students' abilities in both mathematics and science, the third study was conducted together as an integrated effort. Recent TIMSS studies have been conducted in 1995, 1999 and in 2003.

Continuing the approach of previous IEA studies, TIMSS addressed three conceptual levels of curriculum. The intended curriculum is composed of the mathematics and science instructional and learning goals as defined at the system level. The implemented curriculum is the mathematics and science curriculum as interpreted by teachers and made available to students. The attained curriculum is the mathematics and science content that students have learned and their attitudes towards these subjects. To aid in interpretation and comparison of results, TIMSS also collected extensive information about the social and cultural contexts for learning, many of which are related to variation among educational systems (TIMSS, 1997, 1-3).

Mathematics and science have long been the focus of studies by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement and these subjects reflect the importance that these two key curriculum areas hold in all educational systems.

In 1990 IEA made the decision to assess science and mathematics together on a regular basis every four years and this marked the opportunity to measure trends in student performance in an international perspective. The original TIMSS was conducted in 1995, the TIMSS-Repeat in 1999 and in 2003, and this last one is also known as TIMSS Trends. The regular cycle of TIMSS studies offers countries the opportunity to measure progress in educational achievement in mathematics and science. Next to these two key subjects areas the IEA also initiated a study that provides data on the reading ability of students. The so-called Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) is a new study that has been conducted in 2001 at the fourth grade.

Assessment of TIMSS 'mathematics' and 'science'

We started the study on the TIMSS data in the 13 countries in our sample with a pilot analysis in which 'science' and 'mathematics' both were included. We conducted a multilevel analysis that consisted of four levels: 'mathematics' and 'science' nested within pupils and pupils nested within schools and school nested within countries. This pilot analysis used several covariates at the individual pupil level such as: age (as deviation from the mean age in the sample), a dummy variable we labelled 'non-native' and a dummy variable that represents 'science' versus 'mathematics'. Besides a fixed effect we modelled random components for the variables 'non-native' and 'subject' (science versus mathematics) at the highest (country) level. The purpose of this model was to generate 'posterior means' per country for the specific defined groups (native middle-high/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students) of each country. The inclusion of the specific 'subject variable' enabled us to show possible inconsistencies in the achievement level between the two output variables 'mathematics' and 'science'. However, the outcomes showed considerable differences in achievement levels between the selected countries. Furthermore, the pilot analysis indicates that some subject-specific inconsistencies are observed, that is differences in the achievement level in mathematics and science within countries. Based on these outcomes we may conclude that although in the overall sample the mathematics and science means are close, however, in some countries in the sample this is not the case. The between country variance estimate shows that in some countries students achievement in mathematics and science is significantly different.

After comparing the mean mathematics scores of the 13 European countries with those of science we concluded that half of the countries fare the same in mathematics as they do in science. The other half switches between modal and top position and even between the top and the bottom position. These outcomes lead us to the conclusion that mathematics and science should not be analysed jointly and therefore we choose to analyse the outcomes for mathematics achievement separately. In the following sections the analysis for mathematics only is described.

Reasons for selection of mathematics assessment

The reason to choose mathematics as the criterion of assessment of international quality instead of science has to do with the way these subjects are taught in various countries. The mathematics questionnaire included only one version for all countries in the sample. This is the consequence of the fact that in all the TIMSS participating countries mathematics is taught as a single subject. This makes it relatively easy to develop a mathematics questionnaire for this subject. However, this is not the case for science. The science questionnaire included two versions: (a) the general science version was intended for systems where science is taught as a single integrated subject and (b) the separate science subject version was intended for systems where science is taught as separate subject (i.e. biology, chemistry, earth science, and physics). In the general science version, science-related questions pertaining to students' attitudes and classroom activities were based on single questions asking

about “science”, to which students were to respond in terms of the “general or integrated science” course they were taking. In the separate science subject version, several questions were asked about each science subject area, and students were to respond with respect to each science course they were taking (Mullis, Martin & Sternler, 2000, p.53). To eliminate any possible bias through the use of these two versions for science achievement we concluded to analyse only mathematics achievement data of the students in our sample of TIMSS countries.

Although we limited the specific analysis of institutional effects of education systems to mathematics achievement this does not mean that we do not have information about the quality of education systems in terms of other curriculum areas. Knowing that the TIMSS studies provide assessment data about science and reading ability of students in a broad set of countries we choose to limit the specific analysis of quality and equity of education systems to the curriculum subject of mathematics. However, to present a more complete picture of our outcomes in relationship to other types of assessment data we will also compare the outcomes to those of other international comparisons of quality and equity in education.

4.5 INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

Consequently, we will examine our outcomes and relate them to those of another international study that, described together, will present information about quality of education from a broader perspective than the assessment of mathematics only. The purpose is to describe and analyse similarities and differences in quality (and equity) using the information of those other international studies in comparison to our specific sample of 13 European countries. Two types of comparisons are possible. First of all we will compare our outcomes to the IEA science data and compare trends in quality of the 13 education systems between 1995 and 1999. Next, we will compare our outcomes to those of a new set of assessment data that has just recently become available: the OECD PISA study, the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA; OECD, 2000).

This study concerns knowledge and skills of 15 years old in a set of 32 countries. Many of the countries that are the subject of our study have also participated in this PISA study. The findings have been released at the end of 2001. It is possible to make clear how the countries in our study fare in comparison to the assessment of knowledge and skills in the PISA study. The PISA 2000 study concerns 28 OECD countries and 4 non-OECD countries and the PISA 2002 includes another 13 countries, while two OECD-countries (Slovak Republic and Turkey) will participate from 2003 onwards.

Comparing our set of countries to the ones in the PISA study makes clear that there is a great deal of overlap. Of the 13 countries in our data set 9 are also included in the PISA 2000 study. This indicates that it is possible to assess the educational quality of the sample of countries from a broader point of view.

4.6 OVERVIEW OF TIMSS MATHEMATICS ASSESSMENT

The International Association for the Evaluation of educational Achievement (IEA) conducted the first study in 1964. The more recent TIMSS studies have been conducted in 1995 and 1999 and in 2003. Earlier we made clear that TIMSS addressed three conceptual levels of curriculum: the intended curriculum (mathematics instructional and learning goals as defined at the system level), the implemented curriculum (mathematics curriculum as interpreted by teachers), the attained curriculum (the content that students have learned and their attitudes).

The TIMSS mathematics tests were developed through input from various international experts in mathematics (Martin, Mullis, Gonzales, Smith, Kelly, 1999). The TIMSS Subject Matter Advisory Committee ensured that tests reflected current thinking and priorities within the field of mathematics. The afore-mentioned authors state that every effort was made to help ensure that the tests represented the curricula of the participating countries and that the items exhibited no bias toward or against particular countries.

The TIMSS database contains achievement data, and students, teacher, and school background data collected in 42 countries in 1995. To measure the attained curriculum, TIMSS tested more than half a million students in mathematics and science at three separate populations (TIMSS, 1997, 1-4). Population 1: Students enrolled in the two adjacent grades that contained the largest proportion of 9-year-old students at the time of testing; third- and fourth-grade students in most countries. Population 2: Students enrolled in the two adjacent grades that contained the largest proportion of 13-year-old students at the time of testing; seventh- and eighth-grade students in most countries. Population 3: Students in their final year of secondary education. As an additional option, countries could test two special subgroups of these students: students taking advanced courses in mathematics and students taking courses in physics.

The mathematics test for the seventh and eighth grades included items from six content areas: fractions and number sense; proportionality; measurement; data representation, analysis, and probability; geometry and algebra. A general criterion in selecting the items was that they should involve the types of mathematics questions that could arise in real-life situations and that they could be contextualised accordingly. The TIMSS tests were designed to maximise mathematics and science content coverage yet minimise the burden on individual students. The tests are based on a matrix design whereby blocks of items were distributed across multiple test booklets and the booklets were distributed across students in a country. Each student completed only one test booklet. For example, at the seventh and eighth grades there were 8 test booklets including nearly five hours of testing material, yet each student responded to only one 90-minute booklet (Mullis et al, 1999).

Countries participating in the study were required to administer tests to the students in the two grades at Population 2 but could choose whether or not to participate at the other levels. To meet the standard, at least 150 schools were initially to be selected per target population (TIMSS, 1997, 3-5). However, this standard has not

been met by all the involved countries. Countries were considered to have met the TIMSS sampling guidelines if they achieved acceptable participation rates – 85% both the school and students, or a combined rate (the product of school and student participation) of 75% - with or without replaced schools, and if they complied with the TIMSS guidelines for grade selection and classroom sampling (TIMSS, 1997, 3-8). Countries not reaching at least 50% school participation without the use of replacement schools or that failed to reach the sampling participation standard even with the inclusion of replacement schools, are presented in separate sections (or in italics) in the original TIMSS reports (e.g. the Netherlands). In the second sampling stage, classrooms of students were sampled. Generally, in each school one classroom was sampled from each target grade, although some countries opted to sample two classrooms at the upper grade in order to be able to conduct special analyses (TIMSS, 1997, 3-6).

4.7 METHODOLOGY

Data

In this study we make use of the “database” built in 1995 within the framework of the ‘The Third International Mathematics and Science Study’ (TIMSS). In the TIMSS research of 1995 more than 40 countries were involved and more than half a million pupils, divided into three different populations (9 years of age, 13 years of age and pupils in the last year of secondary education) were tested regarding their knowledge in ‘mathematics’ and ‘science’.

We will use the data of the so-called population 2, that is the 13-year olds who are in the end of their basic education or in the first year of secondary education. A comparison will be made between the following West – European countries: Austria, Belgium (French), Belgium (Flemish), Denmark, England, France, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal, Scotland, Spain and Sweden.

At pupil level we will use the following variables:

Mathematics test (international score; dependent variable; mean 500, std dev 100);

Education level of both parents (6 categories: 1 = ‘finish primary school’ / 6=‘finish university’);

Country of birth of both parents (dichotomy; country of birth else: yes/no);

Home language (dichotomy; home language different than school language: yes/no);

Pupil’s age.

Sample

The number of participating pupils in the original data set varies from 3741 in Spain to 1803 in England (TIMSS User Guide, Gonzales & Smith, 1997).

Table 4.1 presents the magnitude of the sample at pupil level for every education system in this study. The number of schools that have taken part in TIMSS in the Netherlands is rather low, however, although the sample is representative of the Dutch secondary schools. Note that the analyses presented in this chapter only

include the data on pupils without missing data. In practice, this leads to a substantial decrease in the number of pupils in our pilot-study. Table 4.1. shows these numbers per country in the second column and the proportion of students of each country thus included in the total data set of this pilot-study.

Table 4.1. Pupils per country included in TIMSS according to Gonzales & Smith (1997) and number of pupils without missing data in our research

<i>Education system</i>	<i>Original pop 2. (13 year olds)</i>	<i>N of pupils without missing data in sample</i>	<i>Proportion of pupils in total data set</i>	<i>Number of schools in sample</i>
Austria	3013	2177	7.3 %	123
Belgium (Fl)	2768	1793	6.0 %	140
Belgium (Fr)	2292	1293	4.3 %	119
Denmark	2073	1208	4.0 %	134
England	1803	1803	6.0 %	122
France	3016	1378	4.6 %	124
Germany	2893	1909	6.4 %	132
Ireland	3127	2582	8.6 %	129
Netherlands	2097	1450	4.8 %	91
Portugal	3362	2814	9.4 %	141
Scotland	2913	1413	4.7 %	125
Spain	3741	3043	10.2 %	153
Sweden	2831	1597	5.3 %	154
Total	35929	35076	100 %	1687

Some basic data will be presented first. Considering that we made clear how many students take part in our sample we will present the mean achievement levels of four groups of students (all students, native high-middle/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students) .to make a comparison with the original TIMSS data set possible. Our study defines two types of students within our concept of 'equity'. These are two types of minority students: (a) the native low/ses students and (b) the non-native minority students. The native low/ses student is defined in socio-economic terms based on the educational level his or her parents: "finished 'some secondary school' at the most". The non-native minority student is defined as a child with at least one of the parents born in a foreign country. In some cases the variable 'home language' has also been taken into account. The three resulting groups of students (native middle-high/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students) are exclusive categories.

Table 4.2. shows that native low/ses students in general performing less well in mathematics than native middle-high/ses students and that non-native minority students perform less than their native low/ses colleagues.

However, we are not so much interested in the mean achievement levels, but more in the possible relationship between quality and equity and specific institutional characteristics of an education system. In the next sections we will show how this relationship is investigated and what results were found in that respect.

Table 4.2. Average mathematics achievement levels of all students in our country sample and three separate groups of students (native middle-high/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students)

	<i>All Students</i>	<i>Native Middle-High Students</i>	<i>Native Low/ses Students</i>	<i>Non-native minority Students</i>
Austria	528	533	520	507
Belgium (Fl)	563	571	549	548
Belgium (Fr)	516	527	499	504
Denmark	470	476	451	449
England*	477	477	---	475
France	505	522	486	459
Germany	496	517	488	473
Ireland	506	516	494	497
Netherlands	526	536	506	502
Portugal	427	459	418	437
Scotland	475	480	461	476
Spain	455	472	449	442
Sweden	488	497	475	469

**The data set of England did not include the separation of the native low/ses pupils*

Modelling strategy

The multi-level analyses conceptually consist of three levels. We will carry out a multi-level analysis with mathematics as dependent variable in which pupils are nested within schools and schools nested within countries. The result of these analyses is a country-matrix from which we can derive the overall achievement level of the countries, the extent of compensating capacity of school systems (that is the differences in weight in the native middle-high/ses versus native low/ses and non-native minority groups between countries), and the heterogeneity in achievement levels between schools within one education system (between schools variance).

4.8 COMPARISON OF QUALITY AND EQUITY ACROSS EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

As was stated before a three-level analysis will be carried out in which individual pupils are nested within schools and schools are nested within countries. At the individual level we introduced a few covariates such as: age (as deviation of the mean age in the sample), and a dummy variable non-native which takes the value of

1 when one of the pupils' parents is born in a foreign country. Besides a fixed effect we model random components for the variable 'non-native' at the highest (country) level. The purpose of this modelling procedure is to generate 'posterior means' per country; one for the native middle-high/ses, one for the native low/ses group of students and one for the non-native minority students in the population (Guldemon, 2001) Note that these are exclusive categories. Age has been included in the model to neutralise the effect of the group (class) because in some countries grades 6 and 7 were tested while in other countries grades 7 and 8. This multi-level model enables us to estimate for 'mathematics' the (adjusted) achievement levels for every country (country-specific intercept).

The outcomes of the analyses concerning quality and equity of the education systems show considerable differences in achievement levels between the selected European countries. The covariate age exerts a rather strong effect on the achievement estimates which implies that the estimation of the mean achievement levels of the various countries would be biased if we excluded the age dummy from the model.

The overall mean achievement level (posterior means in which the covariates have been taking into account) for every country for all students together are presented in Figure 4.1.

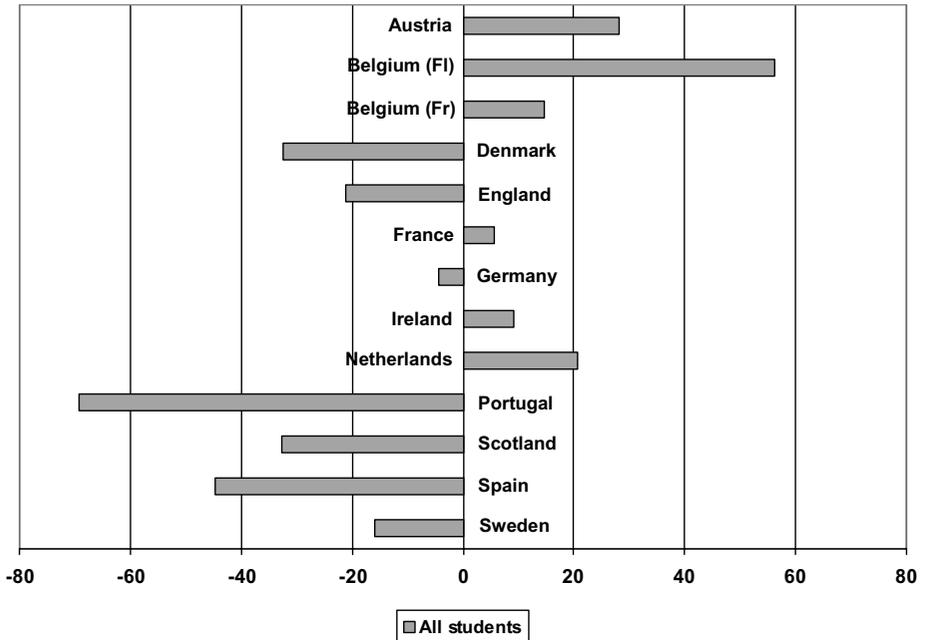


Figure 4.1: Mean achievement level in Europe (posterior means)

Figure 4.1 shows a clear picture of the achievement levels (posterior means) of the European countries in our sample. This overall quality dimension shows that the Belgian Flemish education system, Austria and the Netherlands reach the highest mathematics achievement levels for their students. The education systems of Portugal, Spain, Scotland and Denmark are not performing so well in this respect.

Next to the overall picture we are interested in the outcomes for different subgroups of students. Consequently, the overall mean achievement level (posterior means) for every country for the three defined groups of pupils (native middle-high/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students) are presented in Figure 4.2.

For an overview of the mathematics achievement scores for all students on the one hand and the scores for the three separate groups see Appendix I.

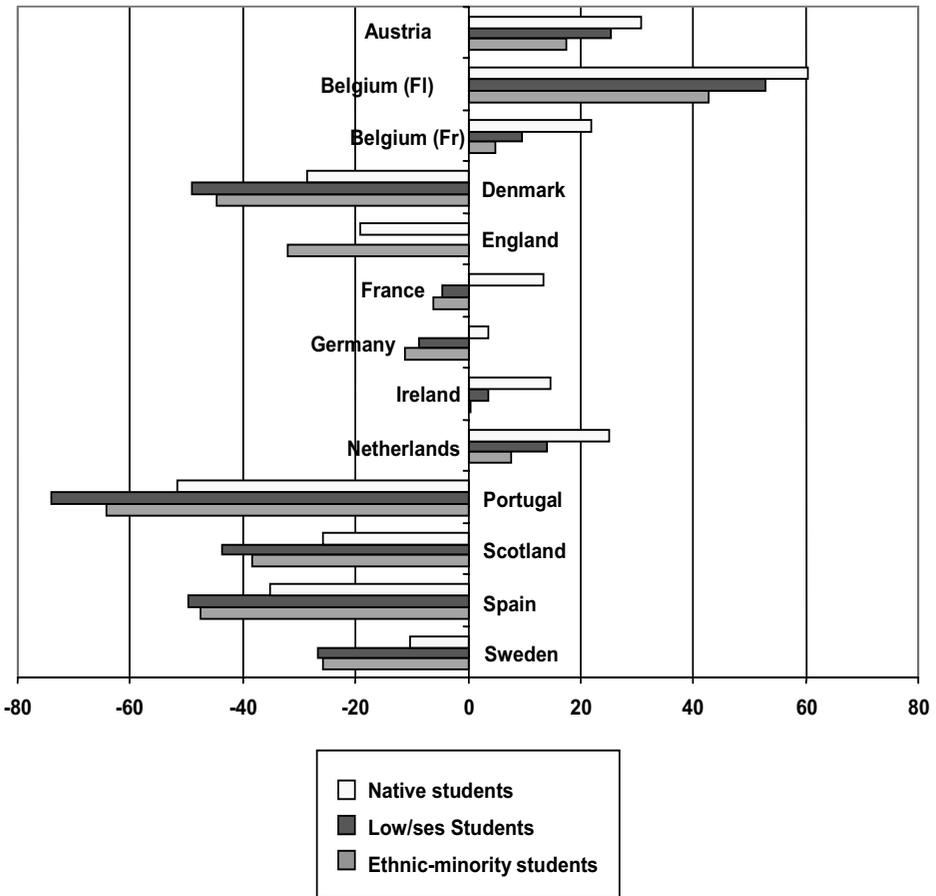


Figure 4.2: Mean achievement level of native middle-high/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students in Europe (posterior means)

The quality dimension of the education systems of our set of European countries, that is quality in terms of mathematics scores for native middle-high/ses pupils, shows that Belgium (Flemish) scores highest of all countries, followed by Austria as second highest, the Netherlands being third and Belgium (French) the fourth highest in ranking. These countries all perform well above the European mean. Countries that are in general not doing so well on the mathematics test are Portugal, scoring lowest and Spain and Denmark scoring second and third lowest in ranking.

