



Religiosity and Education in Europe

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1 Introduction

Religious identity is still a matter of great importance to many Europeans. After decades in which secularism seemed to gain ground, a resurgence of the salience of religion has taken place in the context of increased immigration and debates about integration and multiculturalism. General socialization processes are carried out mainly in the home and in the school. Religious socialization is no exception. Consequently, the school and the educational system play an important role in shaping the religious identity of individuals, communities and of society.

There are two levels at which religion can impact education practices, i.e. at the macro level, by impinging on the way the educational system is organized, and, at the micro level, by affecting where parents choose to educate their children. At the macro level, both the provision of religious education in public schools and especially the position of denominational schools are of interest. Most European countries have a well-established network of faith schools. However, the level of support that these schools receive from the state varies substantially. At the micro level, which parents choose to educate their children at denominational schools, as well as the reach and profile of those schools, are worth investigating.

The aim of this report is to provide a broad, European-wide picture of both trends in the strength and profile of religiosity and in the outlook of educational systems and school selection processes. The report is structured in four parts. The first part is devoted to examining cross-country variation in the strength of religiosity and the demographic profile of groups with higher religiosity scores. Additionally, the link between religiosity and tolerance, on the one hand, and gender attitudes, on the other hand, are put under scrutiny. The second part looks at the architecture of educational systems in EU Member States. Attention is paid, in particular, to the way denominational schools are treated in national educational legislation. The third section explores the factors that affect decisions regarding school choice, both on the parental side and on the school side. Finally, the last section brings the previous three levels (religiosity, educational system setup and school selection) together and probes the links between them.

2 Religiosity in Europe

Before examining the specific place of religion in (primary) education, we take a step back and look at religion from a broader perspective. Since this entire study is centred on the formation of religious identity in young children and the role that parents and schools play in that process, it makes sense to first ask how religious the societies in which these children live are.

To answer this question, we will make use of a cross-national survey of attitudes and beliefs in Europe, namely the European Values Survey (EVS). The EVS offers the possibility of investigating religiosity in 26 European Union countries (data for Cyprus is unavailable) by providing comparable data on a number of indicators connected to religious affiliation, identity

and beliefs. Unfortunately, the fourth and latest EVS wave (to be carried out in 2007-2008) is, as yet, still unavailable. Consequently, the third wave has been used. This choice has the drawback of relying on data that are rather old (the third wave was carried out between 1999 and 2000). On the other hand, the European Values Survey has the advantage of offering a rather extended battery of questions related to religion, as well as other important attitudes, in a cross-national comparative context.

Undoubtedly, there are many aspects connected to religion that are worthy of consideration. Yet, a narrowing down is necessary in order to preserve focus and manageability. Consequently, we have chosen to limit our enquiry to three basic aspects that are in all likelihood connected to religiosity, i.e. individual demographic characteristics, tolerance and gender attitudes. But before looking at each of these aspects, a definition/operationalization of religiosity is needed.

2.1 Indicators of religiosity

A full-blown definition of religiosity will not be attempted here. However, it is important to distinguish between two separate, though complementary, aspects. As a rule, religious systems include both practices (usually institutionalized in the form of a Church) and a collection of ideas and beliefs. Both dimensions have been mapped by constructing two corresponding indexes. The first one relates to affiliation/ identification with the institutional side of religious practice, i.e. a church, and will be referred to henceforth as ‘religious belonging’. The second one is connected more to the ideational/beliefs side of religion and shall be termed ‘religious believing’. While religious systems normally integrate both the institutional and the ideational sides, a distinction is necessary as both belonging without believing and especially believing without belonging are possible.

To tap into the concept of ‘religious belonging’, the following nine questions present in the EVS database have been used:

- Member of religious organization (yes/no)
- How often attend religious services (7 categories)
- Religious services are important at birth (yes/no)
- Religious services are important at marriage (yes/no)
- Religious services are important at death (yes/no)
- Church provides answers to moral problems (yes/no)
- Church provides answers to family life problems (yes/no)
- Church provides answers to spiritual needs (yes/no)
- Church provides answers to social problems (yes/no)

To ensure that indeed all of these nine items form one scale, a reliability analysis was performed. The results indicated that indeed all of the nine questions were interconnected and measure one underlying concept (Cronbach’s Alpha=0.81). The religious belonging index has been created by averaging the standardized values for each indicator.

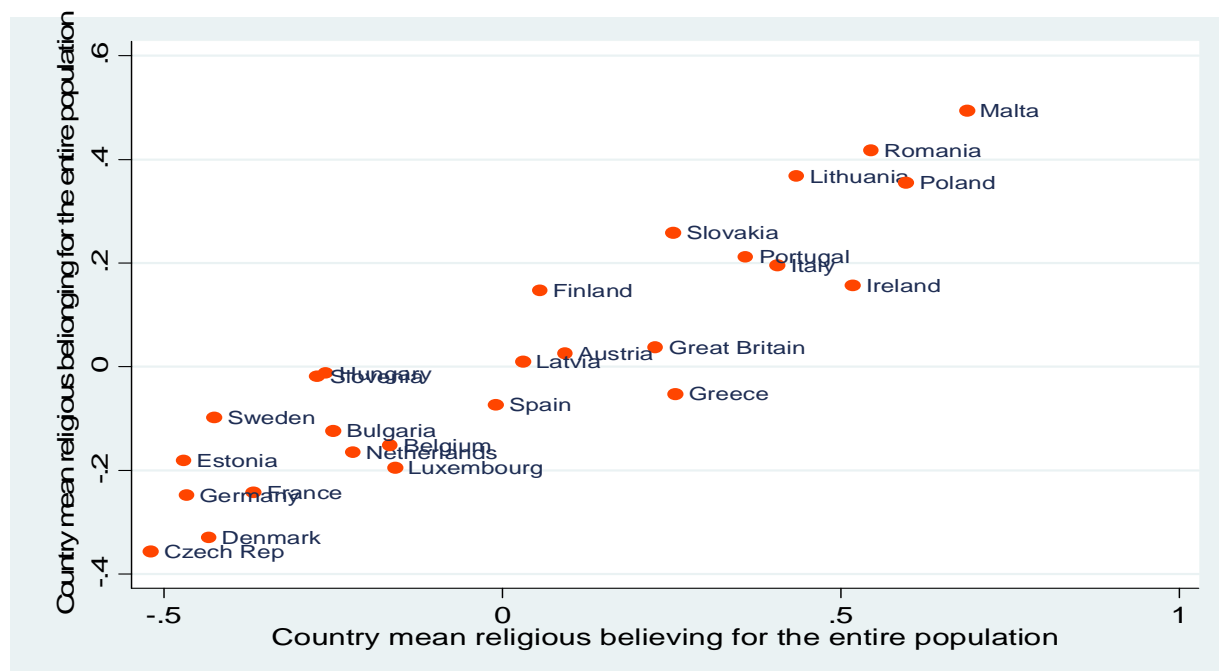
A similar approach has been used to construct an overall index for religious believing. The indicator is based on the following eleven EVS questions:

- Importance of religion (4 categories)
- Religious person (3 categories)
- Believe in God (yes/no)
- Believe in life after death (yes/no)
- Believe in heaven (yes/no)
- Believe in hell (yes/no)
- Believe in sin (yes/no)
- There is God/ life force spirit/ don't know/ there isn't God
- How important is God in personal life (10 scale category)
- Find comfort and strength in religion (yes/no)
- Take time for meditation and/or prayer (yes/no)

Just as in the case of 'religious belonging', the eleven items have been submitted to a reliability check. The results confirmed that all of the eleven questions form one scale (Cronbach's Alpha=0.91). The overall index has been constructed by averaging the standardized values for each indicator.

A positive relationship between the two indexes, namely 'religious belonging' and 'religious believing', exists. This relationship holds both at the individual level (the correlation between the two items is very high at 0.73) and at the country level, i.e. countries with higher mean scores on one index tend to have a higher mean score on the other index as well (see Figure 1 below; the country level correlation is 0.90). This finding suggests that there is a strong albeit not complete overlap between the two concepts, as individuals who bestow greater importance to the Church in their lives are also the individuals who more thoroughly embrace religious ideas and beliefs.

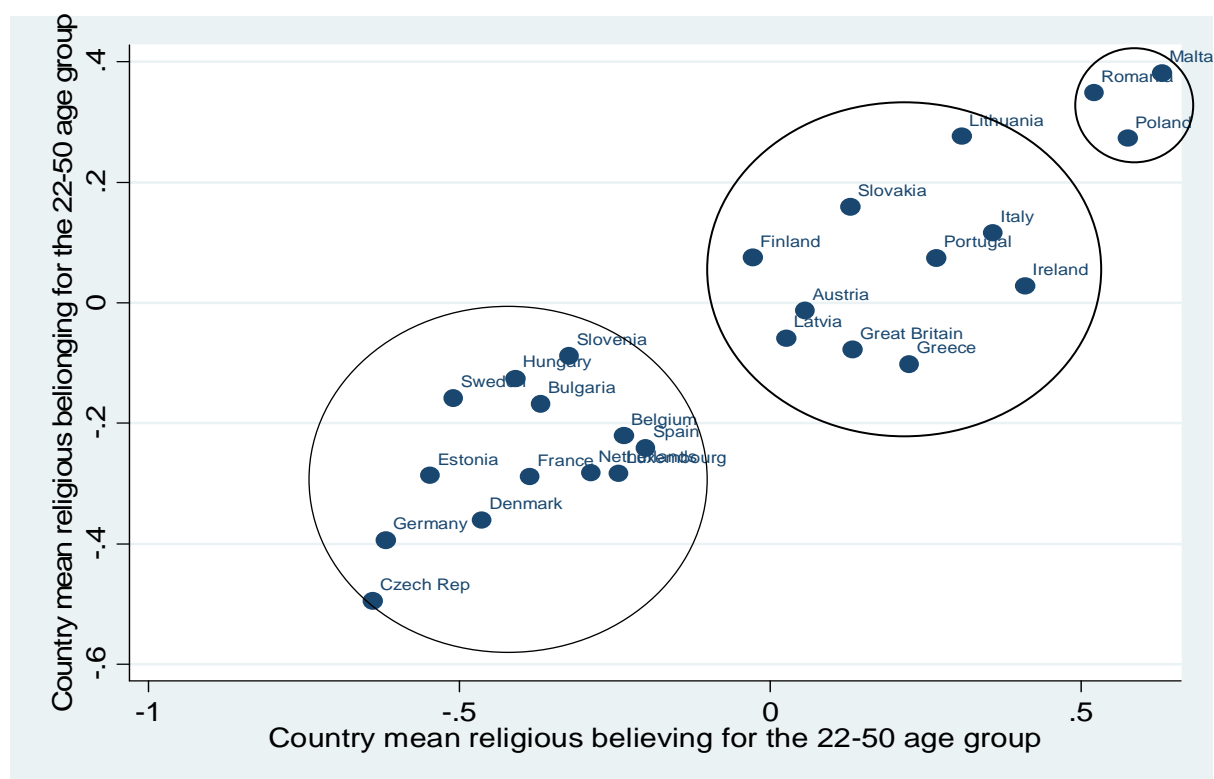
Figure 1: Religious belonging and religious believing in Europe



So far, the discussion has concerned the entire population. Nevertheless, our main concern lies with primary school children and their parents. Regrettably, the first group is impossible to tap since EVS has sampled the 16+ population and therefore missed young children altogether. Parents of young children, on the other hand, have been included in the study. Ideally, we would carry out our analyses on this group only. Unfortunately, this approach is unsuitable for two reasons. Firstly, the EVS does not provide detailed information on the age of the respondent's children. Secondly, throwing out all the respondents who do not have young children would have reduced the sample size too much, thereby hindering statistical analyses of the data. As a result, a compromise solution has been chosen, namely an age restriction. All of the analyses have been conducted on respondents aged 22 to 50 years, thereby excluding those who were 21 or younger and those who were 51 or older.

