

THE VIEW FROM THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE
The opinions of principals from 8 European countries compared

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY

Work Package Nr. 5

Responsible partners:

University of Turku, Warsaw School of Economics, University of Frankfurt

Submitted month 30

(due month 29)

Project: Governance of educational trajectories in Europe (GOETE)

Contract no. 243868 – duration 01.01.2010-31.03.2013

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Contents

List of Tables.....	3
List of Figures	4
Summary.....	6
1 Background	6
1.1 Youth’s educational trajectories and transitions in Europe	6
1.2 Changes in European educational policy and governance	12
1.3 Governance and the role of principals in the GOETE countries	19
1.4 Clustering of the countries.....	23
2 Research questions	29
3 Data.....	32
3.1 Collection and characteristics of the data	32
3.2 Problems and recodings.....	37
3.3 Explanatory variables and methods	39
4 Analysis	40
4.1 Life course	40
4.2 Governance.....	47
4.3 Access.....	62
4.4 Coping	69
4.5 Relevance.....	79
5 Conclusions	92
6 References	102
Appendix	107

List of Tables

Table 1. The change in models of education governance in relation to admission models from the end of 1970's to the end of 1990's in Europe. (Green and al. 1999; Seppänen 2006, 33; Kivirauma, Rinne and Seppänen 2009).....	17
Table 2. Transition regimes (Walther 2006a).	24
Table 3. Categorisation of countries, based on Allmendinger (1989).....	27
Table 4. Data.	34
Table 5. Bias of the data in the different data-sets according to school levels. Differences in the percentage units (distribution in reality – distribution in data). Positive numbers (+) refer to over-representation, negative (-) numbers refer to under-representation of the school level in the data.	35
Table 6. Frequencies and percentages of principals from "affluent", "average" and "disadvantaged" cities, by country. N / %.....	36
Table 7. Frequencies according to country clusters (see Table 2).	36
Table 8. Educational paths of pupils, as estimated by the principals (%). Means by country/country category.....	43
Table 9. Types of monitoring.	47
Table 10. Principals' training in management. Percentages.	48
Table 11. Principals' work experience, in years. Means.....	49
Table 12. Collaboration and Competition among schools. Average rating for country, group and standard deviation.....	49
Table 13. Principals' perceived decision-making power. Means by country/country category.	52
Table 14. Perceived importance of various decisions. The share of respondents choosing each issue as the 1st choice by country/country category. Percentages	53
Table 15. Influence of different actors on decisions in school. Means by country/country category.	54
Table 16. Ways of student participation in school life. Percentages and means, country and country category.	55
Table 17. Tasks of student councils. Means, country and country category.....	56
Table 18. Factors affecting teachers' recruitment. Means by country/country category.	58
Table 19. Satisfaction of principals regarding teacher education. Means by country/country category.	59
Table 20. The school principals' opinions concerning the preparation of teachers for facing different kinds of challenges. Means.....	60
Table 21. The school principals' opinions concerning teaching in school. Means.....	62

Table 22. Pupil structure in schools according to selected criteria. Mean.	63
Table 23. The share of children from lower-socio-economic background among the school pupils (%).	63
Table 24. The share of children from immigrants' families among the school pupils (%).	64
Table 25. The share of children with special educational needs among the school pupils (%).	65
Table 26. The share of free choice schools among the surveyed schools (%).	66
Table 27. Criteria used in the selection of pupils. Means by country/country category.	66
Table 28. Factors affecting transition. Means by country/country category.	69
Table 29. Factors affecting coping and learning. Means by country/country category.	70
Table 30. Preparation of pupils. Crosstabulation. Affirmative responses (i.e. ticked choices in the questionnaire) by country/country category.	71
Table 31. Usefulness of support measures. Means by country/country category.	73
Table 32. External support. Crosstabulation. Affirmative responses (i.e., the topic mentioned in the open question) by country/country category.	75
Table 33. The school principals' opinions concerning teaching in school.	76
Table 34. The school principals' opinions concerning preparation of teachers to face the following challenges.	77
Table 35. Assessment of teachers' education concerning particular fields of knowledge.	78
Table 36. Learning arrangements in schools.	82
Table 37. The statements describing the situation in the surveyed school.	83
Table 38. Current problems according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.	84
Table 39. Urgent reforms according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.	87
Table 40. Status of school according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.	89
Table 41. The effects of the economic crisis according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.	90

List of Figures

Figure 1. The average age of young people when leaving the parental home (2007, Eurostat).	11
Figure 2. Unemployment rate (%) in EU countries in 2010, among the population less than 25 years of age.	26

Figure 3. Population aged 18–24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training, in 2010.	26
Figure 4. Survey questions (question batteries) by topic.	30
Figure 5. Data collection schedule, according to country. The bars indicate the approximate start/end of the data collection.	32
Figure 6. Reasons for leaving school in the middle of semester (1st mentioned).....	41
Figure 7. Monitoring of pupils' later stages. Affirmative (yes) responses.	46
Figure 8. Right to select pupils. Percentages.	51
Figure 9. Right to recruit teachers.	57
Figure 10. The share of free choice schools by country(%).	67
Figure 11. The main objective of the school (1st mentioned).....	81

Summary

GOETE project is a comparative, three-year research project dealing with educational trajectories of young people. GOETE as a whole approached the subject from several points of view and using different quantitative and qualitative data. The report at hand is the report based on a statistical survey of primary, lower secondary, general upper secondary and vocational upper secondary school principals in eight European countries: Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia and United Kingdom. The survey was conducted in most countries during the first half of the year 2010 (see Section 3 for detailed information regarding the schedule) using a web-based questionnaire with email invitations. The total number of respondents in the data is 984. The number of respondents per country varies between 38 (UK) and 200 (Poland). On average, there were approximately 124 respondents per country. The response percentages varied between 34.5 % (Finland) and 3.4 % (UK). The research is organized around five topics: 1) Governance of education, 2) Life course, 3) Access to education, 4) Coping and support in education and 5) Relevance of education. These five thematic perspectives are described in more detail below; they also serve as a frame for the discussion of the analyses in chapter 4.

1 Background

1.1 Youth's educational trajectories and transitions in Europe

Young people and educational system are in a complex relationship with each other. Education both qualifies and disqualifies individuals and thus functions as an instrument for both social inclusion and exclusion. This dual nature of the educational system has become stronger, and due to this the significance of educational trajectories in shaping the individual's life course has increased as well. Although learning does not take place only within educational institutions, and "new learning life courses" extend over the whole life span (e.g., Olkinuora et al. 2008), educational transitions experienced during the childhood and youth are still extremely important in predicting one's future. Institutionalized educational trajectories aim at preparing children and young people for adulthood. However, extended youth – as manifested in increased educational participation and prolonged family formation, together with the ethos of individualization – has created the youth phase, which is often conceptualized as "educational moratorium". (Zinnecker 1991; Musgrove 1964; Mørch 2003; Beck and Beck-Gersheim 2002; Chisholm 2008.) In this "moratorium", individuals interpret their life courses in constructing their learning biographies, which are interrelated with

institutionalized educational trajectories, as well as with broader cultural, structural and socio-historical features of society (Bloomer and Hodkinson 2000; Du Bois-Reymond 2004; Walther 2006b; Diepstraten, du Bois-Reymond and Vinken 2006).

Investigating the adequacy of education from a life course perspective implies, first, asking whether individuals have access to education across different life phases and especially during life course transitions. GOETE's guiding research question in this regard is whether structures of access are a linear reflection of the structures of national education systems or rather depending on local constellations of actors; whether there is a correspondence between structural and subjectively experienced accessibility and whether these relationships are stable or increasingly contested through human capital building policies on the one hand and individuals' struggle for equal opportunities on the other.

Second, it implies asking whether individuals can cope with educational demands and procedures. Our guiding research questions in this regard are to what extent schools are aware of the problems and coping strategies of students, what support they provide themselves and how teachers are prepared for this or organize it externally, what support is provided by external actors, parents and students themselves. Attention will be paid to questions such as: How students and parents experience available support? How are needs and provisions communicated between different actors? To what extent local support mechanisms reflect national structures of the relation between education and welfare or represent innovations that depart from national pathways?

The third dimension is whether education is relevant, in providing the kinds of skills, knowledge and competencies which are necessary for the labour market and the individual biography. Our guiding research questions are to identify and compare the expectations of different actors towards education and the criteria according to which education is relevant for them. Attention is also paid to the relation between young people's assessment of education, their motivation and the structure of their educational trajectories. Further, it needs to be analysed how different models of constructing educational relevance are related to different mechanism of access on the one hand and support on the other. The empirical research questions based on above mentioned issues are presented in section 2.

GOETE focuses particularly on youth's transitions within the education system and from education into working life and adulthood. By "transition" we refer to the institutionalised moves/changes from one level to the next, from one school type to the other and from school

to training or to employment. However, when analysing the educational transitions we need to bear in mind that in most countries there are several transitions.¹

The number and severity of transitions varies according to country, but in principle there are transitions between all educational levels. It is worth noting that the education systems may include more or less transition points within school, these may occur earlier or later in the individual trajectory and which are more or less reversible. For instance, in comprehensive schooling systems there are generally fewer transitions and they are "smoother". In GOETE countries some education systems have only few (e.g., Slovenia and Finland) while others (Germany; Netherlands) have more and earlier transition points. Further, the degree of differentiation or tracking distinguishes GOETE countries according to the extent to which educational trajectories are structured by hierarchically segmented or comprehensive tracks from primary to the end of lower secondary levels. For instance, differentiation is high in Germany and the Netherlands, middle in the UK and low in France, Italy, Poland, Finland and Slovenia. School to work transitions relate to young people's educational trajectories in two ways. First, they coincide with one particular goal of education, namely preparing young people to enter into the labour market and be active contributors to society. The extent to which these routes successfully equip individuals with knowledge and competencies that can be utilized in the labour market is important for future trajectories. Second, school to work transitions are not only the end goal but also an integral part of educational trajectories, especially where these transitions include training in vocational schools or apprenticeship training organised between companies and school. The dominant pathways from school to the labour market in the countries under investigation vary in how young people participate in the labour market within each of the GOETE countries with activity and employment rate in the Netherlands, Germany, Finland and the UK well over 40 %, while for Italy and Poland these figures are substantially lower. The divergent rates of activity and employment among youth may be explained by reference to national institutional differences:

- In the Netherlands, Finland, Germany and Slovenia, a large population of students within higher education are employed in regular jobs alongside their studies.

¹ While transitions are mostly viewed as "episodic", e.g., from pre-primary → primary → lower secondary → upper secondary → higher education/working life, a more encompassing definition of transition is necessary which takes account of the processual nature of transitions with view to the importance of subjective, institutional/structural and interactive dimensions.

- In the Netherlands and Germany, young people who are involved in apprenticeship training are classified as "employed" in contrast to young people who are involved in the school-based vocational education and training courses we have found to be prevalent in the other countries.
- In Italy, school and university leavers often wait long periods of time to enter regular employment, but during this time they are involved in informal work in the shadow economy (Parreira do Amaral et al. 2011, section 2.2).

Transitions from school to work are a continuously topical subject from the perspectives of both social sciences and political discussion. Although the topics vary the underlying reason is, arguably, that the future of each society is very concretely and directly dependent on young people, which causes grief and worry among the adult population. A major concern with regard to young people's transitions from school to work that has risen across the EU during the past three decades is the increase of youth unemployment, which in average is double as high as the overall unemployment rate. Also, the youth often challenge the values and habits of the previous generations, regenerating and developing culture in the process (see Mannheim 1968). While growing up, young people both restructure and reproduce the values, norms and cultural practices of society and thus every new generation is seen from the perspectives of both hope and threat.

Already in the eighties, Torsten Husén (1987) argued that something fundamentally new was occurring with regard to transition from youth to adulthood. Afterwards, the issues emphasized by him, such as extended schooling and changes related to working life, have formed a widely used framework in youth studies concentrating on educational issues. All over Europe, educational opportunities have expanded and educational participation has increased, although in various ways in countries with different educational systems and traditions (Müller and Wolbers 2003). On the other hand, young people's transition from education to work has become more difficult over the past few decades. In many countries, the risk of unemployment has increased, and temporary work contracts have become more common (e.g., Eurostat 2011, Rinne and Järvinen 2011). The increasing educational level of the population has, in turn, caused an inflation of educational degrees and strengthened the link between educational qualifications and occupational positions in many countries (Aro 2003; Gangl 2003).

Generally, young people's transitions have not only prolonged but also become more individualized, de-standardized and more insecure during the past few decades (Chisholm

1995; EGRIS (European Group for Integrated Social Research) 2001; Walther 2006b; Furlong and Cartmel 2006). Despite differences between countries (see subsection 1.4; also Lamb 2011), transition from basic to upper secondary education has been seen as a critical stage from the points of view of educational and social exclusion of young people. It has been widely held assumption that those young people who are outside education, training or employment between the ages of sixteen to eighteen are condemned to an economically and socially marginalized future (Bynner and Parsons 2002; Vanttaja and Järvinen 2006; Lamb 2011).

Although both gender and social background have influence on young people's educational and labour market outcomes, this influence is different in different parts of Europe. According to a study based on European Labour Force Survey (Iannelli and Smyth 2008), gender differentiation in labour market outcomes reflects the nature of the welfare regime, being more pronounced in familial and conservative systems, such as in Greece and Italy. Social inequality in educational attainment and early labour market outcomes are, in turn, more marked in post-communist Eastern European countries with high level of educational differentiation, and in contrast less marked in countries reflecting the combination of less differentiated educational systems, mass higher education and social-democratic welfare regimes (e.g. Finland, Sweden). In modern societies, generally the "normal" path of development for the youth is considered to include a fast-acquired post-compulsory education, preferably higher education, and then a smooth transition into working life without any hiccups or prolongations. This is of course not the way the transition goes in all the cases, and may not even be preferable in the long run. After all, if we look at the history, many exceptionally talented and distinguished personalities have followed a rather irregular and "risky" path of transition. They may have been written off by adults as delinquents but the potential has surfaced a little later in their lives.

It has been feared that the youth will be more and more polarised, i.e., some youth will be highly educated and well off, while a growing number of youths fail to complete any post-compulsory education or fail even in the compulsory education. In Finland, for instance, there does seem to be some evidence of this kind of a progression, when immigrant youths are compared to youths born in Finland (Järvinen and Jahnukainen 2008, 146), a much larger share among immigrant youths complete only basic education. An education gap, as well as an employment gap, is found between native-born and foreign-born youth in most countries, e.g., in the Netherlands and in Germany (see: Shewbridge et al. 2009).

In Europe, there is variation between countries, regarding not only to educational and labour market transitions, but also related to housing transitions (see Figure 1). Generally speaking, there are two opposite routes to the adulthood in Europe; Northern European and Southern European (Oinonen 2001). In Southern Europe, the great share of single young adults still live in their childhood homes, and the most important reason for leaving parental home is to get married. In the North, young people leave their parental home while they are younger and the most important reason for that is studying. These differences relate both to cultural factors as well as differences in the support systems of the welfare state. From Figure 1, one can see that in Finland, the average age of leaving the parental home is around 23 years of age. In the other end of the spectrum, in Italy and Slovenia the young people leave the parental home at over 30 years of age, on average. The variation in the leaving age is affected by many things.

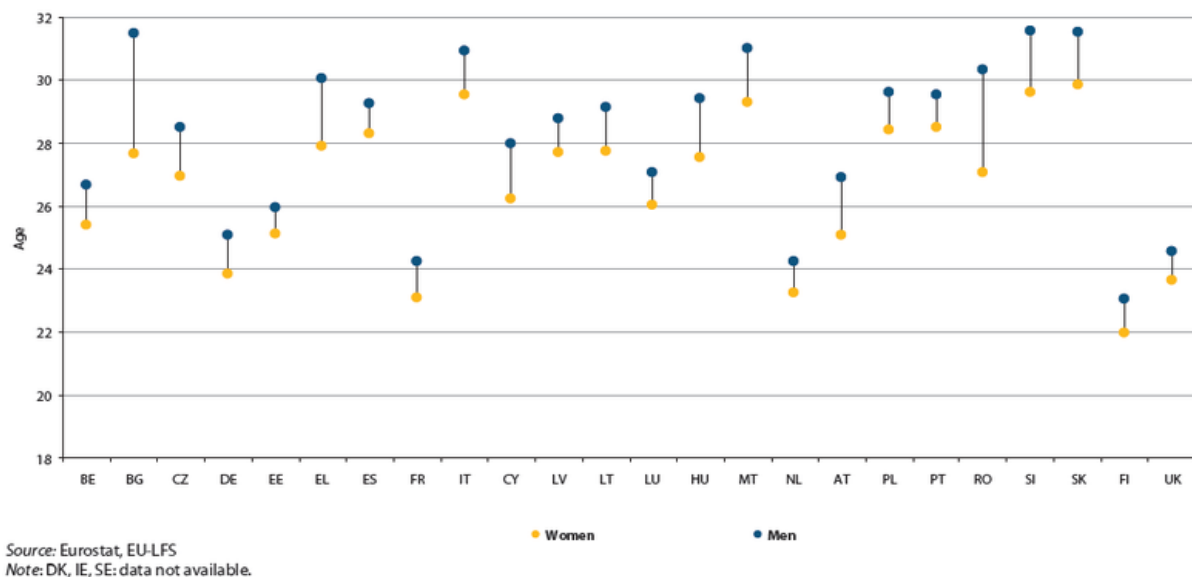


Figure 1. The average age of young people when leaving the parental home (2007, Eurostat).

Geography is one thing that affects young people's transition from home. Finland, for instance, is an example of a country which is geographically quite large and where the distances from the home town to the cities with higher (and other post-compulsory) education can be large (compared e.g., with the Netherlands, where the population density is much higher and the distances between home and school relatively short) making it necessary for young people to move out of their parental home at the start of their studies. In relation to culture, the centrality of the family affects the transition, e.g., multiple-generation families are much more typical in the Southern Europe than in the North. On the other hand, certain socio-political and educational structures make it possible for young people to live on their own.

University education is free of charge in Finland and there is a student allowance system, which allows students to live autonomously.²

The level and coverage of social benefits differ between countries, as well as the employment possibilities for young people. All of these factors are tied up and affect each other, of course. The status of the family and the state has affected the way social policy has developed in each country. For example in the Nordic countries, a social democratic type of a welfare state would not probably have developed without a strong State (see: Esping-Andersen 1990).

In sum, the transition phase is "hazardous" in the sense that in most societies many societal risks touch upon the young people more than the adults: youth unemployment, while varying according to country, is generally higher than overall unemployment; there is also a great variation in the infrastructure and support provided to youth, not only regarding culture but also in the institutional environment, including for instance the school system and the social security system. Against this background, not only educational trajectories of young people, but also the significance of educational systems and variations in institutional and programme arrangements in shaping these trajectories are analysed in GOETE project. For this task, the countries participating in the project have been classified into three groups by using Allmendinger's (1989) reputed typology based on 1) the degree of standardization of the educational system and 2) the degree of stratification of the educational system (for more details, see subsection 1.4). In subsection 1.4, we will return to this topic and discuss our findings with reference to this model.

1.2 Changes in European educational policy and governance

The major changes in education policy and governance are embedded in three major different but overlapping discourses: "lifelong learning", the "knowledge society", and "new governance". Although these discourses are closely linked to international discourses, the way they play out on the national and subnational levels differ substantially.

The concept of lifelong learning (LLL) refers primarily to a policy discourse of education which dates back to 1970's and which has been strongly promoted by supranational institutions like the UN, the OECD and the EU. The discourse on LLL is on the one hand connected to the flexibilisation of work, and on the other hand to the de-standardisation of the life course. Social inclusion in the knowledge society can no longer rely on formal education

² Many students do work, however, to get some extra money in addition to the student allowance, which allows quite a scarce living.

in childhood and youth only; nowadays learning takes place not only across the life span, but life wide as well – across formal, non-formal and informal contexts. Further, lifelong learning can also be seen as a mechanism of educational governance which is closely related to process whereby the responsibility for educational trajectories is shifting from the state to the individuals. The individualisation of learning on the one hand requires biographicity as the competence of reflecting the individual learning biography. On the other hand it does not imply equal opportunities but different options of access according to prior education, employment status, gender and ethnicity (Field 2000; Kuhn 2007; Jarvis 2008; Rinne 2010).

The discourse on lifelong learning relies on holistic terms such as learning "from cradle to the grave" and life wide learning across formal, non-formal and informal learning contexts. LLL exerts influence on educational policy and governance since it presupposes a more integrated view of educational institutions and more cooperation between education and welfare actors. To some extent this poses challenges to education systems that separate different phases and types of schools, formal and non-formal as well as general and vocational education. School principals are thus more than ever required to cooperate and coordinate their actions with more and more diverse actors – other educational and/or training institutions, social work, welfare and employment agencies, etc.

Differing but common European education policy has a long history. In institutional and supranational level the Maastricht Treaty of 1992, in which education was formally recognised as one of the central areas of responsibility for the EU, was a kind of turning point in EU education policy.

Significant steps were taken eight years later at the EU Lisbon Conference, at which the decision was made to shift toward a "knowledge-based economy". The Lisbon Conference mandated the EU to override the views of nation-states and therewith strengthen the European dimension in education. This gave birth to the vision of the "Europeanization" of education and the "European educational model", in which lifelong learning and information play a central role (Nóvoa & Lawn, 2002, 1-5).

We must understand that "the market is today the dominant European discourse" and that "education has moved from the position of a sensitive area for cooperation ... into a crucial part of the new knowledge economy." (Lawn 2001, 174; Kwiek 2006, 364). As summarized in the Lisbon Strategy (Kwiek 2006, 365-366), the core meaning of the strategy was "providing an engine for a new knowledge-based economy and society". The European

education policy may also be seen as involving the idea of "lucrative education markets"³ which attract an ever-increasing number of supranational organisations and private consultancy firms. The marketization of education and its deep economisation has led to the birth of the so-called new education policy, which has as its central features competition, free choice, decentralisation of power, managerialism and pressure to perform (Ball 2000; 2003, 30).

The discourse on the "knowledge society" or "knowledge economy" has impacted educational policy and governance inasmuch as it has reinforced the focus on preparation for employment in secondary schools, that is, the issue of what kind of education, what skills, knowledge and competencies are necessary and worth learning? School principals are thus important mediators between societal and individual relevance; they also play an important role in reconciling quality and equity in relation to access and coping of education.

Michael Power has developed the concept of "the global inspectorate" or the "audit society" (1999; 2003). In his view, audits have conspicuously replaced the confidence that rulers and governments used to feel towards the wisdom and competence of professionals and expert authority. Power sees this taking place both in schools, hospitals, universities and in private enterprises. Power observes that evaluation in a way entails "control of controls" and "rituals of verification".

Referring to Max Weber, Vedung (2004) sees the evaluation of education to be the newest phase in the progressive modernization and rationalization of Western society. It is part of the onward march of scientific and rational calculability. The newest phase is essential to an understanding of the present national and supranational evaluation complex. During this phase, evaluations were integrated into the routine regimes of organized direction and control. Evaluations became "normal" administrative processes. There was a transition to the supranational period of "the evaluative state", in which the pre-regulation of education was replaced by a network that continuously and pervasively assessed and analysed the performances, achievements and outcomes of education.

The newest evaluation phase was connected with the breakthrough of New Public Management (NPM). It was natural that NPM, as a scientific model in business management based on a certain type of evaluation, became a model for activity in the public sector. The

³ The OECD, the World Bank, WTO and the EU have influenced national school administration, among other ways, by building an extensive industry of consultancy, testing and evaluation and thereby lucrative education markets. See e.g., Steiner-Khamsi 2002; Radtke 2003, 2.

evaluation of behaviour, quality, efficiency and customer satisfaction became everyday routines in the new natural culture of management by objectives and results. More and more new public institutions of evaluation were established.

Discussions about New Public Management (NPM) have dominated the whole debate about reforming public administration that has been in progress globally already for several decades. These arise in the discussion about administrative reforms at the latest when the OECD and the governments of its member-states run into falling financial figures and an increasing demand for public services. With the help of NPM as the key to the future, the vision was raised of directors in the public sector as leading entrepreneurs, who will lead the nations to a supposed better new world as modelled by the business sector, a world in which not only old governance practices would be changed but where would also be built a whole new kind of set of values and the culture similar to business life. According to the theory of public choice, it was believed that all human activity is first and foremost driven by self-interest and that marketing competition in the public sector would, by centralizing evaluation control, produce better returns on investments made.

The discourse on "new governance" in the field of education with its different dimensions is connected with discourse of NPM and relates to new ways and means of educational steering and management. It has implicitly or explicitly exerted influence on education policy discussion and implementation as visible, for instance, in issues of school autonomy, of quality assurance on all levels of education, issues of teacher training, a trend towards outcome orientation and cost-effectiveness in child and welfare services, etc. A central theme in educational policy and governance is narrowly linked to the shift towards post-bureaucratic outcome-oriented governance is school effectiveness (Scheerens and Bosker 1997; Daun 2007; Townsend 2007; Maroy 2008; Reguleducnetwork 2004). While school effectiveness policies represent important measures in terms of assuring that education is relevant for individual life courses in terms of providing life chances as well as for society inasmuch as individuals are qualified for the labour market, they also pose questions as to their side effects such as undue pressure on students, teachers and school principals for accountability, as is the case with high-stake testing. The latter, accountability, is closely related to a further change in European education systems: school autonomy. The concept of "school autonomy" may refer to different aspects of school administration (e.g., personnel, funding, etc.) and schools may have varying degrees of autonomy. Decision-making powers may reside with federal, regional or local education authorities which then delegate decision-making powers to schools. In this context, school principals play an important role. School autonomy impacts heavily on how

school principals understand and fulfil their functions. With autonomy, the requirements for the successful performance of school principals have risen and pose challenges to those holding these positions to balance their pedagogical and administrative/regulative duties (Berkemeier 2008). These changes in governance have also been accompanied and underlined by a shifting focus on school development research that for the past decades – generally since the 1980's – focus concentrated its attention on the single school as the adequate unit of reform, improvement and development of educational performance (Rolff 1998; Fend 1986).

It seems that one of the most essential trends of education policy changes connected with new governance of education has been decentralisation and deregulation of governance in education in many countries. However, the degree of decentralisation varies and takes regional, local or 'market like' forms in different countries. Green et al. (1999, 79-111) identify four models of basic education regulation and governance in the late 1990's EU Member States: first centralised systems with elements of devolution and choice, second regional devolution with some minor devolution and choice, third local control with national "steering" and some school autonomy and fourth institutional autonomy in quasi-market systems of education.

One central feature of the governance changes in compulsory education has been so called "parental choice" that is used as a policy to allocate children to schools. Choice policies are inevitably connected to admission policies of schools and thus to pupil selection. In order to examine education policy changes and structures of exclusion across the countries, school choice policies along with admission policies in different school systems are one of the vital issues. Green et al. (1999, 70-79, 115-121, 144) suggest a threefold typology of the relationship between admission policies and the structure of lower secondary education which are called admission models. Admission models are: zoned comprehensive, open enrolment in comprehensive and partially comprehensive systems and selection by ability. In zoned comprehensive model specialisation into academic or vocational tracks is delayed and pupils are allocated to schools on basis of residence on principal of mixed ability intake. So called "open enrolment" covers various policies that favour families' choice over school, but sustain some comprehensive features. In the most selective systems all pupils are allocated to compulsory secondary schools on basis of examinations, previous school achievements and/or advice of primary school teacher.