The equity dimension constitutes an equally important element in Figure 1. In all included European countries both the defined minorities groups score lower than the native middle-high/ses students and the differences are mostly quite substantial. Furthermore, non-native minority students score lower than the native low/ses group

in many of the researched countries except for Denmark, Portugal, Scotland, Spain and Sweden.

An important research question in this study concerns the relationships between quality and equity of the education systems in our group of European countries. The equity of education systems is shown in the achievement gaps between the native middle-high/ses pupils and the two other groups of pupils (native low/ses and non-native) for every country.

Next to the quality dimension we are interested in the equity of European education systems. In Figure 4.3 the countries in our sample are graphically presented according to the existing gap between the mathematics achievement scores of their native middle-high/ses and native low/ses students on the one hand and the non-native minority students on the other.

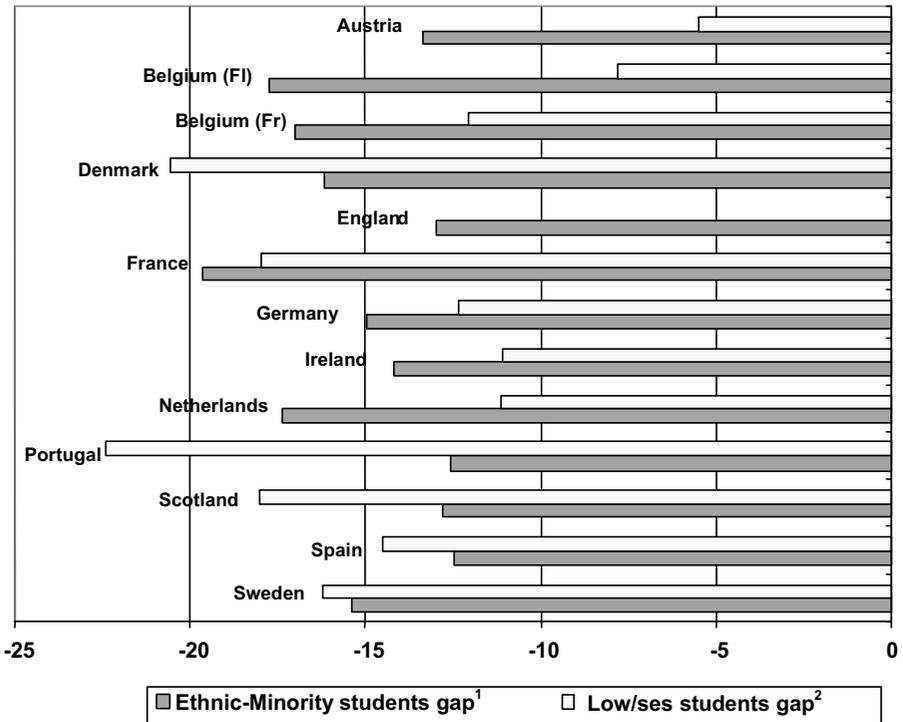


Figure 4.3: Gaps in achievement level between native middle-high/ses and native low/ses – non-native minority students in Europe (posterior means)

The results concerning the gap¹ and gap² presented in Appendix 4.1 are summarised graphically in Figure 4.3. The outcomes refer to the equity dimension and they make clear that Austria, Belgium (FI), Ireland and the Netherlands show the lowest gap

between their native middle-high/ses and native low/ses students and in that respect these countries can be assessed as fairly equity-providing education systems. On the other hand Scotland, Denmark, and Portugal show the reverse being education systems that are not (yet) able to assure comparable mathematics performance for their native low/ses pupils. However, the gap between native middle-high/ses and non-native minority students shows a more positive picture when compared to the other countries in our sample. The achievement gap between the native-students and the non-native minority students is lowest for the education systems of Spain, Portugal, Scotland and England so these countries are performing relatively quite well with respect to their non-native minority students. The reverse can here be seen for countries like France, both the Belgian systems and the Netherlands. These education systems are not (yet) able to close the gap between native middle-high/ses and non-native minority pupils regarding mathematics achievement.

Most interestingly when combining the results of Figure 2 and 3 is that some countries are ranked very high on both the quality as well as on the ses-equity ranking, but not so with respect to the minority-equity ranking pupils. This is especially the case for Belgium (FI) and the Netherlands.

Another interesting observation is that some countries that are not doing well in the quality assessment of their education system are performing much better on the equity dimension. This is especially the case for Spain when looking at the mathematics-scores-gap of native middle-high/ses and native low/ses students. The gap between non-native minority pupils and native middle-high/ses pupils on mathematics achievement being lowest in Spain. A similar pattern, but only for the non-native minority pupils is visible in the case of Portugal and Scotland and in a milder version also for Denmark.

The results presented above show that pupils from the lower socio-economic classes and non-native minority pupils in all of the observed European countries hold less educational opportunities (in terms of their mathematics achievement levels) than the higher socio-economic groups and native-born pupils.

However, even more interesting, the results also make clear that in some education systems educational opportunities are more equally distributed among students from various social backgrounds, while some education systems are clearly not able to close the gap between native middle-high/ses and native low/ses and/or non-native minority pupils. Moreover, the findings confirm our idea that in analysing and judging education systems in terms of their quality and equity, an international comparison seems to be a favourable approach. Thus, we conclude that (a) major differences are visible in achievement gaps between types of native and non-native minority groups between European education systems, and (b) some European countries seem to perform substantially better than others in this respect.

4.9 THE OUTCOMES WITHIN A BROADER PERSPECTIVE

Although we limited our research into the institutional contexts of education systems to 13 European countries and to the assessment of mathematics achievement, there

is also additional information available concerning other curriculum areas. Consequently, we will relate our outcomes to those of other international studies that, described together, will present information about quality of education from a broader perspective than our assessment of mathematics only.

This section focuses on the comparison of our outcomes to the recently released data of the OECD PISA study (OECD/PISA, 2001). However, before discussing the findings it seems sensible to paint a picture of that specific international study. The next section presents the goals and content, the age group and the type of assessment that have been the subject of the study. Furthermore, the overlap in countries between the PISA study and our sample of 13 European countries will be determined.

Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)

Next to the IEA/TIMSS international comparisons a new set of assessment data is available including many countries: the recent OECD PISA study. The information presented here is based on the report: "Knowledge and Skills for Life. First Results from PISA 2000 (OECD/PISA, 2001). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has launched the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) to attain internationally comparable evidence on student performance and to support countries to bring about improvements in schooling. PISA represents a commitment by the governments of OECD countries (and others as well) to monitor the outcomes of their education system on a regular basis. The frameworks and assessment instruments for PISA 2000 are the product of a multi-year development process of Member countries. Through participating in the expert groups, countries ensure that the PISA assessment instruments are internationally valid and take into account the cultural and curricular contexts of OECD Member countries, that they provide a realistic basis for measurement, and that they place an emphasis on authenticity and educational validity (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.3). Stringent quality assurance mechanisms were applied in translation, sampling and data collection. As a consequence, the results of PISA have a high degree of validity and reliability, and can significantly improve our understanding of the outcomes of education in the world's most developed countries.

Age group and assessment criteria

PISA covers students who are aged between 15 years 3 months and 16 years 2 months at the time of the assessment, regardless of the grade or type of institution in which they are enrolled and of whether they are in full-time or part-time education. The study focuses on things that 15-year-olds will need in their future lives and seeks to assess what they can do with what they have learned. The assessment is informed – but not constrained – by the common denominator of national curricula. PISA does assess students' knowledge, but it also examines their ability to reflect on the knowledge and experience, and to apply that knowledge and experience to real world issues (OECD/PISA, 2001) .

PISA 2000 surveyed reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy, with primary focus on reading. It started out in 2000 in 32 countries.

Mathematics achievement in PISA and TIMSS

Mathematical literacy is defined in PISA as "... the capacity to identify, understand and engage in mathematics, and to make well-founded judgements about the role that mathematics plays in an individual's current and future private life, occupational life, social life with peers and relatives, and life as a constructive, concerned and reflective citizen" (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.22). This definition revolves around the wider uses of mathematics in people's lives rather than being limited to mechanical operations. "Mathematical literacy" is used here to indicate the ability to put mathematical knowledge and skills to functional use rather than just mastering them within a school curriculum. From this last point of view the perspective of PISA has been broader than the outset of the original IEA/TIMSS study. TIMSS assesses the achievement of students from three conceptual levels of the curriculum. The intended curriculum is composed of the mathematics and science instructional and learning goals as defined at the system level. The implemented curriculum is the mathematics and science curriculum as interpreted by teachers and made available to students. The attained curriculum is the mathematics and science content that students have learned and their attitudes towards these subjects.

Overlap of countries

As indicated the PISA 2000 study concerns 28 OECD countries and 4 non-OECD countries. Many of the countries that are subject in our TIMSS study have also participated in the first PISA cycle. It is possible to make clear how the countries in our study fare in comparison to the assessment of knowledge and skills in the PISA study. All the 13 countries in our sample are also included in the PISA 2000 study. However, some differences make comparison somewhat problematic. In the TIMSS study England and Scotland are treated as separate countries while PISA assesses the achievement level of the United Kingdom. Furthermore, in the TIMSS study sample Belgian Flemish and French parts of the system have been treated as separate education systems while PISA includes Belgium as a whole.

4.10 INTERPRETING OUR RESULTS IN COMPARISON TO PISA OUTCOMES

Mathematics performance can be summarised by countries' mean scores. It is possible to (rank) order countries by the mean mathematics performance of their students on the one hand and also make clear whether the countries' level of performance is (significantly) above, below, or about the same as the average of the countries. The comparison of PISA findings and our study of institutional contexts will limit itself to the mean achievement levels of the sample of 13 countries.

Appendix 4.2 presents the results of a comparison of 9 of the 13 countries that are comparable within the two studies and shows how these countries perform regarding the overall mean for three subject areas (mathematics, science and reading).

The comparison shows that the results of PISA often seem to confirm the findings of our TIMMS subset. However, some PISA findings differ from the results of TIMMS. Such variations are not unexpected given the nature of assessment and age group of the two studies. The assessment materials in TIMMS were constructed on the basis of an analysis of the intended curriculum in each participating country, so as to cover the core material common to the curriculum in the majority of participating countries. The assessment materials in PISA 2000 covered the range of skills and competencies that were, in the respective assessment domains, considered to be crucial to an individual's capacity to fully participate in, and contribute meaningfully to, a successful modern society. Also, it needs to be borne in mind that the age-based PISA target population of 15-year-olds differs from the grade-based population employed in TIMMS which concern in our case mostly 13-year-old students. Comparing the countries' performance in terms of its significant deviance from the overall mean it is possible to assess the ranking position of each of these countries. Although comparisons are somewhat difficult because of the above mentioned differences in measurement of countries, type of assessment and age group some observations can be made. The rank pattern of mathematics performance distribution in our TIMSS sample are confirmed within PISA mathematics in general. PISA-countries that show only mean scores significantly above the overall mean include Austria, Netherlands and Sweden. PISA-countries that score significantly below the overall mean include Germany, Spain and Portugal. Summarising these findings we may conclude that comparison of the PISA results to the findings of our sample shows a trend in the same direction, especially concerning the significant deviance of the top and bottom countries. This concerns Austria and the Netherlands on the one hand versus Spain and Portugal on the other.

However, we observe also some striking differences when comparing our sample and the PISA findings concerning Germany and Sweden. Sweden seems to perform much better in the PISA study than in our TIMSS mathematics sample. However, Germany fares much worse and this outcome has been subject of extensive discussions within the international forum. One explanation points to the traditional teaching methods that the Germans seem to practice more than other countries. Why Sweden performs so much better in the PISA study than in the TIMSS study could well be explained by the same reasoning as for Germany, but the other way around. Sweden could well be a country that is less traditional in terms of scope and content of the lessons and therefore performs much better in the PISA study.

Relationships between the different subject areas

Based on the data presented in the Appendix 4.2 it is possible to determine the relative strengths of countries in the three domains (mathematics, science and reading) on the basis of their relative rank-order positions. On the basis of this comparison Austria and the Netherlands are the top ranking countries. On the other

hand Spain and Portugal belong to the lowest ranking countries in this sample of countries for all three subject matters. These ranking patterns tend to be similar in both studies.

According to the results of PISA the performances of countries differ widely, especially in mathematics. Variation in mean performance between countries is somewhat smaller in scientific literacy, and smallest in reading literacy. The PISA report states that: "A possible reason might be that learning in mathematics and science is more closely related to schooling, so that differences between education systems in these domains appear to be more pronounced than in reading" (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.90).

4.11 EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

The findings presented above show that, obviously, the overall context in which education systems operate and, in particular, the distribution of economic and social variables within each country need to be taken into account in the interpretation of these relationships.

It is possible that the relative prosperity of some countries allows them to spend more on education, while other countries find themselves constrained by a relative lack of national income. In any comparison of the outcomes of education systems it is necessary to take into account countries' economic circumstances and the resources that they can devote to education. The PISA study did this and they draw the conclusion that (OECD/PISA, 2001, 92): "Countries with higher income per capita tend to perform better, on average but some countries do better or worse than their income would predict so national income relates to but does not determine performance". The PISA study uses a trend line and countries close to the trend line are where the predictor GDP per capita suggests that they would be. Countries that are also included in our sample of 13 European countries and that are examples of this include Austria, Belgium, France, Ireland and Spain. Countries above the trend line have higher average scores on the PISA assessments than would be predicted and these include the United Kingdom and Sweden to a lesser extent. Countries below the trend line show lower performance than would be predicted include Portugal, Germany and Denmark (see OECD/PISA, 2001, p.91).

Although these observations in general do suggest that countries with higher national income are at a relative advantage the outcomes in our sample of highly industrialised European countries shows that other factors must also be involved. Interestingly, of the two countries in our sample that show the relative lowest GDP's (Spain and Portugal) one fares much better than expected considering the trend line (Spain) and the other one fares worse than expected (Portugal).

It is also possible to compare the expenditure on educational institutions. The OECD Report 'Education at a Glance' shows that the expenditure (as a percentage of the GDP) on primary and lower secondary education in our sample of countries reveals substantial differences (see Appendix II). Furthermore the data make clear that simple correlations are not easily found within this sample. High performing

countries like for example Austria and the Netherlands spend respectively high and low amounts on education (primary and lower secondary). On the other hand low performing countries like Spain and Portugal respectively spend low and high amounts of money on this part of compulsory education.

Appendix 4.1

Mean mathematics achievement levels of four groups of students in 13 countries (posterior means; Grand Mean=0 (sample average of our European countries))

Country	All students	Native MH/SES students	Native L/SES students	(gap ¹)	Non-native minority students	(gap ²)
Austria	28.27	30.86	25.38	(-5.48)	17.49	(-13.37)
Belgium (Fl)	56.19	60.51	52.71	(-7.80)	42.78	(-17.73)
Belgium (Fr)	14.61	21.78	9.72	(-12.06)	4.76	(-17.02)
Denmark	-32.45	-28.55	-49.16	(-20.61)	-44.75	(-16.20)
England*	-21.25	-19.10	--		-32.10	(-13.00)
France	5.59	13.49	-4.49	(-17.98)	-6.16	(-19.65)
Germany	-4.46	3.67	-8.69	(-12.36)	-11.31	(-14.98)
Ireland	9.10	14.67	3.56	(-11.11)	0.49	(-14.18)
Netherlands	20.69	25.22	14.05	(-11.17)	7.84	(-17.38)
Portugal	-69.16	-51.52	-73.93	(-22.42)	-64.11	(-12.60)
Scotland	-32.56	-25.61	-43.62	(-18.01)	-38.43	(-12.82)
Spain	-44.64	-35.08	-49.59	(-14.52)	-47.55	(-12.47)
Sweden	-15.85	-10.39	-26.60	(-16.21)	-25.78	(-15.39)

*The data set of England did not include the separation of the native low/ses pupils

1. Gap between native middle-high/ses and native low/ses and native middle-high/ses between brackets
2. Gap between non-native minority students between brackets

Appendix 4.2

The table below shows the mathematics outcomes for our sample of 13 European countries and relates them to the mathematics, science and reading achievement assessments of the PISA study. Note that these outcomes are presented in OECD/PISA, 2001 (mathematics, p.79, science, p.88, reading p.53). Country level performance for different subject areas in terms of significant deviance from the (weighted) mean and their ranking positions for the 9 comparable countries within the TIMSS and PISA study.

	<i>Our sample of mathe- matics students</i>	<i>Ran- king posi- tion</i>	<i>PISA Mathematics</i>	<i>PISA Science</i>	<i>PISA Reading</i>
	M = 491		M = 511	M = 503	M = 507
Austria	+37	(1)	+4 (3)	+16 (2)	0 (4)
Netherlands	+35	(2)	+53 (1)	+34 (1)	+15 (2)
Ireland	+15	(3)	-8 (6)	+10 (3)	+20 (1)
France	+14	(4)	+6 (2)	-3 (5)	-2 (5)
Germany	+5	(5)	-21 (7)	-15 (6)	-23 (8)
Sweden	-3	(6)	+1 (5)	+9 (4)	+9 (3)
Denmark	-20	(7)	+3 (4)	-22 (8)	-10 (6)
Spain	-35	(8)	-35 (8)	-11 (7)	-14 (7)
Portugal	-63	(9)	-57 (9)	-44 (9)	-37 (9)

Ranking positions are between brackets

R.H. Hofman, W.H.A. Hofman & H. Guldemond

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A recent tendency is to view school effectiveness from the different contexts or settings that can be distinguished in and around the school. Teddlie and Reynolds (2000) claim that the consideration of contextual variation in school effectiveness research has led to an increased sophistication in theory development. The purpose of our study is to deepen our insight in institutional differences that could contribute to differential effects of schooling and could explain variation in quality and equity of education systems in particular.

The institutional context, specifically the funding, governance and choice of schools, can have an impact on the behaviour exhibited by individuals of a certain group because it is a relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants, affects their behaviour and is shown in their collective perceptions of the schooling process. This is the case because pupils and peers attending the same (public or private) school share a similar institutional context. Such contextual effects are a result of social processes: through reciprocal influence and mutual adjustment, individuals in the same institutional context exhibit more homogeneous behaviours, attitudes and opinions. In general it can be assumed that specific characteristics of similar institutional contexts effects such as financing, governance and parental choice, are transferred through the social climate in public and private schools and thus affects pupils' cognitive and social functioning. However, although researchers claim that institutional context could be an important issue in research on outcomes of schooling, they have not yet indicated the mechanisms through which institutional effects arise nor specified the underlying processes through which they take place (Willms & Raudenbush, 1989).