A scatter plot relating the same two indexes, namely 'religious belonging' and 'religious believing' at the country level, this time restricting it to the population aged 22-50, reveals a similar positive association (see Figure 2)

Figure 2: Religiosity in Europe among the population aged 22-50



Looking at the scatter plot in Figure 2, three groups of countries seem to emerge:

- 1) a large group which has rather low scores on both indexes; this group comprises of Czech Republic, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Estonia, Sweden, Denmark and France;

- 2) a medium-sized group for which both indexes, but especially religious believing are higher; the group consists of Slovakia, Lithuania, Ireland, Portugal, Italy, Finland, Austria, Greece and the UK;
- 3) a small group which contains Romania, Poland and Malta; all three countries have strikingly high values on both the religious belonging and the religious believing indicators.

This grouping of countries has been verified by means of several variants of cluster analysis (both hierarchical and k-means). The analyses have consistently yielded the three group solution described above.

2.2 Religiosity and demographics

The two religiosity indicators provide an overall picture of the level of religiosity in 26 European countries as well as of country rankings along these two indicators. Albeit useful, this overall picture may also be concealing. Therefore, the next step is to go one level of detail further, and examine whether and how various demographic groups differ along the two religiosity measures. Two levels have to be distinguished. On the one hand, demographic variables may be linked to the two indexes at the individual level, i.e. within each country. On the other hand, differences between the demographic profiles of various countries may explain the variation in the country average score of religious belonging and/or religious believing.

To account for the first level, simple correlations (a graphic representation of these can be found in Appendices 1 and 2) and regressions have been carried out for each of the 26 countries separately. In total, seven demographic variables have been included in the country regressions, namely, gender, age (in years), employment status (full-time, part-time, retired, housewife and student), education (ISCED scale-7 categories), size of locality, income group (10 categories) and religious denomination. Generally, demographic variables have been found to be unable to account for either religious belonging or religious believing, albeit one general pattern could be discerned. Members of majority religious groups tend to have higher scores on both religiosity indicators, regardless of the specific denomination which happens to constitute the majority in a given country. This finding applies to almost all countries (the exceptions are UK for both religiosity scales, Romania in the case of 'religious belonging' and Sweden in the case of 'religious believing'; in all three cases there is no statistically significant difference between groups pertaining to majority or minority denominations).

Other demographic characteristics that have been found to be linked to religious belonging/believing are gender, age and the size of the locality where the respondent resides. Not surprisingly, women tend to have higher scores on the religious believing index compared to men, apart from a group of countries with relatively low average scores on this index: France, Germany, Belgium, Spain, the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Greece and Luxembourg. Gender differences on religious belonging are statistically insignificant, again with the exceptions of Belgium, Hungary and Romania where women tend to have higher scores than men.

The size and direction of the influence of age on religious belonging/ believing are much less consistent. Quite surprisingly, older respondents have a stronger religious institutional attachment only in Finland and Ireland, while stronger religious beliefs have been found to be associated with being older in Finland, Denmark, Ireland, Malta and the UK. In the Czech Republic, the

relationship between age and both religiosity index is negative, i.e. older people have weaker religious connections with the Church¹(es) and weaker religious beliefs. In a few countries, living in a larger settlement is linked to lower values on one or both religiosity scales.

At the country level, the possible connection between mean country scores on the religiosity indexes and demographic variables was investigated by means of a discriminant analysis. More specifically, the country-level demographic variables were used to try and predict the membership of each country in one of the three clusters constructed based on the two indexes (see above). Neither the country means on demographic variables nor the corresponding regression coefficients could predict cluster membership in a satisfactory manner (error rates are about 60-70%). Put differently, neither the demographic outlook of a country nor the way in which demographics impact on religiosity are associated in any meaningful way with the country average scores on 'religious belonging' and 'religious believing'.

2.3 Religiosity and tolerance

One of the functions that religious belief systems fulfil is to provide models of behaviour. As such, they often carry 'pre-packaged' answers to a host of moral problems and questions. Consequently, they have the potential to heavily impact on human relationships. One way to probe this impact is by exploring whether and how religious institutional affiliation and religious beliefs influence individuals to be more tolerant or, on the contrary, to be stricter in their attitudes towards others. The European Values Survey contains 19 items measuring tolerance in various areas ranging from tax cheating to homosexuality.² In order to obtain a simplified and more parsimonious representation of these 19 items, a factor analysis has been carried out. The results indicate that the 19 items measure three³ interrelated tolerance concepts:

- a 'sin scale' which comprises behaviour which has been harshly condemned especially by the Church: adultery, homosexuality, abortion, divorce, euthanasia, suicide and casual sex;
- an 'ethics scale' which includes actions that are generally thought to be harmful towards others: joyriding, taking soft drugs, throwing litter in the street, driving under the influence of alcohol, smoking, and speeding;
- a 'civiness scale' which consists mainly of issues relating to the relationship between the citizen and the state: claiming state benefits, tax cheating, lying, accepting a bribe, paying a bribe.

All of the resulting three scales have a high internal reliability (between 0.75 and 0.85) pointing towards a strong association between the items of the same scale. The scales have been constructed in such a way that a higher value indicates a more liberal (as opposed to strict) position in the respective area.

¹ By Church, we mean generically a religious community that was successful in institutionalizing itself, regardless of the denomination; it can refer either to the institution of the religious majority group or to the one of a sizeable minority.

² The exact phrasing of the questions is "Please tell me for each of the following statements whether you think it can always be justified, never be justified, or something in between using this card"; a ten point scale is given.

³ Both the eigenvalue and the screeplot criteria indicate 3 factors.

All of the three scales have a statistically significant association with both religious belonging and religious believing at the individual level. The strongest relationship is to be found between the 'sin scale' and 'religious belonging' and between the same scale and 'religious believing' (in both cases the correlation is approximately -0.40). Much weaker relationships (correlations in the range of -0.15 to -0.17) exist between the two religiosity indices and the 'ethics scale' and the 'civicness scale' respectively. That is to say, individuals with either a strong religious institutional attachment or strong religious beliefs have a higher propensity, on average, to show less tolerance towards the issues forming the 'sin scale', i.e. adultery, homosexuality, abortion, suicide etc.. To a lesser degree, they also hold stricter views when it comes to the moral and civic problems.

Only the 'sin scale' is statistically significantly related to both the religious belonging and the religious believing indices at the country level. Countries with more religious people (either in their connection with the church or in their beliefs) are also more conservative (the correlations for 'religious belonging' and 'religious believing' with the 'sin scale' score are -0.684 and -0.682 respectively). No such relationship could be found between the religiosity indices and either the 'ethics scale' or the 'civicness scale'.

To conclude, religiosity does exert a noteworthy influence on the individual attitudes, especially when it comes to issues on which the Church has assumed a clear and visible stance. Interestingly enough, the relationship between 'religious belonging' and the three tolerance indices on the one hand, and the one between 'religious believing' and the same tolerance measures, on the other hand, are virtually identical. This points to the fact that, although theoretically distinct, in practice 'belonging' and 'believing' overlap to a considerably degree, making it hard to pinpoint belonging without believing or believing without belonging.

2.4 Religiosity and gender attitudes

One particular domain on which religion bears heavily is family and gender roles, and above all on the role of women within the family. This final section will look specifically at the relationship between religiosity and gender attitudes. In total, ten questions present in the EVS dataset have been used to construct an index of gender attitudes:

- A child needs both its parents to grow up happily (yes-no)
- Women need children in order to be fulfilled (yes-no)
- Approval of a woman willingly having a child outside marriage (3 categories)
- A long term relationship is necessary to be happy (5 categories)
- A working mother can establish just as warm a relationship with her children as a non-working mother (4 categories)
- A pre-school child is likely to suffer if her mother works (4 categories)
- What women really want is a home and children (4 categories)
- Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as a paid job (4 categories)
- A job is the best way to independence for a woman (4 categories)

Arguably, although all items relate to the gender problematic in some way, they approach it from very different viewpoints, i.e. motherhood, female employment, relationships etc. As such, it might be misleading to mix them. Several statistical procedures (including factor analysis) as well as several item groupings have been tried out to see whether more than one underlying gender

attitudinal dimension could be extracted from the ten questions. Nevertheless, the best solution proved to be one overall index (with a reliability of 0.6). Despite the fact that the ten gender related questions tap into theoretically different aspects, in practice, these aspects tend to overlap, i.e. respondents' views tend to be relatively integrated along a modernist-traditionalist continuum. Consequently, one scale has been built to reflect overall attitudes towards gender roles.⁴ The scale has been constructed in such a way that lower values reflect a more traditionalist position on gender roles.

The next step consists of examining the link between gender attitudes and the two religiosity indexes, i.e. 'religious belonging' and 'religious believing'. Following the same two step approach, results are first described at the individual level and subsequently at the country level. At the individual level, both religious belonging and religious believing are negatively associated with the gender scale (the respective correlations are -0.33 and -0.28). Respondents who have higher scores on either of the two religiosity indices tend to hold more conservative attitudes towards gender roles. The traditionalist bias is heavier for respondents with a strong link to the Church than for respondents with strong religious beliefs.

At the country level, one must first note that East European countries (including Greece) generally have a lower mean score on the gender index, i.e. they are more traditionalist. When looking at the country mean scores on religious belonging and religious believing, only the former is associated with the country score on the gender attitude scale (the correlation size is 0.40). Countries where the attachment to the Church is still powerful are also countries where more people have more traditionalist views towards women. Albeit a similar negative correlation between religious believing and gender attitudes exists, its size is much smaller (-0.29) and, in fact, it is statistically indistinguishable from zero.

Unlike in the case of tolerance scales, gender attitudes, more specifically traditionalist views on gender, tend to have a stronger connection with 'religious belonging' and a somewhat weaker association with 'religious believing'. A stronger institutional attachment is a better predictor of embracing traditional gender roles than strong religious beliefs both at the individual and at the country level, albeit the direction of the association is the same.