Green et al. (1999) view models of education regulation and governance and models of admission policies separately. In their analysis the Member states of European Union are

allocated to these models in 1975 or 1980 and in 1995 (Green et al. 1999)). The models give fruitful tools to view them simultaneously and thus school choice can be linked more closely to changes in governance. In the following outline European countries are viewed in relation to both education governance and admission policies of lower secondary schools. In this review, EURYDICE documents, OECD reports and literature were also used. (see: Spanned 2006, 29-51)

Table 1. The change in models of education governance in relation to admission models from the end of 1970's to the end of 1990's in Europe. (Green and al. 1999; Seppänen 2006, 33; Kivirauma, Rinne and Seppänen 2009).

In Year 1975/1980 and 1999	A. Zoned comprehensive	B. Open enrolment in comprehensive / partly comprehensive systems	C. Selection by ability
1. Centralised (with elements of devolution and choice)	<i>Greece</i> <i>Sweden</i> <i>Finland</i> <i>Denmark</i> <i>France</i>	Italy Portugal France	<i>Greece</i> <i>Italy</i> <i>Portugal</i> <i>Spain</i> <i>Luxembourg</i> Luxembourg <i>Austria</i> Austria <i>Belgium</i>
2. Regional Devolution (with some minor devolution and choice)		Spain	Belgium <i>Germany</i> Germany
3. Local Control (with national 'steering' and some school autonomy)	<i>England & Wales</i>	Sweden Finland Denmark	<i>Ireland</i> Ireland
4. Institutional Autonomy in Quasi-Market		England & Wales	<i>Netherlands</i> Netherlands

Table 1 shows a combination of the models in education governance and models in admission to lower secondary schools in addition to change and stability during 20 years in EU countries. In the table, the policies of countries are seen both at the end of the 1970's when the name of the country is marked in italics and at the end of the 1990's when the name of the country is marked in bold. The table reveals changes of educational governance in different national contexts as well as the diversification of regulation and management at the end of 1990's. Since one essential feature of the figure concerns school autonomy, it also shows the changing position and context of school principals in different countries.

The European Union member states can be divided into four groups in relation to education policy changes and school choice policy in particular. The Continental European countries and Ireland have been the most stable both in education governance and in selective

admission policies (with the exception of France) during the 20 years period (OECD 1994; EURYDICE 1997a; 1997b; Broccolichi & van Zanten; 2000; Duru Bellat & Kieffer 2000). In contrast to most continental European countries, Southern European EU Member states shifted away from earlier differentiation in compulsory schooling towards more comprehensive school systems by the turn of 2000. Despite some recent pressures Southern European countries have been largely stable in centralised education governance with an exception of Spain that is classified as a regional system. (Green & al. 1999, Nóvoa, Alves, & Canario, 1999; Pereyra, Sevilla and Castillo 1999, Ossenbach-Sauter 1996.)

While the Southern European countries, mainly Greece, Spain and Portugal, have introduced comprehensive school since the end of 1980's, the Scandinavian countries did that already at the turn of the 1970's. One of the central ideas in the Scandinavian comprehensive school system has been to allocate pupils to schools on a basis of residence (catchment area division). Thus in Table 1 the Scandinavian (EU-) countries are in the "zoned comprehensive" model of admission in the end of 1970's. At that time educational provision was planned and exercised under detailed central administration. During the 1990's, however, several gradual changes on legislation and shifts to local control in governance of basic schooling enabled parents to show a preference for a school of their choice in cities in spite of catchment area division. The policy changes have touched all the Scandinavian countries, although different ways, leading to a situation where Sweden, Finland and Denmark can all be counted among countries with the admission model of "open enrolment". (In more detail, see: Seppänen 2003; 2006)

It seems that in Scandinavia "open enrolment" to schools is more an additional policy of education whereas in England and Wales "open enrolment" is a key feature of "quasi-markets" in education governance. In the education reform of England and Wales in 1988 "open enrolment" meant not only parents' right to express the preference of public / state school but also it allowed popular schools to attract pupils up to their physical capacity instead of imposing limits to popular schools in order that other schools can remain open (Whitty, Power & Halpin 1998; Whitty & Edwards 1998). Also in "quasi-markets" the institutional diversity among the schools is wide, which is not the case in public comprehensive school systems. The most extreme "quasi-markets" operate in the Netherlands that has traditionally had a selective and highly differentiated secondary school system with paramount freedom of school choice (Teelken 1998).

To conclude, the "open enrolment" model (Green et al. 1999) as describing education policy varies considerably nationally and locally. The nature of school choice policies varies whether the policy is accompanied by school funding mechanisms which are dependant, at least partly, on school enrolments, whether authorities regulate the degree to which schools can expand or contract, whether there is set selection criteria – and what kind – by authorities when schools are oversubscribed and how wide specialisation is allowed at the expense of core curriculum (OECD 1994; Green & al. 1999). Thus policies can encourage diversification between schools or they can, at least try to, be more compatible to comprehensive and equivalence principals.

In this section we have tried to make it clear that although there has been going on a deep process of Europeanization and at least partly strives to some homogenisation of European education inside the European Union the fact still remains that different nation states and different parts of Europe have the different national traditions and histories. We have to understand that in spite of Europeanization policies by the supranational organisations like the EU the nation states are still making the diversified education politics inside the EU. In this report we are trying to understand the results of our GOETE research concerning the views of the principals in the context of historically diversified education traditions.

1.3 Governance and the role of principals in the GOETE countries

In this study, the point of view is institutional. Schools offer the framework for the pupils' transition; there are varying ways of softening up the transition, helping pupils move on in their educational paths, monitoring their progress in education and finally helping them move towards the working life. Principals are, besides some of the main actors in this process, but also sitting on ringside seats, with a good view on all aspects of the school world. For this reason, the point of view of principals was chosen for this study.⁴

As always when surveying "experts", we have to remember and take into account the institutional position of the principals. However, as principals are in charge and responsible for schools, it may be hard for principals to be critical of schools. However, many principals are capable of being reflexive.

On a general level, a school principal can be defined as the executive who holds the highest authority in the school. In some cases there may be several executives called "principal" in the

⁴ In GOETE project, there are other sub-projects in which the same themes are approached from the points of view of teachers, pupils, parents, and local/national experts.

school, but one of them is the head principal, with the highest authority. Thus, there are similarities in the role of the principal across countries, but there are also differences, if we take the examination on a more detailed level. Finding more about these differences is also the empirical aim of this study, and we will return to the question later on the basis of our survey, but here suffice it to introduce in short the role of the principal in our research countries:⁵

- In Finland, there is usually one principal per school, often accompanied by a vice principal who acts as his/her deputy. In larger schools there may be several vice-principals, each of whom has a separate field of responsibility. The principal is mainly responsible of administrative tasks and decisions, but the principal often also teaches some subject him/herself. The tasks and responsibilities of the principal usually include, among other things, evaluation and development of various aspects of the school's functions, construction of the school-specific curriculum, decisions regarding enrolment and teaching groups, and budget drafts. The principal is required to have the official teacher's qualification for the educational level in question. Also a certificate in educational administration (or sufficient knowledge of educational administration acquired otherwise) is required.
- In France, the principal of a secondary school is a national education civil servant who has administrative, educational and pedagogical responsibilities. The administration and management policy of secondary schools is defined by the so-called school project created by the schools themselves. The principal is both the executive body and the state representative within the school; he/she is involved in the administrative process at the end of the hierarchical chain. The tasks and responsibilities of the principal include, among other things, representing the institution, staff management, planning the budget, defining the school's objectives, and managing and coordinating the pedagogical activity of the school. He/she is part of the school's non-teaching staff. In addition to the principal, a number of staff and administrative and pedagogical authorities take part in the daily management of the school, including an assistant principal. The principals are recruited from teachers, educational, guidance, inspection or administrative personnel by competitive examination or from a list of suitable candidates.

⁵ Some of the information here was taken from the GOETE country reports. In addition, special thanks for their contribution regarding their respective countries for Eduardo Barberis (Italy), Izabela Buchowicz (Poland), Marcelo Parreira do Amaral (Germany), Hulya Kosar-Altinyelken (Netherlands) and David Mellor (UK).

- In Germany, the school administration consists of the principal, his/her deputy and teachers who have special organisational or administrative tasks assigned to them, as the principal can delegate individual tasks. Formally, school principal represents the school externally to parents, media and the civil society, and he/she is responsible for the proper operation of the school. The official duties of the school principal vary in the different types of schools and between the states. In particular, these duties are set out in the relevant school legislation and in the so-called official personnel regulations. In some schools (e.g., primary and lower secondary schools), principals issue instructions to teachers in what concerns their overall duties and they offer guidance concerning the official curriculum. In others (e.g., upper secondary schools), principals also are responsible for the evaluation of teachers, disciplinary measures and other tasks related to staff management. In an international perspective German school principals have a high teaching workload. The qualifications required of principals are those of the teachers at the relevant school level, with a teaching qualification and several years of teaching and management experience – while no specific management qualification programme is compulsory, there is a growing number of further/continuing education programmes, both university-based and from other commercial providers.
- In Italy, the principal of a school that has been granted autonomy and legal status takes on the title of school manager (*Dirigente scolastico*). The school manager is a civil servant and thus part of the school's non-teaching staff. As the title implies, the school manager is responsible for the management and output of human, economic and instrumental resources of the school. He/she also controls the school budget. Some school managers are responsible for more than one school, in which case the schools are organised within a common institute that can be integrated either vertically (pre-primary, primary and lower secondary schools together) or horizontally (upper secondary schools with different curricular specialisations). The school manager usually has a deputy, but he/she can also have other collaborators, such as an administrative manager and, if the school manager is responsible for more than one school, school delegates who act as liaison officers. School managers are usually recruited through a public competition which is open to all teaching and educational staff, who hold a Master's degree and have been in service with tenure for at least five years.
- In the Netherlands, all schools have a legally recognised competent authority, also referred to as the school board. The competent authority administers and manages the school or schools for which it is responsible. The day-to-day running of secondary schools

is the responsibility of the principal. There is one principal per secondary school, accompanied by one or more deputies depending on the size of the school as well as on the types of secondary education offered by the school. Together they form the management team. The competent authority draws up a document describing the duties and powers of the school management. The principal together with his/her deputies is responsible, among other things, for the general running of the school, assisting in the planning and implementation of policy with regard to teaching, the organisation of the school and its internal matters, and helping to plan and implement the school's personnel policy. As principals are mainly responsible for administrative tasks and decisions, they do not usually have any teaching duty. Candidates seeking appointment as a principal of a secondary school must hold both a teaching certificate qualifying them to teach one of the subjects taught at the school and a certificate of good conduct. If the position involves management duties for which standards of competence have been set, candidates must also hold a certificate showing that they satisfy also those requirements.

- In Poland, there is one principal per school, who is accompanied by a vice-principal, regardless of the school size. In a school complex of a primary, a lower secondary and a general upper secondary school, the school administration consists of either one head principal, three principals (one for each school level) and three vice-principals, or one head principal and three vice-principals. The tasks and responsibilities of the principal include, among other things, managing the school and representing it externally, exercising pedagogical supervision, implementing resolutions adopted by school collective bodies, and the proper use of the funding. He/she is partly relieved from teaching duties. The principal of a public school or other educational institution is appointed through an open competition by the school managing body (i.e. commune or district) for a five year term. The school education legislation, which specifies qualification requirements for school management staff, allows both teachers and individuals with no teaching qualifications to hold the position of principal, but a Master's degree and formal qualifications in management are required in both cases.
- In Slovenia, the role of the principal is not solely managerial, but also pedagogical. The principal leads the school, and he/she is responsible, among other things, for the implementation of school regulations, the realisation of the programme of the relevant school level, and the school's entire staff management policy. He/she performs tasks related to the implementation of the curriculum, financing, enrolment, and optional or additional parts of the programme. In addition to the principal's managerial role, his/her

legally defined duties also include teaching or other educational tasks. The teaching or counselling workload of the principal is dependent on the size of the institution. To be appointed as principal, a candidate must be a teacher or a counsellor and have at least five years of work experience in education. Before the appointment, the candidate must attend a special training programme in a school for prospective principals. The training programme ends with final head teacher examination. The principal can have an assistant, who usually have the same qualifications as principals.

- In the UK there is commonly one principal (head teacher) per school who is assisted by a number of deputies. School principals very rarely have direct teaching duties, as they are responsible for overseeing all aspects of the management and administration in their school. In local authority and academy status schools the head teacher will be a qualified teacher who has undertaken a number of management training courses prior to promotion. In the recently introduced free schools, however, they may be managers who are qualified and/or experienced in other industries, including the private sector. The current coalition government is in fact encouraging the participation of such individuals in school administration and governance. Additionally, where schools with academy status are linked in "chains" – where they share governors, resources and training – is common for a senior head teacher to oversee the administration in all academies in the chain. In some cases, individuals at this level of management are recruited from the private sector and are primarily managers rather than educationalists.

1.4 Clustering of the countries

Geographically, the countries participating in the project represent Europe fairly well – the Northern Europe is represented by Finland, the Southern Europe by Italy, the Western Europe by Germany, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom and the Eastern Europe by Poland and Slovenia.

Looking at the basic structure of the education systems, the countries can be divided into two groups. Finland, Italy, Slovenia, Poland and the UK have totally or mostly comprehensive-type systems. This means that the whole age-group completes the same length of education and for the most part also studies the exact same content. Ideally there is no tracking according to ability in comprehensive-type systems. Germany, the Netherlands and France can be considered differentiated-type systems. Ideally typically this means different kinds of educational institutions, the access to which is based on school success, already during the compulsory education. Also the length of education varies, some tracks end considerably

earlier than the others. France is much less differentiated than Germany or the Netherlands, however. Likewise, in the comprehensive group, the UK is also somewhat of a mix of comprehensive and differentiated systems.

Welfare-state typologies are often used as the basis in the categorisation of countries in sociological studies. Following the classic typology of Esping-Andersen (1990), Finland would be the sole representative of the social-democratic welfare state type. Germany, France, Italy and the Netherlands would represent the conservative welfare state type, and the UK would represent the liberal type. Originally Esping-Andersen's typology did not include the Eastern Europe. According to the analysis by Fenger(2007), the former Socialist countries still form a regime of their own.⁶ It has to be noted, however, that Slovenia was not included in this analysis. Basically, Fenger's analysis seems to confirm the existence of the social-democratic and conservative (here called conservative-corporatist) welfare-state regimes with data approximately from the beginning of the 2000's. There are also categorisations in which the conservative regime is divided into a corporatist (the central Europe, e.g., Germany, France) and Mediterranean or sub-protective regime (Southern Europe, e.g., Italy and Spain. This kind of a division can be found e.g., in Abrahamson (1999) and Soede et al. (2004).

Table 2. Transition regimes (Walther 2006a).

Regime	Countries	School	Training	Social security	Employment regime	Concept of youth
Universalistic	Denmark, Sweden	Not selective	Flexible standards	State	Open, low risks	Personal development, citizenship
Employment-centred	Germany, France	Selective	Standardized	State/family	Closed, risks at the margins	Adaptation to social positions
Liberal	UK, Ireland	Not selective	Flexible, low standards	State/family	Open, high risks	Early economic independence
Sub-protective	Italy, Spain, Portugal	Not selective	Low standards and coverage	Family	Closed, high risks, informal work	Without distinct status

Walther (2006a) distinguishes universalistic (Denmark, Sweden), employment-centred (Germany, France, Netherlands), liberal (UK, Ireland) and sub-protective (Italy, Spain,

⁶ Fenger (2007) clustered countries by using such variables as expenditures on health, education and social protection, inequality (GINI-coefficient), unemployment and other indicators from World Development Indicators, IMF and World Values Survey.

Portugal) "transition regimes" (see: Table 2), which are in practice equal with welfare state types. However, when looking at such indicators directly related to youth's transition, such as the shares of early school leavers, youth unemployment, youth poverty and youth activity rates, which are directly linked to youth's transition, countries do not cluster exactly according to welfare state types.

Looking at the various indicators related to youth's actual transition and to the various risks encountered by the youth in their transition period, such as youth unemployment, share of early school leavers and youth poverty, there are no empirical "transition regimes" which would strictly follow the lines of the welfare state regimes. Some of these indicators are examined next. Looking at the clustering of countries with different indicators, it can be seen that while there are differences between countries, the clustering varies according to the indicator used.

Figure 2 shows the youth unemployment rates in the European countries in 2010. None of the countries participating in the project (marked with a different colour) has an extremely high youth unemployment rate. Rather all of the eight countries⁷ have either a medium or low level of youth unemployment, compared to such countries as Spain (41.6 % youth unemployment), Lithuania (35.1 % youth unemployment) or Latvia (34.5 % youth unemployment). Among the countries involved in the project, Italy has the highest youth unemployment rate (27.8 %). France, Poland, Finland and the UK form the next group, with youth unemployment rates ranging from around 20 % to 24 %. In Germany and the Netherlands the youth unemployment rate is clearly lower, around 9–10 %.

⁷ Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia and UK.

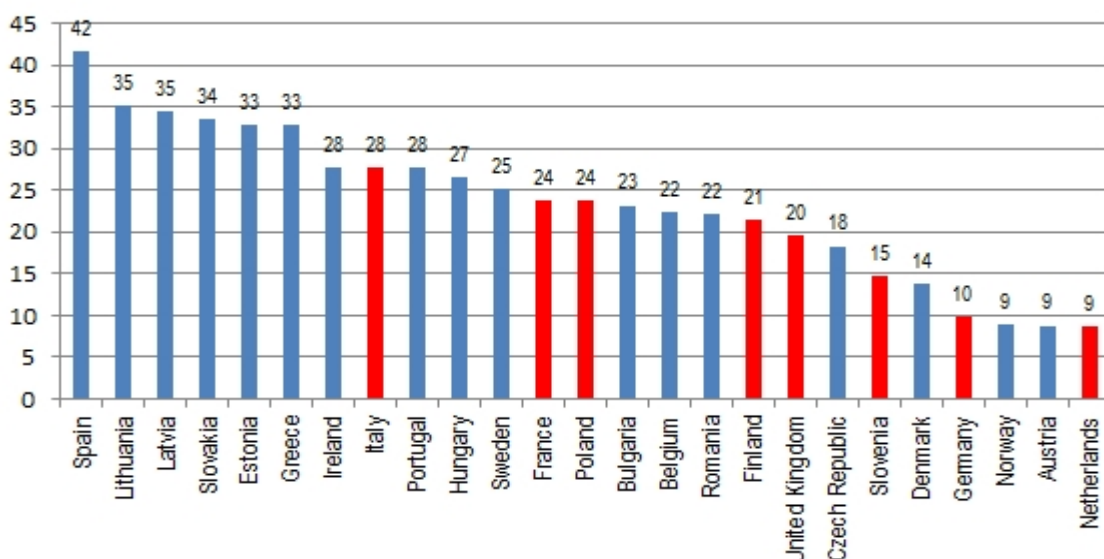


Figure 2. Unemployment rate (%) in EU countries in 2010, among the population less than 25 years of age.

Figure 3 shows the percentage of the population aged 18–24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training, in 2010. Looking at early school leavers, the countries in the project are again in the medium or low level, if we compare the percentages to Portugal (28.7 % early school leavers) or Spain (28.4 % early school leavers). The highest share among the project countries is in Italy (18.8 %), followed by UK (14.9 %). The lowest share of early school leavers (among the 8 countries) is found in Poland (5.4 %) and Slovenia (5 %). In the other countries, generally the share is in the neighbourhood of 10 %.

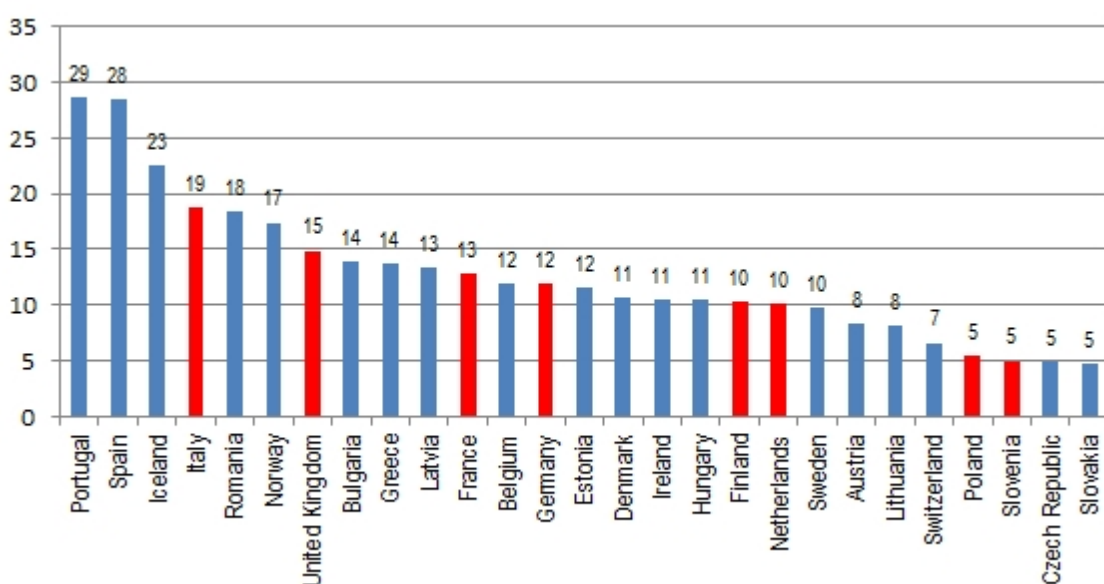


Figure 3. Population aged 18–24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training, in 2010.

After reviewing the before-mentioned possibilities, we ended up choosing the categorisation based on standardisation and stratification of educational systems (see: Table 3 below). The categorisation was introduced by Allmendinger (1989). The two variables used in the categorisation are: (1) the degree of standardization of the educational system and (2) the degree of stratification of the educational system. Standardization refers to the level of teaching resources and teacher education, and how equally the quality of teaching is distributed across the country, in general. If the level of teaching is high and the differences between cities or suburbs within cities are small, the level of standardization is high. If the differences inside the country are large, with low quality of teaching in some schools, the level of standardization is low. Stratification refers to the share of pupils completing the maximum number of years in basic education. Countries in which all pupils complete the maximum number of years have a low level of stratification, countries which have multiple tracks in the basic level have a high level of stratification.

Table 3 shows the typology and the clustering of the countries in the project in the different categories. UK, Italy and Poland are countries with both low level of stratification and low level of standardisation. This category will later on be referred to as low-level comprehensive. Finland and Slovenia are countries with low level of stratification and high level of standardisation. This category is later on called high-level comprehensive. Germany, France, Netherlands are countries with high level of stratification and high level of standardisation. This category is called simply "differentiated", due to the category with high level of stratification and low level of standardisation being empty with our selection of countries.⁸

Table 3. Categorisation of countries, based on Allmendinger (1989).

		Stratification	
		Low	High
Standardization	High	HIGH-LEVEL COMPREHENSIVE Finland Slovenia	HIGH-LEVEL DIFFERENTIATED France Germany Netherlands
	Low	LOW-LEVEL COMPREHENSIVE UK Italy Poland	LOW-LEVEL DIFFERENTIATED —

⁸ This category would be called "low-level differentiated", one example of which would be Hungary.

This categorisation will be used throughout the empirical analysis. The frequencies of respondents according to country category are introduced in section 3.

2 Research questions

There are five topic areas in GOETE (see Figure 4 for details):

1. Life course
2. Governance of education
3. Access to education
4. Coping and support in education
5. Relevance of education

Life course includes issues regarding the progress of pupils in the educational system. These include reasons for leaving school before the end of the term, as well principals' views concerning the future educational paths of students. Regarding the latter, the principals were asked for estimations regarding where the pupils would go next after finishing the current educational level.

Governance of education refers mainly to principals' degree of autonomy in making decisions regarding their school, including the selection of pupils and the recruitment of teachers. These are issues which affect the institutional framework in which the pupils are being educated. In addition, the values and principles of the principal also considerably affect the school, assuming that the principal has at least some power in his hands. Further, the views of principals regarding teaching and teacher education were also asked.

Access to education includes the structure of the school: is the pupil structure biased in some way, e.g. according to the pupils' gender, ethnicity and social class. In this report, the differences regarding pupil structure of schools is examined on the levels of country and country-category only. In future, this issue will be examined in more depth by drawing attention to local school context which enables us to evaluate equalities and inequalities related to access in a more reliable manner. Regarding those schools which can "afford" to pick their pupils, criteria used in their selection directly affects pupils' access. Factors affecting transition between the school levels are likewise related to access to education, e.g., some social circumstances may make the transition more difficult.

Coping and support in education includes factors affecting coping in school, including personal, social and school-related issues. The support measures were approached from the point of view of asking about the usefulness of various support methods. *Relevance* of education refers here to the importance and problems of school from the institutional and societal points of view.

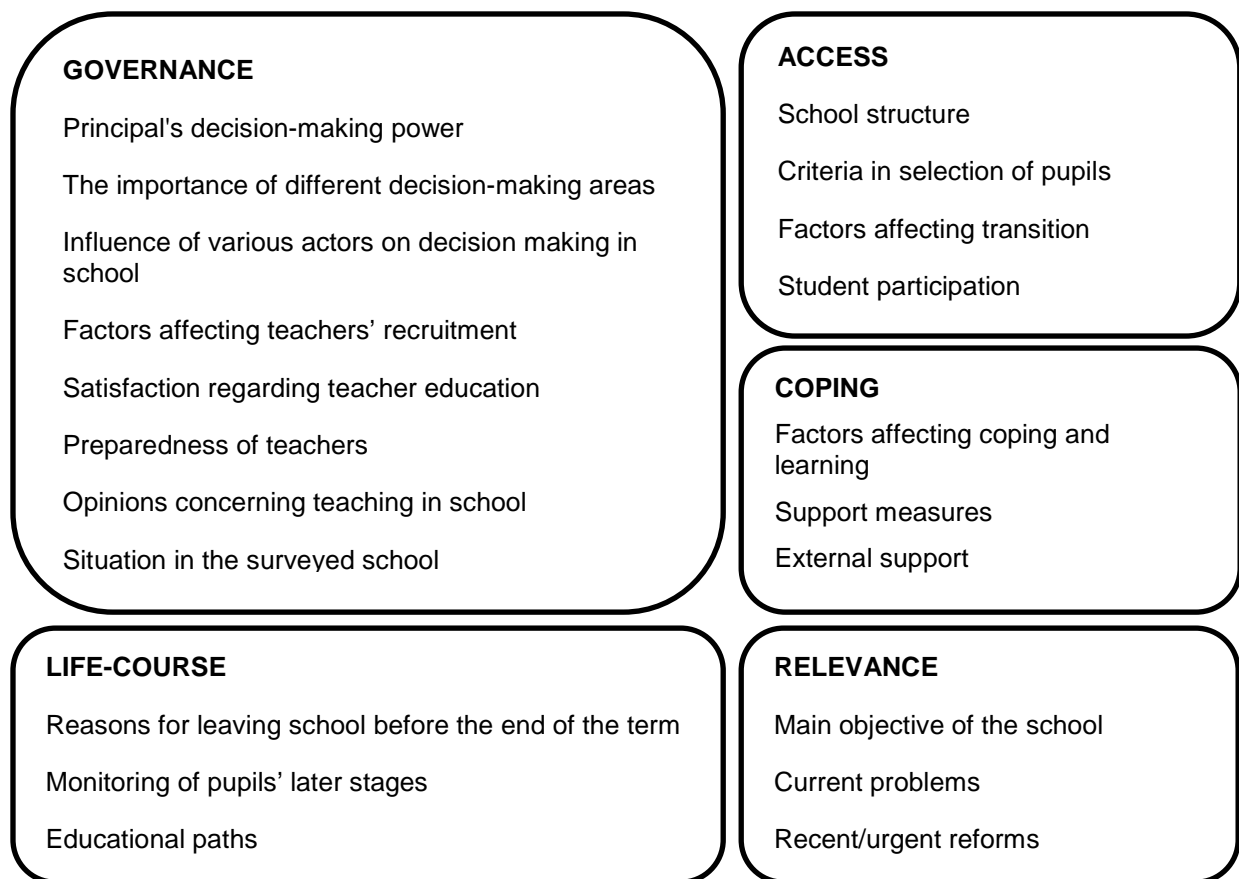


Figure 4. Survey questions (question batteries) by topic.