A specific application of school effectiveness research is configuration theory which studies the context-based origin of school effectiveness from a broader perspective. It approaches organisations from a contextual point of view and claims that the effectiveness of an organisation depends upon the fit of internal structural factors and external situational factors (Mintzberg, 1979). Furthermore, although research on school and institutional effectiveness has led to increased theory development, it has focused on the search for individual effectiveness factors or single variables for too long.

The basic assumption of configuration theory is that we can learn more about the subject by studying the specific types of countries based on configurations of the single institutional indicators (Mintzberg, 1979; Hofman, Hofman & Guldemond, 2001a, 2001b). This research investigates the impact of different institutional contexts (finance, governance and choice) using configuration theory.

5.2 CONFIGURATION THEORY AND MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALING

Configuration theory serves as a tool in constructing empirically based typologies of countries and works in this study with the interdependence of the six indicators of institutional context. This approach to the institutional context of learning presumes that additional value will be found in the configuration of six indicators of countries' institutional contexts. We will deal with the implications of the interdependency of funding, governance and choice characteristics of a country's educational system from the viewpoint of Mintzberg (1979: 297): "we have more to learn from the study of specific types, clusters or configurations (...), than from the study of continuous relationships between one variable from each group".

To determine the joint effects of composed indicator variables (or configurations of institutional contexts) on students' performance from a quality and equity point of view a multi-dimensional scaling procedure has been employed and distinctions made between groups of countries. Furthermore the relationship between the outcomes of the multidimensional scaling of the 13 countries and the quality and equity of their education systems has been assessed and discussed.

This study works from the premise that the institutional context of schools could play an important role in the explanation of variation in effectiveness between countries. We assume major differences between countries world-wide in the definition of institutional context, influenced by differences in size and type of public and private schools in education. For that reason this international project has started with a phase concerning the formulation of a basic report on European countries describing their current state of public and private education based on already available documents and other types of data. A comparative analysis of education systems in Europe requires clear concepts to describe the current situation in each country. This study concerns those schools that are involved in the provision of full-time compulsory education, which, in general, concerns primary and lower secondary education. At present, nine or ten years of compulsory schooling is the norm in most European countries.

We described the education system of the countries in terms of three key characteristics of institutional contexts: (a) the funding policy of education in each country, (b) the type of governance of schools and (c) the degree to which freedom of school choice is available in these countries.

5.3 TOWARDS DIMENSIONS OF INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS

A valid comparison regarding the institutional contexts of education in Europe has been made for a set of 13 countries. The results are available in Chapter 3 of this report. Based on these analyses an overview has been made for each country. These overviews have been summarised in Table 5.1.

The table provides the basis for a multidimensional scaling procedure (MSD) which has been conducted in order to group the countries together in specific configurations based upon the six indicators of institutional contexts.

Table 5.1. Description of institutional contexts indicators of 13 Western European countries (alphabetical)

<i>Description of institutional contexts</i>	<i>Size of grant-aided funding</i>	<i>Type of funding</i>	<i>Governance</i>	<i>Parent power</i>	<i>School choice</i>	<i>School fees</i>
Austria (A)	2	2	2	2	2	3
Belgium (B-Fl)	4	2	3	2	4	1
Belgium (B-Fr)	4	2	3	2	4	1
Denmark (DK)	3	1	2	3	2	3
England (UK-E)	1	2	2	2	3	1
France (F)	3	2	1	3	1	3
Germany (D)	2	2	1	1	3	2
Ireland (IRL)	4	3	4	1	3	1*
Netherlands (NL)	4	3	4	2	4	1
Portugal (P)	2	2	2	2	2	4
Scotland (UK-Sc)	1	0	2	2	2	0
Spain (E)	3	2	3	3	3	1
Sweden (S)	2	3	2	2	2	1

See Chapter 2 and 3 for the specific content of each value

** See Chapter 3 Ireland: p.71-73*

The multi-dimensional scaling analysis has been conducted with the program ALSCAL which is available as a module within SPSSX.

ALSCAL is a typical multidimensional scaling and unfolding procedure with options for studying individual differences. In our study, ALSCAL performs classical non-metric multidimensional scaling to uncover the dimensions on which European countries can be compared based on indicators of institutional contexts of their education system². Note that the general definition as well as the operationalisation of these indicators are described in Chapter 2.

² *The computational part of this technique is based on the alternate least squares method as proposed by Tanake, Young and De Leeuw (1977).*

In our case the (dis)similarities among objects (countries) are computed Euclidean distances based on the values for each of the countries on the six indicators. Given the rank-order or ratings of the (dis)similarities among objects, the purpose of the ALSCAL multidimensional scaling algorithm is to find the co-ordinates of the points (objects) in an dimensional space such that the distances among those points are in approximately the same rank-order of the dissimilarities.

A best-fitting configuration of points in a certain number of dimensions is expressed in terms of stress, that is a measure which expresses the discrepancy between the (dis)similarities and the spatial representation. Stress will decrease, if the number of dimensions of the space increases. A proximity matrix of n points can always be represented in n-2 dimensions (stress = 0). For small numbers of dimensions, suggestions have been made about the minimum number of points to be represented, without a large probability of just fitting noise (random error).

A description of the specific content of each of the values for the countries in our sample is available in Chapter 3. In that chapter for each country separately the content of each of the six indicator of institutional contexts is described and each country report is summarised with an overview at the end of each report (see Chapter 3).

Based on these six indicators the ALSCAL procedure shows the iteration history for a two-dimensional solution. In our case, which sums up to 13 educational systems, a maximum number of two dimensions would still be appropriate. ALSCAL produces two goodness-of-fit measures, Kruskal's Stress formula 1 and a squared correlation coefficient (RSQ)³.

The Kruskal STRESS formula for our solution indicates stress =.08816 and the squared correlation coefficient shows RSQ=.96281) which both indicate a fair to good fit between the data and the two-dimensional solution.

The two-dimensional solution is graphically made visible in a so-called 'scatter plot'. This scatter plot shows the configuration of our 13 countries based on the six indicators of institutional context (see Figure 5.1). Note that each point in the plot represents one of our 13 countries position on the two dimensions.

³ The RSQ-measure reports the proportion of variance of the scaled data which is accounted for by their corresponding distances. As far as it concerns Kruskal's Stress formula there is the following rule of thumb: a stress of .20 indicates a poor fit, a stress of .10 indicates a fair fit, .05 represents a good fit and a stress of .025 indicates an excellent fit. The iteration history for a two-dimensional solution on our data in table 4 shows that after 6 iterations the improvement is so small (.00069) that the analysis stops.

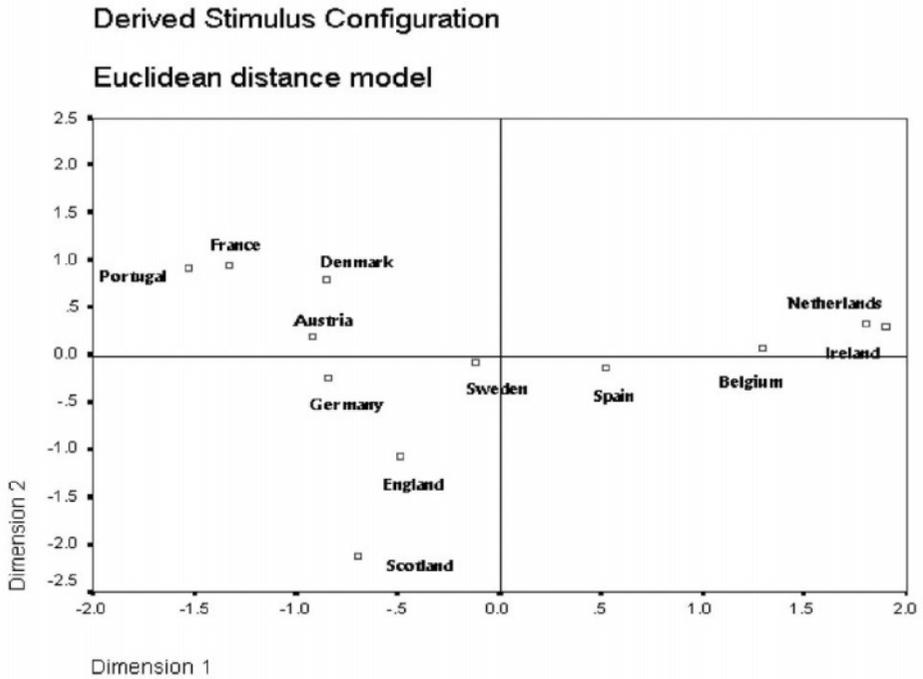


Figure 5.1 Plot of European countries based on two institutional dimensions

The scatter plot graphically plots each of our countries on the two dimensions. However, this plot does not make clear how these two dimensions best could be typified.

To make the interpretation process more clear the correlations between our six indicators and the two dimensions are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2. Correlations between six indicators of institutional contexts and the two dimensions resulting from Multi-Dimensional Scaling with ALSCAL

<i>Indicator of institutional context</i>	<i>Dimension I</i>	<i>Dimension II</i>
Size of grant-aided funding	.74	.57
Type of funding	.49	.49
Governance	.92	.07
Parent power	-.30	.23
School choice	.83	-.12
School fees	-.63	.72

Based on the correlations pattern visible in Table 2 we can characterise the two dimensions. Note that the first dimension accounts for our indicators of institutional contexts substantially better than the second one.

The first dimension seems to be strongly indicated by four of our indicators of institutional contexts: and size of grant-aided funding, governance, school choice and school fees. Countries scoring high on this dimension: (a) concern countries with the highest numbers of students in grant-aided private school, (b) with schools that are largely privately-run by school boards, (c) in which parents can choose a school freely, with no interference by public authorities and (d) in these countries there are no school fees in private education. In short we could typify this dimension as ‘the substantial grant-aided private education dimension’.

The second dimension is not so easy to capture as it does not show high correlations on most of the indicators. In many ways it seems to be the reverse of the first dimension. However, on two aspects they especially differ from the first dimension: school fees and parent power. The countries within this dimension: (a) are countries in which parents have to pay relatively high school fees to cover wholly or partially budget headings of the school and (b) in contrast to the first dimension consultative councils at the school level are allocated decision-making power while in the first dimension there is no much power at all. This dimension can best be typified as the ‘parents pay for power dimension’.

Dimensions and achievement

Now that we have some insight in the way we may interpret the two dimensions an interesting question is whether a relationship is visible between the dimensions and the mathematics achievement levels of our four groups of students. The results of this analysis are presented in table 5.3 on the next page.

Table 5.3. Correlations between the two MSD-dimensions and the mathematics achievement levels (posterior means) of four groups of students

<i>Group of students</i>	<i>Dimension I</i>	<i>Dimension II</i>
Native middle-high/ses students	.51	.14
Native low/ses students	-.54	.09
Non-native students	.20	.45
All students	.50	.10

The results presented in table 5.3 make clear that education systems scoring high on the first dimension, the ‘substantial grant-aided private education dimension’, relate positively to the mathematics achievement levels of all students and the native middle-high/ses ones, but relate negatively to those of the native low/ses students.

Furthermore, the table shows that dimension two, the ‘parents pay for power dimension’ seems to be associated with education systems in which non-native minority students seem to perform better than in other countries.

5.4 INTERPRETATION OF CONFIGURATIONS

The next step to conduct is the analysis of the available kinds of information to reach a grouping of our country cases. Researchers are free to interpret it in ways that are meaningful to the subjects measured. The interpretation process takes into account the three interrelated elements of information:

- the correlation of each of the indicators with the two dimensions
- the scatter plot of countries positions and
- the specific country values for each indicator (as shown in table 1).

Using the three above-mentioned elements of information our interpretation process resulted in four groups or configurations of countries. These four configurations are presented in table 4 and this table makes clear that the interpretation of the countries' positions within the four configurations is most of all influenced by the size of funding of private grant-aided education in comparison to public education, governance and school fees on the one hand and parent power and school fees on the other. However, the percentage of pupils attending grant-aided private education within these countries seems to be the leading factor of assignment to a configuration.

Table 5.4. Configurations of European countries based on Multi-Dimensional Scaling of the indicators of institutional contexts

<i>Configurations of countries</i>	<i>Size of grant-aided funding</i>	<i>Type of funding</i>	<i>Governance</i>	<i>Parent power</i>	<i>School choice</i>	<i>Fees</i>
<i>Type A</i>						
Netherlands	high	identical	largely	consultative	free	no
Ireland*	>30%	to public	privately	to no power	parental	fees
Belgium (FL)	grant-aided	education	-run		choice	
Belgium (FR)	private					
<i>Type B</i>						
Spain	moderate	similar to	mixed	decision –	mixed	fees
Denmark	10-30%	public		making		
France	grant-aided	education		power		
Portugal	private					
<i>Type C</i>						
Sweden	low	similar to	largely	consultative	central	mix
Germany	< 10%	public	publicly	to no power	pupil	
Austria	grant-aided	education	-run		allo-	
	private				cation or	
					free	
					choice	
<i>Type D</i>						
England	public	different	largely	consultative	central	low
Scotland	sector	from	publicly	power	pupil	fees
	mostly	public	-run		allo-	
					cation or	
					free	
					choice	

* See chapter 6.

The first configuration of countries (type A) in table 5.4 consists of the Netherlands, both the Belgian education systems and Ireland. This type shows very similar scores on almost all of our indicators of institutional context. This is especially the case considering the size of funding of private education by the government, the governance of schools and for the indicator 'school fees'. These countries hold the highest numbers of grant-aided private schools. More than 50% of all the pupils

attend a grant-aided school for compulsory education in each of these countries. In line with this these countries obtained the highest scores regarding the degree of freedom of school choice. Parents can choose a school freely and normally speaking no action is taken by the public authorities to regulate pupil number in schools. In line with this is that the schools in these countries are largely privately-run by school boards. Furthermore, these countries do not charge school fees in the private (grant-aided) schools and the legislation concerning school fees are identical in these private schools as compared to the public schools within these countries. Interestingly, however, is that although these countries show that schools are largely privately-run school board, these boards do not seem to allow the parents of their schools to be highly influential in the decision-making process of broad policy areas in the school organisation. The bodies at school level (school councils) that include parents are given some power, but mostly of a consultative kind with almost no decision-making kind of power.

The second configuration of countries (type B) includes Spain, France, Denmark and Portugal. The number of pupils that attend grant-aided funded schools is somewhat lower, between 10% and 30% of the pupils. However, these countries are identified as countries with (grant-aided) financing arrangements that are similar to those for public-sector schools, at least for expenditure on staff and sometimes for operational expenditure. But, these countries are the opposite of the first group in terms of school fees with the exception of Spain. Parents in this configuration of countries are charged relatively high school fees to wholly or partially cover budgetary headings that are not financed by the public-sector funding. Another interesting distinction with regard to the first configuration of countries concerns parental power at the school level within the school council. Parents seem to be the most influential in this configuration. In fact, the nature and the scope of the councils in which parents are involved in this configuration seems to allow parents decision-making power in a number of broad areas within the education system. These areas are: clarification of school rules, drafting of the schools' development plans, setting the teaching syllabus and objectives, control of expenditure and allocation of the budget.

The last two configurations include Sweden, Germany and Austria on the one hand (type C) and England and Scotland (type D) on the other. The distinction between these two types of school concerns mostly the size and type of funding of grant-aided education. These two last configurations typify countries that include exclusively public sector education or include only a very limited number of grant-aided private schools within their education system. The third configuration (type C) including Sweden, Germany and Austria concern countries with only a very limited number of grant-aided private schools within their education system. In general less than 10% of pupils attends grant-aided private schools in these countries.

However, the last configuration (type D) in Table 8 which includes Scotland and England is dissimilar from this group because, although they hold a group of private schools, these schools are what we call 'truly' private in that they do not receive

funding from the government. These schools ask very high school fees from the parents.

The countries in both last configurations can be typified as countries with largely publicly-run schools, run by local authorities often including representatives of the parents. However, the power of parent councils at school level is often quite limited or at the most it includes only consultative power.

The next step in the analysis focuses on the possible relationship between the four configurations of institutional contexts and the quality and equity of education systems. The next section will make clear whether such a relationship exists in our set of countries

5.5 FOUR CONFIGURATIONS OF INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS

The general findings concerning quality and equity showed above made clear that pupils originating from the lower socio-economic classes and non-native minority pupils in all of the observed European countries hold less educational opportunities (in terms of their mathematics achievement levels) than the native and higher socio-economic groups. Furthermore, we saw that in some countries educational opportunities are more equally distributed among students from the various social backgrounds than in other countries. The latter do not seem to be able to close the gap between native middle-high/ses and native low/ses and/or non-native minority students. Moreover, these findings confirm our idea that in analysing and judging education systems in terms of their quality and equity, an international comparison seems to be a favourable approach.

Thus, we have made clear that (a) major differences are visible in achievement gaps between native and specific groups of minority pupils in different European education systems, and (b) some European countries are performing substantially better than others in this respect. Consequently, the question to be answered now is whether there are trends apparent in our data; trends that show relationships between quality and equity of education systems on the one hand and certain institutional characteristics of these countries on the other.

The values or scores for each separate country on our six indicators are presented in an Appendix to this chapter together with their ranking position on the quality and equity dimension. First we will describe the position of the countries in a configuration in terms of their ranking positions on quality and equity. Next to that the outcomes of the test of significance between these configurations will be described.

The first configuration of countries (Netherlands, both the Belgian education systems and Ireland) include a high percentage of grant-aided private sector schools privately-run by school boards, and generally do not seem to allow a strong degree of parental power into the school management. These countries are performing rather well on two of the three output measures: they are in the top rankings of the quality dimension (mathematics levels for all students) and native low/ses equity

dimension. This means that the schools in these countries are performing quite well in terms of their general mathematics scores (quality) and that the gap between the mathematics achievement of native middle-high/ses and native low/ses students is not as large as in other countries. However, this is not the case for the level of achievement of their non-native minority pupils: the gap between the mathematics achievement level of non-native minority students and native middle-high/ses students is larger than in most of the other countries within our sample.

The second configuration of countries (Spain, France, Denmark and Portugal) is not performing so well in terms of quality in general, nor in terms of equity: they perform at the lower part of the ranking table. The gap between their native middle-high/ses students mathematics scores and those of their native low/ses students is the largest of all four configurations; generally speaking these countries score well under the average of all countries in our sample. However, on the other hand, two of these four countries are performing rather well for their non-native minority pupils. The configuration shows that Spain and Portugal are at the top of the non-native ranking table. They show the smallest gaps between the mathematics performance of native middle-high/ses and non-native pupils. However, it is because of the ranking position of Denmark and especially France (last) that this configuration as a whole performs not so well in terms of their non-native pupils.

The third configuration regards three countries (Sweden, Germany, Austria) that include only a very limited number (less than 10%) of grant-aided private schools. Generally speaking in the third configuration Sweden and Germany are ranking on the middle positions on the quality and equity dimensions. Austria, however, is doing very well in terms of quality and equity (top 1 and top 2 position), and also rather well for non-native minority students (ranking 5).