2.5 Final remarks

An analysis of religiosity in Europe revealed that there are important variations across countries in the level of religiosity. Interestingly, demographic characteristics are only weakly related to religiosity, while a clear association with both tolerance and attitudes to gender roles could be established. Unsurprisingly, more religious people tend to be less tolerant, especially towards deviations from Church-advocated conduct. Moreover, they view gender relations through a more traditionalist lens. But perhaps the most interesting finding is that there is not much differentiation between 'belonging' and 'believing'. Not only are the two indices through which these concepts have been operationalized highly inter-correlated, but they are also linked in strikingly similar ways to both the tolerance and the gender scales. Both the direction of the association and, more importantly, its magnitude are often comparable for the two indices

⁴ The scale has been built by averaging the standardized values of the ten indicators.

measuring religiosity. There are slight differences of degree though, which point towards ‘religious belonging’ tapping into a more ‘extreme’ type of religiosity than ‘religious believing’.

3 Educational Systems in Europe

Members of the European Union organize and carry out educational processes in very different ways. Historical legacies such as the timing when schools first appeared, state formation and the role that the state subsequently adopted, the position and involvement of the Church, all have shaped distinct outcomes such as the balance between the public and the private sectors, the centralization of the educational system, school autonomy, the status of teachers, and so on. The objective of this section is to map the variation that exists in the setup of the educational systems of the 27 countries that are members of the Union. In particular, we are interested in the role that various religious communities play in the national educational configuration, as well as in the place of religious education in the public system.

To this end, use has been made of information contained in the Eurydice database.⁵ The national reports provide a detailed description of the legislative framework which regulates the educational system, including school careers, financing, administration, curriculum, pupil assessment, school evaluation and so on. In addition, some information is given regarding empirical realities such as the size of the private sector or the size of the fees that parents have to pay in the private sector. In total, ten indicators have been extracted from the data contained within the reports. As our main interest lies in the link between religion and school, we have focused on three aspects of this relationship, namely the role of religion in public education, the existence and organization of denominational schools and school autonomy. The latter dimension has been added in order to establish potential country divergences in the way the state controls private/denominational schools. The ten indicators⁶ are:

- The church-state relationship (whether the church and the state are separated/there exists an official religion);
- Teaching of religious educations in public schools (whether it is compulsory, optional, absent and whether schools are obliged to provide religious education to their pupils if the subject is only optional); religious education may relate to both faith formation and/or to a study of world religious systems; countries vary substantially both in the content that is taught under the heading of ‘religious education’ and in the authorities entitled to shape that content; since there is not enough information in the national reports for a more nuanced view, here only the presence or absence of ‘religious education’ in school curriculum, as well as the status of the subject is investigated;
- Freedom of religious entities to set up schools;
- Size of the private sector (the definition of the private sector is based on the OECD criteria, i.e. composition of the board and not on financing; see next section for more details on the OECD definition);

⁵ The Eurybase database contains national reports which describe the educational system; see <http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/Eurydice>.

⁶ The ten indicators refer may refer either to primary or to secondary education, as specified in Appendix 3.

- Subsidization by the state of the private sector in general and of denominational schools in particular (size and mechanisms of establishing subsidies for the private sector; additional conditions that private schools must fulfil in order to receive subsidies);
- Existence of a common national curriculum (a common national curriculum is considered to exist when a central level agency establishes compulsory subjects to be taught, their content and the minimum (and possibly maximum) number of hours devoted to teaching that content; on the contrary, if only developmental/skill acquisition objectives are set, but not the way to achieve them, the country is considered to have no common national curriculum);
- Control of the schools by a state/national authority (attention is paid in particular to the existence of quality evaluations of private schools by a public body);
- Freedom of setting staff policy in the private sector (several aspects are of interest: whether specific teaching qualifications are required in order to teach in the private sector, mechanisms for appointing teachers, dismissal conditions as well as the freedom of the school to set the salaries of its staff);
- Centralization of the school system (the focus is on whether the educational system is managed by a central level entity and its territorial branches or whether local authorities are responsible for running schools in their area);
- Existence of national examinations (whether pupils sit compulsory or optional examinations organized at the national level, with externally set subjects and/or external marking);
- Cost of attending a private (primary) school (any fee limitations that the law imposes on subsidized private schools as well as information – if it exists - on the actual fees that private schools charge).

A description of each of the 27 countries along the ten indicators can be found in the Appendix 3.⁷

With the exception of the third indicator - all countries allow for the establishment of private schools, albeit some impose a more thorough approval procedure than others, substantial country divergence exists. Most countries have a constitutional separation of the church and the state. This is true especially for Catholic countries, where the state and the Church have fought for primacy, whereas Orthodox and Protestant countries where the state has had a history of incorporating the Church, tend to have a less clear-cut separation

Religious education is normally available in all of the public school systems, except for France where there is a well established principle of secularism within public education. However, countries differ in the emphasis and the weight they give religious education, from compulsory (Austria, Cyprus, Greece), or quasi-compulsory (a special procedure to opt out is needed for example in England) to offering it on a optional but regular basis (students have to opt out in Malta, Belgium, Netherlands, Bulgaria, Poland, Portugal, Scotland) to offering it on request (students have to opt in in Estonia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania). Countries also differ in the extent they impose on schools the obligation to make available religious education in the pupil's faith, when the subject is optional.

Great variation in the size of the private sector exists as well, from under 1% of the pupil population in Bulgaria and Lithuania to 100% in Ireland, where technically all primary schools are

⁷ Information is more detailed and specific for some countries than for others.

private. Not surprisingly, the private sector tends to be more developed in countries where at least some public funding is made available to private schools. The exceptions are Central and East European countries where the only recent re-emergence of the private sector is still visible in its small size despite governmental support.

A national curriculum, quality control, as well as national examinations are all ways in which the content of teaching and the instructional process in private schools may be controlled from the central level. The strictest form of control is the setting of a national curriculum. In prescribing the content of a sizable portion of (sometimes the entire) teaching time, it allows for less flexibility at the school level for the establishment of a certain ethos or specific imprint. On the other hand, in focusing on the input, the imposition of a national curriculum does not provide for any output control, i.e. the skills and abilities of students. From this point of view, the introduction of national examinations constitutes the opposite approach to the establishment of national curriculum. It does provide for some, albeit indirect, control of the content of the educational process (for example, by drawing examination questions from a given syllabus), but it highlights the output side, i.e. the actual achievement of students. Direct quality control, most often through external inspection, represents the middle ground between curriculum setting and national testing. Depending on how the inspection is structured, and the exact attributions of the inspectors, it can emphasize more the actual content of teaching or the educational output. All countries have some form of control, either a national curriculum, or national tests or an inspection system. In fact, the majority of countries have at least two such control mechanisms in place. A more detailed account of country variation along these lines will follow further on, in the context of a discussion on school autonomy.

Schools may also be circumscribed in their ability to set their own staff policies. Almost all countries set special teaching certification/qualifications as a necessary precondition for someone to be able to work in the private educational system (a clear exception is England and Wales). Hiring and dismissal usually fall under the remit of general employment legislation, although special additional conditions may apply either because of educational legislation (for example, Hungary, Lithuania), collective branch agreements (for example, Finland) or because the government directly pays teacher salaries and thus is their employer (for example, France, Spain). Restrictions regarding the flexibility of pay setting may also apply, especially when the schools receive funding for all or a considerable size of their personnel expenses from the state budget (for example, in Belgium, Ireland, Netherlands).

Finally, schools differ in the allocation of administrative responsibilities regarding schools either at the central or at the local level. A plurality of countries has centralized systems in which a central body, usually the Ministry of Education, is responsible for administering schools (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, France, Romania, Portugal, Luxembourg, Malta, Ireland, Austria, Slovakia, and Slovenia). A slightly smaller number of countries have decentralized responsibility for running and often also for financing public schools at the local level. In this case, it is municipal authorities that are in charge of taking administrative decisions (e.g. establishing or closing schools, appointing staff etc.) regarding public schools (Netherlands, Scotland, Poland, Sweden, England, Hungary, Denmark, Spain, Belgium, and Germany). They are also, from a technical point of view, the legal bodies which own schools. Finally, there are some countries that split the various responsibilities between the central and the local levels. Usually, the Ministry of Education retains decision-making power over more sensitive areas, while the local governments are charged with settling routine issues (Finland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, and Estonia).

The cost of attending a private school may differ a lot by country and, in some countries, by school. Very often, countries that offer public funding for private schools on an equal footing to public ones, or shoulder the majority of private school expenses impose limitations on the fees that private subsidized schools may ask of their pupils. The most common situation is that in which private subsidized schools are required to provide education free of charge to their students (for example, Finland, Belgium, Spain and Hungary and Slovakia for the higher subsidy amount). In a few cases, governments allow some fees to be charged but these have to be either nominal or proportional to family income (for example, Slovenia or Germany).

No clear blueprints emerge when looking at all of the ten indicators in conjunction. The ten dimensions cut across each other, thus making any parsimonious grouping of countries in homogeneous clusters elusive. Nonetheless, some broad patterns may be discerned. When looking at the position of the private sector and to that of denominational schools within the private sector, four basic arrangements exist from the funding point of view:

- Countries in which private education is more or less on the same footing as public education - integrated educational systems: Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Netherlands, Poland, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden;
- Countries where denominational schools (of some or all of the denominations) receive more favourable treatment than other schools in the private sector - denomination supportive educational systems, including Austria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Scotland and England & Wales; the denominational bias can be more prominent such as in the Austria, Malta, Portugal or the UK where almost no funding is made available for private non-denominational schools or a relatively mild one as in the Central European countries of Hungary and the Czech Republic where denominational schools are entitled to have a larger share of their expenses borne by the state;
- Countries that offer varying degrees of subsidization to the private sector, but (always) less than the corresponding amount they spend on the public sector - semi-integrated educational systems: Belgium, Estonia, France, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Slovenia; this category is rather eclectic; it contains countries that make public funding available on generous terms such as Belgium and Slovenia, but also countries where no public funding is guaranteed although it is offered in some cases such as Italy;
- Countries that fail to make any public funding directly available to the private sector - segregated educational systems: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Romania.

A quick review of the four categories of countries reveals some interesting findings. Firstly, all of the countries in the fourth category, namely the ones that have segregated educational systems, are Eastern Orthodox countries. Unlike the Roman Catholic Church, Orthodox Churches have tended to be national churches and, as such, developed a special relationship with the state. A long history of cesaropapism started during the Byzantine Empire has cemented a fusion between state and Church. Rather than running a parallel educational network, the Orthodox Church has made its influence felt in public education through the state (a sign of the influence of the Church can be found in the importance given to religious education in the public sector). As a result, no tradition of denominational schools developed in these countries. The private sector developed and was perceived as an (almost) exclusive commercial enterprise, and the state sees no reason to support it.

A sizable private but state-supported sector developed in particular in countries with a large Catholic population (e.g. the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Spain, Germany etc.). Often, the

existing arrangements came about after prolonged accommodation and protracted conflict between the state and the Catholic Church or the Calvinist Churches over the control of the educational system. As a result, denominational schools have gained equal status with public schools while initially maintaining their specific ethos. But because the state often refused to accord a special position to any particular Church, it extended the favourable status enjoyed by Catholic and Calvinist schools to the entire private sector.