In the analysis section, for example the following issues are examined:

- How do the principals reflect, address and monitor students' educational transitions (into, during and out of their school)?
- How do the principals experience the marketization of education (in terms of competition, free school choice and decentralization of power)?
- How do the principals respond to issues related to teachers, teaching and teacher education?
- How do the principals feel about the criteria used in the selection of pupils?
- To what extent do principals think students can participate in school life?
- What is the principals' perception concerning factors affecting coping and learning, as well as transitions of students?
- Which support measures do the principals consider the most useful?
- What is the principals' view regarding the main objective of the school?
- What is the principals' view concerning current problems at school and what kind of reforms are needed, according to them, in order to solve these problems?

On the basis of these analyses, it will be possible to answer to the following research question:
To what extent do school principals' responses reflect general structures and dimensions of education and training systems (the degree of standardisation / the degree of stratification)?

3 Data

3.1 Collection and characteristics of the data

The data collection was aimed at principals of primary, lower secondary, general upper secondary and vocational upper secondary schools. Both public and private schools were targeted. Special schools were excluded.⁹

The data collection was carried out during the end of 2010 and the beginning of 2011. The exact schedules varied to some extent from country to country (see Figure 5). In all countries (except Poland), a web-based survey platform called Webropol was used in the collection of the data. There were minor differences between the countries, especially regarding the exact order of the steps, but generally the process went as follows:

Year	2010		2011							
	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	March	April	May	June	July	August
Finland			■	■	■					
France			■	■	■	■				
Germany			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Italy	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Netherlands	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Poland			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Slovenia			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
UK			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

Figure 5. Data collection schedule, according to country. The bars indicate the approximate start/end of the data collection.

First, approximately three cities/regions were selected in each country. These were in most cases the same cities/regions which were targeted in the other sub-projects of GOETE project (e.g., the pupil/parent survey). It was intended that the cities/regions would represent affluent, average and disadvantaged areas, but this was not possible in all countries. Second, email addresses of primary school, lower secondary school, general upper secondary school and vocational upper secondary school principals were gathered. Third, the online questionnaire was translated in each country based on the English-language template constructed by the coordinator team. Fourth, in some countries (e.g. in Germany), administrative authorization was

⁹ In the UK, there appear to be 3-4 special schools included in the data, based on the responses to a question asking the school's specialisation. These UK school were not removed, however, due to the extremely low number of responses in the UK data.

required to approach the schools. Fifth, the respondents were sent an invitation to the survey in an email, which included an introduction of the survey and a WWW link to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was filled out by the respondents in their web browser. After the initial invitation, in most countries three reminders were sent to those who hadn't yet responded. Sixth, the national data were downloaded from Webropol and merged into one data-set. The last phase required some corrections and re-codings of variables to be made, which will be detailed later on.

In Poland, the web survey platform was not used at all. Instead, the data collection was carried out by personal visits to the schools, where the principals were interviewed face-to-face. An external firm was used to carry out the interviews. This approach resulted in considerably better response rate than in the other countries. In Germany, the invitations were sent separately to the three sampled cities, at different times. In the Netherlands, the invitations were also sent as several separate lists, as the sampling area had to be expanded due to problems in getting enough respondents. In the end, no reminders were needed in the Netherlands, however. The sample was expanded also in the UK, due to low number of respondents. Following the sample boost from 492 to 1120, the number of respondents in the UK data increased from 24 to 38 and the response percentage decreased from 4.8 % to 3.4 %. It is clear that this kind of a response percentage affects the reliability of the results, but the UK data was nevertheless included in the analysis because UK was needed in the country typology chosen for the analysis.

Table 4 shows the sample sizes, respondent numbers and response percentages, according to country. The total number of respondents ended up, by chance, at exactly 1000 respondents. A few respondents per country had to be removed from the data, e.g., because it was noticed afterwards that the respondent did not actually belong to the sample. The actual number of respondents used in the analyses can be found in the table in the column "Final N in data".

Table 4. Data.

Country	Sample (N)	Responses received (N)	Response percentage	Final N in data	Share of total data (%)
Italy	507	105	20.7	105	10.7
France	2142	158	7.4	152	15.4
Finland	290	104	35.9	100	10.2
Netherlands	3664	174	4.7	169	17.2
Germany	905	119	18.9	119	12.1
Slovenia	347	102	29.4	101	10.3
Poland	250	200	80.0	200	20.3
UK	1120	38	3.4	38	3.9
Total	9225	1000	10.8	984	100.0

The target of the data collection was to achieve at least approximately 100 cases per country, so that the data would be adequate for the usage of statistical methods, such as cross-tabulation. The response percentages were quite low in all the countries (see Table 4). This is probably due to the fact that principals are over-burdened by surveys, evaluation and other "extra" tasks. The response percentages varied between 35.9 % (Finland) and 3.4 % (UK). Low response percentages are problematic due to the possible bias, often some respondent groups are more reluctant to respond.

A purposeful selection of the sample was applied in the survey carried out in Poland. At the first stage were to be surveyed all available lower secondary schools (gimnazjum). The next step was meeting the assumption of the survey size throughout conducting the survey in general and vocational secondary schools. Conducting the survey in lower secondary and secondary schools was necessary, as the assumptions of "transition" are manifested in these schools, which was needed from the point of view of the survey aspects. In the Polish education system there is no particularly evident transition trajectories as most of lower secondary schools are district schools. Only at the level of secondary school schools are not district ones.

Table 5 indicates the bias of the data according to the school levels. The table is based on calculations in which the actual (real world) distributions of schools according to school levels were compared to the distribution of principals, according to school levels, in the data. The numbers have been rounded to the next integer. In many countries there was more bias inside the cities/regions, even though the situation in the whole country is quite balanced. In Table 5, the countries have been ordered according to the under-/over-representation of primary level.

In Poland, primary level is very clearly under-represented and the lower secondary level is extremely over-represented. In the Netherlands, the structure of the education system is very different from all the other countries, but as most of the responses were from the primary level, it seems to be clearly over-represented while the other levels (which do not really fit the structure of this table) had very few respondents. In the UK, the data is strongly biased towards primary level; the upper secondary schools are clearly under-represented in several cities (Bristol, Glasgow). In the UK it was attempted to improve the initially poor response percentage (4.0 %) and correct the bias of the data by extending the survey to (only) the secondary schools in two new cities (London, Birmingham). In London, seven (7) secondary school principals took part in the survey. In Birmingham, one (1) secondary school principal responded to the questionnaire.

Table 5. Bias of the data in the different data-sets according to school levels. Differences in the percentage units (distribution in reality – distribution in data). Positive numbers (+) refer to over-representation, negative (-) numbers refer to under-representation of the school level in the data.¹⁰

Country	Primary	Lower secondary	General upper secondary	Vocational upper secondary
Italy	-13	+1	+3	+1
Germany	-7	+1	+11	+4
Finland	-3	+1	+4	+1
France	0	+2	-4	+1
UK	+8	-8	N/A	N/A
Netherlands	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Slovenia		+7		-6
Poland	-32	+59	-9	N/A

Note: *positive numbers mean over-representation in relation to reality, negative numbers mean under-representation in relation to reality, 0 means a fairly balanced situation, N/A means that the information does not exist in the data (UK) or the information cannot be provided using the same classification used for the other countries, due to incompatibility of educational systems (Netherlands).*

In Slovenian data, primary level is over-represented in relation to reality, and although this could not be included in table 5, vocational schools are under-represented. In Slovenia, primary and lower secondary schools cannot be distinguished as they are joined in 1 school (comprehensive 9 years primary schooling). Also, total numbers of general and vocational upper secondary schools cannot be distinguished as Slovenia has school centres for secondary schools, which means that in one secondary school more school levels are merged. It can be

¹⁰ For Italy, "horizontally integrated upper secondary level" was not included in the table due to incompatibility. It was over-represented in the data (+8). Likewise, for Finland "combined primary + lower secondary" was excluded, which was under-represented (-2). For Germany, general upper secondary level in the table actually refers to "joint general lower and upper secondary level".

assumed that assume that in the questionnaire, when a principal had to select a school level, s/he probably opted for the highest one among his/her school levels. This partially explains why there were very few principals of vocational schools in the Slovenian sample.

In Table 6, we look at the distribution of the respondents in the different kind of areas (affluent/average/disadvantaged). All in all, the cities were biased towards the more affluent cities, disadvantaged cities being the least well represented. It could be assumed that in the more disadvantaged areas there are on average more problems in the schools, taking the principals' time fully and making it harder for them to find time for other tasks. This kind of bias may, to some extent, "soften up" the results of the survey, as the more affluent cities/regions are better represented.

Table 6. Frequencies and percentages of principals from "affluent", "average" and "disadvantaged" cities, by country. N / %.¹¹

	Affluent		Average		Disadvantaged		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Italy	17	16.7	68	66.7	17	16.7	102	100
France	65	45.1	51	35.4	28	19.4	144	100
Finland	54	55.7	43	44.3	-	-	97	100
Netherlands	74	44.8	91	55.2	-	-	165	100
Germany	53	44.5	-	-	66	55.5	119	100
Slovenia	17	19.3	46	52.3	25	28.4	88	100
Poland	136	68.8	39	19.5	25	12.5	200	100
UK	13	34.2	1	2.6	24	63.2	38	100
Total	429	45.0	339	35.6	185	19.4	953	100

Table 7 shows the breakdown of the respondent numbers and percentages according to the country clusters introduced in Table 2. The category "differentiated" is somewhat larger than the others, comprising approximately 45 % of all respondents. The category "high-level comprehensive" is the smallest, comprising approximately 20 % of all respondents. The division of respondents into the country categories can be considered acceptable; however, none of the categories is extremely small or extremely large.

Table 7. Frequencies according to country clusters (see Table 2).

	Frequency	Percentage
1) LOW-LEVEL COMPREHENSIVE	343	34.9
2) HIGH-LEVEL COMPREHENSIVE	201	20.4
3) DIFFERENTIATED	440	44.7
Total	984	100.0

¹¹ The numbers in Table 6 differ, a little, from the numbers in Table 4 because there were respondents who did not tell the city/area they were from.

3.2 Problems and recodings

There were some compatibility issues, which have been addressed by re-coding the data during/after merging the national data-sets into a pooled data-set. The recodings will be discussed next, along with some other problems with the data.

City/region. All partners were asked to recode the city/region variable into a variable with categories "affluent", "average" and "disadvantaged". This was done in order to achieve comparability. In the Dutch data, it was not possible to define this kind of a variable, due to great differences in wealth etc. inside the regions. Instead, the regions were re-coded in the Netherlands into a variable indicating whether the school is in the Randstad (the area consisting of the four largest cities and the surrounding areas) or elsewhere in the country. This variable is, however, not compatible with the rest of the countries.¹²

Educational level. The educational level variables were originally not totally compatible, due to different kind of combined schools in different countries. E.g. there schools combining primary and lower secondary levels in some countries, schools combining lower secondary and upper secondary levels in some countries. This made it impossible to straight-up recode the variables. As a solution, four dichotomous (i.e. with values 0/1) educational level variables have been created in the data. These variables were named 1) primary, 2) lowersec, 3) gen-uppersec and 4) voc-uppersec. The national educational level data has been recoded so that the respondent has been assigned value 1 for each school levels that his/her school includes, value 0 for the other dichotomous variables.

School staff. Questions related to (absolute) numbers of school staff (v12-v17) had a lot of system-missing values (i.e. empty cells). As it can be assumed that leaving a response field blank probably means response "0", missing values in these questions were defined as 0. Leaving these responses as missing values would be very misleading when calculating averages. The exception here is Poland for variables v12-v13, because these questions were not included in Poland at all (see below). In Poland these variables were left system-missing.

Percentage shares. There were some questions in the data¹³ in which percentage shares of pupils and teachers were asked in relation to various issues. Some respondents had apparently misunderstood the question and responded with absolute numbers instead of percentages, i.e.

¹² The background to this was that there were extreme difficulties in the Netherlands in recruiting principals, due to this the sampling area had to be spread much wider than in the other countries, basically covering the whole Netherlands.

¹³ Variables v18, v22, v23, v24, v25, v26 and v19.

responded with numbers exceeding 100. In these cases, percentages were calculated based on the information given by the respondent regarding the size of the school (the number of pupils or teachers). Even after the re-calculation, there was one response with a value 772.31. This value was recoded as a missing value, due to the original response being obviously totally incorrect. There were also decimal values between 0–1 (such as 0.5) and between 1–2 (such as 1.5) in questions asking staff numbers. It can be presumed that these mean that the school does not have a nurse, for example, that works only in that school, but the work/responsibility of the nurse is "divided" between several schools. As "half" or "one third" human beings cannot really exist, however, values between 1–0 were recoded into 1, as the school does then have that staff member at its disposal, even if s/he is not working exclusively in that school. Values between 1–2 were also recoded into the next whole number.

Missing values. "Not applicable" -codes, which were used in some countries, were defined as missing values. There were also some strange values, 6, 9, and 999.99 (none of which were valid) found in several countries. These values were also recoded/defined as missing values.

Daily school meal. The question regarding the share of pupils entitled to a free-of-charge or subsidised daily school meal was not included in the Finnish questionnaire, because it was known beforehand that all pupils in the educational institutions in question are, as defined in the law, entitled to a free daily school meal. Asking this from the principals would have seemed strange, because the before mentioned is common knowledge. The values of this variable were defined afterwards to the data as 100 (%) for all Finnish respondents.

Open questions. The questionnaire included some open questions. Specifically the open questions at the end of the questionnaire are of concern here. These included questions regarding 1) current problems in school, 2) recent (important) reforms, 3) urgently needed reforms, 4) the status of the school and 5) the effects of the economic crisis on school. The questionnaire had a text field, in which it was possible for the principals to write as lengthy responses to each question as they wished. Responses of varying length were received to these issues. In order to be able to assess the responses statistically, the responses were inspected and 6–7 categories were formed for each question. As many responses could include various things, these categories are overlapping in the sense that "dummy" variables were used. In other words, a single response could be categorised into several categories at the same time. The summaries of these categorisations are shown in the Appendix.

Educational paths. The principals were asked of their estimates regarding the share of pupils continuing to various school levels after the current one. In the Netherlands, due to the

somewhat "peculiar" structure of the Dutch education system, these variables ended up being incompatible with the rest of the countries, to the extent that it proved impossible to make them compatible even by recoding them. Thus, the Dutch data was removed from the analysis in Table 8. There were also other problems with these variables. The principals were supposed to respond only to the questions related to their school's educational level. This was accomplished by "filtering" of the questions in Webropol. Apparently this technical solution did not work in some countries, however, as some respondents had responded to questions which they were not supposed to respond (e.g. primary school principals to questions related to educational paths from vocational school, etc.). There were also 0:s in the data in these kinds of cases, which was problematic, because these values could not be distinguished from "real" 0:s. As a solution, the data was recoded using a "do if...end if" –structure based on the school level of the respondents, so that those responses which shouldn't have been in the data were defined as missing values.

Missing questions. There was a number of questions which were not included in the Polish questionnaire at all. These include v12-v13, v33, v39, v53, v96, v111-v113, v139-v152, 155-156, v162, v165, v167, v171, v174, v179, v181 and v238. These have simply been left as system-missing (i.e. blank). In addition, v114-v118 were formulated in Poland in an incompatible way compared to the rest of the countries, these were also left as system-missing.

3.3 Explanatory variables and methods

Throughout the report, the country and country category will form the backbone of the explanatory variables. The main interest in the report is on international comparison. In addition, school level, used as dichotomous "dummy" variables, will be utilised, as well as the city/region type. The cities/regions are not used per se, as Stuttgart, Warsaw or Bologna, but coded into the categories affluent/average/disadvantaged.

Statistical methods are used in the analysis. The methods are mainly descriptive in nature, including frequencies, cross-tabulations, means, standard deviation, and F-test. The F-test is used to test differences in means, specifically it compares the within-groups variance to between-groups variance, e.g., whether the variance between country categories is greater than inside those country categories.

4 Analysis

In the next subsections, the results will be introduced according to the thematic topics of the project: “life-course”, "governance of education", "access to education", "coping and learning in education" and “relevance of education”. The results of the analyses will be reported as follows:

The descriptive results of analyses are presented, in most cases, using means of the (Likert-scaled) variables according to country. In addition, group mean and group standard deviation is presented for each country regime. The results of F-tests, run for the country regimes are shown as stars (significance levels: *** < 0.001 ** < 0.01 * <0.05). In the cases where dichotomous (dummy) variables are used, percentages of cross-tabulations are reported in a manner similar to described above (see: e.g. Table 9 for an example of the latter kind of table). These tables form the "skeleton" of the report. In addition, more detailed issues are reported using figures, mostly horizontal and vertical bar charts.

4.1 Life course

Leaving school. The number of students and thus the pupil structure of school change during a school year. The main reason for these changes is the fact that students leave school in the midst of the school level. This may be caused by many reasons. The most often are: the pupil’s family changing the place of residence, transition to special school, dismissal from school for behavioural reasons, low educational achievements or taking up work. Other reasons, such as changing school because of problems with adjustment or inability to coexist with other students, problems concerning cooperation with teachers, or other problems are observed much less often. The percentage shares according to country/country category are shown in Figure 6.

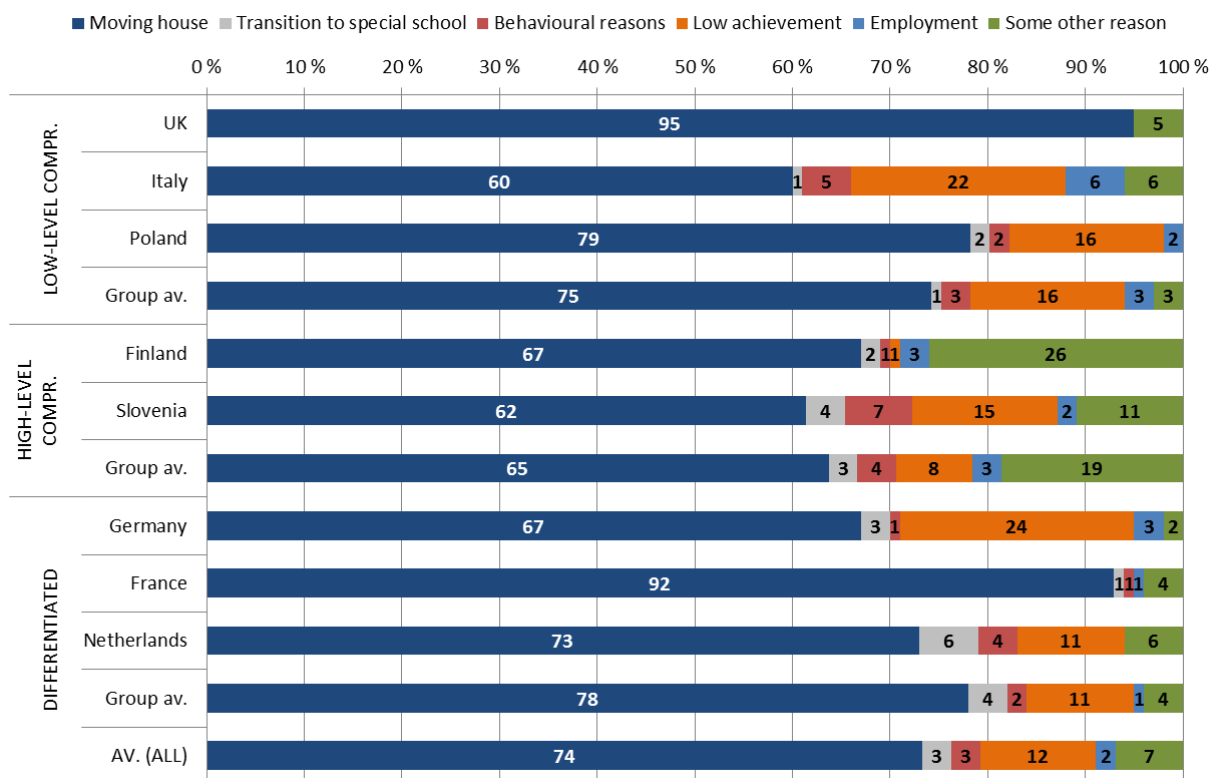


Figure 6. Reasons for leaving school in the middle of semester (1st mentioned).

Slightly over a half of the school principals stated that pupils leave their school in the midst of the school level (52.4 %). By far the most common reason for leaving school in the middle of the semester was the pupil's family moving house, in all countries, as shown in Figure 6. This was the case especially in the UK and in France, where 95 % and 92 % of the respondents, respectively, stated the changing of the place of residence as the most important reason of leaving school in the midst of the school level, with almost no other responses given at all. In schools characterised by a high share of students with an immigrant origin, leaving school in the midst of the school level because of moving house was more common than in other schools. The type of the city (affluent, average, disadvantaged) where the school was located had no impact on leaving school in the midst of the school level.

The number of pupils and the structure of the schools changes also in the middle of the school level, as some pupils leave school while others arrive to continue their education after leaving some other school (Table 16). The change of school in the midst of the school level may be caused by the students' family moving house (a change of the place of residence between different districts of the same town, different towns of the same country, or moving to another country). Another reason for changing school in the midst of the school level may be a transition to a special school, e.g., in case of a student who has been diagnosed in one way or another to need some kind of special support. The need for special support may be related to,

for example, to physical or mental problems. The next reason, which may also be related to the need for special support, dismissing a pupil from the school may be related to his or her disruptive behaviour, which means also posing a threat to other pupils. In such difficult situation, the school principal and other teachers may see expelling a student from the school community as the only way solving the problem, which in consequence may lead to leaving school in the midst of the school level. In some cases, a pupil is forced to leave school in the midst of the school level because of low achievement. Another reason for leaving a school in the midst of the school level may be employment. This last reason concerns mainly pupils from poor families. On average 2 % of pupils in the surveyed schools leave school education because of the above reasons. The mobility of pupils in the middle of the school year was the largest in Germany with approximately 5 % of the pupils leaving school annually midterm, on average. The pupils' mobility in the middle of the school year was the lowest in Slovenia, France and Italy, all with a share of approximately 1 %.

The second most common reason, generally, was that the pupil had to leave because of low achievement. In several countries, the share of this response was about 1/5 or 1/4 of all responses, being the most common in Germany with 24 % and in Italy with 22 %. This response was, however, totally or almost non-existent in UK, Finland and France. Other reasons turned out to be insignificant for leaving school in the midst of the school level.

Educational paths. The principals were asked for their estimates regarding which path their pupils will choose after the current educational level (see Table 8). Specifically, percentage shares were asked. In most countries, after the lower secondary school, the most typical route led to the general upper secondary school.¹⁴ The exception from this rule was Italy, where on average 55 % of the lower secondary school pupils were expected to move on to the vocational upper secondary school. After general upper secondary level, most pupils were expected to move on to university, with percentages ranging from around 33 % in France to 85 % in Italy.

¹⁴ Students leaving lower secondary school in Poland (80 %), UK (65 %), Slovenia (65 %), Finland (57 %) and France (52 %) most often chose such an educational path, according to the principals.

Table 8. Educational paths of pupils, as estimated by the principals (%). Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPREHENSIVE</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>			Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Grou p av.	FI	SL	Grou p av.	DE	FR	Grou p av.	
Lower secondary											
→ Gen. upper sec.	64.9	34.7	80.1	66.6	56.9	64.9	62.1	9.0	51.9	20.7	56.1
→ Voc. upper sec.	14.9	55.0	19.1	29.5	40.1	32.8	35.3	10.5	35.6	17.3	28.5
→ Employment	4.8	0.5	0.2	0.6	3.8	1.8	2.4	0.8	2.1	1.1	1.1
Gen. upper sec.											
→ University	–	85.2	0.0	41.1	34.4	75.9	53.1	41.9	33.3	41.1	45.2
→ Polytechnic	–	6.7	78.6	49.8	31.9	13.7	24.3	18.8	5.0	17.5	29.2
→ Employment	–	11.4	16.3	14.3	15.1	5.9	11.5	4.0	1.7	3.8	9.4
→ Mil./civil serv.	–	1.3	0.7	1.0	21.0	–	15.3	–	–	–	7.7
Voc. upper sec.											
→ University	–	39.8	–	39.8	15.9	48.9	42.0	9.2	–	9.2	36.5
→ Polytechnic	–	6.8	–	6.8	11.6	18.9	16.9	10.0	–	10.0	12.0
→ Employment	–	47.3	–	47.3	55.0	26.4	33.6	26.7	71.3	44.5	41.1
→ Mil./civil serv.	–	2.6	–	2.6	27.0	0.4	12.2	–	–	–	6.9

Note: In the UK and Poland there is a large number of empty cells due to the educational levels in question not being included in the survey. For the reasons why Netherlands is not included, see Subsection 3.2.

Generally polytechnics are understood as something comparable to the German Fachhochschule-system, i.e., higher education which is more practically oriented than university studies.¹⁵ It needs to be noted that there are, however, differences between the countries regarding the division between polytechnics and universities. These differences will be summarised in the following paragraphs.

In the Netherlands, The closest educational institution to Polytechnic is HBO (higher professional education) offering four years of higher education. They have a lower status compared to universities and they do not focus on research but more on professions. HBO institutions provide theoretical and practical training for occupations for which a higher vocational qualification is either required or useful. Graduates find employment in various

¹⁵ German Fachhochschule has been traditionally more application-oriented and universities more research oriented. However, with the change of degrees to B.A. and M.A. programmes, these differences are blurred. The difference remains as to the entrance qualification requirements and labour market credentials. Even though the barring of Fachhochschule-degree holders to higher positions in civil service has been lifted, in practice university graduates have much more chances of finding such a position.

fields, including middle and high-ranking job in trade and industry, social services, health care and public sector.

- In Italy, universities specialized in Engineering and Architecture are called "polytechnics". However, here non-university tertiary education¹⁶ was coded as polytechnics. ITS are 2-years courses based on lab education and 30 % of education time is spent in training. 50 % of teaching staff comes from relevant industrial sectors. Under University they included all University education, including the one in Engineering and Architecture.
- In France, the main difference between Universities and Polytechnic is the entry examination. In order to get into Polytechnic you need to take and pass an entry examination. It is not the case for Universities.
- In Slovenia, at the highest level of tertiary level of education there are two distinct systems of schooling: 1) University studies (academic education) - for students, who have finished upper secondary education and who have successfully passed a general Matura (exam at the end of upper secondary school); 2) Polytechnics (professional education) for students who have finished upper secondary professional schools and have successfully passed a vocational Matura. The difference is therefore in the nature of the studies. Polytechnics allow those with professional qualifications to continue their studies at the tertiary level. However, polytechnics are mainly applicative studies compared to University studies, which are more theoretical/methodological in-depth scientific studies. However, there is one more level of tertiary education: 3) Higher vocational education (short-term (2 years) postsecondary education). In the Slovenian SPSS file the first two forms are merged into one (University), while the second one is wrongly labelled as Polytechnics, while in fact it is Higher vocational education. Therefore, in the questionnaire they have joined the two highest level of education (university + polytechnics), because the biggest difference is in the contrast with the third one, not between the first two. The correct interpretation of Slovenian SPSS data is therefore: University = university + polytechnics and Polytechnics = Higher vocational education.