Our fourth configuration includes England and Scotland, countries that involve almost exclusively public sector education. England and Scotland are not doing very well on the quality dimension and native low/ses equity dimension (Scotland only), but rather well in terms of non-native minority ranking. Non-native minority students do not lag behind that much compared to their native colleagues in the other three configurations.

We observed major differences between education systems in their institutional contexts. Crucial differences that we found in this study are related to the financial base of public-private distribution of schools combined with the degree to which school fees have to be paid within grant-aided education, the type of governance and the degree of parental power in the school organisation. The major differences could be expressed in two dimensions: the 'substantial grant-aided private education dimension' and the 'parents pay for power dimension'.

Next, the premise that the institutional context of schools will play an important role in the explanation of variation in effectiveness between countries will be tested.

In Table 5.5 a picture is presented of the mean scores of each of the configurations for each of the three output indicators: the mathematics scores for native middle-high/ses, native low/ses and non-native minority students. Furthermore, the table shows the findings of the tests used to analyse whether the differences between the

four configurations are significant. Note that the equity and non-native scores are based on the gap between the mathematics scores of the native middle-high/ses students within a country and those of respectively native low/ses and non-native minority students.

Table 5.5. Three types of mathematics scores (native middle-high/ses, native low/ses, non-native minority) between four configurations (based on posterior means, Grand mean=0 (sample average))

	<i>Mean mathematics score of native middle- high/ses students</i>	<i>Gap between native middle- high/ses and low/ses students</i>	<i>Gap between native middle- high/ses and non-native students</i>
Configuration A (NL, B (fl), B (fr), IRL)	30.55*	- 10.54*	- 16.58
Configuration B (E, F, Dk, P)	- 25.41	- 18.88	- 15.23
Configuration C (S, D, A)	8.05	- 11.35	- 14.58
Configuration D (UK (E), UK (SC))	- 22.35	- 18.01 ¹	- 12.91
F-test	F = 5.058 Sig. = .025 1 versus 2,4	F = 4.579 sig. = .038 1 versus 2,4	F = 1.273 sig. = .341

¹ *only concerns Scotland; no data available for native low/ses English students*

** significant at 0.05*

The results confirm significant differences between the four configurations in terms of the native middle-high/ses mathematics level and the native-low/ses gap in mathematics achievement level. The differences between countries regarding the mathematics achievement gap between non-native minority and native middle-high/ses students are not significant.

The table shows that the four countries in configuration A (Netherlands, both the Belgian education systems and Ireland) obtain the highest mathematics scores of all configurations (quality) and perform also significantly better in terms of the gap between the native middle-high/ses and low/ses students in comparison to the second and the fourth configuration.

The gap between native middle-high/ses and native low/ses students' performance in the third configuration is also not significantly different from the first configuration. The table shows that the gap between mathematics achievement levels of the native middle-high/ses and non-native minority students of the configuration including Sweden, Germany and Austria are well in the range of the

first configuration: the gap for the first configuration increases to 10.54 point, while it shows a gap of 11.35 for the third configuration.

However, the second and the fourth configuration show mean mathematics scores for the native middle-high/ses and native low-ses students in their countries that are significantly less than that of the first configuration.

The following conclusions can be drawn based upon these findings:

- Countries that include relatively high percentages of students within grant-aided private education are performing better than countries that are characterised by a dominant public education or only a limited number of students (less than 10%) attending grant-aided education. The native middle-high/ses students in these countries are at the top of the quality ranking.
- Furthermore, countries including relatively high percentages of students within grant-aided private education also perform better than others when looking into the mathematics achievement levels of their native low/ses students in comparison to the native middle-high/ses students (gap).
- The differences between the configurations in terms of the native middle-high/ses and the non-native minority in terms of the gap in mathematics achievement levels between these groups of students were not found to be significant. So, for non-native minority students at first sight it seems not to matter that much in which country they attend education. However, this is not really the case, because we have to keep in mind that the mean mathematics achievement levels of students in the fourth configuration is substantially lower than those of the students of the countries in the first and third configuration.

These outcomes have been discussed with an international expert group with the aim to interpret the outcomes and possible relationships for their own country as well as to look into the broader picture from an European perspective. In a set of typical countries experts have been contacted to gain more insight into the implications of differences between public/private sector and governance on educational processes. The results, possible explanations of these quality and equity rankings of countries from the viewpoint of the funding of public/private education, the governance types and the degree of school choice will be discussed in the next Chapter.

The findings presented above show that, obviously, the institutional context in which education systems operate need to be taken into account in the interpretation of these relationships. The next section elaborates on the impact of our findings for public and private education.

5.6 PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Before focusing on the impact of our findings for public and private education it is important to acknowledge the fact that comparisons of the outcomes of education systems should take into account the countries' social and economic circumstances and the resources that they can devote to education. However, when analysing the

13 European countries from that point of view (chapter 4) we came to the conclusion that linear correlations do not adequately explain the relationship between expenditure on and quality of education systems. Higher educational expenditure within the 13 European countries does not guarantee higher performance. Other factors, including the effectiveness with which resources are invested, seem to play a crucial role. This brings us to the explanation of variation in quality from differences between public and private education that is also reflected upon in the OECD/PISA (2001) study. Considering, that our own study focuses on such contextual public/private differences from a between-country point of view, we will contemplate some more on the outcomes of this aspect of the PISA study.

In the PISA study schools within the participating countries were defined as either public or private according to whether a public agency or private entity had the ultimate power to make decisions concerning affairs of the school. A “PISA-school” was classified as public if the school principal reported that it was: controlled and managed directly by a public education authority or agency; or controlled and managed either by a government agency directly or by governing body (council, committee, etc.), most of whose members were either appointed by a public authority or elected by public franchise. A “PISA-school” was classified as private if the school principal reported that it was controlled and managed by a non-governmental organisation (e.g., a church, a trade union or a business enterprise) or if its governing board consisted mostly of members not selected by a public agency (OECD/PISA, 2001, 228). The same type of definition was used for our sample to distinguish the size of public and private education in a country’s education system (see Chapter 2 and 3). Furthermore, the PISA study makes a distinction between “government-dependent” and “independent” private schools according to the degree of a private school’s dependence on funding from government sources. The PISA study asked school principals to specify the percentage of the school’s total funding received in a typical school year from: government sources; student fees or school charges paid by parents; donations, sponsorships or parental fund-raising; and other sources. Schools were classified as government-dependent private if they received 50 per cent or more of their core funding from government agencies. Schools were classified as government-independent-private if they received less than 50 per cent of their core funding from government agencies (OECD/PISA, 2001, 228). This definition relates to our definition of publicly-paid or ‘grant-aided’ private schools and ‘truly’ private schools (see Chapter 2). For information about the distribution of these types of schools see Appendix I (at the end of this book).

As we have observed in our study schools that are privately managed but predominantly financed through the public purse, defined here as ‘government-dependent’ private or ‘grant-aided’ private schools, are a much more common model of schooling in European countries than are the exclusively or ‘truly’ privately financed schools. In line with our observations the PISA study concludes (OECD/PISA, p.178): “School education is mainly a public enterprise (...). But other forms of private schooling are more common in OECD countries, particularly government-dependent private schools”.

However, the observation can be made that although the private sector plays a small role in schooling this role is definitely growing. Lately different models are coming up in the European countries in which for example publicly-financed schools not necessarily have to be publicly-managed. Many European and other governments as for example is the case in the USA, New Zealand and Australia observe a process of transferring funds to public and private schools according to various allocation mechanisms. This line of thinking is confirmed by data in the OECD report "Education at a Glance" (OECD, 2001). OECD indicators presented in the report "Education at a Glance" make clear that the degree of private funding is growing, and with an increasing variety of educational opportunities, programmes and providers, governments are forging new partnerships to mobilise resources for education and to design new policies that allow the different stakeholders to participate more fully and to share costs and benefits more equitably (OECD, 2001).

How do public and private institutional contexts relate to student performance?

According to the PISA report (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.179) students in both kinds of private schools ('government dependent' and 'government independent') perform well and often better than the students in public schools. On average across 17 countries that have been included in this public/private comparison (presented in the PISA report on p. 179) students in independent private schools statistically significantly outperform students in reading literacy in public schools in 10 countries. This outcome is in line with our findings that countries that include substantial private (publicly paid) education seem to reach higher scores on mathematics achievement.

However, in the interpretation of these figures, it is important to recognise that students could not be distributed randomly between public and private schools. The population of students in the two types of education may not be representative and an examination of their social backgrounds shows that private schools in some countries tend to enrol more advantaged students, though this is less pronounced in government-dependent schools (OECD/PISA, p.191). Insufficient family wealth can, for example, be an important impediment to students wanting to attend independent private schools with a high level of tuition fees. Even government-dependent private schools that charge no tuition fees can cater for a different clientele or apply more restrictive transfer or selection practices.

In our study of 13 European education systems we have made the point that education systems that include relatively substantial 'grant-aided' private schools that are privately managed seem to perform relatively well. One of the explanations for such a finding could be that those education systems are more cost-effective. For example by making the funding for educational institutions dependent on parents, choosing to enrol their children, governments sometimes seek to introduce incentives for institutions to organise programmes and teaching in ways that better meet diverse student requirements and interests, thus reducing the costs of failure and mismatches. Direct public funding of private institutions based on student enrolments or student credit-hours is one model for this. Giving to students and their

families (through, for example, scholarships or vouchers) to spend in public or private educational institutions of their choice is another method.

Appendix 5.1

Trends in institutional context of education systems of 13 European countries and their ranking on the quality and equity dimension

	<i>Size of funding</i>	<i>Type of funding</i>	<i>Governance</i>	<i>Parent power</i>	<i>School choice</i>	<i>School fees</i>	<i>Quality dimension</i>	<i>Equity dimension</i>	
							<i>All students</i>	<i>Native low/ses Gap</i>	<i>Non-native minority Gap</i>
Netherlands	4	3	4	2	4	1	3	4	11
Belgium (FL)	4	2	3	2	4	1	1	2	12
Belgium (FR)	4	2	3	2	4	1	4	5	10
Ireland	4	3	4	1	3	1*	5	3	6
Spain	3	2	3	3	3	1	12	7	1
France	3	2	1	3	1	3	6	9	13
Denmark	3	1	2	3	2	3	10	11	9
Portugal	2	2	2	2	2	4	13	12	2
Sweden	2	3	2	2	2	1	8	8	8
Germany	2	2	1	1	3	2	7	6	7
Austria	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	5
England	1	2	2	2	3	1	9	--	4
Scotland	1	0	2	2	2	0	11	10	3

*See Chapter 2 and 3 for the specific content of each value; * See Chapter 3 Ireland: p.71-73*

This page intentionally left blank

*J. Murillo, D. Kavadias, G. Amaro, M. Lopes da Silva, J. Gray, P. Daly,
G. Thorp, A. Hofman & R. Hofman*

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Experts from most of the countries' included in this study have been contacted to gain more insight into the implications of differences between public/private sector and governance on educational processes.

The outcomes presented in earlier chapters and especially the ranking of the set of 13 European countries regarding the three output measures (concerning the quality as well as the equity dimension) have been discussed with an international expert group. They have interpreted the outcomes and possible relationships for their own country as well as looked into the broader picture from an European perspective. Expert-panel meetings were held with most of these experts, with an (additional) exchange of ideas through internet and email. The findings and the possible explanations of the quality and equity rankings of performance of groups of native and non-native minority students have been discussed from the viewpoint of the funding of public/private education, the governance and parent power within the countries and the degree of school choice.

This chapter starts with possible explanations for the quality and equity differences between countries that are linked to the size and the type of funding of public and (grant-aided) private education. Next, several explanations concerning the governance of public and private education and the influence of parents on decision-making in the schools is discussed. The last explanation regards issues concerning school choice in public and private education.

6.2 SIZE AND FUNDING OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION

Although private schools may be founded in all the European countries under consideration, some countries offer parents more freedom to found and choose a preferred kind of private education next to the public system. An important point has been made by some of the experts with respect to the type of private education that is considered. Although the analyses in this report mostly concern 'grant-aided' private education the experts made a strong point to include information on the private sector as a whole.

6.2.1 *Grant-aided private versus 'truly' private education*

Private sector education can take different forms. As noted, next to the grant-maintained schools in many countries there exists also a group of schools that can be typified as 'truly private'. To assure a complete picture of each country's education

system the percentage of this type of schools must also be included in a international comparative study. Not in the least because the general policy direction in Europe and abroad is into more privatisation in the education system (e.g. the Netherlands, New Zealand, the UK and US). Other labels that are used to this respect are: the distinction between public schools and private schools and the specification within the private schools between government-independent or government-dependent (OECD/PISA, 2001). The concept 'truly private' refers to schools that are not financed through grant-aid funding from public (governmental) authorities, but schools mostly funded by direct financial contributions of parents of pupils and, possibly, by donations from industry or by inherited funds.

These 'truly private' schools are funded entirely from private money and the number of these type of schools is often limited. Scotland for example does have this so-called 'truly private' sector, although it is not large, about 5% of the school population. Furthermore, in the case of Scotland, most of these schools, though not all, are non-denominational. Very often these schools are referred to as elitist schools and this relates in some of the researched countries (e.g. England) to the fact that these schools can be quite influential within the whole of the education system. In England these 'truly private' schools add up to 7% of all schools. These schools are very influential to the whole education system because they partly serve as a selective kind of education. In countries like the Netherlands (Luzac), Belgium, Spain and Portugal only a very limited number of 'truly private' schools are present and they are not very much influential to the whole education system. Interestingly in the countries' ranking list of secondary schools in Portugal the best as well as the worst were both private Catholic schools.

Furthermore, the Portuguese education system allows public students to attend private schools and pay for this when there is no public school available in the region.

However, this does not exclude the possibilities of the different types of schools (public, 'grant-aided' and 'truly private') to be in competition with each other for students. For example in the Dutch school system the secondary education system has some traits of schools working under market conditions and seriously competing for students. Such market mechanisms seem to be more likely when a certain region includes many different types of schools: public, denominational private, ideological private, secularised private, etceteras.

6.2.2 Selectivity of the country's education system

A similar point that has been made by the experts is related to the selectivity of education systems especially if countries distinguish various types of schools next to the public system. In some countries it is possible for private schools to attract students with greater academic potential than public schools through selection. The 'truly private' schools in England (approximately 7%) do not receive any funding from public authorities, but are paid for with often very high school fees by the parents. Most of these schools in England serve as a selective kind of education for the very white and wealthy elite that for example wants to enrol in Cambridge or

Oxford University. Experts from Sweden assumed that the possible relationship between the institutional context of public and private education and student outcomes to some extent depends on the parents social background. In Sweden, as has been seen in other studies, those students who have parents with higher education do better in school. Furthermore, Swedish students with highly-educated parents are over-represented in private schools and the Swedish experts expect highly-educated parents to be more often active in choosing schools for their children and take a greater part in their children's school work as well.

These experts' comments suggest that educational opportunities are not equally distributed among students from various social backgrounds within a country. Most of the experts expect pupils from the lower socio-economic classes and non-native minority pupils to score less high on the TIMSS test than other students in their country. Our outcomes presented in Chapter 4 confirm this. Countries like Austria and Belgium (especially the Flemish part) are doing quite well from a minority point of view. A country like Ireland comes out of this analysis rather well. The Ireland expert considers it possible that this reflects the absence of any substantial non-native minority population and a strong economy in terms of economic growth in recent years, as well as a unified education system. However, the outcomes concerning the equity of several other high-scoring country's education system for the non-native minorities do not always follow the expected pattern. The Netherlands and Belgium score rather well in general as well as for the native low/ses minorities, but they rank quite low when it comes to the mathematics performance of non-native minority students. The reverse can be seen for the performance in countries like Spain and Portugal. Many of the experts have commented on this point. One of the most common explanations they made is that the non-native minorities in the first two countries do not master the countries' language while in the latter two countries many of the minorities originate from countries (e.g. Angola, Mozambique, Latin-America) where their home language is very much the same as the language spoken in the schools (Spanish or Portuguese).

6.2.3 *Equity in education*

Another related factor concerns the equity of the education system in terms of the number of parents/pupils from non-native and native low/ses minorities that will choose certain kinds of schools. In the case of England it is made clear that the influence of the non-native minority population is diminished in importance through the years. Some 20 years ago things were quite different when non-native minority students were not doing as well as they (partly) do nowadays. In England, the Asians are doing quite well or even better than native English students, but on the other hand pupils from Bangladesh, the Caribbean and African countries (especially boys) still were performing poorly in school in 1995. The English expert expects as well that the influence of the home language as well as the cultural differences ('cultures' distances') are important explanations to this respect. Research in the Netherlands suggests that the cultural distance between the immigration country and home land plays an important role (De Jong,1986). However, we must keep in mind that

outcomes of the 7% very white elite native English students within the ‘truly private schools’ are not taken into account in the TIMSS results of England. Furthermore, minorities attend more in state schools and, specifically, they tend to go more to the local school in the neighbourhood. They almost never attend the ‘truly private schools’, nor other grant-maintained schools like the specialist secondary schools in England. This could very well also be the case in other countries.

6.2.4 *The specific distribution of public and private schools*

In addition, it is possible that the inequality is stronger in some countries than others because of the specific distribution of public and private schools. The research of Bishop and Wössmann (2001) into the expectation that countries with a greater proportion of private-independent school sector may perform better confirmed this. They found that certain “incentive creating” institutional factors explain substantial cross-country variation in cognitive performance and they suggest that private schools are more likely to possess such “incentive creating” institutional characteristics.

From this point of view the Dutch and Belgium case are interesting because on account of the equal subsidising of schools. The Netherlands, for example, does not have prestigious elite of schools outside the state subsidised sector. Consequently, the Dutch experts expect differences in the effectiveness of private or public schools not to be biased by the creaming-off of the most able students, nor by the financial possibilities of parents. Hence, a possible explanation for the relatively high-ranking of the Netherlands and countries with an education system similar to the Netherlands like Belgium and Ireland could well be related to these institutional characteristics. However, further research into institutional effects should make clear whether the point made by the Swedish experts about parents with high-level education supposedly being more often active in choosing schools for their children and taking a greater part in their children’s school work is valid.

Summing up, the education systems in Europe will have to be judged from the perspective of public funded, grant-maintained private and ‘truly’ (no public funding whatsoever) private education and the relationships of the ‘truly’ private sector with the other sectors. Experts elaborate on these relationships within the country reports and try to value the impact of the “truly private sector” on the functioning of the public sector in their country.

6.3 GOVERNANCE AND SYSTEM INFLUENCES IN EDUCATION

Most of the observed countries include some (or more) privately-run schools with school boards consisting of members who are lay persons operating independently as opposed to publicly-run schools, which are often managed by members of the local government. School board members in private education are lay persons, very often parents with children attending the school they govern and they serve as (elected) representatives for all the parents. Public schools are mostly governed by

local authorities and they often do not have children in the schools they govern and are paid by and selected by the local district authorities.

6.3.1 Types and features of school governance

Based upon the findings of their research into public and private education Bishop and Wössmann (2001) argue that competition from privately managed schools within a country's education system is generally associated with positive effects on the quality of the education system. Experts from the Netherlands and Belgium expect that the bureaucratic features of publicly- and privately managed schools influence the nature of the contact between school governance, school and school community. Public schools may be subject to more administrative control and more dependent on the bureaucratic functioning of the local government, while private schools are able to operate in more autonomous ways. The expert of both the Belgian education systems states that the situation of Belgium in many ways resembles that of the Netherlands. The power in governance of public schools in Belgium is situated in groups of schools of one region. The regions are quite autonomous and parents are included in the school councils. Although these parents in general hold only advisory or consultative power, they – together with other representatives – also hold the power to block certain decisions that concern the schools in their region.