A peculiar situation arose in Great Britain. Here, the Church initially established its own educational network but subsequently agreed to have this network overtaken by the state. Consequently, denominational schools have been integrated into the public sector, i.e. they are financed almost in the same way as public or municipal schools, but the Church has retained considerable influence over the way the schools are run and continues to be represented on their boards. The overall result has been a special position of denominational schools within the educational system.

Apart from a sizable Catholic community, decentralization also encourages the emergence of favourable conditions for the funding of private schools. This situation is typical of the Nordic countries. The decentralization of the educational system seems to enable the central state to take a more unitary approach towards the various types of schools, thus making school ownership irrelevant when it comes to the allocation of central funds.

The subsidization of private schools by the state is, of course, only one side of the coin. In return for its financial support, the state has imposed and continues to impose various types of controls on schools and thus to reduce school autonomy (for example, by setting a ceiling on the fees that may be charged). However, the most important aspect that the state may seek to control is the educational process itself. As already mentioned, there are at least three ways in which the state can try to obtain some leverage, namely outlining a compulsory national curriculum, establishing national examinations (possibly as a pre-condition for certification) and by directly inspecting schools. Pooling all three aspects together yields a classification of countries based on school autonomy. Because prescribing educational content through a national curriculum is potentially the most intrusive way of exercising control, this dimension has been treated differently than the other two. Four categories have been built. They represent points along a continuum stretching from extensive school autonomy to strict school control:

- Countries with a great deal of school autonomy (only one of national testing or school inspection is used as method of control)- Belgium, Hungary, Germany and Sweden;
- Countries with substantial school autonomy (both national examinations and school inspection are employed as methods of control)- Denmark, Latvia, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, England & Wales, Scotland;
- Countries with some school autonomy (a national curriculum exists along with either national testing or school inspection) - Austria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Lithuania, Spain;
- Countries with restricted school autonomy (all of the three control methods are present) - France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta.

One thing that becomes immediately apparent is the interconnection between school autonomy (as defined above) and system centralization. All countries in the group with the greatest school autonomy have decentralized educational systems, while all of the countries in the group with the lowest school autonomy have centralized administration. The strong coupling of decentralization with school autonomy points out a consistent pattern of central state involvement in the

educational system. Countries that see education foremost as a state responsibility and domain tend to both directly administer the public sector and to limit the freedom of the private one. The state directly tries to take charge of the system. On the contrary, countries that give more importance to private and local initiative, allow both private entities and the local government more room to take decisions. The state mainly plays the role of a facilitator and regulator.

Apart from decentralization, school autonomy can also be linked to the state-Church struggle. Countries in which the state succeeded in subduing the Church (such as France) developed a setting which restricts school autonomy. In contrast, in countries where neither of the two parties achieved supremacy, a more flexible framework was adopted allowing for more school autonomy (for example, Belgium and Netherlands).

The school autonomy classification depicted above includes only countries which make some kind of provision for public support of private schools. The four states that comprise the last category of the private sector subsidization classification (i.e. countries with no public funding available for private schools) have been intentionally omitted from the analysis. Since they do not shoulder any of the expenses incurred in the private sector, in principle, these four countries should have less of an incentive to restrict private schools' autonomy. Quite surprisingly, this expectation is not borne out. Two of them, Cyprus and Romania, have all three control measures in place, while the other two retain a national curriculum and, in the case of Bulgaria quality inspection as well, as tools to intervene within the private sector. However, a more careful reconsideration of the history of these four Orthodox nations underlines the prominent place that state agency has always held. Indeed, the strong centralization of school administration in all four countries confirms the exceptional role of the state.

To conclude, current educational systems in Europe are very much a product of national historical developments. Past contingencies have created specific equilibriums that retain a lingering influence on the way the educational system is organized and educational instruction structured. Rather than conforming to some logically constructed model(s), current European educational systems mirror past accommodations and compromises. Both public support for the private sector and the various degrees of embedded school autonomy can be traced back to state formation processes, such as the emergence of a conflict for supremacy between the state and the (Catholic) Church, the outcome of this conflict and, more generally, the role that the state assumed in shaping society. In turn, the lasting influence of historical legacies gives rise to an amazing diversity in the setup of educational services in Europe that may seem surprising at first glance. Instead, it merely emphasizes path dependency in national policy formation.

4 School Choice Processes in Europe

State legislation can facilitate or, on the contrary, impede the development of the private sector in general and of denominational schools in particular. But the ability of private schools to secure a firm foothold hinges on whether parents choose to send their children to private instead of public schools. So, the question arises as to how this school choice decision is taken. More specifically, who are the parents that are more likely to send their offspring to private /denominational schools and what are the characteristics of the schools that are most successful in attracting students? Unfortunately, no comprehensive cross-national data exist on the

attendance of public versus private schools at the primary level. Nonetheless, a valuable insight into school choice processes can be gained from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), developed by the OECD. It collects cross-nationally comparable information on student achievement and skills of 15-year olds, but also contains data on student and school background.

The PISA survey does not distinguish between denominational and non-denominational schools. However, it does provide information on both school boards and funding. Thus, three types of schools can be discerned⁸, i.e. public, private-independent (private board and mostly private funding), and private-dependent (private board and mostly public funding). Obviously, denominational schools may be run in a variety of ways. In principle, they could be public schools with a school board that is in its entirety or in its majority appointed by public authorities. Nonetheless, faith schools usually have some members of their patron Church or order represented in the school's governing body. Similarly, denominational schools draw their funds from a variety of sources, ranging from public grants and donations to student fees. Still, the majority of European countries do offer financial support to denominational schools. Consequently, as an approximation of 'faith school' selection, we focus our attention on choice of a private-dependent school over a public one. Arguably, there is not complete overlap between the denominational and private-dependent categories; however the latter can be seen as a good proxy for the former.

Three waves of the PISA survey have been carried out so far, in 2000, 2003, and in 2006. Use has been made of all three waves by pooling them into one database. This strategy allows us to maximize the number of private-dependent schools present in the database. Even so, a number of countries had to be discarded as an insufficient number of private dependent schools were present in the national dataset (a minimum of ten private dependent schools was needed for the country to be included in the analysis). Both countries that make no provision for public funding of private schools (Bulgaria, Greece, Romania) and countries with a small publicly-funded private sector (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, the UK) had to be excluded. Additionally, Cyprus and Malta are not part of the PISA survey. Poland and France had to be dropped for technical reasons. Consequently, a valid analysis of school choice could be carried out only for 15 of the 27 EU members.

Our analysis of school choice starts with a set of logistic regressions estimating the odds of choosing a private dependent school over a public one. Regressions have been performed separately for each country (detailed results can be found in Appendix 6; also, descriptive statistics for all variables, by country, are presented in Appendix 5). Based on existing literature comparing private and public schools, as well as on availability of comparable data in the three waves of PISA, a variety of family and school characteristics likely to influence school choice have been included. Gender, immigrant status, cultural possessions, wealth, both maternal and paternal education and occupational status have been incorporated to account for family background variation in the population of private and public schools. The school's social composition (percentage of students having at least a parent with a university degree), the school's size, its admission policies (whether it considers parental endorsement of the school's educational philosophy and attendance of its special programmes as criteria when admitting

⁸ A school is considered to be private if its principal reported being managed by a body whose members were in their majority not selected by a public authority; a school is private-dependent if 50% or more of its funding comes from public sources and it is private independent if less than 50% of its revenues come from public sources; charging fees does play a role in this classification, that is, all three types of schools may, in principle, charge or not charge fees.

students), as well as variables related to the school's resources, namely student-teacher ratios, computer-student ratios and a composite index of educational resources have been considered as potential factors influencing school choice on the school side. Finally, to gauge the potential deterrent effect that the financial costs of attending a school might have, a tuition variable, i.e. whether the school charges tuition fees or not, has been included (For a more detailed description of both student and school level characteristics included in the analysis, see Appendix 4).

As already mentioned, predictors of school choice include both student level and school level characteristics. While the interpretation of student-level characteristics is more straightforward since they are antecedent to the moment of selecting a school, the picture is more complex in the case of school characteristics. In particular, the problem resides in the fact that information on school selection is only partial and indirect, including only admitted students. There is no information on those who would have liked to attend a certain school in the sample and have been rejected, or on whether existing students had a first-choice preference that is very different from their current school. As a result, causal directions are unclear, a case of endogeneity. On the one hand, school characteristics certainly play a role in influencing individual decisions about school selection. On the other hand, schools differ on a variety of characteristics and it is not always clear which are drawing students and which are merely found more in schools that draw students. For example, a positive correlation between attending a private school and charging tuition does not so much reflect the fact that parents select the school because it charges tuition, but the fact that private schools, as a rule, do have fees. With the data at hand it is impossible to clearly differentiate between the two alternative interpretations. However, since our main interest lies in pinpointing determinants of individual decision-making processes, we largely adopt the first frame of reference, i.e. school characteristics influence individual behaviour.

Logistic regressions predicting⁹ the choice of a private dependent school over a public one reveal, quite surprisingly, that school characteristics trump family traits in importance. By and large, a better social composition significantly increases the likelihood of opting for a private-dependent school. Yet, the magnitude of the effect is moderate, with the largest impacts to be found in Sweden and Finland. Furthermore, two European countries (Netherlands, Portugal) display a lower likelihood of opting for a private school as the school's social composition variable increases. Among the variables measuring educational resources, only the composite index has a consistent positive effect. The other two, computer-student ratio and student-teacher ratio, often point in a direction contrary to the expected one. More teachers per student in a private-dependent school increase the likelihood of attending it only in five countries, namely Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Finland and the Netherlands. Conversely, more teachers per student seem to decrease the odds of attending a private dependent school in 12 countries. A similar picture emerges in the case of school computer resources relative to the number of students. More computers per student are positively associated with choosing a private dependent school in 11 countries and negatively in 9. Having tuition fees is positively linked to choice of a private dependent school. The finding is, in all probability, spurious and triggered by the fact that most private dependent schools in a number of countries do charge tuition fees. The existence of tuition fees deters parents from choosing a private dependent school for their children only in France, Hungary, Italy, Portugal and Slovakia.