¹⁶ In Italian the term is ITS – Istruzione Tecnica Superiore. Usually these are post-secondary courses in industry-related issues (fashion industry, marketing, applied computer science, biotechnological products, etc.).

- In Poland, students who passed their Matura exams (at the end of upper secondary school) may choose between the following solutions: 1) University, which offers a wide scope of professions and the Master's degree after its completion; 2) Polytechnics (also called Technical University), which provides education in technical professions, and leads to Engineer degree after 3 year, or Master degree after 5 years. There are also functioning tertiary vocational schools with 3-year educational programme and finished with Licentiate degree. In Poland, the survey was not carried out in vocational upper secondary schools. It mainly covered lower upper secondary schools and to much lower extent primary school and general upper secondary school.
- In Finland, in the tertiary level there are polytechnics and universities. Polytechnics are practically oriented institutions, while universities are more theoretically and scientifically oriented. There are generally entrance examinations to both types of tertiary institutions (there are some exceptions). The basic degree obtained from a polytechnic institution is formally equivalent to a Bachelor's degree from a university. Similarly, the "post-graduate" degree from a polytechnic is equal to a university Master's degree. Unlike in many other countries, there are currently no post-secondary non-tertiary degrees in Finland, above the secondary level the only options are polytechnics and universities.¹⁷

¹⁷ Many of the current polytechnics were, however, constructed in the 1990's by combining post-secondary non-tertiary institutions.

Pupils' later stages monitored

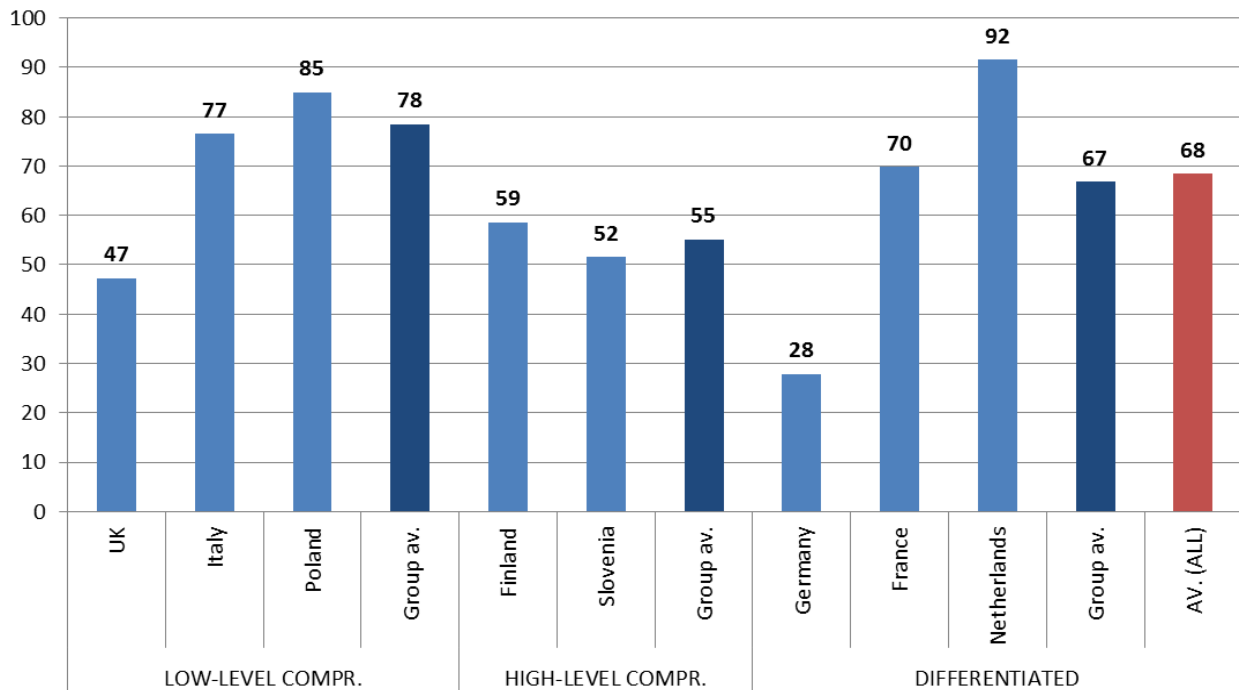


Figure 7. Monitoring of pupils' later stages. Affirmative (yes) responses.

Monitoring of pupils later stages. Among the principals of the surveyed schools, 68% has been monitoring further careers of their students (Figure 7). The highest numbers of principals interested in their former students were in the Netherlands (92%), Poland (85%) and Italy (77%). The smallest interests in the later stages of the pupils' lives characterised principals in Germany, as only 28% of them are interested in the later life of their pupils after they have finished school. Most often used form of monitoring the school leavers was a direct contact with the school at the next level (Table 9). Such way of obtaining information was used by over a half (55%) of the principals in the survey. Almost 77% principals of schools in France and as many as 85% principals of schools in the Netherlands gathered information in this way. The least frequent is this way of finding information in Poland – only 27% of school principals. Almost one third of the interviewed principals obtain information via direct contact with their former pupils (e.g., they come to school to talk with their teachers). Such way of gaining information is popular in Poland (47%), Slovenia (44%) and in the UK (43%).

Table 9. Types of monitoring.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Grou p Av.	FI	SL	Grou p Av.	DE	FR	NL	Grou p Av.	
Contact with next school	33.3	53.2	27.1	35.2	50.9	38.0	44.9	44.4	76.8	85.0	77.0	54.8
Contact with pupils/ students	42.9	24.7	47.0	40.2	22.8	44.0	32.7	22.2	8.1	27.9	20.2	30.3
Statistics/ databases	0.0	7.8	19.3	14.4	15.8	0.0	8.4	8.3	3.0	1.4	2.8	8.4
Contact with parents	23.8	1.3	3.0	4.2	1.8	12.0	6.5	8.3	5.1	2.0	3.9	4.4
Projects/ networks	0.0	11.7	5.4	6.8	1.8	2.0	1.9	0.0	4.0	2.0	2.5	4.1

Contacting parents and project/network have a marginal significance in respect to gathering the statistical data. Statistical information is most often used by principals in Poland (19%) and Finland (16%). It is not used at all in the UK and Slovenia. Contacts with the parents are a popular method of obtaining information regarding the pupils further school careers only in the UK. Monitoring the further educational paths of pupils through Project/network is insignificant in the UK and Germany, while in the other countries it has only marginal significance.

4.2 Governance

The dimensions related to governance in schools included principals' training and work experience; collaboration and/or competition among schools and free school choice arrangements; the right to select pupils and the monitoring the later stages. Further dimensions included the possibilities for making decisions in their school; the perceived importance of different decision-making areas; the influence of various (both inside and outside) actors on decisions made in school as well as the participation possibilities and tasks of pupils in school governance. One additional dimension pertains to teacher education. Here, were included the right to recruit teachers; factors affecting teachers' recruitment; principals' satisfaction with the teacher education; the preparedness of teachers to deal with challenges as well as principals' opinions on teaching arrangements in their schools.

Principals' training and work experience. The requirements for the successful performance of school principals have risen continually during the past years and pose specific challenges to those holding these positions as they have not only to balance their duties (pedagogical and

otherwise) but also to cope with ever more administrative and regulative duties. For this reason, an interesting aspect of the governance dimension may be seen in the differences in training and work experience of school principals. Not all countries have specific training programs for the qualification of school heads, for instance in school administration or management (see section 1.3 above). On average 81 % of the surveyed principals reported they had a training in management (Table 10); the high-level comprehensive systems group have the highest rates for this question, while France stands out with almost only half of this percentage, viz. 46,3 %. Also, the work experience of school heads as teachers and/or principals may be seen as influencing their perspectives on school governance. According to table 11, there is a rather high variation in work experience as principal across the GOETE countries, varying from 3,09 years in France to 12,47 in the Netherlands – the total average being 9,15 years. In most countries access to the position of school principal requires previous training as a teacher, on average the work experience of the surveyed principals as teachers is 19,6 years. Germany has the principals with most work experience as teachers, 25,57 years; and France the least with 15,04 years – principals in the GOETE survey are foremost experienced teachers, but also experienced principals. Respondents also reported their work experience in other managerial roles, on average 4,56 years: the Netherlands stood out again with higher rates than other countries, 10,14 years and Italy with the lowest, 1,1 year.

Information on training and work experience of principals may provide some help in the interpretation of responses to other questions, as we can assume – of course, with no claim to causality - more experienced principals to have more insight into the different aspects researched in the survey; and principals that are also experienced teachers to be aware of core school issues such as curricular and teaching arrangements.

Table 10. Principals' training in management. Percentages.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Grou p av.	FI	SL	Grou p av.	DE	FR	NL	Grou p av.	
Training in management	84,2	87,1	88,5	87,6	90,6	97,0	93,9	80,9	46,3	83,2	69,9	81,0

Table 11. Principals' work experience, in years. Means.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. All
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
As a principal	9,24	10,85	8,55	9,31	10,3	9,8	10,05	10,45	3,09	12,47	8,61	9,15
As a teacher	20,26	21,2	22,05	21,6	15,26	16,0	15,64	25,57	15,04	19,76	19,8	19,6
In another managerial role	4,95	1,1	2,56	2,56	5,07	3,65	4,18	2,57	7,1	10,14	6,47	4,56

Collaboration and Competition among schools. School principals were asked to rate from 1 (= Not at all) to 5 (= Very much) to what extent they considered their schools to collaborate or to compete with other (neighbouring) schools. The data show a very similar response frequency both for collaboration and competition in all countries. When looking at the means for the responses to the rating scales, there is an average rating of 3,57 (total) for collaboration and of 2,65 for competition. In other terms, although collaboration is more often reported as an important part of school life, competition also seems to be a relevant aspect, especially in comprehensive systems where the average rating was slightly higher with 2,79 for low-level and 2,76 for high-level comprehensive systems, while in differentiated systems the average is 2,48. The standard deviation for each group shows to what extent the values disperse around the group mean; for all three groups the deviation is not great, showing similarities among the countries in each group. There is only slight variation as with competition in Poland which seems higher than for the others in the low-level comprehensive group; also, in Slovenia competition is higher than in Finland in the high-level comprehensive group whereas competition seems lowest in France.

Table 12. Collaboration and Competition among schools. Average rating for country, group and standard deviation

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>					<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>					Av.	St. dev.
	UK	IT	PL	Group Av.	St. dev.	FI	SL	Group Av.	St. dev.	DE	FR	NL	Group Av.	St. dev.		
Collaborate	3,68	3,84	3,63	3,70	1,056	3,98	3,99	3,98	1,196	3,60	3,11	3,16	3,27	,834	3,57	1,115
Compete	2,76	2,58	2,90	2,79	1,337	2,44	3,07	2,76	1,317	2,74	1,89	2,80	2,48	1,204	2,65	1,308

The perception of principals to be collaborating or competing with other (neighbouring) schools have arguably an influence on the governance of access, relevance and support to education for children. Especially in the context of free school choice, which is in fact one pre-condition for competition, the later may have the effect that schools start sorting pupils or

building specific profiles (music and arts, natural sciences, etc. The literature on the pros and cons of free school choice shows an ambiguous picture and several authors argue that the negative side-effects outweigh the positive (Mons, 2007; Ravitch, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010). An important further analysis of this aspect might include an inquiry of concomitant and subsequent changes in the environment of schools in a situation of competition and/or collaboration.

Free school choice. Principals were asked whether their schools were in the realm of free school choice, i.e., whether parents and pupils may choose which school to attend or whether they have to attend a predetermined school in their neighbourhood. Here, the type of education system seems not to be of relevance since in all groups the percentage of schools in the realm of free school choice vary (see figure 10, section Access). Nevertheless, in six out of eight countries the percentage is above the total average; only in two countries was the percentage below it: in France (49%) and in Poland (24%). France is currently reforming the school zoning system and a controversial debate is going on currently over the positive and negative effects of free school choice. Poland also has a school district arrangement – i.e., pupils attend the school in their neighbourhood – but the system seems to respond rather flexibly to parents’ request to attend a different school. Free school choice policies also have an impact on access of pupils to education (see section on Access), also in the context of comprehensive systems, as it has been revealed only recently in a study concerning the application of the school choice policy in Finland (Seppänen, Rinne & Sairanen 2012).

Right to select pupils. Not all schools have the possibility to control pupils’ influx; for this reason, principals were asked whether their schools had the administrative right to select pupils. The figure below shows the percentage of schools that are allowed to select pupils. The type of school system does not seem to have significance, since countries vary a lot. France, Slovenia and Italy – each grouped in a different type of system – stand out with rather low percentages. The Netherlands stand out with the highest percentage of principals reporting the being allowed to select pupils. When looking at the criteria for selection, three main aspects stick out: grade point average, having siblings in school and the proximity of residence (see also section on Access). As grading is used most for selection the question arises as to the effects of this regulation as this may have a segregating effect; this issue cannot be discussed further here and will be pursued in further analyses.

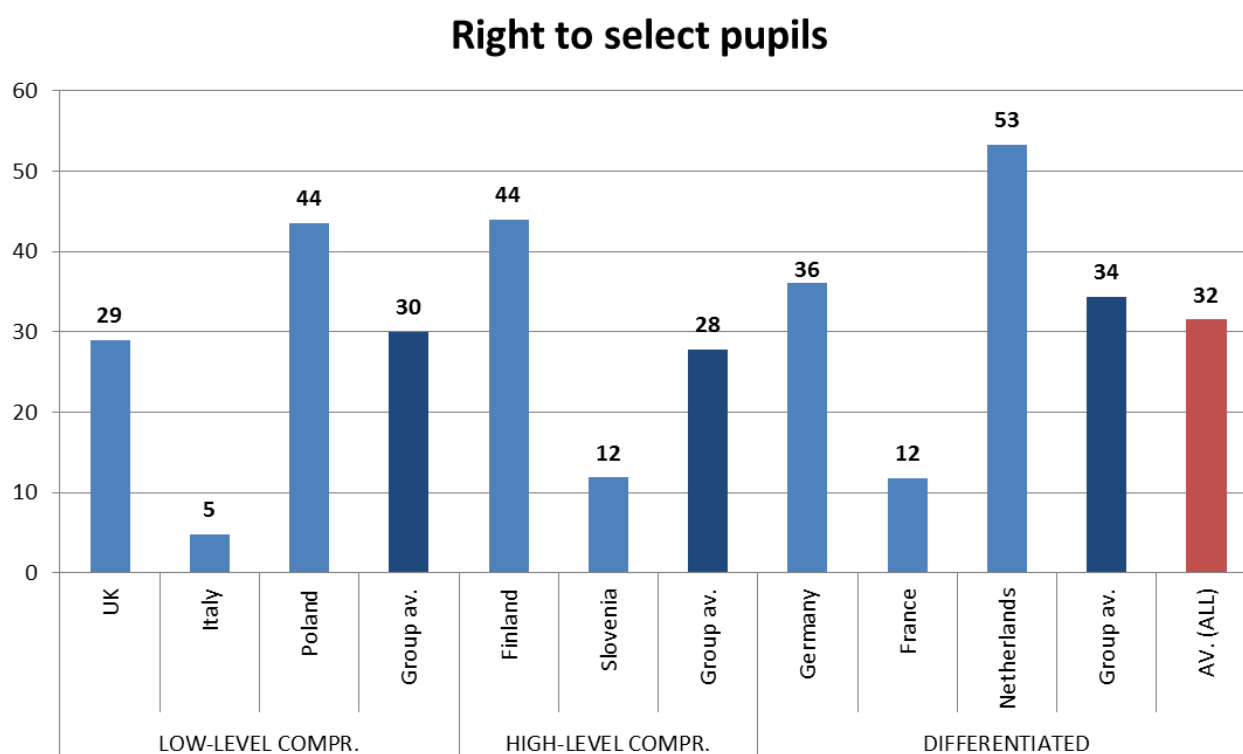


Figure 8. Right to select pupils. Percentages.

Monitoring of pupils' later educational stages. The monitoring of the later educational stages of pupils might be included as one aspect of school governance as it throws light on whether principals are aware of their role in preparing students for their entire educational trajectories or focus only on the current educational phase; it provides hints at whether and how principals have the necessary information to make decisions on what kinds of support, foci on school subjects and the like their students may need in order to be adequately supported in their educational trajectories and thus cope with educational requirements.

As this aspect has been discussed in more detail in the section on Life Course, suffice it to highlight here that – irrespective of the type of education system – on average 68 % of principals reported that they monitored the later stages of their pupils in one way or another; however, there are great variations ranging from 28 % in Germany to 92 % in the Netherlands. Except for Germany, and to some extent for the UK, monitoring pupils' educational trajectories appears to be an important aspect of governance for the principals surveyed (see: section on Life Course for the different ways of monitoring).

Decision-making power. School principals in GOETE countries have varying degrees of power to which they can decide on school matters. A Eurydice document reporting different policies and measures on school autonomy states that:

“[A] detailed analysis of the autonomy granted to schools for the management of financial and human resources reveals that some countries allow more autonomy than others and, similarly, autonomy is likely to be given to schools in some specific areas of activity rather than in others.” (Eurydice 2007, 27)

Thus, decisions taken within schools are influenced by the nature of the decision and different dimensions of decision-making power can be distinguished: teaching methods, personnel recruitment, curriculum, pupil admission requirements and financial decisions. In one question battery, principals were asked to what extent they could affect a number of decisions in their schools in relation to central authorities.

When grouping the countries according to types of education systems, differences in principals’ perceived decision-making power become visible; however, most importantly, there was also great variation among the countries within each group (see Table 13). Differences cannot be explained with reference to types of education systems and need to be viewed against the background of other variables, for instance institutional factors such as level of centralization of education policy/administration.

Table 13. Principals’ perceived decision-making power. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Grou p Av.	FI	SL	Grou p Av.	DE	FR	NL	Grou p Av.	
Financial matters	3.4	1.7	3.4	2.9	3.6	2.5	3.1	2.1	2.3	3.6	2.7	2.9
Personnel recruitment	4.1	1.1	4.5	3.4	4.3	4.1	4.2	2.8	1.7	4.1	2.9	3.4
Admission requirements	3.1	1.8	4.0	3.2	2.7	2.4	2.6	3.1	1.7	4.2	3.0	3.0
Teaching methods	4.4	2.7	4.2	3.8	3.5	4.0	3.7	4.1	2.2	4.6	3.7	3.7
Curriculum	4.3	2.6	4.0	3.6	3.5	2.7	3.1	2.7	1.4	4.5	2.9	3.2

Generally speaking, if we look at the total means, principals considered to have the least power in financial matters and the most regarding teaching methods. In the Netherlands, for all decision-making areas principals reported higher levels of influence than the group and total averages, one way of interpreting this might include taking into account the level of implementation of educational governance and the share of the private sector (77 %). While policy-making processes in the Netherlands are rather centralized, their implementation is decentralized. In Italy and in France the principals seem to be especially disillusioned about their decision-making power, with the means ranging throughout all the dimensions approximately in the neighbourhood of 1-2.5 in these countries (total scale being 1-5).

The importance of different decision-making areas. After asking principals to report on their perceived level of influence on decision-making, they were asked into rank the three most important areas of decision-making. Table 10 shows the percentages of the respondents ranking each area as the most important one.¹⁸ In general, there was quite little variation between countries regarding the perceived importance of the decisions. Despite the fact that principals generally considered financial matters most often to be outside of their scope, they did place this issue among the most important ones (see Table 14). Personnel recruitment was generally considered the most important decision-making area for principals with 51.2 % of the respondents choosing it as the number one. This was the case in every country, except in France and Slovenia where teaching methods were considered as a more important area of decision-making.

Table 14. Perceived importance of various decisions. The share of respondents choosing each issue as the 1st choice by country/country category. Percentages

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				<i>Av. all</i>
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	GER	FR	NL	Group av.	
Personnel recruitment	47.1	65.2	46.6	52.6	58.2	36.4	47.8	67.3	33.7	50.9	51.8	51.2
Teaching methods	37.5	28.9	32.6	32.0	17.6	43.0	34.0	37.5	48.6	25.2	37.2	34.6
Financial matters	11.8	27.3	35.3	30.7	18.3	26.7	23.0	13.3	28.8	32.6	26.3	27.0
Curriculum	24.0	24.6	20.0	22.4	23.6	29.0	26.1	26.2	31.9	30.6	30.3	26.7
Admission requirements	50.0	36.1	18.3	25.2	33.3	25.9	28.2	18.2	19.0	26.1	21.7	23.9

The influence of various actors on decisions made in the school. Looking at total means in Table 15, principals generally do still consider themselves the influential actors regarding decisions in school, despite the variation between the decision-making areas, discussed earlier. It is difficult to interpret this finding, since principals also reported differing levels of influence over school matters vis-à-vis other authorities. The only country, in which principals consider other actors to be more influential than principals, is Italy. Principals in Italy consider local, regional and state authorities to have more influence on school issues than the principals themselves. The next most influential actors, according to the principals, are teachers, with a total mean of 3.8 across all countries. Here again, Italy differed quite clearly from the rest of the countries, with an average of 2.88.9. Pupils (including pupils’

¹⁸ Thus, the percentages of the different areas do not sum up as 100 %. Instead, within each decision-making area, the percentages for 1st, 2nd, 3rd and empty responses sum up as 100 %.

council) and their parents were considered to have clearly less influence than the school personnel. In the UK, pupils were considered to have more influence on decisions in school than in the other countries. State authorities were considered to be the next most influential actors after the school staff, and also local/regional authorities were considered quite influential. Other schools, sponsoring companies and religious groups had the least influence according to the principals.

In the context of the GOETE research, an important further analysis relates to the role of pupils and parents in the governance of schools and their modes of participation in school affairs.

Table 15. Influence of different actors on decisions in school. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	U K	IT	PL	Group Av.	FI	SL	Group Av.	DE	FR	N L	Group Av.	
Principal	4.6	3.1	4.6	4.2	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.7	4.4	4.3
Teachers	3.9	2.9	4.0	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.9	3.8	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.8
School board	4.2	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.6	4.3	3.9	3.3	3.0	4.0	3.5	3.5
State authorities	3.5	4.0	3.3	3.5	3.2	4.1	3.7	2.2	3.7	3.2	3.1	3.4
Pupils' parents	3.6	2.5	3.4	3.2	2.7	3.6	3.1	3.2	3.0	2.6	2.9	3.0
Local authorities	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.1	2.9	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.8
Pupils' council	3.2	2.1	3.3	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.0	2.6	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.6
Pupils	3.4	2.1	3.1	2.8	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.0	2.2	2.6
Politicians	2.8	3.0	2.1	2.4	3.0	2.3	2.6	3.2	2.8	1.9	2.5	2.5
Regional authorities	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.0	2.6	2.1	2.4	2.8	1.7	1.4	1.9	2.4
Trade unions	2.3	3.1	2.2	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.2
Labour market (in general)	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.3	2.4	1.5	2.2	2.0	2.2
Media	1.8	2.8	–	2.5	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.0
Employers	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.0
Other schools	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
Sponsoring companies	1.6	2.0	–	1.9	1.4	1.9	1.7	2.1	1.6	1.2	1.5	1.6
Religious groups	1.9	1.7	–	1.8	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5

Student participation. After asking principals about the different actors involved in decision-making in schools, we posed the question as to various ways of student participation in school life. Data for Poland was not available for this question. According to principals' responses there are two main types of student participation in GOETE countries: *Student councils and Class representatives* (see: Table 16). Here, Finland and Slovenia stand out with very high percentages of respondents reporting diverse forms of student participation; the average of

both countries for ‘Students council’ is with 96,5 % much higher the total average 59,7 %. Also for ‘Student-led social and cultural activities’ the percentage for this group exceeds the total average substantially. It is interesting that ‘Class representatives’ in Finland is much less reported than in Slovenia; the same applies to ‘Peer tutoring’. Further, also the UK and Germany report high percentages for ‘Student councils’, with 89,5 % and 62,2 % respectively. Only for Italy the percentage for ‘Student councils’ is almost half of the total average; also in France and the Netherlands this form of student participation is reported less, with percentages around 40 % for both countries. In general, the figures for the Netherlands are lower than in all other countries.

Table 16. Ways of student participation in school life. Percentages and means, country and country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group Av.	FI	SL	Group Av.	DE	FR	NL	Group Av.	
Class representatives	63,2	45,7	-	50,3	41,0	96,0	86,7	86,6	47,4	20,1	47,5	53,4
Student councils	89,5	34,3	-	49,0	96,0	97,0	96,5	62,2	40,1	40,8	46,4	59,7
Peer tutoring	52,6	45,7	-	47,6	16,0	30,7	23,4	32,8	44,1	27,8	34,8	34,2
Peer conflict mediation	39,5	26,7	-	30,1	61,0	30,7	45,8	48,7	17,8	14,2	24,8	31,1
Student-led social and cultural activities	57,9	32,4	-	39,2	82,0	83,2	82,6	44,5	21,1	37,3	33,6	47,2

Tasks of the student council. Against the background of the findings for the previous question, it is interesting to look at what kinds of tasks are attributed as important to students’ councils in the GOETE countries. Principals were given a number of tasks to choose from and rate their importance for students councils – 1 = not at all to 5= very important. Table 13 presents the responses. Looking at the responses according to country it becomes visible that there is a high degree of variation. In a similar way as with the question above (ways of student participation), country category does not provide a consistent frame to interpret the differences; it seems more that the form of participation available plays a more important role.

‘Organising social activities’ appears as the highest rated task for student councils with an average rate of 3,61, whereas there is some variation, with rates ranging from 2,32 for the Netherlands and 4,12 for Poland. ‘Conflict resolution’ comes next with a total mean rating of 2,57, followed by ‘Management issues’ which are reported as important for students councils mostly in the UK (mean rating of 3,06) and least in Germany with 1,47 – while Italian

principals also rate this task comparatively higher than others, mean at 2,78. ‘Disciplinary issues’ are rated above total average (2,14) only in Slovenia (3,17) and Italy (2,55). ‘Curricular issues’ have the lowest ratings in all countries (total mean 2,06), with the exception of the UK where the average rating of this task is 3,06.