The type of governance is mentioned as a possible explanation for the high ranking of the schools of the Netherlands as well as the schools in Belgium. However, although public schools in many countries are governed by local authorities not all countries follow this pattern. In countries like Spain and Portugal public schools are governed by school councils in which parents have an important weight in the decision-making process. Depending on the region in most of these school councils the parents take 50% of the members. The Spanish and Portuguese education system are quite similar on this point and the experts expect the influence of parents in the governance of public schools to be more strong than that of parents in the private schools. The expert of Spain states that the Spanish state has no influence at all on the governance within the 'autonomous regions or districts'. However, within these 17 districts the principal is often a very influential person.

6.3.2 Parent influences and their educational power

In general the expert of England sees or expects only weak effects of governance on quality and of parents within the English system. Parents serving in school governing boards (they take 20-25% of the members) are mostly not as influential as the head teacher and other persons serving on the board. Because parent governors in England are a minority in the governing body, their influence is very much dependent on the way the other governors value their opinions. However, in some cases educated middle class parents will be more influential, although this is often also depending of the way the head teacher rules the governing body. In general, however, parents exercise not so much decision-making powers but they serve more

from a consultative point of view. In general, parental influence on school policy seems to be in its initial phase within the English education system. Still, the influence of parents within the number of the ‘truly’ private schools, however, can be more substantial. These parents are potentially very influential members of their governing bodies because, of course, these parents finance these schools themselves through their substantial high school fees. The experts, however, expect that parents in general will tend to choose schools that are in line with their own values and that fit their priorities. Generally speaking the governing bodies of the ‘truly’ private schools often operate in a quite autonomous way.

6.3.3 *Influence of local educational authorities*

This brings us to another aspect of the role of governance: the influence of the local educational authorities on the funding and autonomy of grant-aided schools within the countries. The LEA’s in England for example vary strongly in their position towards the funding of grant-aided schools. Since 1997 a part of the ‘grant-maintained schools’ have been positioned under the authority of the LEA’s and their position towards ‘grant-maintained schools’ depends largely on their political affiliations. Some LEA’s favour these (now so-called foundational) schools and allow them public funding and great autonomy. Some of the LEA’s, however, allow these schools no public funding at all and put severe constraints on the autonomy of these formerly ‘grant-maintained schools’. Over a 1000 formerly ‘grant-maintained’ secondary schools (out of 3.500 schools) opted for the LEA and receive funding for schools’ educational needs, building and capital.

Such regional differences are also possible in countries like Spain and Portugal and in the case of admission of students also in many other countries like Sweden. This makes comparisons more difficult and it seems prudent to take these variation into account by including specific school level factors as covariates into the comparative research model.

6.4 SCHOOL CHOICE IN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

The freedom to choose a school in the public as well as the private sector may be hindered by patterns of pupil enrolment which may be determined by the public authorities. They may define school catchment areas that vary in size and have an impact on parents’ freedom to choose the school to which they would like to send their child. In reality, most countries hold a balance between public intervention and parental choice.

6.4.1 *School choice and the role of catchment areas*

The experts from many countries (Spain, Portugal, Sweden, Belgium) made clear that the catchment areas can differ strongly in terms of

- their admission criteria;
- in the influences (and amount of funding) of the local authorities;

- in regional broadness; and
- in the possibilities to choose beyond these catchment areas.

The Portuguese catchment areas are not the same for all regions and most of the times show great freedom of choice because the catchment areas are linked to the home address of the parents. However, parents may also choose to use the work address of both to define their catchment area. The catchment areas in big cities are very wide and offer the parents a high degree of school choice. However, when living in a small village or town most parents can only choose one school. Furthermore, some public schools are highly preferred by some parents. In such cases the parents sometimes use a false address.

The expert of Denmark stresses the importance that the Danish parents have a free choice as long as the standards set by the government are met. Danish education is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 16. In fact these 9 years of schooling are a must in Denmark whether they receive education in the publicly provided municipal school, in a private school or even at home. The place where compulsory education can be received may vary from in-school to out-of-school places like at home. Although this is also possible in some of the other researched countries, home-placed education is very limited. International comparison of education systems should take note of the possible influence of such country-specific contextual information.

6.4.2 Parental school choice and admission policies

The admissions authority for each individual school (either the local authority or the school governing body) establishes an admission policy. In most countries parents are free to choose schools for their children and schools must meet this request. However, in some countries these schools are subject to additional admission criteria issued by the government to ensure that the bright and fitting working class students are admitted first and others if there being sufficient places available. Parents have a legal right of appeal if a place is not provided at the school of their choice.

The pattern of school choice often follows the socio-economic lines in a region. Minorities for example attend in most of the countries more often state or public schools than private schools and, specifically, they tend to go more to the local school in the neighbourhood. They seldom attend the ‘truly private elitist schools’ with very high fees in England.

In the case of Spain, and this seems to be the case in Portugal as well, parental choice of schools is very much influenced by the (perceived) quality or the specific academic focus of a school. Other countries also show these parental preferences for religious schools including a number of Catholic Convent schools and a couple of long established “Protestant” schools that focus on traditional academic learning and the grammar schools in England. Such parental preferences have an impact on the school population and shape the academic abilities and motivation of the student population of these schools.

Parents choose the school for their children for various reasons. However, most research in the US, the UK and the Netherlands shows that parents identify

educational quality as the most important choice factor (Hofman & Hofman, 2001; Sugarman & Kemerer, 1999). Location, as well as discipline and size also play a role in school choice. Moreover, Sugarman and Kemerer (1999) argue that school choice is not independent of the socio-economic background of parents. Social networks of friends and relatives providing information about public and (grant-aided) private schools are often segregated by race and education levels. Parents from higher socio-economic backgrounds seem to find easier access to information on school quality than others.

Other influences of school choice relate to the commitment of parents to school and schooling. Irish schools that are Gaelic speaking schools, but are not situated in the Gaelic areas are doing very well, partly due to the commitment of parents to these schools. Parents' commitment to school is perceived as a possible explanation for the better performances of private schools in some of the observed countries. This issue has also been spoken of earlier in terms of the way ('truly' and grant-aided) private and public education are distributed in a country.

6.4.3 Parental choice and financial and social resources

The financial resources of schools may also relate to the quality of schooling. The payment of teachers, for example, could very well contribute to differences in school quality in general as well as the specific quality of public and private schools. For example, surprisingly, the teachers in public schools in the Spanish education system earn more money than teachers in private schools and as a consequence many of the private school teachers try to find work in public schools.

The degree of freedom of school choice is highest in education systems with public and private education both equally paid for. Parental school choice could also well shape the way the school is functioning. The English education system allows substantial influence of parents within the 'truly private' schools because the parents pay for these schools through high school fees. However, although parents will or could be quite influential in these type of schools, in general parents tend to choose schools that are in line with their own values and that fit their priorities.

Several researchers explain context effects on schooling through the social resources available in so-called functional or value communities. Coleman & Hoffer, (1987) characterise such a community by a social network which includes relationships between parents who know each other and each others' children. According to Coleman & Hoffer (1987), such a functional or value community influences the outcomes of schooling through parent-school ties, and particularly facilitates the scholastic achievement of disadvantaged groups.

6.4.4 Characteristics of school and classroom

Another point that could influence the choice of school concerns the school or class size. In Portugal, the size of the school seems to be of considerably more importance as an explanatory variable than the public or private type of school. Large schools

seem to be doing very well due to their stability, strong leadership and the development of a school culture.

Many of the experts made clear that formal criteria on class size are formal indeed and do not adequately indicate the way schools are organised in practice. For example the Danish education system has a recommended class size of 28 pupils. However, the average number today is approximately 19 and the pupil-teacher ratio at the moment is 10.4. On the other hand according to experts from Portugal the private schools in that country show high class sizes because of the fact that the parents have to pay for the teachers' salary themselves. According to our experts this differentiation between formal criteria and school practice can also be found in Portugal, Spain, Belgium and the Netherlands and is likely to occur also in the other countries included in this report.

6.4.5 *New types of schools*

A new development to increase the degree of school choice of the last years has been apparent in many countries. It is that of the so-called 'specialist' schools. These are primary and secondary schools that deliver the regular curriculum, but specialise in a particular area of the curriculum, such as computers, technology or arts. Specialist secondary schools in England have been founded within disadvantaged areas of big cities. These schools were set out to be specialist schools that could compete within the comprehensive schools framework through a special distinction in a particular area of the curriculum, like e.g. technology or computers. These colleges try to attract special business support and sponsors to finance new buildings as well as the specific curriculum they use to attract students within disadvantaged of big cities (like 'magnet-schools' in the US). Furthermore, education is very much influenced by the type of students they attract and all in all there is much social differentiation in big cities. Until 1997, however, these schools in England did receive some money from the government because bright working class children that could benefit from these schools were given the opportunity to enter. The places they took were financed by the government (the so-called 'assisted places scheme'). However, in practice the children that took these places were indeed bright children, but they came mostly from a middle-class background. In 1997 the Labour government closed this type of funding down. The Netherlands recognises such types of specialist schools also within the public sector especially in primary education (e.g. 'Partnership schools', 'Daltonscholen', 'Montessorischolen' and 'Community schools which are called 'Vensterscholen' or 'Brede School').

6.5 TAKING INTO ACCOUNT COUNTRY-SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS

A fair comparison of the quality and equity of various countries should take into account more general characteristics of the (education systems of) countries that may influence the outcomes. The experts have named several possible variables that should be taken into account. It has to be remembered that school effectiveness issues underlie much of this work. Yet school effectiveness researchers remind us of

the limitations of using only one outcome measure. Here, at least as far as “quality” is concerned, we are using a single measure in relation to a – relatively young – age-group – 13 year olds (mathematics). In further research it might be expected to broaden the outcome measures including, for example, measures of pupil attitudes. Such measures are available within international databases like TIMMS and PISA. Furthermore, a point that has been made concerns the influence of gender differences on quality and equity and this can also be taken into account within the TIMSS data set.

All in all, the discussions with the country experts showed interesting similarities as well as differences. The Spanish expert stresses the importance of contextual data and the necessity to refrain from ethno-centric school effectiveness. This relates to research of school effectiveness that only stresses the importance of school effectiveness factors from the industrialised countries, specifically the US and the UK. A fair estimate of the countries education system should take into account country-level resource factors like: educational expenditure- either per student or as a proportion of the country’s gross national product. These country-specific covariates seem especially of importance when taking into account a wide range of countries from various continents like South-America, South-Asia, and for example Eastern-Europe. Furthermore, the Spanish expert expects the quality of an education system to be influenced by the degree of investment of a country into education and finds this to be an important explanatory variable for the quality of education in Spain. In addition to these covariates the expert from Belgium adds the importance of years of schooling or time spent on education.

Another interesting factor that experts find important to take into account as a country-covariate concerns the ‘inclusiveness’ of the system. The Netherlands and Belgium for example are well known for the high number of students that are referred to special education. These special schools have not been included in the TIMSS data set and this could be a possible explanation for the high performance of the Dutch students. Other countries education systems could well be more inclusive and this could explain the lower performance of countries like Spain, Portugal and Denmark. This factor should be taken into account as a country covariate as well.

Contextual analyses of education systems takes the similarities and differences between countries into account more thoroughly and search for country-specific predictors within the education system. Other contextual developments within countries especially the historical development of their education system should also be taken into account in further research. Furthermore, recently many changes have occurred in the governing of public schools and this is also a factor that may have an impact on future performance of students.

One of the points made to this respect was that when describing an education system it could be wise to take time and effort describing the origin of education systems and the political forces that have shaped the governing structure of schools. In many countries changes are made in the governing system of public and private schools to ensure more influence from the parents on the decision-making and on school life. Often, the governing of public schools is changing and is becoming more similar to that of the private sector.

Furthermore, when thinking in terms of variation in the type of schools the private sector needs specific clarification of the type of governance and position of the 'grant-aided private' and 'truly private' governance of schools vis-à-vis public-sector schools. Nonetheless, the type of governance of the 'grant-maintained schools' in many countries resembles that of the 'truly private' type of governance or can even be described as being identical.

International studies into the comparison of the quality and equity of education systems can be useful especially when they take into account detailed information on different countries. The estimation of the relationships between countries contextual characteristics and schooling outcomes provides information about their performance as compared to other – similar types of – countries. Furthermore, information for each individual country would make it possible to discern the effects associated with particular policies and practices in these separate countries and make it possible to characterise its strengths and weaknesses (Willms & Somers, 2001). This international project has focused on the way such an international comparison could well be undertaken while taking into account the experts specific suggestions and opinions and their countries' specific contextual information as well. The last chapter summarises the findings and issues of the international study and places them in a wider perspective.

This page intentionally left blank

CHAPTER 7 SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR WORLDWIDE EDUCATION

J.M. Gray, W.H.A. Hofman, R.H. Hofman & P. Daly

7.1 INTRODUCTION

When we began our research we had two major concerns. First, to look at how the different countries of Europe schooled their children in terms of certain key dimensions – funding, governance and choice being the most prominent. And second, to explore whether what they did mattered in terms of their effects on pupil performance.

Educational systems emerge over time. Their formation and maintenance reflect differing historical traditions, cultural values and religious interests as well as divergent views about the role of the state in shaping the life-chances of its future citizens. Everywhere we looked we found differences. The task we set ourselves was to find appropriate frameworks for comparison which were simultaneously true to the broad circumstances of each country whilst putting some of the nuances into context.

Our strategy was to recruit a range of country ‘experts’, who could alert us to the salient features of each educational system, and combine their views with analyses of a cross-European data-set on pupil performance (drawing on data from the Third International Mathematics and Science Study – widely known as TIMSS). The use of such ‘experts’ is common in international studies of achievement but the degree of detail we achieved as a result is rare. Bringing these two sources together we painted a detailed picture of the systems in 13 European countries. Our ‘experts’ also gave us a greater purchase on the key structural dimensions which make up what we refer to as the ‘institutional context’ and underpin our analyses of performance.

‘Institutional context’ has come to play an important role in the explanation of differences in ‘effectiveness’ between schools. But what is meant by such a concept differs from system to system. At its centre are a nexus of inter-cutting relationships pertaining to the relative sizes of the public and private sectors, the financial bases on which they are founded, governance structures and the extent of school ‘choice’ available in different countries as well as variations in decision-making, the ‘locus of control’ and the influence of parents and community. Any or all of these factors have been portrayed as crucial to the functioning of particular educational systems. Given the number and complexity of some of them, we should therefore not be particularly surprised that valid comparisons of public/private effects in education are currently few and far between.

As policy-makers increasingly come to compete through educational systems for economic advantage and, in the process create ambitious agendas for systemic reform, there is a further interest in determining the relative influences of such differences. Such ‘improvement’ agendas have been reflected in recent research. Bishop and Wössmann (2001), for example, have argued that certain “incentive creating” institutional factors can help to explain a great deal of the cross-country variation in mathematics achievement. They suggest that private schools are more likely to possess appropriate “incentive creating” characteristics and that competition from privately-managed schools is generally associated with positive effects in terms of performance. The implication is that improving institutional policies may be a good deal more effective in increasing the quality of schooling than revising resource policies. It is a policy agenda which affects school reform in developed and developing countries alike. The European case is of particular interest, however, because the range of combinations on offer is considerable.

7.2 KEY DIMENSIONS OF CONTEXT

We explored four key dimensions of institutional context in our research. These concerned: the size of the private sector as a proportion of the whole educational system in each country; the type of funding schools receive; the formal arrangements for their governance; and the degree of ‘choice’ available to parents and pupils. In each case we have tried to rank the various systems into a number of broader categories whilst acknowledging that, on occasion, the situation in individual countries is unique.

7.2.1 *Size of the ‘private’ sector*

The size of the private school sector at the primary stages varies across our study. In the Netherlands, Ireland and both parts of the Belgian system, it is over 60%; in Denmark, France, Portugal and Spain it is between 10% to 30%; in Austria, England, Germany and Sweden it is less than 10%; whilst in some others it is almost non-existent. The percentages of students attending private schools at the secondary stage tends to be somewhat higher than the figures reported here.

The size of a country’s ‘private’ sector can be somewhat misleading however. Some of our experts reminded us that a more fine-grained distinction is required. In England, for example, there is a group of schools which are almost entirely funded by parental fees. These schools make up around 7% of all secondary schools and are extremely influential in terms of their influence on the whole system, offering a form of ‘selective’ education which has historically offered advantages in terms of entry to higher education and subsequent life-chances. Ireland also has a group of these ‘prestigious’ schools which serve the upper/upper middle classes and charge additional boarding fees although the bulk of their funding comes from the state; however, the numbers involved in this case are limited. Scotland, meanwhile, has a

comparable group which makes up around 5% of its school population. Often such schools, by virtue of their missions and intakes, are referred to as 'elitist'. Furthermore, their impact on the entire educational system (especially when they attract or select the more able students) can be disproportionate to their size. We refer to such schools as 'truly private' ones to indicate that they are not financed through grant-aid funding from public (governmental) authorities but mainly through direct financial contributions by the parents of pupils and, possibly, by donations from industry or by accumulated funds dating back to their foundation. By contrast, in countries such as the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain and Portugal only a very limited number of 'truly private' schools exist at present and they are not widely-perceived to have much influence on the educational systems of which they are a part.

7.3 TYPES OF FUNDING

The public/private distinction is an important feature of European educational systems but only part of the overall story. Most systems, we found, had private and public schools. The key difference was in how they chose to fund them. In some countries the state finances both the public and the private sectors equally and implements identical policies across both sectors (the Netherlands, Sweden and Ireland). Furthermore, some countries combine the equal funding and treatment of public and private schools with free parental choice of school (Belgium (both systems) and the Netherlands). But, whilst the law in many countries permits private schools to be established, it does not necessarily imply that such schools will be publicly-funded. In some countries, the private sector accounts for the majority of schools (Belgium, Ireland, the Netherlands) whilst in others they constitute just a small minority (Austria, Germany, Portugal, Sweden). The importance of looking at countries in which education and other services are financed by the government, but operated by private non-profit organizations (often religious by nature) also needs to be taken into account (Ireland and the Netherlands).

In developing our typology of European systems we employed two indicators to describe the education funding policy of each country: (1) the size of the 'grant-aided' and 'truly private' sectors; and (2) the type of financing available for private education. This produced a four category framework describing the availability of size and type of public and private education; countries ranged from those which were entirely 'public sector' to those with over 30% of pupils (and sometimes considerably more) attending grant-aided private schools.

In considering the funding of these grant-aided private schools we made use of three main models. These judged each country in terms of its degree of similarity to the financing policy of the public sector in that country. To represent the full range of alternatives a further category ('model zero') was required; this was for countries that do not operate any arrangements at all for grant-aided private education (Scotland).

7.3.1 *Arrangements for governance*

Citizens of European countries are all free to found, organise and run schools (European Communities, 2000). Indeed, the right to establish private schools is one way of putting the principle of ‘freedom to educate’ into practice. In the vast majority of cases, however, governance arrangements have been long-established. In many countries grant-aided private schools are governed by private locally autonomous school boards (a foundation or an association), whilst their public counterparts are governed by local authorities (or an appointed institution). Private schools (Protestant, Catholic or with other religious or, occasionally, ideological commitments) have school boards, often consisting of individual members (for example, experts, community stake-holders, religious and church-affiliated persons) with parents typically in the majority. Public schools, by contrast, are mainly managed by members drawn from local government. However, not all countries follow this pattern. In Spain and Portugal school councils govern public schools and, in these cases, parents make important contributions to the decision-making process.