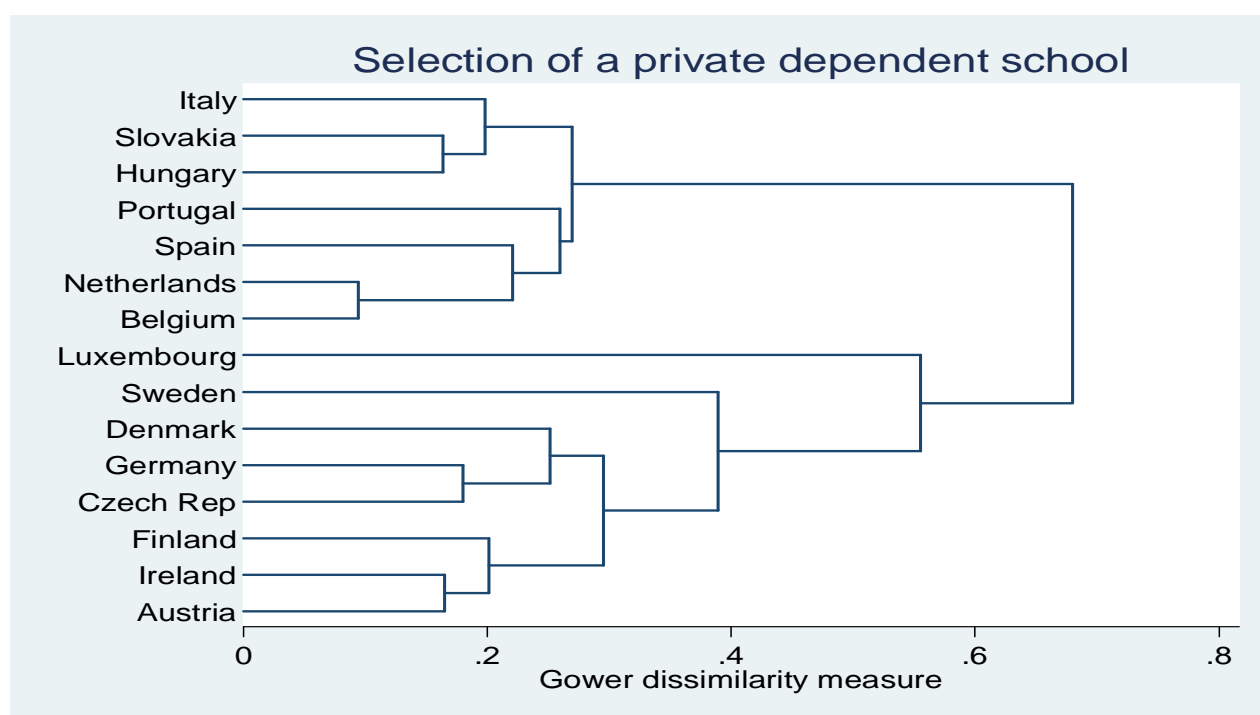
Among family characteristics, the most important predictors are mother's occupational status and father's occupational status which both have a positive effect on the odds of choosing a private

⁹ A table containing all the regression coefficients by country may be found in Appendix 6.

dependent school in eight countries. By contrast, maternal and paternal education rarely have a noteworthy effect and when they do it is negative. Immigrant status and use of a foreign language at home are usually non-significant. Moreover, immigrants are more likely to send their children to a private dependent school instead of a public one in Italy, Luxembourg, and Sweden while in Belgium, France, Finland, and Italy parents using a foreign language at home are more likely to send their children to a private dependent school.

Obviously, there are similarities and differences in the way school choice processes operate across European countries. To uncover potentially more clear-cut patterns, a cluster analysis has been carried out in which the country logistic regression coefficients have been used as input. Its purpose is to explore similarities and discrepancies in the influence of individual and school characteristics on school choice across countries, in a more systematized way.

Figure 3: Cluster analysis of regression coefficients predicting choice of a private dependent school over a public one



Results of the cluster analysis indicate that two roughly equal groups can be discerned; a graphic representation of the results, in the form of a cluster dendrogram, is presented in Figure 3. The first one contains Belgium, Hungary, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, and Spain. The second one is made up of Austria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Germany, Luxembourg, and Sweden. The first group is characterized by a positive effect of inclusion of parental endorsement of the school's philosophy in the admission criteria, an only small positive or even negative effect of school composition, and, in some countries, a negative effect of charging tuition fees. From the variables measuring school resources, only the overall index of educational resources has a consistent positive impact. Parental characteristics seldom have an effect on the choice of a private dependent school over a public one, although a small positive effect of wealth is registered in some countries. Cultural possessions, parental education and parental occupation have virtually no effect. Likewise, immigrant status does not increase or

diminish the propensity to opt for a private dependent school over a public one. Private dependent schools in countries belonging to the first cluster seem to be preferred based on their specific identity and not so much on a perceived higher quality. These schools are fairly inclusive, catering for a wide range of groups, including working-class parents.

Specific to the second group is a large and positive effect of school composition, as well as a negative effect of school size and of high student-teacher ratios. Girls are more likely to be sent to private dependent schools in these countries. Maternal and/or paternal high occupational statuses also increase the chances of attending a private dependent school instead of a public one. Having higher cultural possessions enhance the likelihood of a private dependent school choice, especially in Sweden and Germany. On the contrary, little or no effect is observed when it comes to maternal and paternal education (except for a slight negative effect of maternal education) or family wealth. A very 'good' social composition together with enhanced resources seems to constitute the prevailing reasons for which private dependent schools are chosen in the second group of countries. These schools tend to cater especially for children of upper-class professionals.

5 Linking religiosity, educational system design and school selection processes

The previous sections have each investigated in turn, religiosity, educational system design and school choice processes. In the introduction, a potential interconnection of these three areas was posited. More specifically, by influencing national policy, religiosity might impact on the way national educational systems are organized in general, and on the position of private denominational schools within the national system in particular. On the other hand, religiosity may play a role in parental decision-making about which type of school one's child attends.

Using data from the European Values Survey, Eurydice and the Programme for International Student Assessment, European Union members have been classified according to religiosity, educational system setup and school choice. The next step is to investigate the level of overlap between these three separate classifications. Firstly, it should be pointed out that no two taxonomies share the same number of categories. Secondly, of course not all countries are present in the categorization of school choice processes. Thirdly, and most importantly, the three classification schemes cut across each other. Countries that are members of the same group in one scheme belong to separate groups in one or both of the other two. As a result, no correspondence can be established between the categories of the three classifications.

No connection emerges between strength of religiosity and the position of private /denominational schools within the national educational system. Countries belonging to the group with the lowest scores on religiosity may subsidize private schools on a par with public ones (Denmark, Netherlands, Spain), confer a special position to private denominational schools (the Czech Republic, Hungary) or subsidize private denominational schools less than the equivalent they spend on the public sector (France, Belgium, Slovenia). Conversely, countries with moderate to high religiosity scores may be found in each of the four groups in the educational systems classification. If religiosity does have an effect on the shape of the educational system, it is past and not current religiosity that is relevant. The conflict between the state and the Church as well as its outcome did imprint a specific outlook on the way national

educational systems are organized, and especially on the position of private denominational schools.

Similarly, no association materializes between religiosity and school choice processes. Although a correspondence between higher country average religiosity and identity-based school choice could have been expected, this expectation is not borne out by the data. Both countries with low and moderate religiosity can be found among members of the first school choice cluster, i.e. countries in which private dependent schools are chosen on the basis of their ethos (for example, both Belgium and Italy belong to this group). The same mix in the country mean religiosity score appears in the second school choice cluster, i.e. countries where private dependent schools are chosen on quality (both Denmark and Austria are members of this group).

Consequently, the main finding that emerges from this three-fold analysis is that the current strength of religiosity impacts neither on the organization of educational systems nor on school choice processes. Put differently, religiosity has practically no impact either at the macro or at the micro level. However, a caveat needs to be mentioned, namely that all of the conclusions are based on analyses carried out at the country level. While this is the natural level of analysis when trying to link religiosity and the design of the educational system, the relationship between school selection decisions and religiosity is better investigated at the individual level (for example, by examining whether more religious parents are more inclined to send their children to a faith school). Such an investigation would require a better dataset, i.e. one that includes both a measure of the parental religiosity and information about type of school attended. Unfortunately, such information is not yet available on a cross-national, European level.

Qualitative research carried out in the framework of this project will take a more in-depth look at the connections between religion/religiosity and education. In doing so, five very different countries will be examined. Flanders and Germany both have low religiosity levels, subsidize their denominational schools to a considerable extent while at the same time awarding them substantial autonomy. Yet, school choice processes are different in the two countries. Belgium belongs to the first cluster where private dependent schools tend to be selected based on their specific ethos, while Germany is included in the second cluster where private-dependent school choice rather reflects a higher perceived quality. Ireland and Scotland both have medium levels of religiosity, but educational systems are organized differently. Ireland does not really differentiate between private and public schools in terms of public funding, while in Scotland denominational schools clearly enjoy a more favourable position compared to other private schools. Furthermore, while the Scottish system transfers significant decision-making powers to the school level, schools in Ireland enjoy much less leeway in deciding how they are to be run. Finally, Malta is a case of very high religiosity levels combined with a system that favours denominational (more precisely, Catholic) schools over the rest of the private sector and, that, at the same time, strongly limits school autonomy. Interviews with children, parents and school representatives should allow the tapping into more fine-grained processes and thus shed more light on the intricate relationship between religion and education in Europe.

Appendix 1: Religious belonging in various demographic groups by country

Figure 1: Religious belonging by sex (population aged 22-50)