Table 17. Tasks of student councils. Means, country and country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>					<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>					<i>Av. all</i>	<i>St. dev.</i>
	UK	IT	PL	Gr oup Av.	St. dev.	FI	SL	Gr oup Av.	St. dev.	DE	FR	NL	Gr oup Av.	St. dev.		
Conflict resolution	2,44	2,54	2,62	2,59	1,205	2,23	3,24	2,73	1,214	3,29	2,75	1,59	2,45	1,452	2,57	1,307
Organising social activities	3,26	3,45	4,12	3,91	1,102	4,26	3,93	4,09	,948	3,64	3,21	2,32	2,98	1,474	3,61	1,315
Management issues	3,06	2,78	2,22	2,41	1,133	2,16	2,29	2,23	,960	1,47	2,44	1,93	1,88	1,096	2,17	1,099
Disciplinary issues	2,03	2,55	2,25	2,26	1,118	1,71	3,17	2,45	1,249	1,92	2,15	1,57	1,81	1,026	2,14	1,151
Curricular Issues	3,06	2,61	2,17	2,35	1,218	2,66	1,86	2,27	,984	1,70	1,50	1,60	1,61	,938	2,06	1,114

In sum, the responses to the question above show that there is a rather high variation of the importance of different duties for students’ councils in the GOETE countries. Mostly, tasks not directly connected to school governance, namely ‘organising social activities’ are seen as important. The question arises as to the possibilities of students to exert influence of how the school every day life is organized and particularly on management and curricular issues that have most effect on how students perceive education as accessible and relevant and thus manageable.

One of the major areas of activity of school principals relates to teachers and teaching arrangements. For this reason, the GOETE principals’ survey selected a number of questions pertaining to these issues that aimed at providing some insight into the topic.

Right to recruit teachers. Principals were asked to which extend – rating from 1 =not at all to 5 = totally) they had the power (administratively) to influence the hiring of teachers. This area of decision-making was expected to be named as an important one, and as seen above, most principals surveyed stated that for them the most important area of decision-making is personnel recruitment. Figure 9 below shows a heterogeneous picture when looking at types of education systems; in all types answers vary substantially. Looking at countries, Italy stands out as no principals stated having administrative power to totally influence the recruitment of teachers and 94 % of respondents responded they have no right at all to recruit

teachers. The situation in France is very similar, where 86 % of principals stated having no influence at teacher hiring processes, followed by Poland with and 68 %. Finland, Slovenia, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom come next with percentages ranging from 42 to 45 % of principals totally influencing the recruitment of teachers. The responses from Germany and the evident variability of influence on teacher recruitment may be interpreted against the background of the different regulations across the research sites.

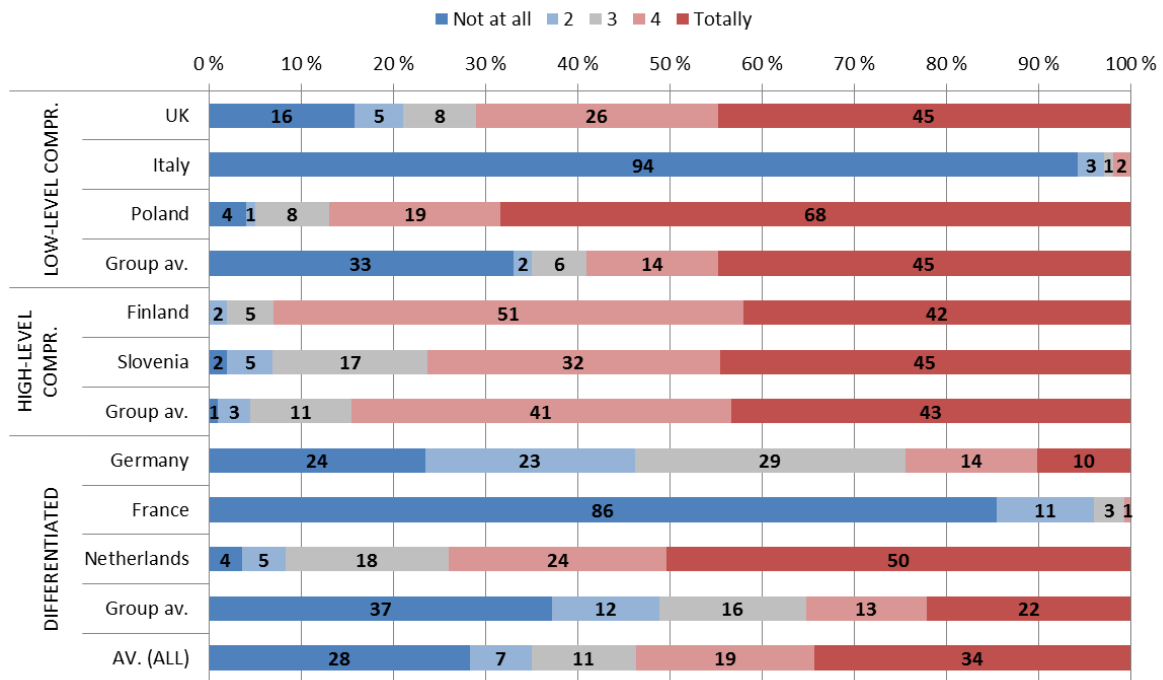


Figure 9. Right to recruit teachers.

Factors affecting teachers' recruitment. Looking at the factors affecting teachers' recruitment (Table 18), principals considered social skills by far the most important single criterion. The highest mean average (4.49) was found in Finland, but overall the differences regarding this issue were quite small. The next most important aspects were considered the level of qualifications and work experience, which is hardly surprising. Also references were considered important, especially in the UK. In regard to the GOETE research focus, special attention to the knowledge and skills related to multicultural issues of prospective teachers might throw some light to particular attention being paid to the different groups of pupils and their different needs; here the average mean is 3.0, ranking third in the overall and showing the presence of the topic among the important criteria for teacher hiring. Gender, age and wage claim were all considered quite unimportant across all the countries (wage claim was not asked at all in Germany, though). What can be considered slightly surprising is that the place of study, where the teacher's degree had been completed, was considered almost equally

unimportant. There are, after all, considerable differences between universities and their status. (see also: Report on Teacher Education Comparison in Work Package 3).

Table 18. Factors affecting teachers' recruitment. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Qualifications	4.0	3.1	4.8	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.4	3.4	3.5	4.1	3.8	4.2
Social skills	4.3	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.5	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2
Work experience	3.9	3.4	3.4	3.5	4.0	3.3	3.7	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.4
References	4.1	2.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.6	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.2	3.4
Multicultural skills	2.7	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.5	2.2	2.7	3.0
Place of study (institution/city)	2.5	1.8	2.8	2.7	1.7	3.1	2.4	1.5	2.1	2.6	2.2	2.4
Age	1.5	1.3	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.3	1.9	2.6	2.5	2.2
Gender	1.6	1.0	1.5	1.5	2.2	1.8	2.0	1.9	1.8	2.5	2.3	1.9
Wage claim	2.1	1.3	2.0	2.0	1.4	1.6	1.5		1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8

Satisfaction regarding teacher education Table 19 summarizes principals' opinions on teacher education. In the survey, the school principals assessed the teachers' education in respect to several areas: general knowledge base, subject-specific knowledge, developing social skills, teaching pedagogical skills, quality of teaching practice and the amount of teaching practice. Also such issues as skills to deal with pupils' problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants and dealing with (threat of) violence were included, among some other issues.

Table 19. Satisfaction of principals regarding teacher education. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Subject-specific knowledge	3.9	3.4	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.0	4.1	3.8	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.7
General knowledge base	3.8	3.1	3.6	3.5	4.0	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.3	2.9	3.2	3.4
Teaching pedagogical skills	3.7	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.5	2.9	3.2	3.5	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.0
Developing social skills	3.4	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.4	2.6	3.3	3.1	3.0
Quality of teaching practice	3.8	2.3	2.6	2.6	3.3	2.6	2.9	3.6	2.5	3.1	3.0	2.9
Amount of teaching practice	3.4	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.1	2.6	2.8	3.3	2.2	3.1	2.9	2.7
Practical relevance of teacher training in general	3.4	2.6	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.6	3.2	2.5	3.1	2.9	2.7
Intercultural knowledge	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.5
Institutionalised support given during first years of working as teacher	3.4	2.0	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.0	2.7	2.3	2.4
Skills to confront bullying	2.6	2.1	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.4	1.8	2.4	2.2	2.3
Dealing with (threat of) violence	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.4	1.6	2.2	2.1	2.2
Skills to deal with pupils' problems related to intoxicants	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2	1.5	2.3	2.0	2.1

If we look at the means across all countries, principals were most content with the subject-specific and general knowledge provided by teacher education. The highest grades for subject-specific knowledge (provided by teacher education) were given by the principals in Finland, Poland and Slovenia. Other areas of teacher education that the principals were most happy with, were the teaching of pedagogical skills and the developing of social skills. All of these are arguably among the most important areas of teacher education. In the UK, principals rated the ‘practical relevance of teacher training in general’ and ‘institutionalised support given during first years of working as teacher’ rather high (3.4 for both); apart from Germany and the Netherlands, where the practical relevance of teacher education was rated 3.2 and 3.1 respectively, principals in all other countries seem less satisfied with these aspects of teacher education. The teachers’ education regarding skills to deal with pupils’ problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants and dealing with violence was given the poorest assessment by the principals. This area of knowledge/skills was evaluated the lowest by the French principals.

Preparedness of teachers. The assessment of how teachers are prepared to work with pupils requiring help and support is a significant element in the analysis of how support provided to pupils is regulated. In the survey, the school principals were asked about their opinions concerning teachers' preparedness to work with pupils who need support, including pupils with special educational needs. There were questions regarding general knowledge of educational difficulties, awareness of mechanisms of educational difficulties in the context of the teachers' own school and local environment (Table 20). School principals had the opportunity to assess the following elements: teachers' skills related to individualised diagnostic of pupils' problems, skills related to differentiated and individualised teaching methods depending on the pupils' needs and skills related to counselling of students with school problems. Also, the principals' opinions regarding the teachers' abilities in guiding pupils and their parents regarding educational choices, as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students, were enquired in the survey.

Table 20. The school principals' opinions concerning the preparation of teachers for facing different kinds of challenges. Means.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				<i>Av. all</i>
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Individualised teaching methods	3.8	3.1	4.0	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.4	2.4	3.2	3.0	3.4
Individualised diagnostic skills	3.0	3.5	4.0	3.7	3.8	3.4	3.6	3.0	2.6	3.2	2.9	3.4
Counselling of students with school problems	3.0	3.0	4.0	3.6	3.9	3.5	3.7	3.2	2.3	3.2	2.9	3.3
Guidance of students and parents regarding educational choices	3.0	3.4	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.3	2.2	3.3	2.9	3.3
Awareness of mechanisms of educational disadvantage with regard to the own school	3.2	3.0	4.0	3.6	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.0	1.9	3.3	2.8	3.1
Vocational guidance and occupational orientation	2.2	2.9	3.6	3.3	3.1	3.3	3.2	2.9	2.1	3.2	2.8	3.1
Knowledge of structures of educational disadvantage in general	3.1	3.0	3.9	3.5	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.0	2.0	3.0	2.7	3.1

On average, the principals assessed the teachers' preparedness as satisfactory. However, it should be mentioned that on average in none of the surveyed countries principals assessed teachers' preparedness as good or very good. The most positive assessment was preparation in the field of 'individualised and differentiated teaching methods' and 'individual diagnostic skills'. Principals had the least positive opinion in respect to 'knowledge of structures of

educational disadvantages in general'. The difference between the highest and the lowest assessment was insignificant. In the surveyed group of countries, the most negative assessment in each evaluated category in regard to the teachers' preparedness was given by the principals in France. This is comprehensible when considering that issues related to pedagogical skills and teaching methods were regarded as the most important areas of decision-making while also being perceived as being least in the power reach of principals in the country. The highest average grades, although still not good, were received by principals in Poland, Finland and Slovenia.

One interesting further analysis pertains to a comparison of the finding related to teachers' 'knowledge of structures of educational disadvantages in general' in the principals survey with the findings of Work Packages 3 (teacher education) and Work Package 4 (pupils and parental surveys) as this may show a more differentiated picture.

Opinions concerning teaching in school. The principals were asked in the survey about their opinions concerning different orientations of teaching in schools (Table 21). The propositions related to diverging views on how to organize the teaching of different groups of pupils – those with difficulties and disadvantages, those more gifted, etc. – and the relationship among them. These teaching arrangements are deemed to have an important impact on educational trajectories, since they imply different ways of regulating access (selectivity), support (emphasis on particular groups), and relevance of education (see also section on Relevance). Generally, they disagreed with the statements related to outcomes of learning being the highest if all students of a single class are equal in their abilities or that if gifted and weak students are taught together, the gifted students are learning less. The principals also disagree with the opinion that exceptionally gifted students should be taught in special classes or that teaching should support in particular those students with difficulties. However, the principals in all countries supported opinions that if gifted and weak students are taught together, the weak students are learning better and that the children of working class families should be supported to get into higher education to a greater extent in the future. All in all, the answers corroborate to the picture shown by the question as to the main objective of schools, where equal treatment and support for the weakest pupils were generally rated higher than helping the most gifted to reach their full potential (see section on Relevance).

Table 21. The school principals' opinions concerning teaching in school. Means.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group Av.	DE	FR	NL	Group Av.	
1)	3.8	4.0	3.7	3.8	3.3	3.5	3.4	3.7	4.2	3.5	3.8	3.7
2)	3.1	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.8	3.5	3.5	3.6
3)	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.7	1.9	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.1	2.4	2.7
4)	2.8	2.4	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.4	2.3	2.8	2.5	2.7
5)	2.6	1.9	2.8	2.5	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.3	1.9	2.6	2.3	2.5
6)	2.4	1.6	2.1	1.9	2.5	2.8	2.6	2.1	2.4	1.9	2.1	2.2

- 1) Children of working-class families should be supported to get into higher education to a greater extent in the future.
- 2) If gifted and weak students are taught together, the weak students are learning better.
- 3) Teaching should support in particular those students with difficulties.
- 4) The outcomes of learning are the highest if all students of a single class are equal in their abilities.
- 5) If gifted and weak students are taught together, the gifted students are learning less.
- 6) The gifted students can reach their full potential only if they are taught separately.

4.3 Access

Pupil structure in schools. Table 18 introduces various indicators regarding pupil structure in schools. Regarding the gender balance, there are not very large differences between countries, with the lowest share of females in France (46 %) and the highest in Slovenia (53 %). In most countries the share of female pupils falls between 48–51 %, approximately.

The definition of "lower socio-economic background" was criticized by the principals in many countries. It cannot be taken for granted that the term has been understood exactly the same way in all the countries. The differences regarding the estimated share of pupils coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds were very large between countries, but these differences were in no way consistent across the types of systems. The difference between the shares of pupils coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds in particular countries may result from differing ways of understanding the concept of "lower socio-economic background". Some of the principals may have favoured the idea that "lower-socio-economic background" means coming from families with low level of education, of low social status. Whereas other principals may have shared a broader view of the concept including poor environments, unemployed families, immigrants' families, therefore their interpretation embraces also the occurrence of functional problems. In the surveyed sample, on average 28 % pupils come from lower socio-economic backgrounds (Table 22). The highest estimated

shares were in the UK (45 %) and Finland (44 %), while the lowest in Poland (19 %) and Netherlands (22 %).

Table 22. Pupil structure in schools according to selected criteria. Mean.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
% females	48.8	50.6	50.1	50.1	51.3	53.2	52.3	48.3	45.6	50.7	48.3	49.7
% lower socio-econ.	44.9	25.7	18.9	23.9	44.0	30.4	36.0	34.7	30.6	21.8	28.4	28.2
% free school meal	32.8	8.6	8.4	11.5	100.0	46.6	74.0	18.8	16.2	0.0	10.5	24.2
% immigrants	14.8	13.9	0.9	5.9	15.9	10.4	13.1	33.1	17.2	17.5	21.7	14.5
% retained in grade	0.3	5.1	2.9	3.3	0.6	1.9	1.3	4.8	2.4	3.2	3.4	2.9
% leave school mid-term	2.3	1.1	1.9	1.7	2.6	0.8	1.6	4.9	0.9	2.2	2.6	2.1

Most typically, the share of pupils coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds was estimated to be either between 1–10 % or over 41 % (Table 23). These were the largest categories. Approximately 11 % of the principals stated there are no pupils from lower socio-economic backgrounds at all in their schools. Particular countries show strong differences in respect to the share of pupils coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds. The highest shares of pupils coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds were observed in the UK and in Finland. In Poland and in the Netherlands the situation was different. Poland was characterised by the highest share of principals who stated that there were no pupils coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds (29 %), and a high share of schools with a low share of such children, i.e., 1-10 % (25 %). In the Netherlands, the latter mentioned category (1–10 %) was the largest with 45 % of the responses, while the category of schools without children from lower socio-economic backgrounds was small (9 %).

Table 23. The share of children from lower-socio-economic background among the school pupils (%).

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
None	10.5	5.1	29.0	20.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.0	9.0	8.7	8.1	10.8
1-10%	10.5	29.1	24.6	24.0	10.8	17.2	14.6	20.5	33.3	44.7	34.1	27.2
11-20%	7.9	16.5	15.3	14.7	12.3	20.4	17.1	14.5	11.8	15.5	14.0	14.8
21-30%	13.2	20.3	10.4	13.3	16.9	22.4	20.3	12.0	9.0	9.3	10.0	13.0
31-40%	7.9	10.1	5.5	7.0	12.3	17.2	15.2	36.8	5.6	6.2	7.1	8.5
Over 41%	50.0	19.0	15.3	20.7	47.7	22.6	32.9	36.8	31.3	15.5	26.8	25.8

The share of pupils not speaking the official language of the country as mother tongue was, by far, the largest in Germany with 33 % and the smallest in Poland with under 1 %. In most

countries the share of pupils with immigrant background was between 10–18 %. When looking at the categorised variable (Table 24), in 42 % of the schools the share of pupils with immigrant background was in the range of 1–10 %. This was the largest category overall. In Germany, 43 % of school principals stated that over 1/3 of the pupils come from immigrant families. In France and in the Netherlands the situation was the most varied: in both countries, the great majority of the schools (69 %) had at most 10 % of pupils with an immigrant background, while only 1/3 of the schools had more than 11 % of immigrant pupils.

Table 24. The share of children from immigrants' families among the school pupils (%).

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
None	18.4	7.8	79.4	50.0	6.7	25.8	16.3	5.9	25.4	16.5	16.5	27.6
1-10%	55.3	54.4	19.4	34.6	55.1	51.7	53.4	23.7	44.4	52.4	41.7	41.7
11-20%	7.9	22.2	0.0	7.7	15.7	3.4	9.6	13.6	4.9	7.9	8.5	8.4
21-30%	2.6	8.9	0.0	3.0	10.1	7.9	9.0	13.6	4.9	4.9	7.3	6.2
31-40%	2.6	0.0	0.6	0.7	3.4	4.5	3.9	11.0	2.8	3.7	5.4	3.6
Over 41%	13.2	6.7	0.6	4.0	9.0	6.7	7.9	32.2	17.6	14.6	20.5	12.6

Across all the countries, roughly 1/4 of all the pupils were estimated to receive a free or subsidized school meal. There were, however, strong differences between the countries in the shares of pupils who receive a daily school meal free of charge or subsidised (Table 16). Different solutions are applied in the countries in question. In some of them, daily school meals free of charge or subsidised are a form of support for children from poor families, while in the other ones, it is a universal solution and meals are catered for all pupils regardless of the material situation of their families. Thus, it varies from the universal solution consisting of meals catered for all the pupils in Finland, to paying (refunding) for one meal per day only for children from the poorest families in the Polish schools. As the catering of meals to all the pupils is a matter defined in legislature and there cannot be exceptions from it, this was not asked from the principals in Finland, but instead it was coded afterwards to the data as 100 %. After Finland, the highest number of pupils who receive a "daily school meal free of charge or subsidised" was found in Slovenia, where on average 47 % of the pupils receive a free school meal, according to the principals' estimates. The lowest shares of such pupils were observed in Poland (8 %) and in Italy (9 %). There is no such form of support in the Netherlands. In the surveyed sample of schools, on average 15 % pupils had a daily school meal free of charge or subsidised.

The differences in the estimated shares of pupils being retained in the grade were extremely large percentually, ranging from 0.3 % in the UK and 0.6 % in Finland to approximately 5 % in Italy and Germany. According to the principals, in over a half of the surveyed schools,

across all the countries, either there are no children with special educational needs among pupils or their share is very low (see Table 25). The low share of pupils with special educational needs (below 10 %) is most often observed in schools in Germany (85 %),¹⁹ Slovenia (82 %), France (73 %) and Italy (70 %). Simultaneously, the highest share of schools where pupils with special educational needs constitute over 1/3 of the total number of pupils is observed in the UK (26 %), Poland (17 %) and Finland (14 %). The observed differences may not be caused by actual differentiation of the population of pupils, but by different definitions of special educational needs.

Table 25. The share of children with special educational needs among the school pupils (%).

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
0-10%	23.7	70.2	39.6	46.5	41.8	81.8	62.6	84.7	73.1	51.2	67.8	59.4
11-30%	50.0	24.5	39.6	38.9	44.0	17.2	30.0	12.7	26.2	39.2	27.5	32.0
31% and more	26.3	5.3	16.8	14.6	14.3	1.0	7.4	2.5	0.7	9.6	4.7	8.6

The information significant for obtaining the full picture presenting the possibilities of the pupils' selection by schools is the fact that 74 % the surveyed primary schools, 62 % of lower secondary schools and 95 % of general upper secondary, as well as 98 % of vocational schools comprise the schools in the realm of free school choice where school districts are not obligatory (Table 26). The high share of primary schools with obligatory school zoning is observed in France (49 %), Germany (40 %) and Slovenia (35 %). The high share of district lower secondary schools is observed in France (67 %) and Slovenia (35 %). A significant share of district general upper secondary schools and vocational schools was observed only in France. In case of district schools, the deciding selection factor is the school's proximity to the student's place of residence.

¹⁹ In Germany, there are schools that cater only to pupils with special educational needs ('Sonderschulen'), which may explain the low rate for this question.

Table 26. The share of free choice schools among the surveyed schools (%).

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Primary	95.7	97.3	100.0	78.8	94.9	64.8	78.5	60.4	50.8	90.3	69.2	73.5
Lower Sec. General	73.3	97.2	19.3	45.2	91.9	64.8	74.1	96.9	33.3	86.7	82.1	61.6
Upper Sec. Vocational	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	93.1	66.7	87.9	89.2	94.7
Upper Sec.	-	100.0	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	80.0	-	90.9	98.0

Criteria used in the selection of pupils. The three most common criteria used in the selection of pupils, across all the countries, were grade point average, having siblings in school and the proximity of residence.

Table 27. Criteria used in the selection of pupils. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Grade point average	1.9	3.0	3.9	3.8	3.6	4.5	3.7	3.1	3.2	2.7	2.9	3.6
Siblings in school	4.6	3.9	3.2	3.3	2.5	3.1	2.7	4.1	3.5	3.2	3.5	3.3
Talent in a specific subject	1.9	3.6	3.5	3.4	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.3	1.0	2.8	2.5	3.1
Results of an aptitude test	3.2	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.3	1.8	3.0	1.8	1.5	2.9	2.4	3.1
Motivation to study	2.3	3.7	3.0	3.0	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.7	2.3	2.8	2.7	2.8
Proximity of residence	2.7	3.0	2.3	2.4	3.0	2.8	2.9	4.0	3.8	2.4	3.0	2.7
Social skills	1.8	3.1	2.7	2.7	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.6	1.7	2.4	2.4	2.5
Religion	2.0	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.7	1.9	2.4	2.2	1.6
Parents' financial standing	1.8	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.4
Parents' educational and occupational background	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2
Ethnic background	1.0	1.6	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3		1.7	1.6	1.2
Gender	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.2

In addition, the results of aptitude tests were highly emphasised in Italy, Poland, Finland and UK (in declining order based on the mean). Also, in Italy and Poland, talent in a specific subject was considered one of the most important criteria. In the same two countries, the important criterion for the selection of pupils was also their motivation to study (Table 19). Having a sibling in the school was considered very significant for the selection of pupils in schools in the UK, Germany, and Italy. The grade point average was stated as the most important selection factor for pupils' recruitment process in Slovenia, Poland and Finland.

Only in France, the most significant factor of pupils’ selection by the schools was the proximity of residence. Among the analysed pupils’ selection factors, also the results of an aptitude test were of significance, particularly in Italy, Poland, Finland and the UK. Simultaneously, it is the characteristic attribute of the recruitment process in the countries comprising the low-level comprehensive group. The pupils’ talents in a specific subject and their motivation to study are also taken into account in the same group of countries, particularly in Italy and Poland. In Slovenia, Germany and France the results of an aptitude test are of low significance.

There is no particular dominating factor of students’ selection observed in any of the surveyed countries. Most often, there were two or three factors of similar significance. According to the school principals, several factors that may be used as the selection criteria in the recruitment process were of little significance. Principals of the surveyed schools most often stated that they do not take into account such aspects as the parents’ educational and occupational background, their financial standing, the pupils’ ethnic background, their religion, gender and social skills.²⁰

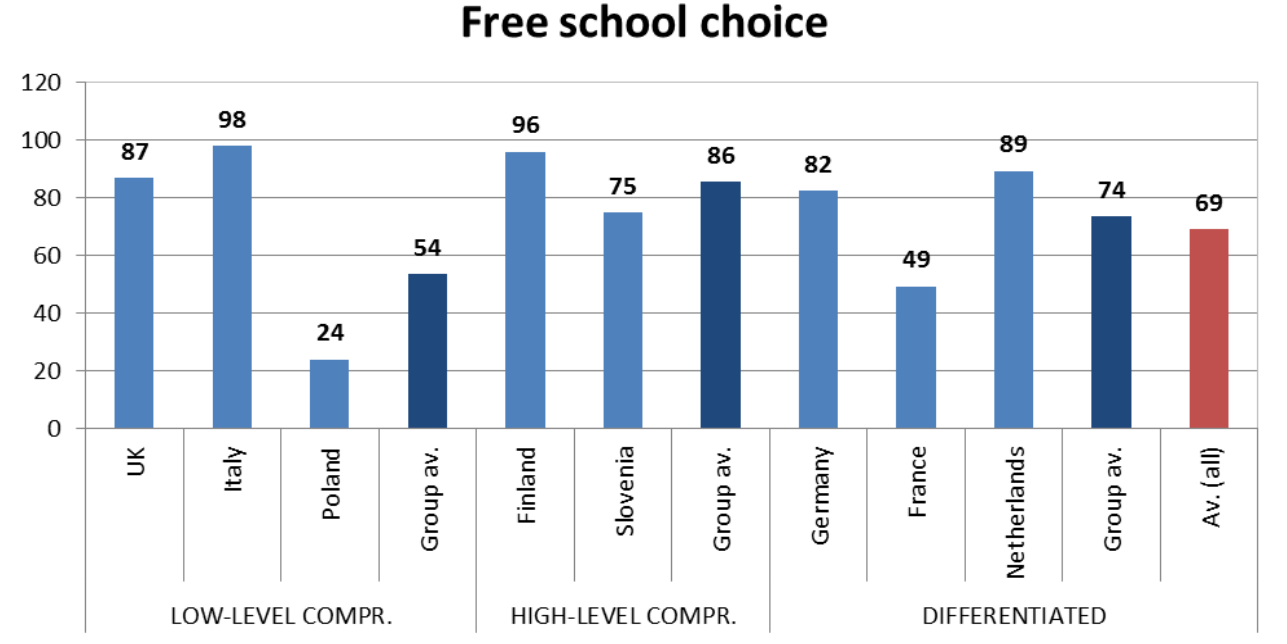


Figure 10. The share of free choice schools by country(%).

²⁰ It has to be noted, though, that taking into account some of these things would be downright illegal, and really could not be admitted by the principals, even if some of the things did have an effect. Asking those kinds of things via a formal survey may not have been the best solution.