For the purposes of our analyses we drew on two central aspects of these arrangements for governance: (1) the availability of different types of governance authorities in each country; and (2) the influence or power of the governance bodies at school level that include parental representatives.

To describe the type of governance operating in each of the countries we made use of a typology based on the combination of schools that are public/private and the way they are governed (governed by local government or public authorities, governed by representatives of parents, governed by school boards, or a mix of the above).

In most countries of Europe there are arrangements for consultative councils which include parents on the boards of individual schools. The powers of these councils can vary considerably. We categorised systems into one of three models varying from countries in which these bodies generally exercise little or no power (Germany) to countries in which such bodies are allocated an important decision-making role (Denmark, France and Spain).

7.3.2 *Choice and community in public and private education*

Relationships between schools and their communities can be heavily influenced by differences in what are essentially bureaucratic features of public and private schools. Public schools can be subject to high levels of administrative control and are, to some extent, constrained by the bureaucratic functioning of the local governments to which they must report; they may or may not have the freedom to choose to expand their numbers. Private schools, by contrast, have considerably more autonomy. These, in turn, are affected by the extent to which parents have the freedom to choose which schools to send their children to.

We have employed two indicators to describe the degree to which freedom of school choice is available in European countries: legislation on such freedom of choice in the public sector and the existence of grant-aided private education, offering a real alternative to public education. Freedom in education can be viewed from two perspectives. First, in terms of the freedom of parents to choose a school which is suitable for their child. And second, from the existence of the freedom for anyone who so wishes to initiate a form of education which offers an alternative to public-sector education in terms of cultural, denominational, ideological or even a pedagogical point of view.

Countries that offer parents greater freedom to choose a preferred kind of education provide the opportunity to found and choose grant-aided private schools alongside freedom to choose within the public system. But the freedom to choose a school in the public and as well as the private sector may be hindered in a variety of different ways. Patterns of pupil enrolment in schools may be said to reflect two extremes. In the first, enrolment is determined by the public authorities, which define school catchment areas that vary in size. In the second, parents are free to choose the school to which they send their child. In reality, however, most countries stand somewhere between these extremes with a balance between public intervention and parental choice.

Four different categories can be distinguished relating to the extent of freedom of school choice in the public sector in European countries. These vary from no real choice (France) to complete free choice (both Belgian systems and the Netherlands). Freedom of school choice is highest in settings where parents choose a school freely, with no action on the part of the public authorities to regulate pupil numbers.

The question of freedom of school choice is bound up with the degree to which there are financial barriers to attendance at a particular school. From this viewpoint the question of school fees in grant-aided private education is important. We distinguish three types ranging from (a) countries where no school fees are allowed in grant-aided private education where legislation is identical to that of public-sector schools (Sweden, Spain, the Netherlands, Belgium and England); (b) countries where pupils' parents pay fairly low fees, to avoid any social discrimination (Germany); and (c) countries where private school fees wholly or partially cover budgetary headings not provided by public-sector funding (Austria, Denmark and France).

7.4 COUNTRY CONFIGURATIONS

We see configuration theory as a tool for constructing empirically-based typologies of countries and we employ it in this study to explore the interdependence of the six indicators of institutional context discussed earlier. This approach to the institutional context of learning assumes that additional value will be found in the various configurations (Mintzberg, 1979). To produce the specific groupings we used a multi-dimensional scaling procedure (see Chapter 5).

The *first configuration* of countries covers Ireland, both the Belgian systems and the Netherlands. These countries have the highest numbers of grant-aided private schools. More than half their pupils attend such schools. No school fees are charged. These countries also had the highest scores with respect to the extent of freedom of school choice. Parents can choose freely between schools and normally no action is taken by the state authorities to regulate pupil numbers in these schools. Schools are largely privately-run by school boards but these boards do not allow parents to exercise much influence in decision-making.

The *second configuration* includes Denmark, France, Portugal and Spain; the number of pupils attending grant-aided schools in these countries is between 10 and 30 per cent. Parents in these countries, with the exception of Spain, are charged relatively high fees to cover (wholly or partially) budgetary headings that are not met by state funding. Parents seem to be the most influential grouping within this configuration, allowing them decision-making power in a number of areas.

The *last two configurations* include Austria, Germany and Sweden on the one hand and England and Scotland on the other. In both configurations schools are largely publicly-funded and organised, usually by local authorities or other organisations which include parents. However, parents' influence is quite limited, usually amounting to the right to be consulted. The main distinction between these two configurations concerns the size of the grant-aided sector and the funding received. In the *third configuration* only a very limited number of grant-aided private schools exist within their system. In general, fewer than 10% of pupils attend grant-aided private schools. The *fourth configuration*, by contrast, differs from the third by virtue of having what we term a group of 'truly private' schools which charge relatively high fees to parents.

7.5 DO THE DIFFERENCES AFFECT ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE?

It is abundantly clear from the discussion in the previous section that educational systems vary from country to country. Here we explore the central question of whether any of these differences seem to be associated with differences in pupil performance (see also OECD, 2003). We confine ourselves to the broad features of the various systems rather than attempting to disentangle the full complexities of each country's approach.

To judge performance we employ two key dimensions which we refer to as the 'quality' and 'equity' components. By 'quality' we mean the average mathematics scores of 13 year-olds who are at the end of their basic education or in the first year of secondary education. By 'equity' we mean (a) the gap between the mean mathematics scores of the native high/middle-ses group and the native low-ses group ('gap ses') and (b) the gap between the mean mathematics scores of the native high/middle-ses group and the mean mathematics scores of the minority pupils ('gap min').

The *quality dimension* shows that Austria, both the systems in Belgium as well as the Netherlands had students obtaining the highest mathematics achievement levels. By contrast, the systems of Portugal, Spain, Scotland and Denmark were not performing as well in this respect.

The results for the *equity dimension* showed a somewhat different pattern. Austria, the Netherlands and the Flemish-speaking part of Belgium still appear but are joined by Ireland. These countries had the smallest gap between their native and low/ses students and can be described as systems which appear to enhance equity. Spain, Portugal, Scotland and England also appear to be performing quite well with respect to the performance of their ethnic-minority students.

Figure 7.1 shows some interesting patterns when quality and equity (expressed in terms of the ses-gap) of schools are combined. The Belgian Flanders system is one which appears to be fostering high quality/high equity (ses-gap). Austria and the Netherlands also seem to score rather well in the combined quality/equity analysis. By contrast, Portugal is a system which appears to perform poorly on both dimensions; other systems with relatively poor outcomes include Denmark, Scotland and Spain.

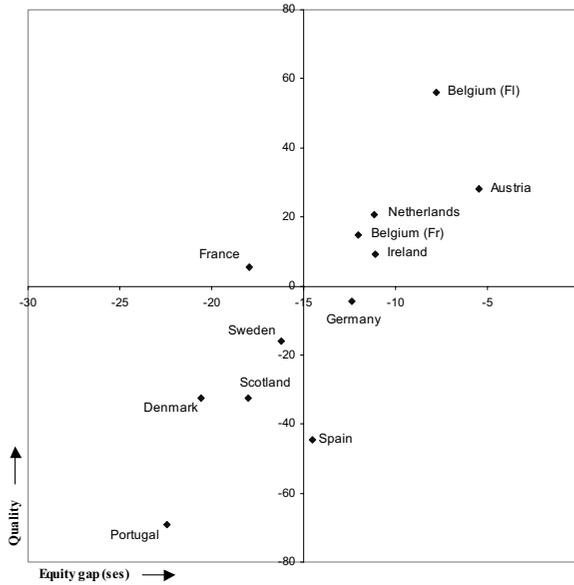


Figure 7.1: *Quality and equity (the ses gap) in European education systems*⁴

In theory, a system could foster high quality and high equity (with a small native high/middle ses versus minority gap). In reality, none of the systems we studied appeared to have this pattern although Austria seemed to score rather well in the combined analysis. By contrast, the Danish system seemed to be performing below average on both dimensions. As Figure 7.2 shows, the picture is rather lop-sided in some other countries as well. Belgium Flanders, for example, appears to be more oriented towards quality at the expense of equity whilst the reverse seems to be true for Portugal and Spain.

⁴ Data on the ses-gap in England was not available in Timms.

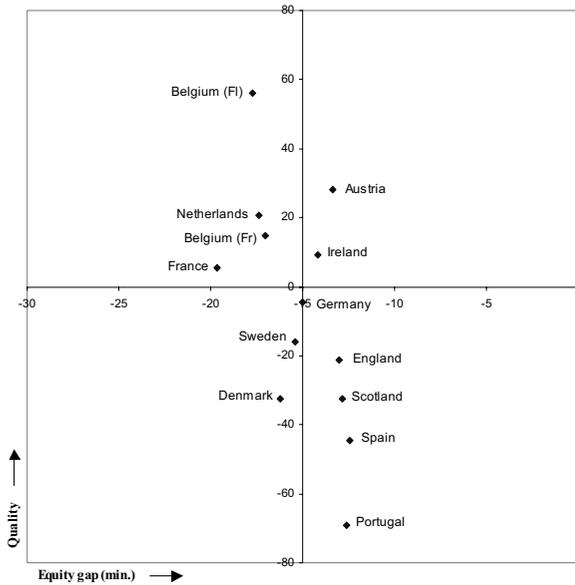


Figure 7.2: *Quality and equity (the minority gap) in European education systems*

We are now in a position to move to our major concern, namely the question of whether there is evidence that the quality and equity dimensions of the various European countries are related to their institutional characteristics? It should be clear by now that this question is not quite as straightforward as might have been imagined. Each of the systems we have been considering here has its own unique characteristics and features which do not lend themselves to easy generalisations. Cross-country comparisons, by their nature, represent a step up in complexity when contrasted with comparisons of school factors within a single system.

Nonetheless, based on the available data on the four configurations of countries, we conclude that:

- countries that include relatively high percentages of students within grant-aided education institutions have been performing better in terms of quality dimensions than countries that are dominated by public sector schools or ones where the proportion of students attending grant-aided education is small (less than 10%). Furthermore, the native students in these countries tended to be at or near the top of the quality rankings.
- countries with relatively high percentages of students in grant-aided schools tended to perform better than others when equity dimensions are taken into

account. The gap in the mathematics performance levels between their low/ses and native high/middle-ses students is frequently smaller.

- the Netherlands and Belgium scored well overall as well as in terms of the performance of their low/ses minorities. However, when it comes to the mathematics performance of their ethnic minority students, the picture was by no means as favourable. A reverse pattern can be seen in the performance of countries such as Portugal and Spain.

Research on governance and related factors which might make a difference to school functioning has previously concentrated on within-country differences and their possible effects on school performance. By contrast, systematic research on between-country differences has been in much shorter supply. It is therefore difficult to point to corresponding findings in other related research. The type of governance under which schools are operating was certainly mentioned by our experts as a possible explanation for the high ranking of the schools of the Netherlands as well as the schools in Belgium. Both note similarities between the two systems of governance and emphasise the ability of private schools in the two countries to function in more autonomous ways.

Several of our experts have commented on this point about countries which appear to do well in terms of quality but less well in terms of equity as far as the minority gap is concerned. One of the most common explanations they have offered is that many of those making up the ethnic minority groups in the first two countries do not master the countries' language whilst, in the latter two, many actually originate from countries (such as Angola, Mozambique, Latin-America) where their 'home language' is much the same as the language spoken in the schools they attend (Spanish or Portuguese). England is a country where the performance of ethnic minority groups differs, depending on the country of origin. Some Asian groups (notably from India and China) are doing well or, in some cases, even better than native English students. On the other hand pupils from Bangladesh, the Caribbean and African countries (especially boys) were performing poorly at school. Our English expert suggests that both home language and other cultural differences are important here. Research in the Netherlands also supports the view that the 'cultural distance' between the receiving country and the country of origin plays a significant role (De Jong, 1995).

Both the Netherlands and Belgium systems place a premium on parental involvement. Although parents only hold advisory or consultative power, they can in certain circumstances, block certain decisions that concern schools in their region. However, this cannot be the full story because public schools in countries like Spain and Portugal also give a prominent role to parents in the decision-making process, often offering up to half the places on governing school councils to them. By contrast, our experts suggest, the influence of parents on private schools in the two countries is likely to have been quite modest.

Parents may contribute to differences between schools through the choices they express for their children to be educated at one school as opposed to another. They exercise their choice of schools for a variety of reasons. However, a range of studies in the USA, the UK and the Netherlands show that parents identify perceptions of 'educational quality' as one of the most important factors influencing their choices (Hofman & Hofman, 2001; Sugarman & Kemerer, 1999). But similar factors also seem to operate in Spain and Portugal, according to our experts, where parental choice of schools is very much influenced by the perceived quality or the specific academic focus of a school. Other countries also show distinct preferences for specific types of school such as the Jesuit schools in Ireland which focus on traditional academic learning and the grammar schools in England. Location, perceptions of discipline and school size also play a part. Such parental preferences shape the academic abilities and motivations of the student population.

But, as Sugarman and Kemerer (1999) have argued, there is another powerful underlying factor at work. School choice is rarely exercised independently of socio-economic background and, more frequently than not, follows the socio-economic contours of a region or locality. Minorities, in most of the countries we studied, more often attend state or public sector schools and tend to go to the local school in their immediate neighbourhood. Background and location constrain their choices and, in due course, their life-chances. Only rarely do they attend the 'truly private' and elitist schools, with their correspondingly high fees, such as those in England. Furthermore, background can impact on school choice in other ways as well. Social networks of friends and relatives, who can provide information about schools, are often segregated by race and education levels. Parents from higher socio-economic backgrounds, in short, tend to have better access to information on school quality than others, partly because they value it enough to seek it out but also because their social positions give them access to better networks.

7.5.1 Comparing the outcomes with PISA

Our comparison of findings from the PISA study (OECD/PISA, 2001) and our own is limited to the mean achievement levels of the sample of 13 countries. Although comparisons are somewhat tricky because of the differences in measurement of countries, type of assessment and age group some observations can be made. The ranking patterns in relation to mathematics performance in our TIMSS sample are generally confirmed within PISA. PISA-countries that scored significantly above the average mean included Austria, the Netherlands and Sweden. PISA-countries that scored significantly below the average mean included Germany, Spain and Portugal. Summarising these findings we may conclude that comparison of the PISA results and our own showed trends in the same direction, especially with respect to the significant deviance of the top and bottom countries. This concerns Austria and the Netherlands on the one hand compared with Spain and Portugal on the other. However, some striking differences occur when comparing our sample and the PISA findings relating to Germany and Sweden. Sweden seems to fare much better in the

PISA study than in our the TIMSS mathematics sample. However, Germany fares much worse and this outcome has been subject of extensive discussions. One explanation points to the traditional teaching methods that Germany seem to employ more than other countries. Why Sweden performs so much better in the PISA study than in the TIMSS study could well be explained with the same reasoning as for Germany, but in reverse. Sweden could well be a country that is less traditional in terms of scope and content of the lessons.

7.5.2 *Educational expenditure and quality of education systems*

In any comparison of the outcomes of education systems it is necessary to take into account countries' economic circumstances and the resources they can devote to education. In the PISA study the conclusion drawn was that: "Countries with higher income per capita tend to perform better, on average but some countries do better or worse than their income would predict so national income relates to but does not determine performance" (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.92). The PISA study used a trend line and countries close to the trend line were where the predictor (GDP per capita) suggests that they would be. Countries that were also included in our sample of 13 European countries and that are examples of this include Austria, Belgium, France, Ireland and Spain. Countries above the trend line have higher average scores on the PISA assessments than would be predicted and these include the United Kingdom and, to a lesser extent, Sweden. Countries below the trend line, showing lower performances than would be predicted, include Portugal, Germany and Denmark (see OECD/PISA, 2001, p.91).

Although these observations in general do suggest that countries with higher national incomes are at a relative advantage, the comparison with our sample of highly industrialised European countries also makes clear that other factors are involved. Our sample of countries can be defined as 'rich' countries working in the same hemisphere and with rather limited differences in their GDP. However, interestingly, amongst the two countries in our sample that had, relatively speaking, the lowest GDP's (Spain and Portugal) one fared much better than expected, considering the trend line (Spain), and the other one rather worse (Portugal).

It is also possible to compare expenditure on educational institutions. The OECD Report 'Education at a Glance' show that the expenditure (as a percentage of the GDP) on primary and lower secondary education in our sample of countries reveals substantial differences (see Appendix II). Furthermore the data make clear that simple correlations are not easily found within this sample. High performing countries such as, for example, Austria and the Netherlands spend respectively high and low amounts on education (primary and lower secondary). On the other hand low performing countries like Spain and Portugal spend, respectively, low and high amounts of money on the same parts of compulsory education.

7.5.3 *The quest for higher performance*

The quest for higher performance through educational reform has been a worldwide phenomenon, especially over the last decade; it is a trend from which European governments have not been immune. The pursuit of economic advantage through educational reform has undoubtedly taken hold across Europe and the USA. Policy-makers are increasingly concerned about how their 'systems' have been performing. In the USA, Hanushek (2003) concludes that the states have moved away from developing teacher-specific incentive systems and toward group ratings and accountability. A currently popular reform approach – standards-based reform and school accountability – can be thought of as providing different incentives, although some incentives in these reform efforts are quite confused (Hanushek and Raymond, 2001). Indeed, as strategies for economic integration continue to develop across the European community, we anticipate that the pressures for change will increase still further. Furthermore, whilst different 'settlements' are clearly in place in each of the countries we have studied, some common elements for a 'reform agenda' are beginning to emerge.

Whilst many of the pressures for change are relatively subtle ones, others have been more upfront. A renewed interest in creating 'new' schools is the most obvious indicator of such aspirations. The New American Schools (NAS) movement is an example that is driven by two powerful forces. The first, idealistic one is a call for more and better schooling for all. The second is new and economic in nature. The current generation of young Americans is in danger of being the first generation consistently to make less money and enjoy fewer worldly rewards than its parents (Stringfield, Ross & Smith, 1996). NAS states and districts commit to working toward an operating environment that includes many elements with the first one being "The willingness to give schools wide authority and autonomy to make decisions regarding all aspects of schooling, including staffing, budgeting, curriculum, and scheduling (*i.id* p.18). The general consideration of incentives provides the contrast between the traditional regulatory approach to running schools and the value of identifying outcomes without detailing the approaches to achieving them (Hanushek, 2003).

These new institutions take many forms and the motivations for their foundation vary. They have often been developed to give more 'profile' to efforts to improve educational opportunities in major cities, building on the earlier development of 'magnet' schools for example as a way of tackling malaise. The development of so-called 'Charter' schools in the USA builds on elements of this tradition. There again, they may represent an attempt by politicians to be seen to be tackling the problems associated with earlier reform efforts, such as the comprehensive schools in England. Support for 'specialist' and City Academies in England owes part of its support to such concerns. These schools are supposed to deliver the regular curriculum but specialise in a particular area such as computers, technology or arts or attract additional funds from business or the local community. In the Netherlands specialist schools are also recognised, especially within the public sector at primary

level (e.g. 'Partnership schools', 'Daltonschulen', 'Montessorischolen' and 'Community schools which are called 'Vensterscholen' or 'Brede School'). However, there are other countries in Europe where the notion of reform through the development of new sectors of schools is noticeably absent; reform efforts in these countries tend to be focused on ways of levering up core elements of existing provision. Sometimes, of course, policy-makers engage in both approaches at the same time. The initial phases of such reform efforts often look promising as waves of innovatory enthusiasm combine with the chiselling out of social advantage. The longer-term effects are often, unfortunately, more difficult to establish.