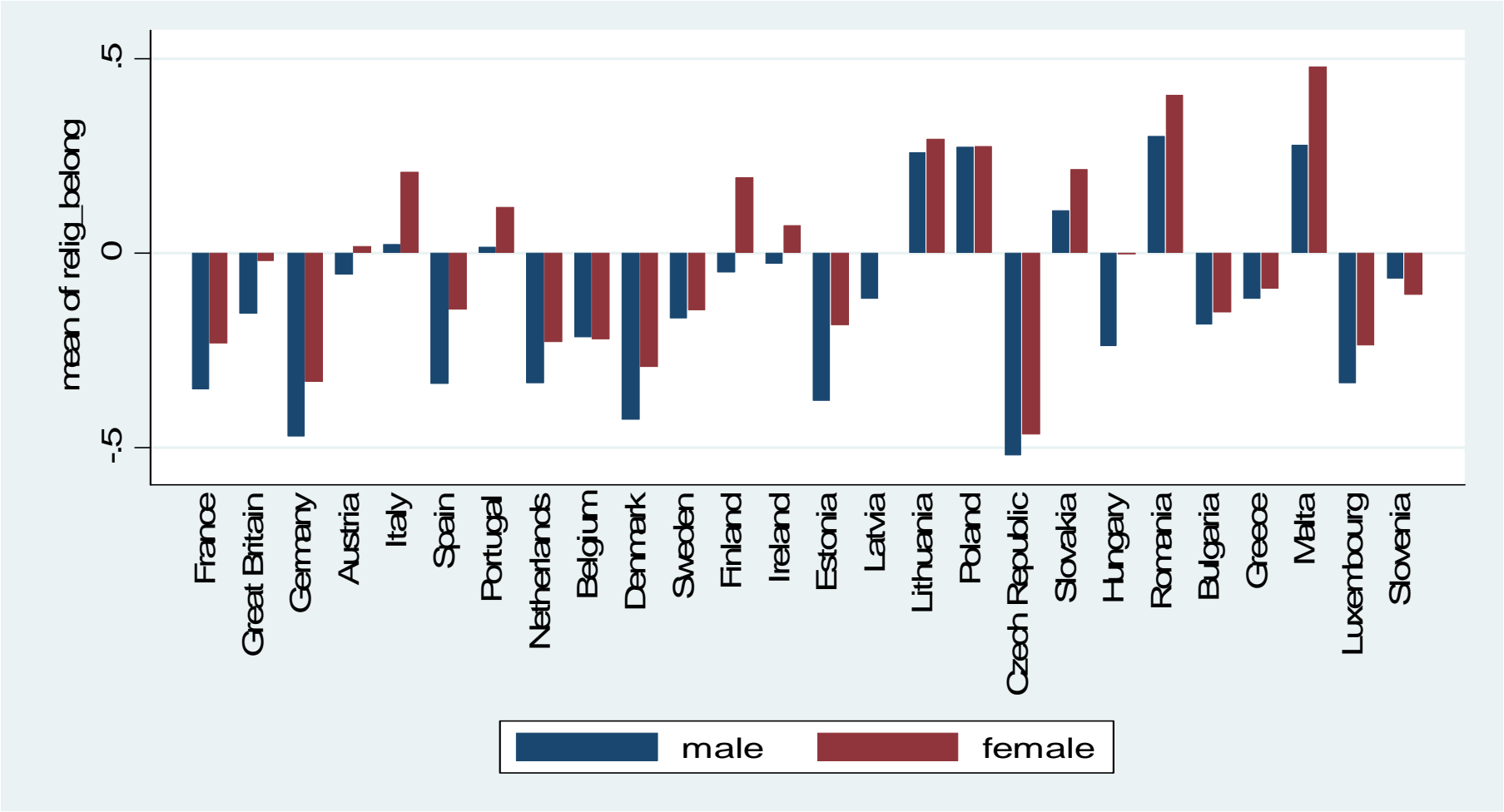


Figure 2: Religious belonging by educational level (population aged 22-50)

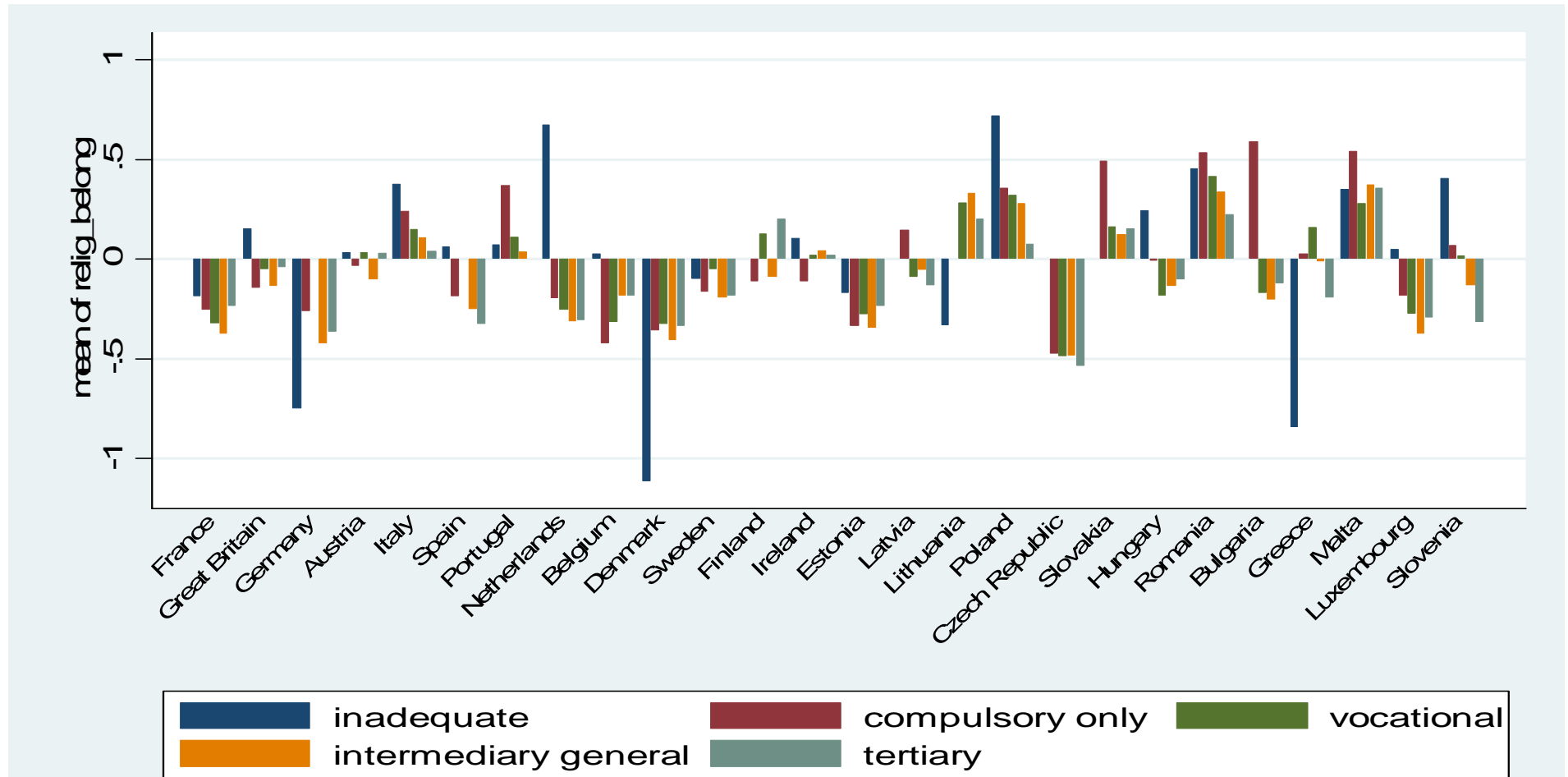


Figure 3: Religious belonging by employment status (population aged 22-50)

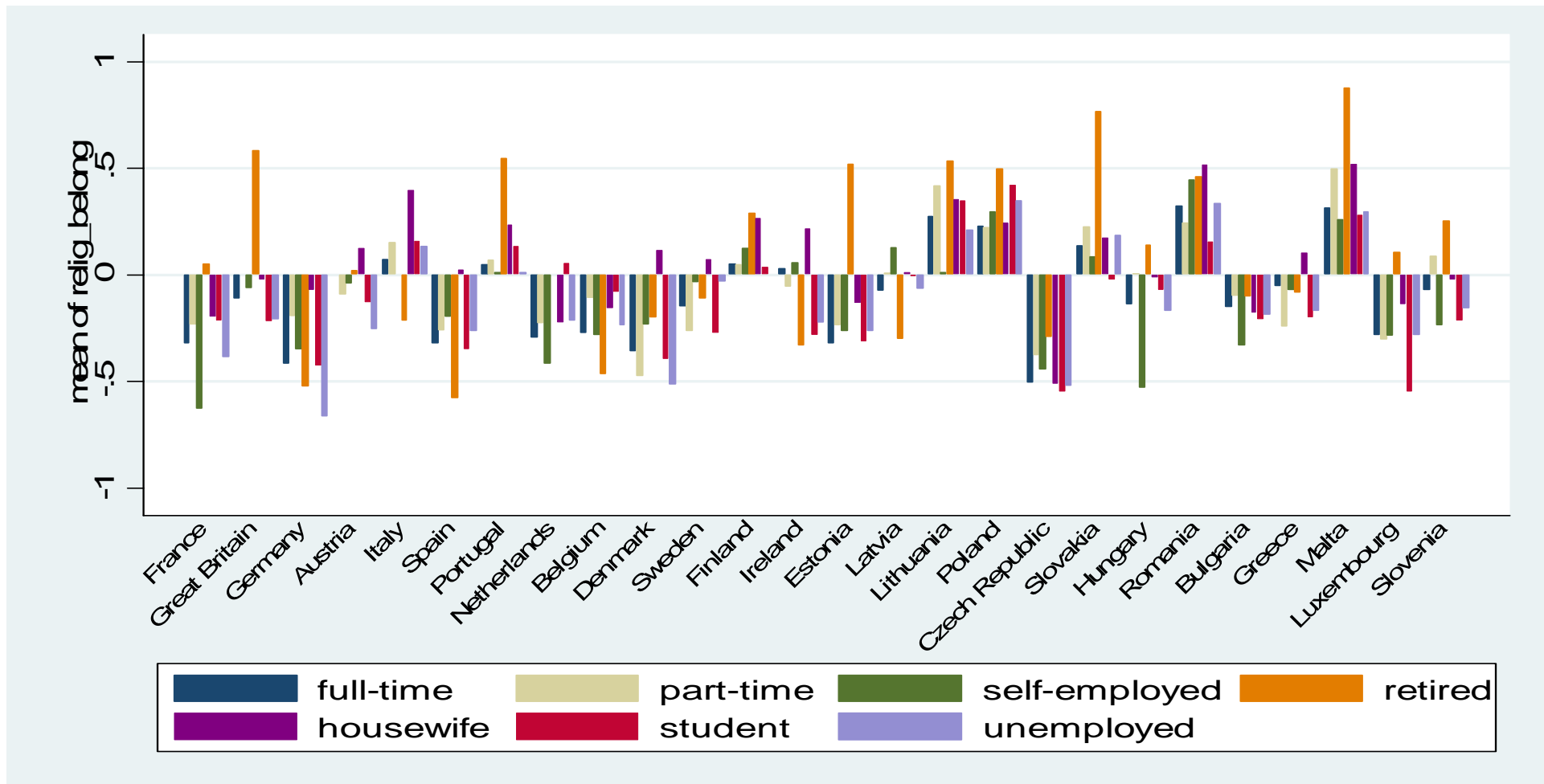


Figure 4: Religious belonging by age group (population aged 22-50)