Free school choice. Most principals of the surveyed schools declare that their schools are free choice schools (69%) (Figure 10). The freedom of choosing a school to the largest extent characterise schools in Italy (98%), Finland (96%) and the Netherlands (89%). The lowest number of school principals considered their school as free choice school in Poland (24%) and France (49%). The large differences in respect to this between schools in the surveyed countries are the consequence of solutions applied in particular education systems. The countries that impose school zoning have much fewer free choice schools, and more those where the zoning rules (school districts) are obligatory, i.e., schools are obliged to accept firstly the children living within the boundaries of the school district.

Factors affecting transition. Behaviour problems, mental health problems and family disinterest were among the issues that were most emphasised by the principals, when asked about factors affecting pupils' transition from one school level to the next. Generally, such "institutional" factors as the lack of places in the next educational level or the location of school were not considered very important, but there were differences between countries regarding these issues. Especially France differed here from the rest; these institutional factors were considered much more of a problem than in the other countries. In all surveyed countries, as the main problems affecting transition to the next school level most often were indicated: behaviour problems, family disinterest, problems in the family, mental health problems and learning disability. Lower socio-economic status of the family was mentioned much less often (Table 28). The obtained information indicates strong differentiation of the problems affecting transition to the next school level in Finland and Slovenia. It also shows a relatively obvious and clear situation in other countries confirming a general tendency.

Table 28. Factors affecting transition. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Behaviour problems	4.1	3.4	–	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.3	4.0	3.9	3.4	3.7	3.6
Learning disability	3.4	3.5	–	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.1	4.1	3.2	3.4	3.5
Mental health problems	3.8	3.4	–	3.5	3.6	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.4	2.7	3.5	3.5
Family disinterest	3.8	3.8	–	3.8	3.4	3.6	3.5	3.8	3.8	2.5	3.2	3.4
Problems in the family	4.1	3.6	–	3.7	3.4	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.6	2.7	3.3	3.4
Lower socioeconomic status of the family	3.2	3.0	–	3.0	2.3	3.2	2.8	2.8	3.4	2.2	2.7	2.8
Reputation of school	2.8	2.8	–	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.4	3.0	2.2	2.5	2.7
Problems with physical health or disability	3.3	2.7	–	2.9	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.6
Difficulties in obtaining a place of study	2.7	2.0	–	2.2	3.2	2.9	3.1	3.0	3.1	1.8	2.5	2.6
Pupils' use of intoxicants	2.1	2.9	–	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.5	3.6	1.6	2.4	2.6
Bullying in school	2.7	2.7	–	2.7	2.6	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.9	2.1	2.4	2.4
Lack of places in the next educational level in the neighbourhood	2.1	2.0	–	2.0	2.1	2.6	2.4	2.4	3.2	1.7	2.3	2.3
Migrant background	2.0	2.8	–	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.4	1.8	2.2	2.3
Location of school	2.1	2.1	–	2.1	2.3	2.6	2.5	1.7	3.0	1.8	2.1	2.2

4.4 Coping

Factors affecting coping and learning. When looking at the principals' opinions regarding factors affecting coping and learning (Table 29), problems in the family and behaviour problems are on top of the list. The mentioned problems were considered as the most important factors affecting coping and learning by the principals of the surveyed schools in the UK, Slovenia and Germany. Only in the opinions of the principals of Italian schools, pupils' immigrant roots were considered to have significance for the support provided by the school. The most important factor according to the Italian principals was family disinterest, however. The Polish, British and Slovenian principals also mentioned problems in the family as the most significant reason for pupils' need for support. Regarding pupils' use of intoxicants, there were quite clear differences among the countries. This issue was considered quite a considerable problem in France, Italy, Poland and Finland, but not so much in the UK and in the Netherlands. In France, as well as in Finland, mental health problems were listed as the Number 1 factor affecting coping and learning. Mental health problems was

another area in which the Netherlands (and to some extent, Slovenia) clearly differed from the rest of the countries – in most other countries mental health problems were ranked quite high among the factors affecting coping and learning. There were no such evidently dominant factors were found in the Netherlands as in France or in Germany. However, Dutch principals did rank behaviour problems and learning disability quite high, in relation to issues affecting coping and learning in school.

Table 29. Factors affecting coping and learning. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Problems in the family	4.2	3.9	4.4	4.2	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.3	4.3	3.4	3.9	4.0
Behaviour problems	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.8	4.3	4.4	3.6	4.1	4.0
Family disinterest	3.9	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.8	4.1	4.2	2.7	3.6	3.8
Learning disability	3.7	3.6	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.7	3.8	3.2	4.3	3.6	3.7	3.8
Mental health problems	3.7	4.0	3.6	3.8	4.1	3.2	3.6	4.1	4.4	2.9	3.7	3.7
Too large class sizes	2.9	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.1	2.8	2.9	3.3	3.8	2.8	3.3	3.2
Inadequate resources in school	2.8	3.5	2.8	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.3	2.6	3.0	3.0
Problems with physical health or disability	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.3	2.1	2.8	3.0
Bullying in school	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.5	2.3	2.9	2.9
Lower socioeconomic status of the family	3.2	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.3	3.2	2.8	3.0	3.5	2.5	3.0	2.9
Pupils' use of intoxicants	1.9	3.3	3.4	3.2	3.0	2.7	2.9	2.4	3.8	1.4	2.3	2.8
Migrant background	2.2	3.0	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.1	2.4	2.8	2.7	1.9	2.4	2.5

Preparation of pupils. Principals of the surveyed schools declared that both the principals and teachers undertake various actions targeted at preparing the pupils for transition into the next stage of education. The significant majority of the surveyed schools attempted at aiding their students in making the right choice organising various forms of support and counselling (Table 30). The most popular form of support is parental counselling. Among the surveyed schools as many as 79.4% organize such form of support. This form of aid is observed in all surveyed schools in Poland, and almost all schools in the Netherlands (95.3%) and Slovenia (93.1%). While in the UK (44.7%) and France (42.1%) less than a half of the surveyed schools declared such form of support. Very popular is vocational counselling for students. Over ¾ of the surveyed schools organizes this form of support. It is observed in almost all schools in Slovenia and Poland (95% in each country). It is also very popular in Finland and the Netherlands (90% in each country). Pupil career counselling is least often organized in France (35.5%). Visiting the school at the next level is often organized in Finland, Slovenia,

Italy and France. This form of support is least often reported in the Netherlands. Peer mentoring and visiting employment offices were much less often used form of support for pupils at the transition to the next level of education. It is difficult to comprehend how exactly the school principals are well informed about the state and possibilities of the peer mentoring. Only the principals of the surveyed schools in Poland (89.5%) and Finland (71.0%) assumed a positive impact of the peer mentoring. The most sceptic attitude towards this form of support characterised the principals of the surveyed schools in Slovenia (13.9%), Germany (14.3%) and the Netherlands (18.3%). It is evident that the surveyed schools have regarded visiting employment offices as marginal. According to Polish principals, no schools organize such support. In the Netherlands and Germany, it is treated as marginal. Visiting employment offices are most often organized in the UK (39.5%) and Finland (38.0%). Nevertheless, in all surveyed countries visiting employment offices was the least often organized form of support for pupils.

Table 30. Preparation of pupils. Crosstabulation. Affirmative responses (i.e. ticked choices in the questionnaire) by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Parental counselling	44.7	61.9	100.0	82.2	79.0	93.1	86.1	84.9	42.1	95.3	74.1	79.4
Pupil career counselling	42.1	79.0	95.5	84.5	90.0	95.0	92.5	72.3	35.5	89.9	66.4	78.0
Visits to next school	78.9	89.5	77.0	81.0	93.0	93.1	93.0	55.5	86.2	26.0	54.8	71.7
Peer mentoring	42.1	26.7	89.5	65.0	71.0	13.9	42.3	14.3	20.4	18.3	18.0	39.3
Visits to employment office	39.5	23.8	–	28.0	38.0	12.9	25.4	17.6	4.6	3.6	7.7	15.9

Usefulness of support measures. As "support measures", various professionals, services and more informal ways of supporting the pupils were listed. The means of the principals' responses are reported in Table 31.²¹ Looking at the means across all the countries, communication and co-operation with the parents was considered by far the most important support measure, followed closely by the school's student welfare (team) and anti-violence/anti-bullying policies. Also remedial instruction and the use of support pupils were considered important.

²¹ NOTE: "Not in use" responses have been excluded when calculating the means. The means of item "Anti-violence/anti-bullying policies" are based on a very low number of responses in France; there were only 7 respondents who responded something else than "Not in use".

General employment service, youth workers and youth psychiatry were the least appreciated support measures among the principals. (Municipal) social workers and child welfare were a bit more highly appreciated, but in general the professionals working outside school were considered considerably less useful than the ones working in schools (such as school psychologist, school nurse and school social worker).

School principals in most of the surveyed countries viewed homework classes in schools or other forms of extended school day as useful. In particular, school principals in Germany, the UK and Poland appreciated organization of this form of support for pupils. A significant number of principals of the surveyed schools valued school psychologist's work as useful support. Principals in Finland, Poland and the UK claimed the greatest significance to the support provided to pupils by the school psychologist. Principals in Finland, the UK and France appreciate the support actions carried out by the school nurses. The significance of the support provided by a school nurse was assessed as very low by the principals in Italy and Slovenia. Principals in all the countries, excluding the Netherlands, assessed the role of health/anti-intoxicant policies as moderately useful.

Table 31. Usefulness of support measures. Means by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Grou p av.	FI	SL	Grou p av.	DE	FR	NL	Grou p av.	
Communication and co-operation with parents	4.6	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.4
Remedial instruction	3.9	3.9	4.4	4.2	4.6	4.7	4.6	3.4	4.0	3.7	3.7	4.0
Student welfare team	3.0	3.6	–	3.4	4.7	4.3	4.4		3.9	2.9	3.4	3.6
Part-time special education	2.9	2.3	–	2.5	4.2	4.3	4.3	3.7	4.1		3.9	3.6
Use of support pupils	2.8	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.4	4.2	3.8	3.8	3.3	3.9	3.6	3.6
Policies related to anti-violence/anti-bullying	3.7	3.8	3.5	3.6	3.8	2.9	3.4	3.8	4.7	3.5	3.6	3.6
Homework classes or other forms of extended school day	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.0	2.7	3.9	3.2	4.2	3.3	2.8	3.3	3.5
School psychologist	3.4	3.7	4.2	4.0	4.2	3.6	3.9	2.9	3.7	2.4	3.0	3.5
Special education classes	3.5	1.6	–	2.0	3.1	3.7	3.4	3.0	4.4		3.9	3.3
Policies related to health/anti-intoxicants	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	2.9	3.4	3.7	3.5	2.0	2.9	3.2
School social worker	2.5	2.8	–	2.7	3.9	3.1	3.4	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.0	3.1
Preparatory education for immigrants	2.3	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.0	3.4	3.2	3.2	4.0	1.8	2.9	3.0
Municipal social workers (incl. child welfare support)	3.1	3.1	2.8	2.9	3.5	2.5	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.0
Work experience periods	3.2	3.0	2.5	2.8	2.6	3.9	3.2	3.3	3.2	2.8	3.0	3.0
School nurse	2.9	1.8	3.1	2.7	4.6	2.0	3.1	–	3.7	–	3.7	3.0
Policies related to intercultural issues/anti-racism	3.4	3.9	–	3.8	3.3	2.4	2.9	3.3	3.5	2.0	2.7	3.0
Shared personnel on different school levels	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.6	3.5	3.6	2.8	3.4	1.9	2.5	2.9
Youth psychiatry	2.8	2.7	3.0	2.9	3.7	2.5	3.1	2.9	3.1	2.3	2.6	2.8
Youth workers	2.5	2.9	–	2.8	3.5	2.4	3.0	2.8	3.6	1.9	2.7	2.8
Employment service	2.3	3.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	2.4	2.6	3.3	3.3	1.9	3.0	2.7

Principals of the surveyed schools in France appreciated the role of preparatory education for immigrants as useful measure of support. Whereas, principals in the Netherlands declared this type of support as only little useful. Similarly, principals of the surveyed schools characterised extreme opinions regarding usefulness of special classes. For the principals in France and UK, this kind of support provided for pupils is very positive. Principals in Italy considered that special classes were of very little use. Support for pupils and part-time special education was most appreciated by the principals in Slovenia. The support provided by youth workers, youth psychiatry and employment service were assessed as having moderate significance by principals. Actions related to inter-cultural issues and anti-racism policies obtained the highest opinion in respect to their usefulness in Italy and the UK.

Principals of the surveyed schools decidedly more positively assessed the usefulness of actions initiated inside schools by their specialist personnel and long-term policies carried out by schools and targeted at solving particular problems.

The use of special education classes was one of the support measures among which there were considerable differences across countries. In this case, the use of special education classes was quite highly appreciated in most countries, except in Italy, where principals did not rank special education classes highly at all.

External support. The external support measures utilised by families were asked in the questionnaire using an open question. These open questions were examined and categorised using dichotomous variables. The resulting dimensions are examined in Table 32. External support varied strongly in the surveyed countries. The differences are caused by both the different educational systems, as well as by the parents' attitudes (approaches) towards supporting their children. The most popular form of support was support for learning parenthood, etc. from experts/officials (49,9%), seeking information of schools at the next level, e.g., from the Internet (14,4%) and private teaching, tutoring outside school (13,4%). The first of the mentioned elements had a dominant meaning in the UK (80%), Poland (66.7%), the Netherlands (47.8%), France (46.4%) and Italy (34.6%) was support for learning, parenthood, etc. from experts/officials. In Slovenia, Netherlands and Finland, the principals most often mentioned as the popular form of support seeking information of schools at the next level, e.g., from the Internet (respectively 53.8% and 29.7%). According to the principals of the surveyed schools in Poland, the students do not receive external support regarding seeking information concerning the schools of the next (higher) level. In Germany as the most significant support was mentioned private teaching, tutoring outside school (45%). This kind of support was also significant in France (39.3%) and Italy (26.9%); whereas it was entirely insignificant in the UK and the Netherlands. Economic support was insignificant in Germany, France, the Netherlands, Finland and the UK. However, economic support was a very significant factor in Poland (54.4%). The support of the third sector was insignificant in Finland and Solenoid, whereas it was often mentioned as significant in the UK.

Table 32. External support. Crosstabulation. Affirmative responses (i.e., the topic mentioned in the open question) by country/country category.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Gro up av.	FI	SL	Gro up av.	DE	FR	NL	Gro up av.	
Support for learning, parenthood, etc. from experts/officials ²²	80.0	34.6	66.7	60.7	2.7	38.5	17.5	37.5	46.4	47.8	43.7	49.9
Economic support	0.0	5.8	54.4	42.4	0.0	3.8	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.1
Seeking information of schools at the next level, e.g., from the Internet	10.0	23.1	0.0	5.1	29.7	53.8	39.7	22.5	12.5	39.1	21.0	14.4
Private teaching, tutoring outside school	0.0	26.9	1.5	6.6	2.7	3.8	3.2	45.0	39.3	0.0	33.6	13.4
Support from third sector	40.0	3.8	15.4	14.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.5	16.1	13.0	12.6	11.6
Other external support	0.0	5.8	9.7	8.6	18.9	15.4	17.5	10.0	12.5	8.7	10.9	10.5

Learning in school. The school principals were asked in the survey about their opinions concerning their approaches and methods of teaching (Table 24). The principals did not agree with four of six presented statements. On average, they disagreed with the opinions that the outcomes of learning are the highest if all students of a single class are equal in their abilities, or that if gifted and weak students are taught together, the gifted students are learning less. The principals also disagree with the opinion that exceptionally gifted students should be taught in special classes or that teaching should support in particular those students with difficulties. However, the principals in all countries supported opinions that if gifted and weak students are taught together, the weak students are learning better and that the children of working class families should be supported to get into higher education to a greater extent in the future. The further results present the attitude of school principals towards pupils. On average, principals agreed with the statement that in the schools they manage, teachers pay adequate attention to the preparation of students for later educational (or vocational) choices and that the gifted pupils receive more difficult exercises (Table 33). In particular, school principals in Germany, Poland, Italy and Slovenia agreed with this opinion. The principals' opinions indicate that teachers in their schools characterise similar attitudes towards the issues of educational difficulties, while pupils' workgroups in school are not arranged according to performance of students.

²² E.g., from municipal social sector, private sector.

Table 33. The school principals' opinions concerning teaching in school.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Gro up av.	FI	SL	Gro up av.	DE	FR	NL	Gro up av.	
The outcomes of learning are the highest if all students of a single class are equal in their abilities	2.83	2.37	3.0	2.79	2.82	2.73	2.78	2.39	2.35	2.78	2.53	2.67
If gifted and weak students are taught together, the gifted students are learning less	2.58	1.89	2.81	2.51	2.87	2.88	2.88	2.25	1.89	2.61	2.48	2.48
The gifted students can reach their potential only if they are taught separately	2.40	1.57	2.06	1.95	2.49	2.79	2.64	2.08	2.44	1.94	2.18	2.18
Teaching should support in particular those student with difficulties	2.89	3.01	2.96	2.97	3.67	1.88	2.76	2.64	2.52	2.12	2.67	2.67
If gifted and weak students are taught together, the weak students are learning better	3.06	3.79	3.71	3.66	3.59	3.30	3.44	3.08	3.85	3.52	3.55	3.55
Children of working-class families be supported to get into higher education to a greater extent in the future	3.84	4.02	3.74	3.83	3.27	3.49	3.39	3.66	4.22	3.47	3.72	3.72

Preparedness of teachers. The assessment how the teachers are prepared to work with pupils who require help and support is a significant element in the analysis on support provided for pupils. In the survey, the school principals were asked about their opinions concerning the teachers' preparedness to work with pupils who need support, including pupils with special educational needs. There were questions regarding general knowledge of educational difficulties, awareness of mechanisms of educational difficulties in the context of the teachers' own school and local environment (Table 34). School principals had opportunity to assess the following elements: teachers' skills related to individualised diagnostic of pupils' problems, skills related to differentiated and individualised teaching methods depending on the pupils' needs, skills related to counselling of students with school problems both with learning and behaviour. The survey subject comprised also the principals' opinions regarding

the teachers' abilities in the area of guidance of pupil's parents regarding educational choices, as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students.

Table 34. The school principals' opinions concerning preparation of teachers to face the following challenges.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				<i>Av. all</i>
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
Knowledge of structures of educational disadvantage in general	3.11	2.95	3.87	3.51	3.43	2.94	3.18	2.98	1.96	3.04	2.66	3.07
Awareness of mechanisms of educational disadvantage with regard to the own school/local context	3.16	3.04	3.96	3.58	3.16	3.10	3.13	3.04	1.90	3.32	2.76	3.13
Individualised diagnostic skills	3.03	3.52	3.97	3.73	3.80	3.39	3.59	2.97	2.55	3.24	2.93	3.35
Individualised and differentiated teaching methods	3.76	3.14	3.97	3.70	3.67	3.53	3.60	3.44	2.42	3.24	3.02	3.38
Counselling of students with school problems (learning and behaviour)	3.00	2.99	3.97	3.57	3.89	3.52	3.70	3.17	2.33	3.22	2.91	3.30
Guidance of students and parents regarding educational choice	3.03	3.42	3.80	3.60	3.48	3.55	3.52	3.32	2.16	3.33	2.94	3.29
Vocational guidance and occupational orientation	2.24	2.90	3.57	3.28	3.48	3.29	3.15	2.88	2.06	3.20	2.80	3.13

School principals on average assessed the teachers' preparedness as satisfactory. However, it should be indicated that on average in no one of the surveyed countries principals assessed teachers' preparedness as good or very good. The most positively was assessed preparation in the field of individualised and differentiated teaching methods and individual diagnostic skills. The principals had the least positive opinion in respect to knowledge of structures of educational disadvantages in general. In the surveyed group of countries, the most negative assessment in each evaluated category as regard the teachers' preparedness was given by the principals in France. The highest average grades although still not good received teachers in Finland, the Netherlands and Poland.

Table 35. Assessment of teachers' education concerning particular fields of knowledge.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Group av.	FI	SL	Group av.	DE	FR	NL	Group av.	
General knowledge	3.79	3.10	3.61	3.47	3.96	3.39	3.67	3.61	3.32	2.93	3.25	3.41
Subject-specific knowledge	3.86	3.42	4.07	3.84	4.07	4.04	4.06	3.76	3.44	3.06	3.38	3.68
Developing social skills	3.45	2.98	2.88	3.98	3.10	2.70	2.90	3.36	2.65	3.25	3.08	3.01
Teaching pedagogical skills	3.71	2.64	2.65	2.76	3.45	2.87	3.16	3.47	3.01	3.15	3.19	3.04
Quality of teaching practice	3.76	2.31	2.58	2.63	3.27	2.58	2.92	3.56	2.46	3.13	3.04	2.87
Amount of teaching practice	3.42	2.20	2.47	2.50	3.05	2.56	2.80	3.30	2.23	3.07	2.86	2.72
Practical relevance of teacher training in general	3.37	2.55	2.25	2.46	2.66	2.56	2.61	3.19	2.53	3.10	2.93	2.70
Skills to deal with pupil' problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants	2.34	2.03	2.24	2.19	2.21	2.28	2.25	2.17	1.52	2.26	2.00	2.12
Dealing with (threat) violence	2.34	2.04	2.32	2.24	2.11	2.25	2.18	2.43	1.65	2.19	2.07	2.15
Skills to confront bullying	2.61	2.14	2.48	2.39	2.34	2.19	2.27	2.37	1.76	2.41	2.18	2.27
Intercultural knowledge	2.50	2.54	2.65	2.60	2.59	2.65	2.62	2.59	2.15	2.42	2.38	2.51
Institutionalised support given during first years of working as a teacher	3.39	1.95	2.68	2.54	2.55	2.39	2.47	2.15	1.97	2.72	2.32	2.43

During the survey, school principals assessed the teachers' education in respect to several areas: general knowledge base, subject-specific knowledge, developing social skills, teaching pedagogical skills, quality of teaching practice, amount of teaching practice (Table 35). There was also obtained information on the teachers' education within the scope of: practical relevance of teacher training in general, skills to deal with pupils' problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants, dealing with (threat of) violence, skills to confront bullying, intercultural knowledge and institutionalised support given during first years of working as a teacher. The principals of the surveyed schools had the most positive opinion in respect to general knowledge base and subject-specific knowledge of teachers. The highest, good grades of subject-specific knowledge were given by principals to teachers in Finland, Poland and Slovenia. Whereas, the teachers' education regarding skills to deal with pupil' problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants and dealing with violence was given poorest

assessment by the principals. This area of knowledge was worst evaluated by school principals in France. Moreover, assessment of the teachers' education by school principals in France was lowest in respect to all surveyed fields.

4.5 Relevance

This chapter differs somehow from the rest in remaining inasmuch as discusses open-ended questions, and thus the analysis differs from the rest of the report. Relevance refers to the collective and individual meanings and functions of education in different contexts. That is, it relates how the different actors – principals, pupils, parents, among others - ascribe meaning to educational processes and to schooling, which has consequences for the governance of educational trajectories.

A question as to the main objective of schooling in modern societies was included in this part of the survey, as was a question battery on learning arrangements and on an assessment of the current situation in their own schools. Also, principals were asked about what they considered the most pressing current problems in school, about the most urgently needed reforms, about their opinions on the status of school in the society and, lastly, about the effects of the current (starting from approx. 2009, and still on-going at the time of the writing) economic crisis for the school. There was also a question regarding what the most important recent reforms have been, according to the principals. This question was omitted from the categorisation, however, because a large share of respondents had apparently misunderstood the question – many responses were comments regarding the success or problems of a certain reform, but the reform in question was left unmentioned. The written (text) responses were categorised afterwards. All responses were examined and central dimensions or issues were recognised from among the responses. These issues were then coded as dichotomous variables, so that if an issue was mentioned in the response, the variable was coded as 1, otherwise as 0. As some of the responses were fairly long and multiple issues were mentioned within a single response, the variables are over-lapping. There was naturally variation between countries, but approximately 1/3 of all respondents responded to the open questions. The percentages have been calculated from among these respondents who responded to the open questions. The categorisation is further explained in the Appendix, where examples of types of responses are given for each created category.

The main objective of the school. As the head of the school, the values held by the principal may have at least some effect on the way things are run in the school. The principals were

asked to rank, in order of importance, the main objectives of the school (see Figure X). The response options were "Supporting the pupils with special educational needs", "Focusing on all kinds of pupils equally" and "Helping the most gifted pupils to reach their full potential". These answer items represent different societal ideals concerning equality and equity as functions of the school; that is, a school that warrants equality of opportunities by supporting those with most difficulties, one that aims at optimizing outcomes for all regardless of differences or one that wants to help the group of the most gifted to maximize its potentials (creating an elite), while selecting pupils according to their performance levels. In modern societies equality is one of the highest ideals, so that it could be assumed that most principals would consider the equal treatment of all pupils the main objective of the school. This was indeed the case in most countries: In the UK, as many as 87% of the respondents considered equality the number one priority. Poland, France and the Netherlands were the only exceptions in which equality was not stated as the first main objective of the school by more than 50% of the respondents. In France, the principals were the most concerned about the weakest pupils, 68% of the French principals reported supporting the weakest pupils as their first priority. Looking at the other side of this continuum, the French principals were also the least keen on placing the helping of the gifted pupils as the main objective of the school, with exactly one (1) French principal giving this response (less than 1%). The Polish, Slovenian and Dutch principals were the most in support of the gifted pupils, with approximately 20% of the respondents in these countries giving this as the first objective of the school.

While no consistent relationship can be established, it could be conjectured that the responses somehow correspond to the types of education systems. In countries where differentiated, that is, tracked systems exist, a focus on those pupils most in need of support resp. equal treatment are highest in the perception of principals. In countries with comprehensive systems – both low and high levels – equality of treatment are highest, whereas Germany seems to be an exception in both cases. This could be explained with the fact that Germany's education system is highly selective and has fallen into public criticism for its social selectiveness.

When discussing these findings in the light of the relevance of education addressed in this chapter, it may be argued that schools are seen as a means of achieving equality and equity in society. This perception may be viewed as a precondition for the support of disadvantaged groups of pupils. Inequality and inequity are arguably among the most pernicious social problems in the new millennium, in both industrialized and developing countries.