7.5.4 *The power of markets and the freedom to choose*

An enduring faith in the power of markets to deliver social as well as economic advantage is a core belief of advocates of school choice policies. Most maintain that markets can operate to produce greater effectiveness and efficiency than government 'bureaucracies', whose regulation they perceive as a key component of the numerous difficulties facing educational systems.

The arguments in favour of market-led approaches were perhaps most powerfully formulated by Chubb and Moe (1990). Using data from a major national survey of pupil achievement in the USA, combined with their own surveys of principals and teachers, they attempted to show how performance was higher in schools which were privately-run when compared with public ones. The reasons for this superior performance they attributed largely to the competitive pressures markets can create. Parents (consumers) demand better outcomes in terms of pupils' results and private schools set out to provide them – if they do not succeed, then they go to the wall as parents withdraw their support (and their funding). To survive, private schools need highly effective leaders and a high degree of professional autonomy to enable them to innovate as the market demands. If policy-makers could only be persuaded to develop more choice programmes then a wave of powerful reform would be released which would bring about "all by itself the kind of transformation that, for years, reformers have been seeking to engineer in myriad other ways" (Chubb and Moe, 1990, p.217). And returning again to these arguments a few years later, Moe (1994) argued that the extension of 'choice' was likely to be a far more potent reform measure than increasing school self-management, the bureaucratic response to pressures for change.

The Bush administration's 'No Child Left Behind' legislation, which permits US students in low-performing schools to exercise (public) school choice, exemplifies the widespread belief that competing for students will spur public schools to higher achievement. Holmes *et al* (2003) investigated how the introduction of school choice in North Carolina, which resulted in a dramatic increase in the number of charter schools across the state, affected the performance of traditional public schools on statewide tests. They concluded that, overall, the results imply an approximate one percent increase in achievement when a traditional school faces

competition from a charter school. This increase represents approximately one quarter of the mean standard deviation of observed gains, suggesting a considerable return to school choice (Holmes, DeSimone & Rupp, 2003).

Such arguments and empirical outcomes do not necessarily sit comfortably within the political and philosophical traditions of many European societies. However, other arguments put forward by school choice proponents speak to some of their concerns (Smith, 2001). Amongst these the suggestion that all parents (and not just the economically privileged) should have a right to choose the type of education they want for their children is probably the most powerful. Not all European societies are equally comfortable with these forms of thinking. Indeed, some seem resistant, seeing education as a public good which the state has a duty to deliver equally to all. Nonetheless, all respect the right of religious schools to exist and, in most cases, provide substantial levels of support for this sector. Furthermore, whilst the 'truly private' sector is quite small in most European countries, its right to exist is still acknowledged. In short, the foundations for changes in a market direction, supported in varying proportions by a possible coalition between religious and private interests, would seem to be in place.

Critics of school choice policies are much less sanguine about the possibilities of market mechanisms when deployed to educational purposes. They note the inequalities and stratification endemic in capitalist societies and fear that these may be enhanced, rather than diminished, by markets in education (Fuller and Elmore, 1996). They anticipate that choice will favour those who are already well-endowed with financial and social capital.

Fuller and Elmore suggest that any tendencies in the system to create schools which are segregated by income or other kinds of background will be enhanced. And they point out that some of the early 'successes' of the reform movement have been notably short of pupils with social and behavioural problems. In brief, they maintain, markets not only can fail to deliver social and educational goods but have to date done so.

Critiques of market-led approaches have become more abundant since Chubb and Moe first laid down their gauntlet. Whitty (1997), for example, concludes that from the evidence to date, that the creation of quasi-markets in education, far from being the best hope for the poor, exacerbate existing inequalities. Gewirtz et al. suggest that one effect of the development of an education market in England had been a narrowing of the "scope" of education, in that "almost exclusive emphasis [has been placed] on instrumental, academic and cognitive goals" (1995, p.174). Even supporters of various choice plans recognize that for freedom of choice to operate effectively, problems related to location and freedom of movement must be overcome (Moe, 1994). Accusations have been levelled at some of the choice programs that exist in major American cities, such as the East Harlem initiative, suggesting that they have only accepted the 'best' students, leaving the others for the ordinary public schools (Elmore, 1991; Kirp, 1992). Furthermore, we note that urban schools often seem highly resistant to change until the deteriorating and often

oppressive quality of their urban environment is altered in fundamental ways. Finally, even if such problems could be solved the ‘transfer problem’ remains. As Seddon et al (1991) observe, configuration which seem ‘optimal’ in one setting do not necessarily travel well to others.

Coming to a measured judgement about the likely effects of choice policies on educational systems is far from straightforward. Much of the research which has been undertaken to date has an ‘advocacy’ element to it; the researchers know what they want to show and set about doing so. However, as Fowler (2003: 38) has observed with respect to the USA, “school choice is here to stay. It is no silver bullet and some versions of it would probably constitute a social threat. But, in a consumeristic society where people are offered multiple choices in everything from laundry detergents to fast food restaurants, assigning children to schools based on their residence appears strangely anachronistic to many”. Whether ‘school choice’ will have the same influence in European societies remains to be seen but, whatever the case, clearly elements of such thinking are already in place and respected, to varying extents, in many of the countries we have studied.

7.5.5 *Church, class and identity*

A worldwide view of the desirable features for effective school governance is starting to emerge. More attention, however, probably needs to be given to some of the structural interests determining the nature and pace of reform. In the majority of the European systems we have reviewed the interests of church and class loom large.

Both the Catholic and Protestant churches have played a major role over the centuries in creating and sustaining public provision of education across Europe. The arrangements they have elaborated with government are complex – they extend to matters of finance, organisation, staffing and, to a lesser extent, curriculum. The ‘sectors’ vary in size and influence but, in most cases, they are too large and well-established to be ignored.

Class interests have been equally powerful, albeit to some extent less obvious. The English case, where the most wealthy simply opt out of state provision and pay for their children to attend what we have termed ‘truly private’ and prestigious schools, is unusual in two respects: first, in terms of its visibility; and second, in terms of its size. It would be naive, however, to suppose that class interests are not present in other systems – they are merely played out in different ways, through patterns of residential segregation, for example, or entry to prestigious institutes of higher education.

Church and class interests are present in North America as well although they are not always so clearly signposted. As Bryk *et al* (1993) have shown, Catholic schools in the USA provide a ‘competitive edge’ for their pupils. They attribute some of this sector effect to the kinds of ethos and community such schools create. Critics, for

their part, point to some of the economic advantages flowing from church membership in the United States. Social identity is not, of course, simply a matter of class and religion. The strong commitment of some Irish parents to Gaelic-speaking schools located *outside* Gaelic-speaking areas is one example of this. The better performance of some school sectors in other countries is also possibly attributed, at least in part, to greater parental commitment. But, whatever the pattern of local identities, the combination of church and class interests undoubtedly acts as a major stumbling block to certain kinds of reform effort within European systems. Proposals for change must pick their way through a morass of embedded assumptions about how both 'forces' have (and should continue) exercise their respective influences.

7.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION

As we have observed in our study schools that are privately managed but predominantly financed through the public purse (defined here as 'government-dependent' private or 'grant-aided' private schools) are a much more common model of schooling in European countries than exclusively or 'truly' privately financed schools. However, the observation can be made that although the private sector plays a small role in schooling this role is definitely growing. Lately different models have been emerging in European countries in which publicly-financed schools do not necessarily have to be publicly-managed. Many European governments (along with others in, for example, the USA, New Zealand and Australia) have implemented means of transferring funds to public and private schools according to various allocation mechanisms. This kind of approach is confirmed by data in the OECD report 'Education at a Glance'(OECD, 2001). OECD indicators make clear that the degree of private funding is growing. With an increasing variety of educational opportunities, programmes and providers, governments are forging new partnerships to mobilise resources for education and to design new policies that allow the different stakeholders to participate more fully and to share costs and benefits more equitably (OECD, 2001).

According to the PISA study (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.179) students in both kinds of private schools ('government dependent' and 'government independent') perform well and often better than the students in public schools. In interpreting these figures, however, it is important to recognise that students have not been distributed randomly between public and private schools. Consequently, the population of students in the two types of private education may not be representative and an examination of their social backgrounds shows that private schools in some countries tend to enrol more advantaged students, though this is less pronounced in government-dependent schools (OECD/PISA, 2001, p.191). Insufficient family wealth can, for example, be an important impediment to students wanting to attend independent private schools with a high level of tuition fees. Even government-dependent private schools that charge no tuition fees can cater for a different clientele or apply more restrictive transfer or selection practices.

In our study of 13 European education systems we observed good performance by education systems that include relatively substantial ‘grant-aided’ private schools that are privately managed. One explanation for this outcome could be that those education systems are more cost-effectively managed. By making the funding for educational institutions dependent on parents choosing to enrol their children, governments sometimes seek to introduce incentives for institutions to organise programmes and teaching in ways that better meet diverse student requirements and interests, thus reducing the costs of failure and mismatches. Direct public funding of private institutions based on student enrolment or student credit-hours is one model for this. Providing students and their families with the means (through, for example, scholarships or vouchers) to spend in public or private educational institutions of their choice is another option.

7.6.1 *Strong systems*

In ‘World Class Schools’ Reynolds *et al* (2002) argue that remarkable differences between education systems can be found and that these seem to be explained by ‘personal factors’ in certain types of system and by ‘systemic factors’ in others. The authors claim:

“It is clear to us that enormous advantages accrue to those societies which possess ‘strong systems’, rather than rely heavily on ‘strong people’ or ‘unusual persons’ to run their schools. Strong systems minimise the variance in the quality of education provided, increase the likelihood of continuance over time and assure continuance after any key personnel leave the employment of their institution. Systems, on the other hand, that rely on persons to generate their own methods, inevitably persons of different levels of competence, will generate variance in the quality of the methods used according to how much competence persons possess initially. Strong systems can probably generate a higher proportion of educational professionals with the requisite skills to run effective schools, whereas systems that rely on personal characteristics are restricted to the number of persons who possess the requisite personal characteristics” (Reynolds *et al* 2002: 289).

In our own study this balance between ‘strong systems’ and ‘strong persons’ is also visible. However, the outcomes of our comparative analyses seem to suggest that strong education systems in terms of finance, governance and choice seem to be preferable. The Dutch educational system is a good example of a system in which public and private education are equally funded. Furthermore, it combines parental choice of school and equal subsidies and treatment of public and private schools by the state. This balance between freedom of school choice and aims of national educational policy makes the Dutch case interesting for other societies. The educational structure of the Netherlands is often regarded as a unique form of the relationship between state and private initiative. However, it is important to stress that the equal subsidizing by the state of all school sectors in the Netherlands is conducted with a framework of national conditions and regulations to which all Dutch schools, public or private, are subjected (Hofman, 1993).

7.6.2 *Emerging trends*

We now take up the challenge of considering what a European ‘settlement’ might look like, taking into account worldwide trends and the increasing evidence of convergence across educational systems. It seems clear from our discussions with our country experts that the European appetite for strategies which put ‘choice’ policies in the driving seat is rather limited. On the other hand there is decreasing faith in the power of highly-centralised systems to deliver change and improvement with the speed and efficiency that may be required. To a greater or lesser extent, therefore, all the systems of education operating in Europe face some common challenges. How they choose to address these will be crucial to their futures. Key elements in the current debates seem to include changing views on:

- centre-local relations with signs of an increasing commitment to *decentralisation* as a guiding principle for developing school governance;
- school *autonomy* which is now increasingly being seen as the engine-room for school improvement, especially in relation to *sustaining* it; and
- the celebration of *community and school choice* as a means of securing higher levels of parental involvement and respecting key differences.

We now consider each of these three trends in greater detail. By *decentralisation* we mean the process of shifting power and/or resources from centralised educational bureaucracies to local schools or communities. Such efforts only make sense, however, if a number of key assumptions can be met of which two are absolutely central. First, that bureaucratic control has demonstrably been one of the main causes of under-performance, notably but not exclusively in urban schools. And second, that the people closest to the process of formulating school policy and practice (school-level administrators, teachers and parents) have been unduly frustrated in their efforts to secure improvements by centralised bureaucratic constraints.

If such analyses hold true, then certain kinds of reform could be justified. Experiments could include further developments in school-based management with greater control being put in the hands of teachers and/or the creation of local school councils to govern schools, with further decision-making powers being placed in the hands of parents and their local communities. Such reforms might be combined, at the same time, with a further strengthening of parental influence through the institutionalisation of the right of parents to choose schools other than the ones located in their immediate neighbourhoods. However, this latter initiative is not a necessary condition. Whether such reforms necessarily contribute to school improvement will depend, to a large extent, on the extent to which existing bureaucracies have indeed become stultified and the extent to which new partnerships between teachers and parents can be forged. The assumption that

creative impulses will automatically emerge should, however, be treated with caution.

In some countries (again the Netherlands is an example) there are signs that decentralization goes hand in hand with the creation of a new bureaucratic layer at the level of local government. Such a development could imply that one possibly major disadvantage of decentralization processes (namely more inequality) could be combined with centralised top-down governance at local level. In fact, what we see is that many decentralization processes in practice do not provide schools with more autonomy but often confront them with still more bureaucratic procedures. This also implies that research on the effects of decentralization should focus initially on implementation studies to determine the extent of 'real' decentralization and the nature and occurrence of side effects and unintended consequences.

Decentralisation can, of course, be facilitated without necessarily changing the fundamental relationships between the centre and the periphery. The concern to create greater *school autonomy* is intended to ensure not merely that schools are freed from unnecessary bureaucratic constraints but that they are given sufficient freedom to become the engine-rooms of innovation and improvement, determining which of the various broader national trends they will take up and which they will reject. Advocates of both policies argue that they will enhance the efficiency, effectiveness *and* responsiveness of the education system as a whole. The underlying purpose is to ensure that schools generate a distinctive place for themselves in the educational market-place by shaping key features of their vision and resourcing. Such approaches are likely to work well where there is some history of a dynamic approach to innovation. However, as critics point out, giving schools the freedom to change also preserves their right not to do so. Only where a "high-involvement model" is implemented are the results likely to be beneficial (Whitty, 1997).

In facilitating greater school autonomy schools boards can make a difference. Some indicators of school governance seem to be of particular importance. Research has shown that school boards which meet frequently with various groups, especially school staff, and let these groups have a worthwhile impact on the boards' decisions are associated with more successful schools in terms of cognitive performance and the well-being of their students (Hofman *et al*, 2000). Dutch Catholic schools scored highest in terms of influence on boards' decisions followed by Protestant and secular private schools; public schools, by contrast, scored lowest. The governance of public schools seem to inhibit effectiveness, while governance conditions in the private sector seem to facilitate them.

Developing a stronger sense of *community* is the third element in the reform equation. Advocates note the 'added value' when the school can rely on its 'community' for support and when the 'community', in turn, can contribute to the school's development. The strong mutual commitment generated by such partnerships can enthuse both parties. Schools built around a shared religious faith tend to have structures in place which reinforce such values; indeed Bryk *et al*

(1993) argue that the effect of Catholic schools on their communities is particularly marked amongst low income families. Unlike proponents of market-based solutions, however, this impact is attributed to a strong set of community values antithetical to the market place for education.

Further research has argued that 'community effects' on achievement are linked with broader notions of 'functional communities'. A cross-national study of the educational opportunities of students in orthodox religious (Protestant) communities, which can be viewed as ideal-types of functional communities in the USA and the Netherlands, suggests that the previously assumed community effects on achievement are actually linked with the wider social context of a functional community. However, in contrast to the position in the USA, only limited support for a functional community effect is found for such schools in the Netherlands (Dijkstra, Vryhof and Zahs, 1994). A study by Hofman *et al* (1996) on the impact of family networks on pupil achievement found two family-level variables mediating the sector (private versus public) effect: the knowledge parents had collected about school matters through being active within the school, and the establishment of networks amongst parents with children at the same school.

Although these studies (Hoffer, 1990 and 1992; Bosker, Dijkstra and Peschar, 1995; Dijkstra, Vryhof and Zahs, 1994) seem to support parts of the (functional) community theory, little is yet known about the mechanisms through which key features of the community's and the school's influence student outcomes. Central elements in community theory are the monitoring capacities and social control of the networks of relationships between parents and others. Central elements of such a theory are the frequency of contacts between parents, the nature of the parental network, and the nature of the contacts with other persons and organizations in the community. The potential role of the school in 'community' building has also been noted by other researchers as part of the solution to situations where parental contributions cannot be readily taken for granted (Maden, 2001). Sammons *et al* (1995) point, for example, to a variety of ways in which parental involvement might help. These include: contributions to synchronising school and home demands on pupils, increasing a school's resources; reducing class size when parents act as (unpaid) teacher assistants, helping pupils with their homework; providing feedback on pupil progress and on (behavioural) problems between home and school; and finally liaising more frequently with their own children's teachers.

Moves towards decentralisation, autonomy, community involvement and choice are all indicative of increasing interest in the individual school as the centre for improvement efforts. But there is, at the same time, some evidence of governments hedging their bets with countervailing tendencies in the opposite direction which incorporate elements of a 'centralising' philosophy. The introduction or development of national curricula is one example, an increased emphasis on systems of accountability another, whether through the use of extensive programmes of testing and assessment, the strengthening of national inspectorates or both. Such mechanisms of 'accountability' have taken on a key role in ensuring delivery

alongside the push for greater autonomy. 'Freedom', in its various guises, has been correspondingly circumscribed.

Whether European systems of education have the capacity to change in the ways outlined above must be a moot point. Comparing educational governance in the USA and France, Rowan and Miskel (1999) suggest that there is a risk of over-estimating the space for manoeuvre. Different 'polities' restrict the possibilities. With respect to the USA they argue:

"liberal polities encourage a pluralistic approach to decision making, one that purposefully limits the power of centralised political agencies. As a result, institutional sectors in liberal polities are often organised as complex multi-layered governance systems characterised by fragmented decision-making structures".

By contrast, in a European society such as France, which Rowan and Miskel see as a 'state-centred polity', the opportunities to innovate may be more restricted:

"individual and other social units that seek to influence collective action do so through the state.....In such a system one can expect more tightly structured institutional sectors, especially sectors organised around a collective function of society like education".

For them the way forward is not simply a matter of changing organisational structures of work practices but more a matter of fully appreciating their evolution and the extent to which they are embedded in institutional constraints which have regulative, normative and, indeed, cognitive dimensions. Their advice, if asked, might be to note that there are some signs of convergence with respect to governance issues across Europe, North America and Australasia but that talk of a European 'blueprint' for education would be very premature.