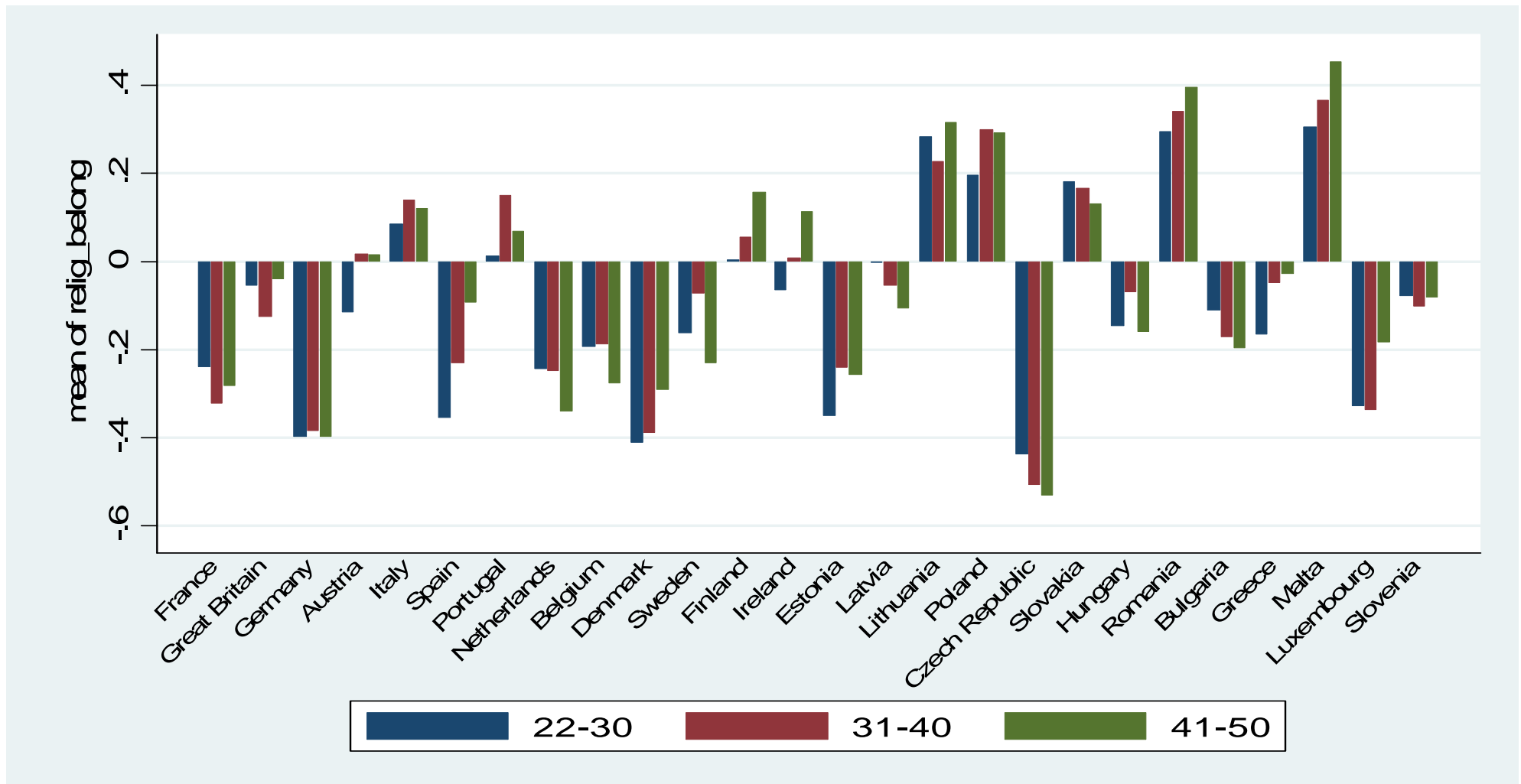


Figure 5: Religious belonging by religious denomination (population aged 22-50)

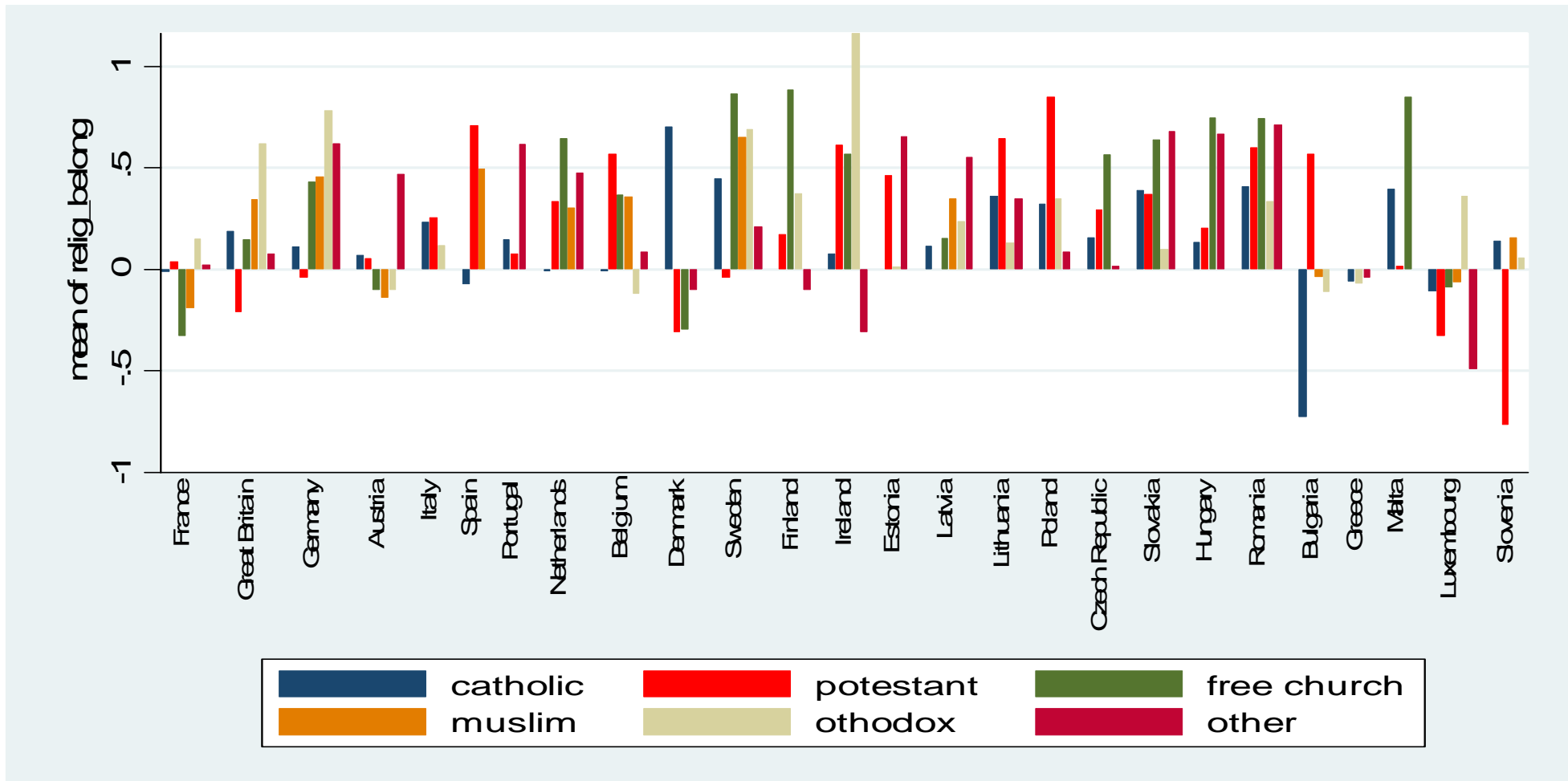
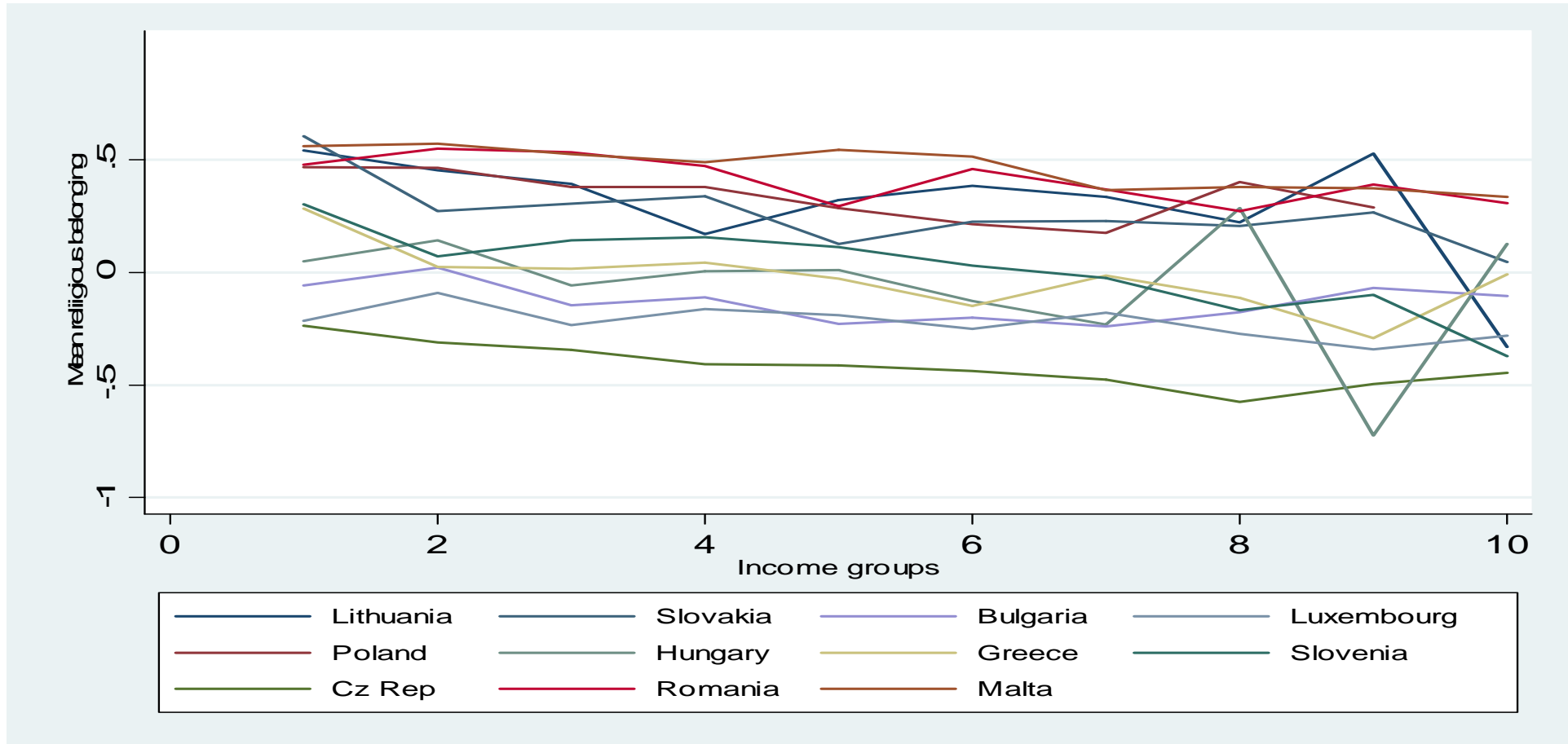


Figure 8: Religious belonging by income group-part two (population aged 22-50)



Appendix 2: Religious believing in various demographic groups by country

Figure 1: Religious believing by sex (population aged 22-50)