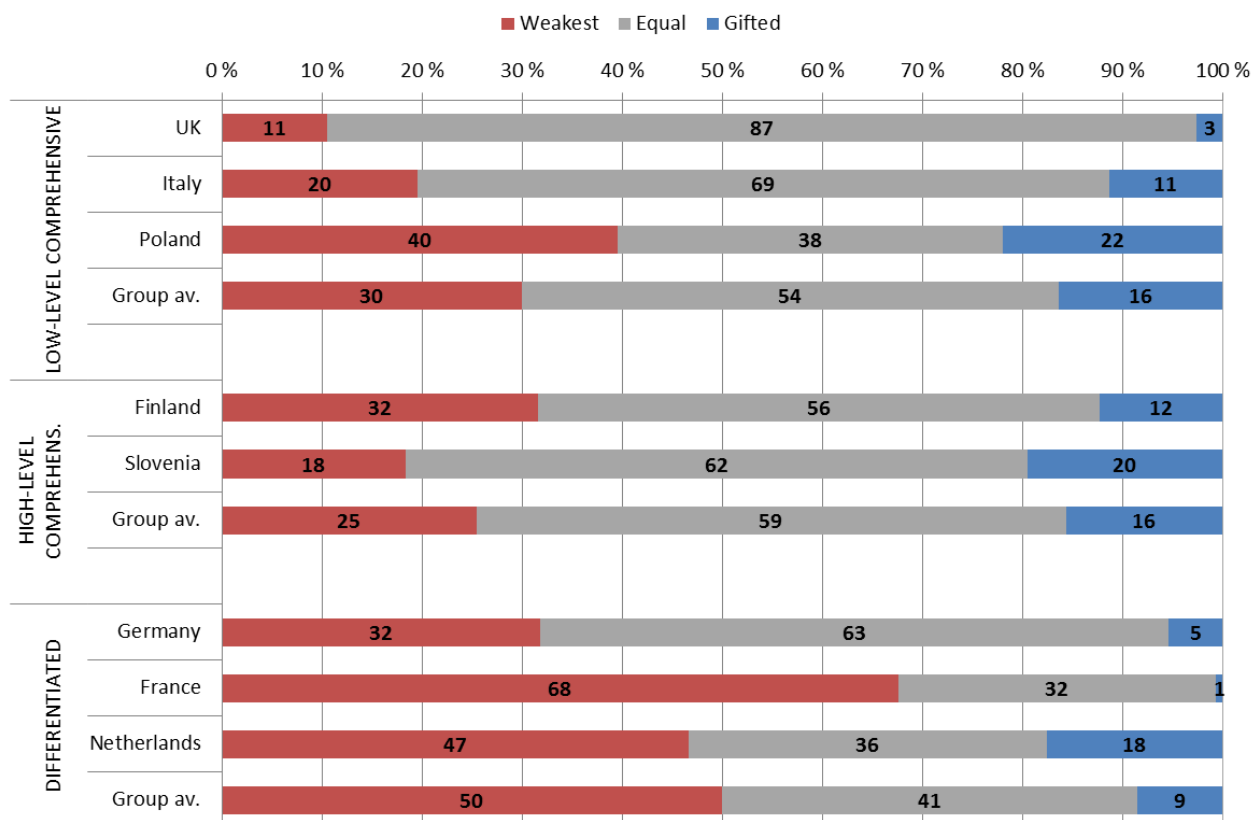


Figure 11. The main objective of the school (1st mentioned).

Learning arrangements in schools. This question aimed at providing a picture on the frequency of teaching-learning arrangements in schools – principals were asked to rate the arrangements listed from 1=hardly ever to 5=very often (Table 36). The differences in the responses among the three groups are rather small, and depending on the arrangement, the variation across the countries is also small, except for some, e.g., the use of the Internet in class (no. 11), used most frequently in the UK and least in France (total average is 3,30). Student-centred arrangements such as classroom discussion (no. 3) and group work (no. 4) are used very frequently, on average the rating was 3,82 and 3,84 respectively. But, teacher-centred arrangements such as students being asked questions (no. 2) are used very often (3,94 total average). Arrangements that hint at cooperation between schools and external actors are rated much lower, e.g., visit from experts from outside the school (no. 10), rated lowest with a total average of 2,89. In sum, one could conjecture that - very cautiously though – teaching-learning arrangements still follow very traditional lines in GOETE countries. Teacher-centred pedagogy seems very frequent, focused on (cognitive) content-transmission and recitation (nos. 1 and 2). This type of arrangement provides arguably less room for balancing pupils' needs, thus accommodating individual relevance to the official curriculum (societal relevance). Also, the use of new technologies (ICTs) – although not ranked lowest, with total

average rates of 3,30 (no. 11) and 3,26 (no. 12) – varies considerably among countries. ICTs are arguably an important part of youths’ everyday life and could be used as a means of integrating and motivating learners in the school. The latter aspect is deserving of further analyses that integrate data from the different GOETE Work Packages.

Table 36. Learning arrangements in schools.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>					<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>					<i>Av. all</i>	<i>St. dev.</i>
	UK	IT	PL	<i>Gro up Av.</i>	<i>St. dev.</i>	FI	SL	<i>Gro up Av.</i>	<i>St. dev.</i>	DE	FR	NL	<i>Gro up Av.</i>	<i>St. dev.</i>		
1)	4,00	3,61	3,21	3,42	1,064	3,81	3,10	3,45	1,071	3,50	3,66	3,46	3,54	,917	3,48	1,004
2)	4,68	3,77	3,99	4,00	,852	4,28	3,95	4,11	,792	3,69	4,17	3,61	3,82	,873	3,94	,857
3)	4,54	3,67	4,14	4,04	,775	4,11	3,74	3,92	,789	3,61	3,78	3,43	3,60	,907	3,82	,862
4)	4,57	3,43	4,09	3,94	,835	3,99	3,87	3,93	,762	3,96	3,51	3,71	3,71	,934	3,84	,873
5)	2,30	3,71	3,47	3,42	1,019	3,42	3,33	3,37	,850	3,59	2,92	3,22	3,22	1,000	3,32	,981
6)	3,76	3,27	3,73	3,59	,890	3,69	3,56	3,62	,773	3,41	3,41	3,48	3,44	,839	3,53	,848
7)	4,14	3,48	4,00	3,86	,881	3,84	3,58	3,71	,782	3,53	3,30	3,23	3,34	,974	3,60	,934
8)	3,43	3,40	3,57	3,50	1,100	3,72	3,93	3,82	,805	4,13	3,65	3,73	3,81	,827	3,71	,940
9)	3,24	3,26	3,78	3,56	,930	3,15	3,10	3,13	,719	2,68	2,74	3,58	3,06	,974	3,25	,940
10)	3,57	3,27	3,06	3,18	1,057	2,76	2,46	2,61	,899	2,67	2,90	2,77	2,79	1,005	2,89	1,028
11)	4,16	2,78	3,49	3,35	1,286	3,43	3,50	3,46	,765	2,97	2,60	3,85	3,19	1,240	3,30	1,180
12)	4,22	2,78	3,44	3,32	1,255	3,37	3,28	3,32	,899	3,17	3,21	3,14	3,17	1,191	3,26	1,162

1. Students sit and listen to the teacher.
2. Students are asked questions.
3. Students have classroom discussion.
4. Students work together in groups.
5. All students in class do the same work at the same time.
6. Students work individually.
7. Students are assigned projects where they can work together.
8. Students work on worksheets and activity sheets.
9. Students watch educational movies.
10. Experts from outside the school come and talk to students during lessons.
11. Students make use of the Internet in class.
12. Students make use of computers in class for other purposes than accessing Internet.

Situation in the surveyed school. In one battery, principals were asked to agree or disagree with several propositions. These statements aimed at providing a general insight on principals’ assessments of the current situation in their schools. It is worth noting that there is a thematic overlap with the chapter on Governance here, as the answers might also be interpreted from the perspective of how principals see their schools managing different aspects of school governance. Generally, the principals were of the opinion that in the schools they manage, teachers pay adequate attention to the preparation of students for later educational (or vocational) choices and that the gifted pupils receive more difficult exercises (See table 37). In particular, school principals in Germany, Poland, Italy and Slovenia agreed

with this statement. The principals' opinions indicate that teachers in their schools characterise similar attitudes towards the issues of educational difficulties, while pupils' work-groups in school are not arranged according to performance of students.

Table 37. The statements describing the situation in the surveyed school.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Gro up av.	FI	SL	Gro up av.	DE	FR	NL	Gro up av.	
Our school pays adequate attention to the preparation of students for later educational (or vocational) choices	3.19	4.08	4.21	4.06	3.79	4.0	3.89	4.25	2.93	3.51	3.55	3.81
In our school, gifted students receive more difficult exercises.	3.31	2.88	4.31	3.77	3.56	4.01	3.79	2.89	3.74	3.72	3.50	3.66
In our school workgroups are arranged according to performance of students	2.97	2.57	2.70	2.69	1.97	3.08	2.53	1.78	3.31	2.81	2.70	2.66
In our teaching staff there are totally different opinions with regard to dealing with educational disadvantage	2.58	2.49	2.19	2.32	2.97	2.71	2.84	2.71	3.42	2.45	2.84	2.66

Current problems. In the GOETE survey one question was added which aimed at providing an insight into the problems principals currently face in their schools. In the general public discourse, education is attributed a very high relevance. However, in our research process, many principals bemoaned that they face so many problems that make it difficult for them to comply adequately with their tasks. The question as formulated as an open-ended question so to give principals the most flexibility to address the full range of issues in the context of their own schools.

Table 38 shows the percentage of responses in which each problem category was mentioned. The lack of resources was considered overwhelmingly the most essential problem affecting school. Across all countries, almost half of the respondents mentioned something related to the lack of resources. This was particularly the case in the UK, in Italy and in Poland; the group of low-level comprehensive education systems were all above total average in naming lack of resources as a current problem.

Table 38. Current problems according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Gro up av.	FI	SL	Gro up av.	DE	FR	NL	Gro up av.	
Lack of resources	56.3	65.9	52.3	56.3	34.8	29.2	31.9	41.2	37.9	47.6	42.9	46.3
Problems stemming from school's catchment area	28.1	8.5	19.3	17.4	42.4	12.5	26.8	22.4	37.9	16.8	24.8	22.2
Co-operation with parents	15.6	12.2	20.8	18.0	16.7	25.0	21.0	14.1	22.3	18.2	18.4	18.7
Polarization of student base	12.5	7.3	22.8	17.7	10.6	13.9	12.3	12.9	9.7	12.6	11.8	14.2
Low level of teachers' expertise, teacher training	15.6	1.2	17.3	12.9	1.5	6.9	4.3	16.5	19.4	2.1	11.2	10.6
Problems related to curricula, teaching	0.0	15.9	5.6	7.7	7.6	1.4	4.3	1.2	5.8	11.2	6.9	6.8

Some of the responses were more general by nature, referring to "low budget", "lack of finances" or "inadequate resources", some were more detailed, such as the following response by a principal:

“Lack of IT equipment. Lack of space for physical activity. Playground surface unsuitable for some activities. School toilets required refurbishment. Roof needs repair. Classroom fabric requires upgrading.”

In relation to the lack of resources, also class size and the burden placed on teachers, which are directly affected by it, were often mentioned, as illustrated in the following quote:

“Workload of the teachers, having to account for everything on paper, too large classes.”

The polarisation of the pupils was considered the next most important issue with approximately 22 % of the respondents mentioning something related to growing differences among pupils. However, polarisation was considered much more of a problem in France (38 %) and in Finland (42 %). Issues mentioned in the responses included e.g., poverty, psychological disorders and the needs of the immigrant pupils. These kinds of issues make it difficult to take into account all pupils' needs. Lack of resources naturally makes the situation worse, and it was often mentioned together with the polarisation:

“Number of pupils per class and heterogeneity: It makes it difficult to personalize the teaching when there are 30 students per class. Characteristics of the students are sometimes hard to handle without any training (nomadic people)). Hardship to orientate pupils after primary school or during primary school, no room in specific institutes (medicalized school, therapeutic and pedagogical institutes,...),...). Pupils who do not belong to the mainstream education groups. The school building is in a poor condition, differences in immigrant pupils’ skills.”

Further, problems related to the catchment area and neighbourhood of the school were emphasised most in Poland, with 23 % of the respondents mentioning this issue, compared to about 7–14 % in the other countries. Problems placed in this category included e.g., unemployment, poverty and generally dysfunctional families. Schools located in this kind of areas often also have problems with attracting enough pupils²³, as mentioned for example in the following response:

“Declining pupil rates. Parents’ helplessness and lack of parenting skills. Ill-being of small children.”

However, when schools are officially recognised by the government as a "problem school" it may, in the end, be advantageous for the school in the form of extra resources. In this sense, the schools which do have problems but which are not quite bad or publicised enough to be officially recognised as such, are in the worst situation:

“Redefine school and its objectives and explain it to students and parents. We are not labelled by the government as a very problematic school however the population hosted is really hard. Students don’t benefit from any supplementary government projects or help. Teachers don’t receive accurate pieces of advice.”

On average, problems related to co-operation with parents were fairly common, with the exception of Italy, Finland and the Netherlands, in which only around 1–2 % of the respondents mentioned this as a problem. Problems related to co-operation included, on the one hand, indifference of parents towards their child’s education, which may often be related to parents’ own problems:

“Low social and economic status of parents, danger of pathologies and social maladjustment, low parents interest in their children achievement and behaviour.”

On the other hand, a demanding "customer"-type mentality, which may be more typical of educated, middle-class families, was considered a problem in many responses:

“Cooperation with parents – they are very demanding, they think that the school should motivate their children to work in such way that the child obtain better results without any effort.”

²³ This depends on the system used in the allocation of pupils into schools.

Teachers' lack of expertise was another issue which divided the countries, as in the UK not a single respondent mentioned anything hinting at this kind of problem, but in Italy it was mentioned by approximately 1/6 of the respondents. Problems in teachers' expertise and training, when mentioned, were quite often related to the handling of pupils with special needs:

“Differences in teachers' abilities to encounter pupils with special needs and in abilities to adjust teaching to pupils' needs. Variation in teachers' information and communication technology skills.”

Urgent reforms. All in all, the problems mentioned generally relate to poor conditions schools and school principals have to deliver enough support to their pupil population, thus making it difficult to provide them education that is relevant to the different groups of pupils, in particular to those from disadvantaged backgrounds. The naming of lack of resources as a major problem school principals face - with all the different aspects that may be related to it, namely facilities in a poor state of conservation, lack of resources to hire personnel, and or provide pedagogical or other support – maybe also interpreted in light of the ambivalent messages sent to those working in the education system: on the one hand, high expectations as to their outcomes and outputs, and on the other hand, a certain disparagement when it comes to providing the necessary resources to schools to fulfil their functions properly as well as a certain distrust on the part of different constituents as to the will and capacity of schools.

A further open-ended question was posed concerning the kinds of changes and/or reforms principals deemed most urgent at the moment. The opinions of the principals concerning urgently needed reforms are summarised in Table 39. The number 1 on the wish list was increasing of financial and human resources, which is consequential taking into account that the lack of resources was the most commonly mentioned current problem in school schools.

Table 39. Urgent reforms according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Gro up av.	FI	SL	Gro up av.	DE	FR	NL	Gro up av.	
Increasing resources	36.7	28.9	20.9	24.5	20.6	5.9	13.0	36.3	35.5	21.2	30.2	24.8
Curricula, teaching arrangements/methods, schedules	3.3	9.2	22.4	17.2	33.3	35.3	34.4	16.3	26.2	32.2	25.9	23.8
No need for any top-down reforms, schools need to be able to work in peace	13.3	43.4	28.6	30.8	11.1	16.2	13.7	6.3	9.3	22.9	13.8	20.7
Reforming teacher training, improving wage level or status of teachers	6.7	30.3	18.9	20.5	12.7	10.3	11.5	7.5	36.4	7.6	17.7	17.8
Reforming the school system	3.3	6.6	15.8	12.3	3.2	2.9	3.1	36.3	5.6	4.2	13.1	11.0
Supporting immigrant pupils, weak/gifted pupils, developing special education	3.3	0.0	4.6	3.3	11.1	2.9	6.9	0.0	12.1	1.7	4.9	4.6

In several cases it was underlined by the respondents that no actual "reform" is/was required, just that the financial resources for adequately fulfilling their tasks were needed by the school.

“No reforms, instead more means to enable teachers to do their job properly and look for quality.”

Reform(s) related to curriculum and teaching arrangements and methods were almost as often mentioned, on average, as the lack of resources (in the question related to problems). However, the variation between countries was much greater in the wishes related to the curriculum reform. In Slovenia and in Finland approximately one third of the respondents mentioned issues related to the reform of the curriculum and/or teaching, but in Italy and in the UK these issues were rarely mentioned. Some of the responses were more general in nature, referring for instance to more curricular flexibility or unification of criteria needed in the school. Some of the responses were more detailed, referring to specific wishes, such as the following example:

“A new distribution of lesson hours so that health education is left out of it and transferred to higher school level. Reform.”

Reforms/changes related to increasing differentiation of pupils was mentioned on average at around 5 % of respondents across countries; only in Italy and in Germany no mention was

made to this issue. In Finland and in France, however, 11–12 % of the respondents mentioned something related to these issues. On the one hand, in many responses it was emphasised that the special needs of the poorly performing pupils and the pupils with disorders should be taken better care of:

“To give back its value to specialized teaching, stop integrating all students to common school. Some of them are suffering and no alternative exists, they have to neglect their differences to integrate the group which makes families feel more comfortable.”

“Separation of students with mental disorders into specialized schools. Special schools for students with ADHD.”

“Introduce in a sensible way individualized teaching with enough means and necessary conditions. We need specialists and assistants in the class for the care-pupils.”

On the other hand, also differentiation regarding the needs of the gifted pupils was called for in some responses:

“More emphasis should be put on work with talented child instead of focusing only on dysfunctional students, talented students are the future leaders in the society. [...]”

Again, the responses to the question as to the urgent reforms corroborate to the interpretation that school principals see the allocation of more resources to their schools as a means of better managing their task of providing adequate and relevant education to their pupils, the more so when it comes to the different groups of pupils and their specific needs.

Status of the school. ‘What do you think of the status of the school in today’s society?’ This was a further open-ended question school principals were posed. While in the general public discourse the importance of education and schooling is recurrently echoed, principals showed a rather different perception, as summarized in Table 40. It can be considered rather alarming that almost half of all respondents considered the status of the school to be low, getting lower, or not appreciated enough.

Table 40. Status of school according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Gro up av.	FI	SL	Gro up av.	DE	FR	NL	Gro up av.	
Low, getting lower	23.3	47.4	49.7	46.6	7.8	48.6	29.4	39.7	57.7	47.1	48.7	44.3
Good or improved	40.0	7.7	16.8	16.7	78.1	25.0	50.0	20.5	6.2	15.2	13.6	21.5
School is a customer servant	30.0	3.8	18.3	15.7	10.9	19.4	15.4	30.1	23.7	16.7	22.1	18.3
General state of society is reflected in school's status	3.3	21.8	5.6	9.5	1.6	13.9	8.1	9.6	17.5	21.7	17.5	12.6
The status of teachers is low or has declined	3.3	1.3	18.8	12.8	0.0	1.4	0.7	8.2	12.4	3.6	7.5	8.4
Has become differentiated	16.7	2.6	11.7	9.8	6.3	2.8	4.4	11.0	2.1	2.9	4.5	6.7

Some of the responses were short and "dry", simply mentioning that the school is undervalued, not respected enough, or that its status is getting worse. Some of the responses were a bit more animated, such as the following quotes:

"Doormat" of the nation – no appreciation – repair shop for families.”

“General dogsbody, bogeyman for everything.”

The exception here was Finland, in which only around 8 % of the respondents considered the status of the school to be low. Likewise, in Finland the highest share of respondents (78 %) considered the status of the school to be good, compared to 6–8 % in France and in Italy. It was also quite commonly mentioned by the principals that school is nowadays a "customer servant", an institution upon which all kinds of demands are addressed.²⁴ In some ways this kind of attitude can be related to (too much) trust in the school system, such as the following quote implies:

“Parents trust the Finnish school system. Even to the extent that families and homes’ responsibilities are being relocated to schools (the responsibility of upbringing has been passed too much to schools). “

In some ways, the "customer" attitude was seen as a more negative one by the principals, as exemplified by the following quote:

“If we analyse our relationship with parents, throughout the years school has become a service. School is a service that parents are using. Parents distrust teachers and tend to

²⁴ The issue of school/teachers as "customer servant" caught in a whirlwind of demands and wishes came up also in another sub-project of GOETE (Work Package 3), in which teacher trainers were interviewed.

dump their family problems on school and teachers. Some parents have doubts about the teachers' pedagogical choices and think they can give advice to them.”

In general, the sense that the work done in schools is not adequately appreciated becomes visible from the responses. What also becomes clear is that school principals/schools are faced with several (and divergent) expectations from the different constituents, most visibly from parents, but in a general manner, by society as a whole. The answers show the perception of school principals of the high demands addressed to them.

Economic crisis. The on-going economic crisis has arguably more or less direct effects on schools. Principals were asked whether, and if so, how their schools have been affected by the economic crisis. Table 41 shows the categorisation of responses related to the question regarding the effects of the current economic crisis on the school.

Table 41. The effects of the economic crisis according to the principals. Percentage of responses in which each issue was mentioned.

	<i>LOW-LEVEL COMPR.</i>				<i>HIGH-LEVEL COMPR.</i>			<i>DIFFERENTIATED</i>				Av. all
	UK	IT	PL	Grou p Av.	FI	SL	Grou p Av.	DE	FR	NL	Grou p Av.	
Effect on resources	71.9	66.7	–	68.1	50.8	37.8	43.8	56.6	21.1	71.1	52.5	53.5
Effect on pupils and their families	25.0	27.2	–	26.5	11.1	58.1	36.5	5.3	67.8	13.3	27.6	29.6
Other effects	9.4	9.9	–	9.7	11.1	17.6	14.6	3.9	12.2	9.6	9.0	10.5
No effect or only minor effects	18.8	13.6	–	15.0	34.9	10.8	21.9	39.5	10.0	19.3	21.6	20.3

The categorisation of responses was fairly simple, with over half of the respondents mentioning the (lack of) resources. The highest percentages were found in the UK, Italy and in the Netherlands, in which approximately 70 % of the respondents mentioned an effect on resources. For example, curriculum, school hours, materials, facilities, meals and pupils' activities were mentioned to be affected by the crisis., as the following quotes exemplify:

“Cut of school hours: less socialization and education time for disadvantaged pupils; more burden on single schools and families (so the latter have to pay for the afternoon management of their children).”

“Less and less funds, and we have to cut projects, remedial courses, lab materials, stationery, technological tools. We have difficulties in the financing of activities of pupils, even in the case of paying bills for meals and field trips.”

Naturally all the cuts on the resources affect pupils, but effects of the economic crisis on pupils and their parents were also more directly mentioned in some responses, for example related to parents' unemployment and the general attitude adopted by the pupils:

“Yes a lot. Students from my lower secondary school are more and more marginalized.”

“There are parents who lost their job. If there are problems at home, it affects the well-being of the child.”

“Yes, Students are less confident in their future, very pessimistic. The exception here was Germany, in which pupils/parents were very rarely (5 %) mentioned by the principals in this regard.”

Summing up, the effects of the current economic crisis have been emphasized by the respondents; it seems to be exerting a negative influence both on school conditions of work and on pupils' home and living conditions.

5 Conclusions

The stratification-standardization framework proposed by Allmendinger (1989) has been utilized in many comparative studies concerning education, and educational equality/inequality in particular (e.g., Shavit & Müller 2000; Kerckhoff 2001). In a recent study by Daniel Horn (2009), the framework was combined with the data-oriented institutionalist approach of the economics of education in order to systematically examine the aspects of educational systems that have an impact on effectiveness and equity. By utilizing the data from the PISA 2003 – study, he found out that the early age of selection is associated not only with lower equity, but also with lower effectiveness of the system. Similar kinds of findings have also come up in other studies related to this topic (e.g., Marks 2005).

In this study concerning the views of European school principals the case was to examine to what extent do school principals' responses reflect the stratification – standardization framework. Although in the most cases, the principals' opinions in respect to the surveyed issues were of similar kind, and in some cases there were considerable variation in responses inside each country category, there were also some statistically significant differences regarding principals' responses between the country categories. These differences came up in issues such as principals' satisfaction with teacher education, their views on usefulness of support measures as well as their opinions regarding factors affecting coping and learning at school. One of the most interesting findings was related to principals' view concerning the main objective of school. In the countries with differentiated systems, where educational differences and inequalities have noticed to be the largest, a focus on those pupils most in the need of special support were highest, except in Germany where the problems related to selective system have recently been under serious public and political discussion. In contrast, in the countries with comprehensive systems – both high and low – equal treatment of all pupils were considered as the main objective of school.

Generally, the differences in principals' responses most often derived from the various systemic solutions applied in particular countries.²⁵

In the following sections, some conclusions will be presented according to the five thematic perspectives adopted in the GOETE project: *Life Course, Access, Coping, Governance, and Relevance*.

²⁵ The results obtained in the UK should be approached with care considering the result of 38 completed interviews as compared to 200 questionnaires in Poland, 174 questionnaires in the Netherlands, 158 in France, 119 in Germany, 105 in Italy, 104 in Finland, and 102 questionnaires in Slovenia (cf. chapter 3 above).

Life course. In this study, the category of 'life course' includes issues regarding the progress of pupils in the educational system. When analysing factors related to that, similar determinants of leaving school in the midst of the school level are observed. In all surveyed countries, the dominant reason for this phenomenon was the pupil's family changing the place of residence. In most countries, the next important reason for leaving school in the midst of the school level was low educational achievement. The principals' views regarding the future educational paths of students indicate that choices concerning the further educational path or entering the labour market depend on the level and type of the completed school and they were similar in most of the countries. According to the principals, students leaving lower secondary schools more often choose general upper secondary school than vocational school. Only to a marginal extent are they moving into labour market immediately after completing lower secondary education.

The aspirations of students thus reflect the traditional division inside educational systems as well as the promises and predictions that are linked to the general education on the one hand and practical education on the other. In many countries, despite the system differences (see: e.g., Lamb et al. 2011) the aim of the general schools has been – and still is – to prepare students for higher education studies with higher status, whereas the objective of vocational schools has been to produce skilled (mostly manual) workers for different sectors of working life. This was reflected in the views of principals, according to which students leaving general upper secondary school most often choose solutions leading to attainment of university education. Stronger differentiation of educational choices is observed in the case of students leaving vocational upper secondary school. The principals' opinions concerning differentiation of the further educational paths of school leavers was mainly determined by various systemic solutions adopted in particular countries. The above results may indicate a high level of educational aspirations of students in the surveyed countries. The realisation of these aspirations has, however, become more difficult during the past few decades as a result of educational inflation. Continuously increased educational level of the population has in many countries led into a situation in which education has become a necessary – although not automatically sufficient – requirement for entering the labour market. Even for university graduates the future has become harder to predict, whereas early school leaving clearly increases the risk of educational and social exclusion. This progression has undoubtedly increased polarization among young people and diminished the possibilities for employment among disadvantaged youth. (Rinne & Järvinen 2010)

Further, the monitoring of the later educational stages of pupils might be seen as one interesting aspect of educational transitions as it throws light on whether principals are aware of their role in preparing students for their entire educational trajectories or focus only on the current educational phase. The information on monitoring may hint at whether and how principals have the necessary information to make decisions on what kind of support, foci on school subjects and the like their students may need in order to be adequately supported in their educational trajectories and thus cope with educational requirements. In our survey, irrespective of the type of education system, on average 68 % of principals reported that they monitored the later stages of their pupils in one way or another. *Except for Germany, and to some extent for the UK, monitoring pupils educational trajectories appear to be an important aspect of governance for the principals surveyed, although there are different ways and extents of doing it. More detailed analysis is necessary in order to assess whether and if so in which ways monitoring has an effect on the regulation of educational trajectories of pupils.*

Access. Concerning access to education, one has usually been interested in issues such as educational selection and its different manifestations in different educational levels and educational systems. Questions such as: “Is the pupil structure biased in some way, e.g., according

the pupils’ gender, ethnicity and social class?” have often been linked to discussions concerning educational equality/inequality. In this report, the differences regarding pupil structure of schools is examined on the levels of country and country-category only in order to get a picture regarding overall student structure of countries in question. In the future, this issue will be examined in more depth by drawing attention to local school context which enables us to evaluate equalities and inequalities related to access in a more reliable manner. In the surveyed countries, the structure of pupils in respect to their lower-socio-economic backgrounds varied between 19 % in Poland to 45 % in the UK; also, their structure as regard their immigrants’ backgrounds varied between 1 % in Poland to 33 % in Germany.