REFERENCES

- Bidwell, C & Kasarda, J.D. (1975). School district organisation and student achievement. *American Sociological Review*, 40, 55-70.
- Bishop, J.H. & Wössmann, L. (2001). *Institutional effects in a simple model of educational production*. Kiel Working Paper No. 1085: Kiel Institute of World Economics.
- Bosker, R.J., Dijkstra, A.B. & Peschar, J.L. (1995). *Social capital and educational opportunities. Effects of functional communities in the Netherlands*. Groningen: Vakgroep Sociologie.
- Bourdieu, P. & Passeron, C. (1977). *Reproduction in education, society and culture*. Parijs: Minituit.
- Brookover, W.B. & Lezotte, L.W. (1979). *Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement*. East Lansing, Mich: Institute for Research on Teaching. College of Education, Michigan State University.
- Brophy, J. (2000): *Educational practices series no. 1*. International Academy of Education.
- Bryk, A.S., Lee, V.E. & Holland, P.B. (1993). *Catholic schools and the common good*. Cambridge/London: Harvard University Press.
- Census of India, (1991). *PCA general population*, Part II (B), (I), Vol. I & II.
- Chubb, J.E. and Moe, T.M. (1990). *Politics, markets and America's schools*. Washington DC: The Brookings Institute.
- CIDE (2000). *The Spanish education system. National report 2000*. Madrid: Ministerio de Educacion, Cultural y Deporte.
- Coleman, J.S. and Hoffer, T. (1987). *Public and private high schools: the impact of communities*. New York: Basic Books.
- Coleman, P. and LaRocque, L. (1990). *Struggling to be 'good enough': Administrative practices and school district ethos*. London: Falmer Press.
- Creemers, B.P.M. (1994). *The effective classroom*. London: Cassell.
- Crispeels, J.H. & Pollack, S. (1989). Equity schools and equity districts. In Creemers, B., Peters, T. & Reynolds, D. (Eds.). *School effectiveness and school improvement* (pp.295-308). Amsterdam: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- Cuttance, P. (1988). Intra system variation in the effectiveness of schooling. *Research Papers in Education*, 3(2), 183-219.
- Daly, P (1995). Public Accountability and the academic effectiveness of grant-aided catholic schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 6 (4), 367-379.
- Dijkstra, A.B., Vrijhof, S.C. & Zahs, D.A. (1994). *Educational opportunities and functional communities in the United States and the Netherlands. The case of reformed schools*. Paper presented at the XIIIth World Congress of Sociology, Bielefeld Germany, Groningen: Rijksuniversiteit Groningen.
- Dijkstra A.B. & Peschar, J.L. (1996). Religious Determinants of Academic Attainment in the Netherlands. *Comparative Education Review*, 40, (1), 47-66.
- Dijkstra, A.B., Dronkers, J. & Hofman, R.H. (Eds.) (1997). *Verzuiling in het onderwijs*. Actuele verklaringen en analyse. Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
- Dronkers, J. (1995). The existence of parental choice in the Netherlands. *Educational Policy*, 9, (3), 227-243.
- Echols, F.H. & Willms, J.D. (1995). Reasons for school choice in Scotland. *Journal of Educational Policy*, 10, (2), 143-156.
- European Commission (1996). *Key data on education in the European Union 1995*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (EUR-OP).
- European Commission (1997). *Key data on education in the European Union 1997*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (EUR-OP).
- European Commission (2000). *Key data on education in the European Union 1999/2000*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (EUR-OP).
- European Commission (2001). *European report on the quality of school education. Sixteen Quality Indicators*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (EUR-OP).
- European Communities (2000). *Key topics in education in Europe. Volume 2. Financing and management of resources in compulsory education*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (EUR-OP).

- Eurydice (2001). *Data base on European countries* (2001). This database is part of Eurydice [www.eurydice.org]
- Eurydice. (2000). www.eurydice.org. *The European network on education in Europe*.
- Filmer, D. & Pritchett, L. (1998). *Educational enrollment and attainment in India: Household Wealth, gender, Village, and State Effects*. World bank Paper.
- Filmer, D. & Pritchett, L. (1999). *The effect of household wealth on educational attainment around the world: Demographic and health survey evidence*. World bank Paper.
- Fowler, F. (2003) 'School choice; silver bullet, social threat or sound policy? *Educational Researcher*, 32, 2, 33-39.
- Fuller, B. and Elmore, R. (eds.) (1996) *Who chooses? Who loses? Culture, institutions and the unequal effects of school choice*, New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gamoran, A. (1996). Student achievement in Public Magnet, Public Comprehensive, and Private City High Schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy*, 18 (1), 1-18.
- Goldring, E.B. & Shapiro, R. (1996) Principals' survival with parental involvement. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 7, (4), 342-360.
- Goldring, E.B. (Ed.). (1991). Parental involvement and public choice in education. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 15, (3/4), 229-352.
- Greaney & Kellaghan (1996). *Monitoring the learning outcomes of education systems*. World bank.
- Greeley, A.M. (1982). *Catholic students and minority students*. New Brunswick: Transaction Books.
- Hallinger, P. & Murphy, J. (1986). The social context of effective schools. *American Journal of Education*, 94, 328-355.
- Hallinger, P. and Heck, R.H. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: a review of the empirical research, 1980-1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5-44.
- Hannaway, J. & Talbert, J. E. (1993). Bringing context into effective schools research: Urban-suburban differences. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 29(2), 164-186.
- Hannaway, J. (1991). The organization and management of public and catholic schools: Looking inside the 'black box'. In Jemenez, E. & Lockheed, M.E. (Eds.), *Private versus public education from an international perspective*. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 15 (5), 463-483.
- Hanushek, E.A. (2003). *Publicly provided education*. New Working Paper Series. Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Hanushek, E.A. & Raymond, M.E. (2001). The confusing world of educational accountability. *National Tax Journal* 54, no.2 (june), p. 365-384.
- Hawley, W.D. (1995). The false premises and false promises of the movement to privatize public education. *Teachers College Record*, 96 (4), 735-742.
- Hoffer, Th. B. (1990). *Parental social relations and student academic outcomes*. Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the AERA, Boston. De Kalb: Northern Illinois University.
- Hoffer, Th.B. (1992). *Effects of community type on school experiences and student learning*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the AERA, San Francisco. De Kalb: Northern Illinois University.
- Hofman, R.H. (1993). *Effectief schoolbestuur: een studie naar de bijdrage van schoolbesturen aan de effectiviteit van scholen*. [Effective schoolboards]. Groningen: RION.
- Hofman, W.H.A. (1994). School effects on performances of minority pupils. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 5 (1), 26-44.
- Hofman, W.H.A. (1995). Cross-level relationships within effective schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 6, (2), 146-174.
- Hofman, R.H., Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (1996). *Social contexts of learning and school and sector effectiveness*. Groningen: GION/RUG.
- Hofman, R.H., Hofman, W.H.A., Guldemond, H. & Dijkstra, A.B. (1996). Variation in effectiveness between private and public schools. The impact of school and family networks. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 2(4), 366-394.
- Hofman, R.H., Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (1999). Social and cognitive outcomes: A comparison of contexts of learning. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp 352-366.
- Hofman, R.H. & Hofman, W.H.A (2000): *Context effects on governance of schooling*. Paper presented at the ISA-conference "Outcomes and governance of schooling", 5-7 July, 2000.
- Hofman, R.H., Hofman W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (2000). *Effectieve sociale contexten van leren*. 110 p. Groningen/Rotterdam: GION/RUG & RISBO Erasmus Universiteit.
- Hofman, W.H.A. & Hofman, R.H. (2000). *Sector-specific effects in education. A multi-level study into mediating factors of the sector effect at classroom, school and governance level*. Paper presented at

- the ISA RC04 Midterm Conference on Outcomes and Governance of Schooling. July, Groningen, the Netherlands
- Hofman, R.H, Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (2001). Social context effects on pupils' perception of school. *Learning and Instruction*. 11, pp 171-194.
- Hofman, R.H, Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (2001). The effectiveness of cohesive schools. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. Vol. 4 No. 2. Pp.115-135
- Hofman, R.H, Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (2001). *Mediating the sector effect. Sector specific effects in education*. Accepted for edited volume: Public/Private Governance and Outcomes of Schooling (Red. A.B. Dijkstra, J. Dronkers, T. Hoffer, J. Peschar).
- Hofman, R.H. & Hofman, W.H.A. (2001). School choice, religious traditions and school effectiveness in public and private schools. *International Journal of Education and Religion*, Vol II, 2, pp 144-164.
- Hofman, R.H. (2001). Staff development, commitment and a successful integration policy. In review *International Journal of Inclusive Education*. Vol. 7,no.2, pp.145-157.
- Hofman, W.H.A. & Hofman, R.H. (2001). *Quality in primary education: school and classroom indicators and their context-specificity*. Submitted to Compare.
- Hofman, W.H.A. & Hofman, R.H. (2002). Universal and context-specific effectiveness indicators in primary education. In: *Studies on researches in indicators of quality education at elementary stage*. New-Delhi, India, pp. 212-230.
- Hofman, R.H. & Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (2002). School governance, culture and student achievement. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 5, 3..
- Hofman, R.H., Hofman, W.H.A. & Guldemond, H. (2003). Effective families, peers and schools. A configurational approach. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, Vol. 9, no 3, pp.213-237.
- ISA (2000). Conference Proceedings of the ISA Midterm Conference RC04 Education " *Outcomes and Governance of Schooling*. University of Groningen, the Netherlands July 5-7 2000.
- James, E. (1988). The public/private division of responsibility for education: An international comparison. In James, Th. & Levin, H.M. (Eds.). *Comparing public and private schools* (Vol 1). Philadelphia.
- James, T. & Levin, H.M. (Eds.) (1988). *Comparing public and private schools. Volume 1. Institutions and organizations*. New York: Falmer Press.
- Jong, M.J. de & Tacq, J.J.A. (1986). The educational level of allochtone pupils. In: *The Netherlands' Journal on Education*, vol. 1, no.1, p. 79-92.
- Kersbergen, K. van & Waarden, F. van (2001). *Shifts in governance: problems of legitimacy and accountability*. MAGW: The Hague.
- Leithwood, K., Tomlinson, D. & Genge, M. (1996). Transformational school leadership. In Leithwood, K. et al. (Eds.). *International handbook of educational leadership and administration*. (pp. 785-840). Boston/Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Levine, D.U. & Lezotte, L.W. (1990). *Unusually effective schools: A review and analysis of research and practice*. Madison, WI: The National Center for Effective Schools Research and Development.
- Lockheed, M.E. & Verspoor, A.M. (1991): *Improving primary education in developing countries*. World bank Publication.
- Maden, M. (2001) *Success against the odds – five years on: Revisiting effective schools in disadvantaged areas*, London: Routledge Falmer.
- Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The structuring of organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Mortimore, P. (1991). The nature and findings of school effectiveness research in the primary sector. In: S. Ridell & S. Brown (Eds.). *School Effectiveness Research: Its Messages for School Improvement* (pp. 9-19). London: HMSO.
- Mortimore, P. (1996). *Quality and Effectiveness*. Paper Presented at the ETUCE colloquium on School Effectiveness. Rome.
- Mortimore, P., Sammons, P., Stoll, L., Lewis, D., Ecob, R. (1988). *School matters. The junior years*. Somerset: Open Books.
- Mullis, I.V.S., Martin, M. O. & Sternler, S.E. (2000). *TIMSS 1999 Benchmarking. Technical Report*.
- Mullis, I.V.S., Martin, M.O., Gonzalez, E.J., Gregory, K.D., Garden, R.A., O'Connor, K.M., Chrostowski, S.J. & Smith, T.A (1999). *TIMSS 1999 International Mathematics Report*. Findings from IEA's Repeat of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study at the Eighth Grade. Boston: International Study Centre Boston College, Lynch School of Education.
- Murphy, J. (1991). *Restructuring schools*. London: Cassell.

- Murphy, J., Hallinger, P. & Peterson, K. (1986). The administrative control of principals in effective school districts: The supervision and evaluation functions. *Urban Review*, 18, (3), 149-175.
- National Centre for Education Statistics (1996). *Pursuing excellence: A Study of U.S. eight grade Mathematics and Science Teaching, Learning, Curriculum, and Achievement in International Context*. NCES, Washington D.C.
- O'Connor, A. & Walshe, J. (2003). Dempsey Squeeze to hit private school fees. In: *Irish Independent*, 6th August, 2003.
- OECD (1997). *Parents as partners in schooling*. Centre for Educational Research and Innovation. Paris: OECD.
- OECD (2000). *Education at a glance*. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).
- OECD/PISA (2001). *Knowledge and skills for Life*. First results from PISA 2000. Paris: OECD.
- OECD (2001). *Education at a glance*. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).
- Ogawa, R.T & Dutton, J.S. (1997). Parent involvement and school choice. Exit and voice in public schools. *Urban Education*. 32, 3, (pp. 335-353).
- Pelleriaux, K. (2001). *Demotie en burgerschap. De culturele constructie van ongelijkheid in de kennismaatschappij*. Brussel: VUB-Press.
- Purkey, S.C. & Smith, M.S. (1983). Effective schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 83, 427-452.
- Reynolds, D., Creemers, B. Stringfield, S., Teddlie, C., & Schaffer, G. (2002). *World Class Schools. International Perspectives on School Effectiveness*. New York/London.
- Robitaille, D.F. (1997). *National contexts for mathematics and science education. An encyclopedia of the education systems participating in TIMSS. IEA/TIMSS*. Vancouver Canada: Pacific Educational Press.
- Rowan, B. and Miskel, B. (1999). Institutional theory and the study of educational organisations. In: J. Murphy, J. & Louis K.S (eds.) *Handbook of research in educational administration*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rowan, B., Raudenbush, S.W. & Kang, S.J. (1991). Organizational design in high schools: A multilevel analysis. *American Journal of Education*, 99, pp238-266.
- Sammons, P., Hillman, J. & Mortimore, P. (1995). *Key characteristics of effective schools: A review of school effectiveness research*. London: OFSTED.
- Sander, W. & A.C. Krautmann (1995). Catholic schools, dropout rates and educational attainment. *Economic Inquiry*, 33, 217-233.
- Scheerens, J. (2001). Monitoring School Effectiveness. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 359-384.
- Schneider, B., Schiller, K.S., & Coleman, J.S. (1996). Public school choice: some evidence from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 18 (1), 19-29.
- Scott, W.R., & Meyer, J.W. (1988). Environmental linkages and organizational complexity: public and private schools. In James, Th. & Levin, H.M. *Comparing public and private schools*. Pp.128-160. New York: Falmer Press.
- Smith, S. (2001) *The democratic potential of charter schools*, New York: Peter Lang.
- Smrekar, C. (1996). *The impact of school choice and community: In the interest of families and schools*. SUNY Series. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Stringfield, S., Ross, S.M. & Smith, L. (1996). *Bold plans for school restructuring. The new American Schools design*. Mahwah/New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Sugarman, S.D. & Kremerer, F.R. (Eds.) (1999). *School choice and social controversy. Politics, policy, and law*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institutions Press.
- Tanaka, Y., Young, F.W., and De Leeuw, J. (1977). Nonmetric individual differences multidimensional scaling: An alternating least squares method with optimal scaling features. *Psychometrika*, 42:7-67.
- Teddlie, C. & Reynolds, R. (2000). *The international handbook of school effectiveness research*. London/New York: Falmer Press.
- Teddlie, C. Reynolds, D. & Sammons, P. (2000). The methodology and scientific properties of school effectiveness research. In Teddlie, C. & Reynolds, R. (2000). *The international handbook of school effectiveness research*. Pp.55-134. London/New York: Falmer Press

- Teddlie, C. Stringfield, S. & Reynolds, D. (2000). Context issues within school effectiveness research. In Teddlie, C. & Reynolds, R. (2000). *The international handbook of school effectiveness research*. Pp.160-187. London/New York: Falmer Press
- TIMSS (1997). *User guide for the TIMSS international database. Primary and middle school Years*. TIMSS. Boston College: International Study Centre.
- Tizard, J., Schofiels, W.N. & Hewison, J. (1982): Collaboration Between Teachers and Parents in Assisting Childrens' Reading. *British Journal Of Educational Psychology*, 52. 1-15.
- Tyssens, J. & Simon, F. (1999). "Le reste n'est que question de dosage": schoolstrijd en schoolpact als onderwijshistorische vraagstelling. In Witte, E., De Groof, J. & Tyssens, J. *Het schoolpact van 1958. Ontstaan, grondlijnen en toepassingen van een Belgisch compromis*. Brussel: VUB-Press.
- Unesco (1997), *Statistical Yearbook*. France; Paris: Unesco.
- Verhoeven, J. & Elchardus, M. (2000). *Onderwijs: een decennium Vlaamse autonomie*. Kapellen: Uitgeverij Pelckmans.
- Vreeburg, B.A.N.M. (1993). *Identiteit en het verschil. Levensbeschouwelijke vorming en het Nederlands voortgezet onderwijs [Identity and the difference. Spiritual education and the Dutch secondary education]*. Zoetermeer: De Horstink.
- Werf van der, G., Creemers, B. & Guldmond, H. (2001). Improving parental involvement in primary education in Indonesia: implementation, effects and costs. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 447-466.
- Whitty, G. (1997). Creating quasi-markets in education: A review of recent research on parental choice and school autonomy in three countries. *Review of Research in Education*, nr.22, p. 3-48.
- Willms, J.D. (1992). *Monitoring school performance: A guide for educators*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Willms, J.D. & Raudenbush, S.W. (1989). A longitudinal hierarchical linear model for estimating school effects and their stability. *Journal of Educational Measurement*. 26 (3), 209-232.
- Willms, J.D. & Somers, M.A. (2001). Family, classroom, and school effects on children's educational outcomes in Latin America. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 409-445.
- Witte, J.F. & Walsh, D.J. (1990). A systematic test of the effective schools model. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 12, 188-212.
- Wössmann, L. (2000). Schooling resources, *Educational institutions and student performance*. The International Evidence. Kiel Working Paper No. 983: Kiel Institute of World Economics.

This page intentionally left blank

APPENDIX I

Table I.1 Percentage of students enrolled in 'public', 'private government-dependent schools' and 'private government-independent schools' in secondary education

<i>Description of institutional contexts</i>	<i>Public</i>	<i>Private Government-dependent</i>	<i>Private Government-independent</i>
Austria (A)	88,8	6,2	5,0
Belgium (B)	missing	missing	missing
Denmark (DK)	75,5	24,5	--
United Kingdom (UK-E)	90,8	--	9,2
France (F)	missing	missing	missing
Germany (D)	95,9	4,1	--
Ireland (IRL)	39,5	57,7	2,9
The Netherlands (NL)	26,2	74,9	--
Portugal (P)	92,6	5,9	1,5
Spain (E)	62,0	28,9	9,2
Sweden (S)	96,6	3,4	--

Colofon:

- This table is based on data from the PISA 2000 report (Table 7.13, p. 307)
- 'private government-dependent schools' receive 50% or more of their core funding from government
- 'private government-independent schools' receive less than 50% of their core funding from government

This page intentionally left blank

APPENDIX II

Table II.1 Direct and indirect expenditure on educational institutions from public and private sources for all levels of education

Countries	1998		Total
	Public	Private	
Austria (A)	5.98	0.38	6.36
Belgium (B) (FR)	4.97	M	4.97
Belgium (FL)	4.74	M	4.74
Denmark (DK)	6.81	0.36	7.17
France (F)	5.88	0.36	6.24
Germany (D)	4.35	1.20	5.55
Ireland (IRL)	4.31	0.40	4.71
The Netherlands (NL)	4.49	0.12	4.61
Portugal (P)	5.57	0.08	5.65
Spain (E)	4.44	0.85	5.30
Sweden (S)	6.59	0.18	6.77
United Kingdom (UK-E)	4.65	0.28	4.92
Country Mean	5.00	0.66	5.66
OECD total	4.64	1.11	5.75

Source: Based on 'Education at a Glance', OECD Indicators (OECD, 2001: p. 80)