In this study, we were particularly interested in the criteria used in the selection of pupils. The principals of the surveyed schools declared that schools undertake actions targeted at selection of future pupils. Among the analysed criteria dominant are those that are connected to pupils’ educational achievements, such as: grade point average and results of an aptitude test. For most of the principals also significant is the fact of having a sibling in school. All surveyed principals declared pupils’ ethnic background as well as the parents’ education and occupational status as insignificant in the pupils’ selection process. In all surveyed countries,

school principals indicated the same factors hindering transition to the next educational level: behavioural problem, family disinterest, problems in the family, mental health problem and learning disability. In this case, it is difficult to discuss similarities in groups, as there is general similarity as regard the reasons for problems with transition to the next educational stage. The opinions of the principals in the surveyed schools show that availability of successive steps of education is to a great extent connected with systemic solutions, not only as regard schooling, but also in respect to migration policy.

Coping. Related to coping, principals were asked about their views concerning factors affecting coping and learning of students as well as usefulness of different support measures. School principals in the surveyed countries indicated problems in the family, family disinterest, behavioural problems, mental health problems as the most important factors affecting pupils' need for support and learning, just before learning disability. These factors stood out especially in the answers of principals of countries with the low-level comprehensive school system. Despite the bulk of research-based evidence across Europe verifying the connection between one's social background and students coping with the requirements of school system, the principals experienced factors related social origin of students, such as migrant background or lower socio-economic status of the family as rather insignificant factors affecting coping and learning of pupils.

Among useful means of support the greatest significance in schools in the surveyed countries (as measured by average means)had co-operation with parents and the support forms organized in school such as remedial instruction, student welfare team and part-time special education. Also use of support pupils and policies related anti-violence/anti-bullying as well as homework classes and other forms of extended school day were seen as useful measures of support. Although principals valued the work of school psychologist, they did not experience the work of other specialists, such as youth psychiatrist, youth workers and employment authorities equally important. This tendency was characteristic for nearly all surveyed countries.

Governance. The survey showed a high variation concerning the *training and work experience of principals* in the GOETE countries. While the requirements for the successful performance of school principals have risen continually during the past years, posing specific challenges to those holding these positions as they have not only to balance their pedagogical or otherwise duties but also cope with ever more administrative and regulative duties. While the vast majority of principals reported to have training in management (on average 81 %),

there is considerable variation with France well below the total average. As in the country, principals are part of the non-teaching staff; the question arises as to the reason for the low rate among French principals. Also, work experience as principal varies across the GOETE countries, in the Netherlands it is four times higher than in France, for instance – the total average being 9,15 years. The work experience of the surveyed principals as teachers make it, though, clear principals in the GOETE survey are first and foremost experienced teachers, their experience in other managerial roles is considerably lower, on average four times lower. *One important issue for further analysis would be the link between governance changes in the work environment of school principals (decentralization, school autonomy and the like) and professionalization, for instance an increase in the requirements for the career. Further, analyses that aim at linking different levels of professionalization and different styles of governance in schools can throw more light in how different arrangements affecting access, coping, relevance and life course issues of the pupils come about and have an impact.*

One important task of this study regarding theme of governance was to evaluate how the principals have experienced the marketization of education, especially in terms of competition, free school choice and decentralisation of power. Although collaboration among schools was more often reported by principals, competition also appears as an important part of contemporary school life. *Especially in the context of free school choice competition among schools may not increase but rather restrict choices for particular groups; this issue needs more attention in further analyses.* In fact, several other studies show that some schools start sorting pupils since free choice policies have been accompanied by more accountability, producing a negative side-effect (Mons, 2007; Ravitch, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Seppänen, Rinne & Sairanen 2012). Correspondingly, in this survey most principals reported their schools to be in the realm of *free school choice*, in six out of eight countries the percentage is above the total average, which was already rather high (69 %). *These findings hint at the need to take a closer look into the interaction of educational governance arrangements and its effects of educational trajectories.*

Moreover, the right to select pupils is not given in all countries and there is a great cross-national variation. In five out of eight GOETE countries, the percentage of principals reporting that they were allowed to select pupils was above total average, that is, more than 32 %. The Netherlands stand out with the highest percentage of principals reporting the being allowed to select pupils. *As grading is used most for selection the question arises as to the effects of this regulation as this may have, for instance, a segregating effect and needs to be discussed in more detail in further analyses.*

School principals in GOETE countries also have varying degrees to which they can decide on school matters, and decisions taken within schools are clearly influenced by the nature of the decision. Principals considered to have the least power in financial matters and the most regarding teaching methods. In the Netherlands, for all decision-making areas principals reported higher levels of influence than the group and total averages; in Italy and in France the principals seem to be especially disillusioned about their decision-making power. Interestingly, despite the fact that principals generally considered financial matters most often to be outside of their scope, they did place this issue among the most important ones. Personnel recruitment was generally considered the most important decision-making area for principals. German and Italian principals ranked this decision-making area highest – note that for this area both countries reported having influence on decision-making below group and total average (see above). Only in France and Slovenia were teaching methods considered more important than personnel recruitment.

A more detailed analysis of these findings could throw more light into why financial and management issues ranked higher in most countries than pedagogical and curricular decisions. It may be the case that the former represent a more pressing problem for principals, one that conditions and to some extent determine how principals view their other (pedagogical/curricular) tasks.

Principals generally consider themselves as the most influential actors regarding decisions in school, despite the variation between the decision-making areas. It is difficult to interpret this finding, since principals also reported differing levels of influence over school matters vis-à-vis other authorities. As what concerns the possibilities of pupils to take part in educational governance in their schools, the results of the survey show that there are two main types of student participation in GOETE countries: Student councils and Class representatives. The kinds of tasks attributed to students councils in the GOETE countries show a higher variation of the importance of different duties for student's councils. Mostly, tasks not directly connected to school governance, namely 'organising social activities' are seen as important. *The question arises as to the possibilities of students to exert influence of how the school every day life is organized and particularly on curricular issues that have most effect on how students perceive education as accessible and relevant and thus manageable.*

While principals reported personnel recruitment as the most important decision-making area, the administrative power to influence the hiring of teachers is more unevenly distributed across and within the types of education systems. In some countries (e.g., Italy, France, and

Poland) principals predominantly stated having no administrative power to recruit teachers. Where principals have a say in teacher recruitment, the factors affecting it are mostly related to social skills - by far the most important single criterion – and the level of qualifications and work experience, which is hardly surprising. In regard to the GOETE research focus, special attention to the knowledge and skills related to multicultural issues of prospective teachers might throw some light to particular attention being paid to the different groups of pupils and their different needs; showing the presence of the topic among the important criteria for teacher hiring. *What can be considered slightly surprising is that the place of study, where the teacher's degree had been completed, was considered almost equally unimportant. An interesting further analysis will be thus related to Work Package 3 on Teacher Education Comparison.*

While expressing opinions concerning the teachers' preparedness and skills, it turned out that in all surveyed countries, school principals assessed education of teachers and their preparedness as adequate albeit not particularly good. The principals were most satisfied with capability of teacher education to endow teacher with subject specific knowledge as well as general knowledge base. This was most evident in the countries with high-level comprehensive system. The principals' opinions on some of the most important areas of teacher education showed a high level of satisfaction in the UK with 'practical relevance of teacher training in general' and 'institutionalised support given during first years of working as teacher'. Principals in most other countries seemed less satisfied with the practical relevance of teacher education. The teachers' education regarding skills to deal with pupils' problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants and dealing with violence was given the poorest assessment by the principals. This area of knowledge/skills was evaluated the lowest by the French principals.

Also, the assessment by principals of how teachers are prepared to work with pupils requiring help and support is a significant element in the analysis of how support provided to pupils is regulated. On average, the principals assessed the teachers' preparedness as satisfactory. The most positive assessment was preparation in the field of individualised and differentiated teaching methods and individual diagnostic skills. Principals had the least positive opinion in respect to knowledge of structures of educational disadvantages in general. The difference between the highest and the lowest assessment was insignificant. In the surveyed group of countries, the most negative assessment in each evaluated category in regard to the teacher preparedness was given by the principals in France; this is comprehensible when considering that issues related to pedagogical skills and teaching methods were regarded as the most

important areas of decision-making while also being perceived as being least in the power reach of principals in the country. *One interesting further analysis will thus include a comparison of the finding related to teachers' 'knowledge of structures of educational disadvantages in general' in the principals survey with the findings of Work Packages 3 (teacher education) and Work Package 4 (pupils and parental surveys) as this may show a more differentiated picture.*

While general knowledge base (cognitive skills) was reported in general as satisfactory, the practical relevance of teacher education was rated as less so. Together with the finding that principals bemoan a lack of preparation of teachers to deal with pupils' problems and a lack of knowledge about structures of educational disadvantages, and thus a lack of practical relevance of teacher education, an important issue relates to how teacher education integrate cognitive (knowledge) and social skills (interaction) in order to prepare future teachers to deal with pupils' educational trajectories.

The principals were asked in the survey about their opinions concerning different orientations of teaching in schools. The propositions related to diverging views on how to organize the teaching of different groups of pupils – those with difficulties and disadvantages, those more gifted, etc. – and the relationship among them. These teaching arrangements are deemed to have an important impact on educational trajectories, since they imply different ways of regulating access (selectivity), support (emphasis on particular groups), and relevance of education. *All in all, the answers corroborate to the picture shown by the question as to the main objective of schools, where equal treatment and support for the weakest pupils were generally rated higher than helping the most gifted to reach their full potential.*

In conclusion, the findings of the governance section direct our attention to the points of contact of administrative and pedagogical-curricular tasks of school principals. While principals in the survey are first and foremost experienced teachers, the challenges they face in managing their schools are many – mostly of managerial nature, but above all a lack of resources, as detailed in the relevance chapter – their ability to shape these decisions vary substantially, especially depending on the area of decision. Principals are seemingly caught in paradoxical situations. First, there are very high expectations and rising demands, but less room for manoeuvre and decision power and lack of resources. Here, it seems that better and more qualification as well as empowerment of the principal position (autonomy with resources) could be a solution. Second, while principals consider themselves as the most influential actors in decision-making and report personnel recruitment as the most important

decision-making area, they seem to undervalue the participation of pupils and parents in school decision-making; if this a valid interpretation it would mean that principals discount the contribution of these actors to their successful work. In seeing in themselves the most influential actors, principals overestimate and overburden themselves. Here, a more reflexive perspective on the part and importance of other actors in the governance of education might prove more conducive of successful cooperation. Related to this, there is, third, an apparent undue treatment of administrative/managerial and pedagogical-curricular tasks that are seen separated from each other. Here, a more thorough consideration of the interaction of governance arrangements and its effects of educational trajectories seems necessary.

Relevance. Principals in surveyed countries reported that equal treatment of pupils and supporting the weakest pupils as the *main objectives of the school*, hinting at an orientation conducive to a school climate and arrangements that take into account the different needs of different groups and to balancing societal and individual-subjective relevance aspects. As what concerns *teaching-learning arrangements in schools*, there are differences among the three groups but rather small, and depending on the arrangement, the variation across the countries is also small. Student-centred arrangements such as classroom discussion and group work are used very frequently. But, teacher-centred arrangements such as students being asked questions are used very often. Arrangements that hint at cooperation between schools and external actors are rated much lower, e.g., visit from experts from outside the school rated lowest, thus being the least frequent of all arrangements listed. In sum, one could conjecture that - very cautiously though - teaching-learning arrangements still follow very traditional lines in GOETE countries. Teacher-centred pedagogy seems very frequent, focused on (cognitive) content-transmission and recitation. This type of arrangement provides arguably less room for balancing pupils' needs, thus accommodating individual relevance to the official curriculum (societal relevance). Also, the use of new technologies (ICTs) - although not ranked lowest - varies considerably among countries. *ICTs are arguably an important part of youths' everyday life and could be used as a means of integrating and motivating learners in the school. The latter aspect is deserving of further analyses that integrate data from the different GOETE Work Packages.*

As what concerns the *current problems* schools are facing, most issues mentioned generally related to poor financial and material conditions of schools, thus making it difficult for principals to provide education that is relevant to the different groups of pupils, in particular to those from disadvantaged backgrounds. The naming of lack of resources as a major problem school principals face - with all the different aspects that may be related to it, namely

facilities in a poor state of conservation, lack of resources to hire personnel, and or provide pedagogical or other support – maybe also interpreted in light of the ambivalent messages sent to those working in the education system: on the one hand, high expectations as to their outcomes, and on the other hand, a certain disparagement when it comes to providing the necessary resources to schools to fulfil their functions properly.

Also, the responses to the question as to the *urgent reforms* corroborate to the interpretation that school principals see the allocation of more resources to their schools as a means of better coping with their task of providing adequate and relevant education to their pupils, the more so when it comes to the different groups of pupils and their specific needs.

In general, the sense that the work done in schools is not adequately appreciated becomes visible from the responses. What also becomes clear is that school principals/schools are faced with several (and divergent) expectations from the different constituents, most visibly from parents, but in a general manner, by society as a whole. The answers show the perception of school principals of the high demands addressed to them.

Further, the effects of the current economic crisis emphasized by the respondents seem to be exerting a negative influence both on school conditions of work and on pupils' home and living conditions. On the other hand, education is constantly referred to as a means of overcoming the societal problems created by the economic crisis.

Summing up, the crucial relevance of education as recurrently highlighted in public discourses seems to serve as background for principals in their assessment of the questions posed to them with reference to theme of relevance in GOETE. While education is seen as a means to achieve equality and equity, principals also state that financial and material lacks make it difficult to fulfil their work properly. Likewise the perception of disdain or of decreasing value of education in society has a negative effect, while the current economic crisis exacerbates the difficulties both for schools and school principals and for pupils and their families.

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Appendix

Categories formed on the basis of the open-ended questions and examples of their contents.

CURRENT PROBLEMS

– What are the biggest problems in your school at the moment?

1. Lack of resources

- budget cuts, lack of sufficient financial resources
- inadequate premises, housing and renovation problems
- too many pupils per class, teaching group size
- deficient human resources
- no money to hire substitute teachers
- more demands on school, but not more financial resources to compensate
- inadequacy or low standard of teaching equipment
- workload of teachers, lack of time
- not enough means for special education and supporting pupils with special educational needs
- not enough money for the implementation of a specific educational program

2. Problems stemming from school's catchment area (in general and pupils' families)

- demographic slump, small number of pupils enrolling school
- uneducated people, low education level
- low socio-economic status of people, social inequalities
- broken homes, one-parent households
- social exclusion
- large number of pupils of the area need permanent custody
- poverty
- substance abuse
- peoples' disinterest and ignorance
- unemployment
- mental problems
- violence
- "weak pupil base"

3. Co-operation with parents

- parents that do not support school or are not interested in co-operating
- parents that are not interested in their child's schooling
- parents that do not accept negative information about their child
- insufficient co-operation with parents
- unrealistic expectations of parents, demanding attitude of parents
- parents do not have enough time for their children
- parents that support their children's bad behaviour/attitudes
- lack of parenting skills
- lack of parental monitoring
- parents that do not trust school
- aggressive parents

4. Pupils'/students' problems, polarization of pupil/student base

- behavioural problems, attitude problems, restlessness, bullying
- learning difficulties, socio-emotional problems, mental health issues
- truancy, smoking, misbehaviour outside school hours
- violence
- pupils' low level of commitment to school work
- low level of graduating
- low level of achievement
- multiculturalism, language deficiencies
- heterogeneity of pupils
- polarization of pupil base, differences in learning competencies, language skills, abilities

5. Level of teachers' expertise, teacher training

- differences in teachers' abilities to encounter pupils with special needs and in abilities to differentiate teaching
- variation in teachers' information and communication technology skills
- inadequate didactic and pedagogic skills of teachers
- considerable need for further training for teachers
- difficulties in recruiting trained and skilled teachers
- low level of teachers' motivation

- inadequate teacher training
- poor educational skills of substitute teachers
- inadequate multicultural skills of teachers

6. Problems related to curricula, teaching, assessment and motivating pupils

- implementation of different reforms
- implementation of new teaching methods
- poor learning results
- rapidly changing pupil population
- making use of new technology in teaching
- motivating pupils to learn and to invest in their studies
- drawing up study plans
- implementing differentiation
- curriculum overload, inflexible curricula, constant changes in curricula content
- assessment of pupils with special educational needs
- developing school's vision
- discipline
- poor literacy and numeracy levels of pupils at entry
- inadequate teaching materials or teaching material overload
- learning to learn

7. Other problems

- bad reputation of the school excessive bureaucracy
- unclear status or future of the school form
- undefined status of the principal
- society's and politicians' attitudes towards school
- drop-outs
- structural changes in the school system
- too few male teachers
- aging of teaching staff
- afternoon activities
- co-operation between schools
- well-being of teachers

- administration
- transition point
- no parking space for teachers

URGENT REFORMS – What kind of changes/reforms do you think are the most urgent?

1. Curricula, teaching arrangements, teaching methods, schedules and organization of the school year

- reforming curricula, reducing workload in curricula, unifying, harmonizing or simplifying curricula, revising what is emphasized in curricula, more time for execution of curricula, making curricula more flexible
- increasing and developing differentiated teaching
- revising the distribution of lesson hours (more/less lesson hours for certain subjects)
- implementing modern teaching methods and technology
- multi-/interdisciplinarity
- revising school cycles
- allowing ability groups, streaming of pupils
- limiting the amount of teaching material
- readjusting the learning outcome goals
- raising the standards, demanding more from pupils

2. Supporting immigrant pupils, pupils with special educational needs and gifted pupils, developing special education

- promoting integration
- segregating special needs pupils into special schools instead of keeping them in mainstream education
- allowing grouping of pupils based on immigrant status or mother tongue
- developing and increasing support for gifted and talented pupils
- developing special needs education, multicultural education, early intervention

3. Increasing financial and human resources

- increasing resources in general
- reducing the maximum number of pupils per class
- increasing resources for special needs education, for supporting talented pupils, for differentiating teaching
- more teaching and non-teaching staff to schools (psychologist, guidance counsellors, school assistants)
- more resources for hiring substitute teachers
- more school hours to achieve the goals of curricula

4. No need for any top-down reforms, schools need to be able to work in peace, schools need more decision power and less meaningless bureaucracy

- autonomous recruitment of teachers
- administrative autonomy, autonomy of management, more leeway to schools
- no more reforms, educational system needs to be stabilized, schools need peace to do their work properly
- less bureaucracy, inspections, documentation, reports
- more power of decision to principals

5. Reforming teachers training, improving wage level, working hours or status of teachers

- improving the quality of teacher training, more practical teacher training, longer teacher training, developing the contents of teacher training
- training for teaching immigrant pupils and pupils with special educational needs
- higher demands for recently graduated teachers
- increment in teachers' wages
- increasing teachers' authority, status and appreciation
- revising the allocation of teachers' working hours, implementing total working time (1600 hours) for teachers
- developing professional, pedagogical, didactical and technological skills of teachers
- more support for teachers

6. Reforming the school system or some part of it

- removing religion teaching from curricula, replacing it with ethics or philosophy
- abolition of the three-tier school system
- compulsory schooling should start earlier
- reforming general upper secondary schools
- changing the schooling stages division
- restoration of the previous school division
- implementation of all-day school
- reforming the lower secondary school, extending schooling at lower secondary school to four years
- introducing a uniform nationwide educational system
- abolition of cohort class system

7. Other

- acknowledgement of primary school principal's status
- developing or discontinuing assessment of pupils, schools or administrations
- revising the matriculation examination
- improving co-operation between schools and families
- simplification of the procedure of making teachers redundant
- reorganization of the school network
- emphasizing students' and parents' responsibilities
- strengthening the status of vocational schools
- increasing co-operation between schools and other institutions
- limiting the role of trade unions
- reforming school administration
- less money for low-achieving pupils
- obligatory training for parents (by applying suitable sanctions)
- equity between schools and pupils
- housing conditions
- supporting schools situated in deprived locations
- developing, eliminating or extending entrance exams

STATUS OF SCHOOL – What do you think of the status of school in

today's society?

1. Low, getting lower or should be more appreciated

- schools have been left alone with no support
- school is seen as a cradle of all evil or as a necessary evil
- the status is low because school and education no longer guarantee professional success and job security
- continuous budget cuts erode the status
- everyone is criticizing school
- school is no longer an authority
- low due to the fact that schools and education are no longer a political priority
- a lot of negative publicity in the media

2. Good or improved, school is important to the society

- there are high expectations for schools
- the role of school is central in the society
- valued institution
- the relevance of education is acknowledged
- at least parents value school and education
- status is decent at least for now
- cornerstone of the society

3. Has become differentiated, depends on the standpoint

- varies between school levels and school forms
- the status of vocational education is rising and the status of theoretical education is declining
- people's views are highly dependent of their social class
- education is seen as very important but schools are not valued
- private schools are respected more than public schools
- the status depends on the location of the school, it is low in areas of social deprivation

4. School is a customer servant, subject to demands or to blame

- opinions of pupils and parents are taken into account more than before
- customer mentality and demanding attitude of parents
- too much is demanded from schools especially considering schools' scant resources
- parents and pupils have become more aware of their rights
- parents and society expect school to bring up children, schools are expected to take on the tasks of parents
- parents pay close attention to ranking lists
- always more demands, never more means
- politician, media and other outsiders are interfering too much in schoolwork
- education has become a consumer product
- scapegoat of a society
- a repair shop expected to fix everything that is wrong in the society and all the problems of the youth

5. General state and values of a society and politicians' actions and attitudes are reflected in the status of school

- education, learning and knowledge are not valued in today's society
- education has become a playground or a battlefield for politicians
- continuous cuts to schools' resources and constant financial difficulties of schools impair the status
- an unequal society cannot produce an equal school system
- politician and decision-makers neglect schools, they are not interested, they do not appreciate and invest in schools enough
- politicians and society value money more than education
- the work done by schools and teachers is not appreciated

6. The status of teachers is low or has declined

- low wage level of teachers
- low level of available social support for teachers
- parents, society and politicians do not value teachers

- parents and pupils have more power over schoolwork than teachers
- teacher is no longer an authority
- teachers are held responsible for all failures of pupils
- parents do not trust teachers
- teachers are regarded as lazy and idle

7. Other

- media distorts facts, publicity is always negative
- statistics prevail over children
- schools drown in bureaucracy
- school no longer complies with the needs of a modern society
- the status is changing
- "much ado about nothing"
- status is middling
- school is too important, it has too much effect on the future of pupils

ECONOMIC CRISIS – Is the economic crisis having any effect on your school? If yes, in what ways is it affecting the school and/or your students?

1. Effect on resources

- budget cuts – fewer personnel/less support available for pupils/less teaching materials and or equipment
- size of teaching groups increases
- school is at risk for being closed down
- not enough financial means available for hiring substitute teachers/special needs education/remedial courses/extracurricular activities/repairing school buildings
- uncertainty about the future
- no possibilities for development

2. Effect on pupils/students and their families

- poverty, increasing need for financial aid
- unemployment, redundancy
- families cannot afford any extra costs – school trips, school meals, school books, extracurricular activities etc.

- uncertainty about the future/lack of hope
- families cannot afford to pay university fees/for further studies
- distress of single-parent households
- substance abuse, mental health problems
- parents cannot pay school fees
- students are demotivated – employment opportunities of recent graduates have declined/success in school no longer guarantees access to a good job
- distress/anxiety of students
- pupils/students with special educational needs/from lower social background are the ones who suffer the most
- students have to work along with studies
- social exclusion
- parents have not enough time for their children/are too distracted to pay attention to their children's needs

3. Other effects

- general costs have increased
- families have to participate in costs more
- teachers' wages are not equivalent to their workload
- cohort sizes are decreasing
- revision of school network causes distress
- frustration of teachers
- recruiting teachers is easier due to redundancies
- also positive effects because everything has to be carefully considered/increase of creative solutions
- less enrolled students
- difficulties in finding internships for students
- mainstream education schools do not send pupils with special educational needs to special schools just to maintain budget level

4. No effect, only minor effects or effects are not visible at the moment

- school is used to having a strict budget, situation is not any more difficult than it has always been, strict management of finances has been going on for a long time also before this economic crisis

- only a slight effect on the amount of weekly lesson hours or special needs education
- no effects at the moment but there will be some in the future

TYPES OF MONITORING – In what ways do you monitor the later stages of your pupils?

1. Gathering information about how pupils are allocated in the educational field, about pupils or about students' employment status

- asking and analysing information and feedback from (lower) secondary schools
- school reports
- networking with schools of the next school level
- enrolment data of universities
- transition point co-operation between schools
- personal contacts
- register of job offers, monitoring how graduates are placed in the labour market

2. Contacting graduates

- surveys, interviews
- former students visit school
- reunions, graduate meetings
- e-mail, Facebook

3. Statistics and databases

- statistics produced by the central statistical office
- local database
- electronic recruitment system
- information provided by the local board of education

4. Conversations with parents of former pupils

- information, feedback or responses from parents

5. Monitoring the allocation of pupils through a certain project, program or network

- graduates trajectories program

- cohort monitoring
- schools' self-evaluation project

6. Other ways of monitoring

- information from friends, neighbours or siblings of former pupils
- post-diploma guidance
- graduates book
- informal or indirect information
- no (possibility for) monitoring of the later stages

OTHER WAYS OF PREPARING PUPILS (for transition)

– Please specify the other way of preparing pupils that you wish to add to the previous listing?

1. Co-operation between schools

- joint educational projects for students of last year of one level and students of first year of the next level
- shared teaching program in the bridge years
- labs with secondary school pupils as peer education guidance
- staff from both school levels participates together in guidance training

2. Theme days, events and visitors

- alumni, parents and representatives of schools visit school and present their studies or careers
- education trade shows, work and profession events, open days
- meetings with post-secondary students

3. Internships, visits to workplaces, co-operation with local companies

- visits to various companies and organizations
- internships, on-the-job learning
- partnership with companies
- work shadowing

4. Other ways of preparing

- career entry support personnel model
- different projects
- tutoring during transition period
- showing photographs of pupils' new school, teacher and classroom
- intensive application training
- pedagogy to promote autonomy, self-directed learning or social skills
- feedback from former students
- analysing pupils potential and competencies

EXTERNAL SUPPORT – According to your knowledge, what kind of external support measures are utilized by the families?

1. Seeking support for learning, development, physical health or parenting from experts and authorities

- psychological and pedagogical counselling centre
- local education office
- employment office
- health services
- services provided by psychologists, therapists and specialists
- support for parenting
- school social services

2. Private lessons, tutoring and homework support

- private lessons, private tutoring
- municipal-funded tutoring
- homework clubs

3. Financial support

- social assistance centre
- social scholarships
- free of charge lunches
- help with school costs (books, school trips etc.)

4. Support provided by organizations, foundations and associations

- different organizations for child and family welfare
- different charity foundations
- sport clubs
- support provided by churches, mosques or religious associations

5. Information (for transition point) from schools of next school level, internet, media and acquaintances

- schools' information evenings, open days and other events
- visits to schools
- information from acquaintances
- internet
- schools' handbills

6. Other forms of support

- (municipal) police, family court
- ability testing
- holiday trips
- pupils from different social and cultural backgrounds are supported differently
- some families utilize external support, some do not

7. Families do not utilize external support at all/substantially

8. Respondent does not know