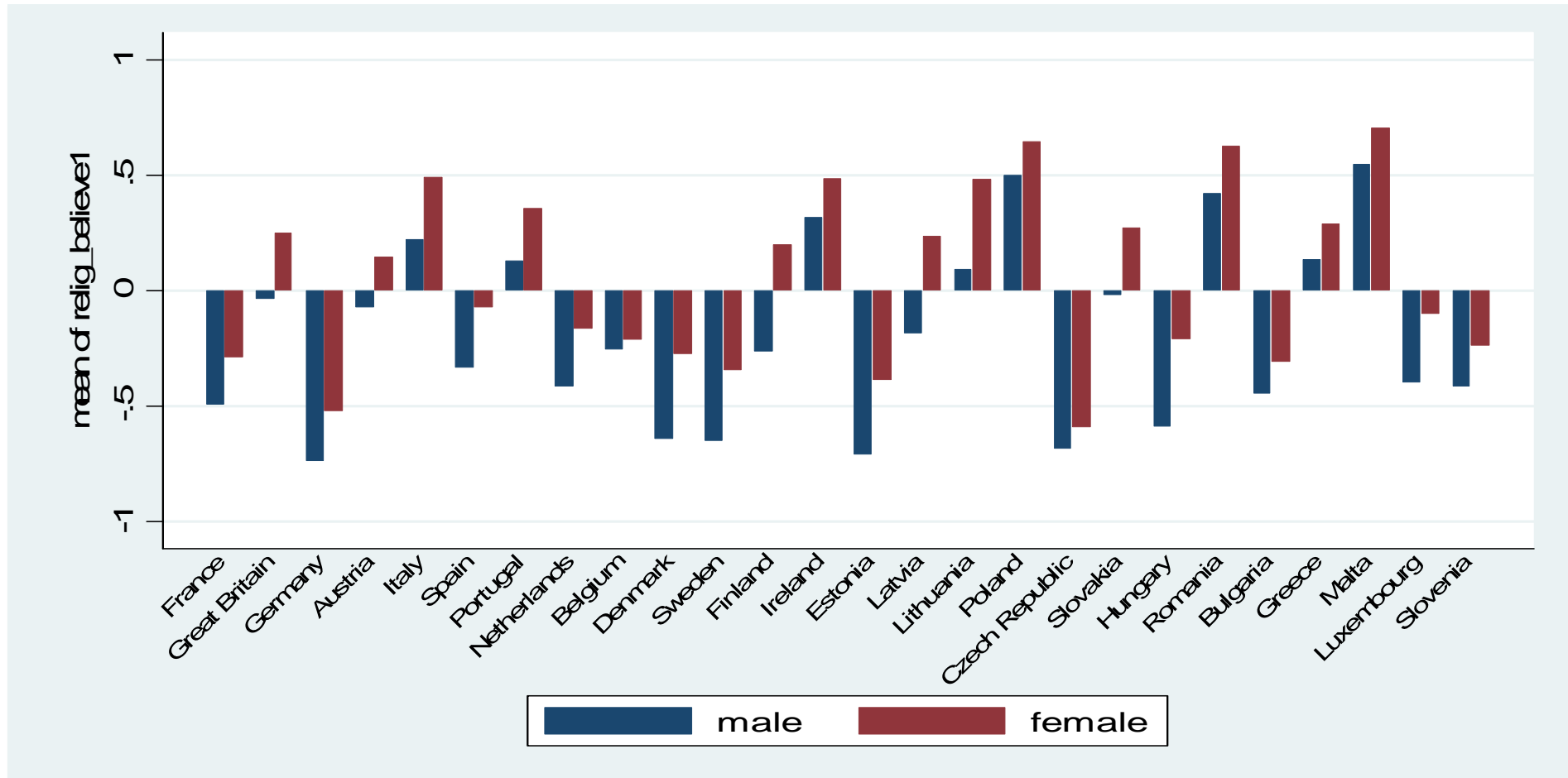


Figure 2: Religious believing by educational level (population aged 22-50)

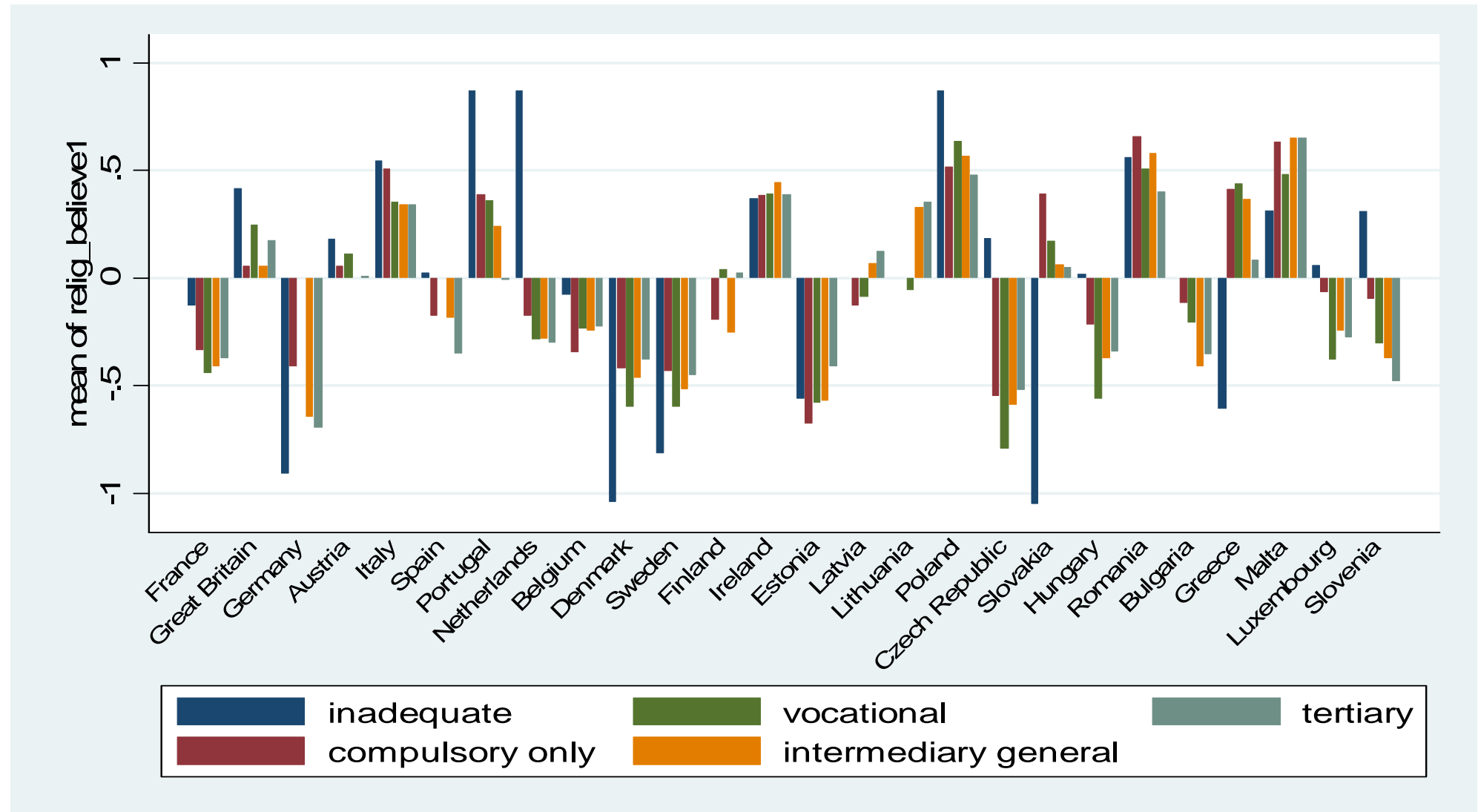


Figure 3: Religious believing by employment status (population aged 22-50)

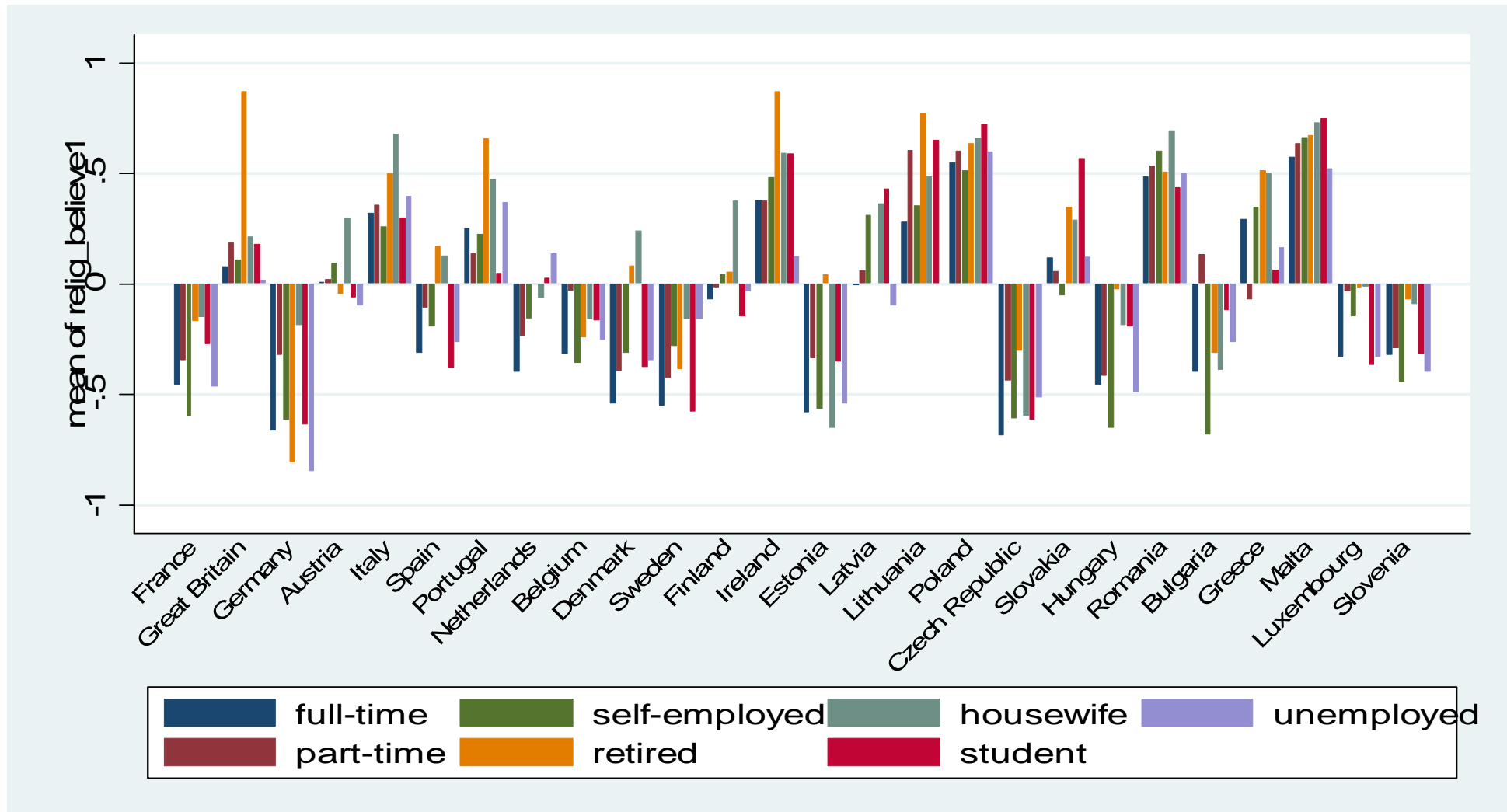


Figure 4: Religious believing by age group (population aged 22-50)

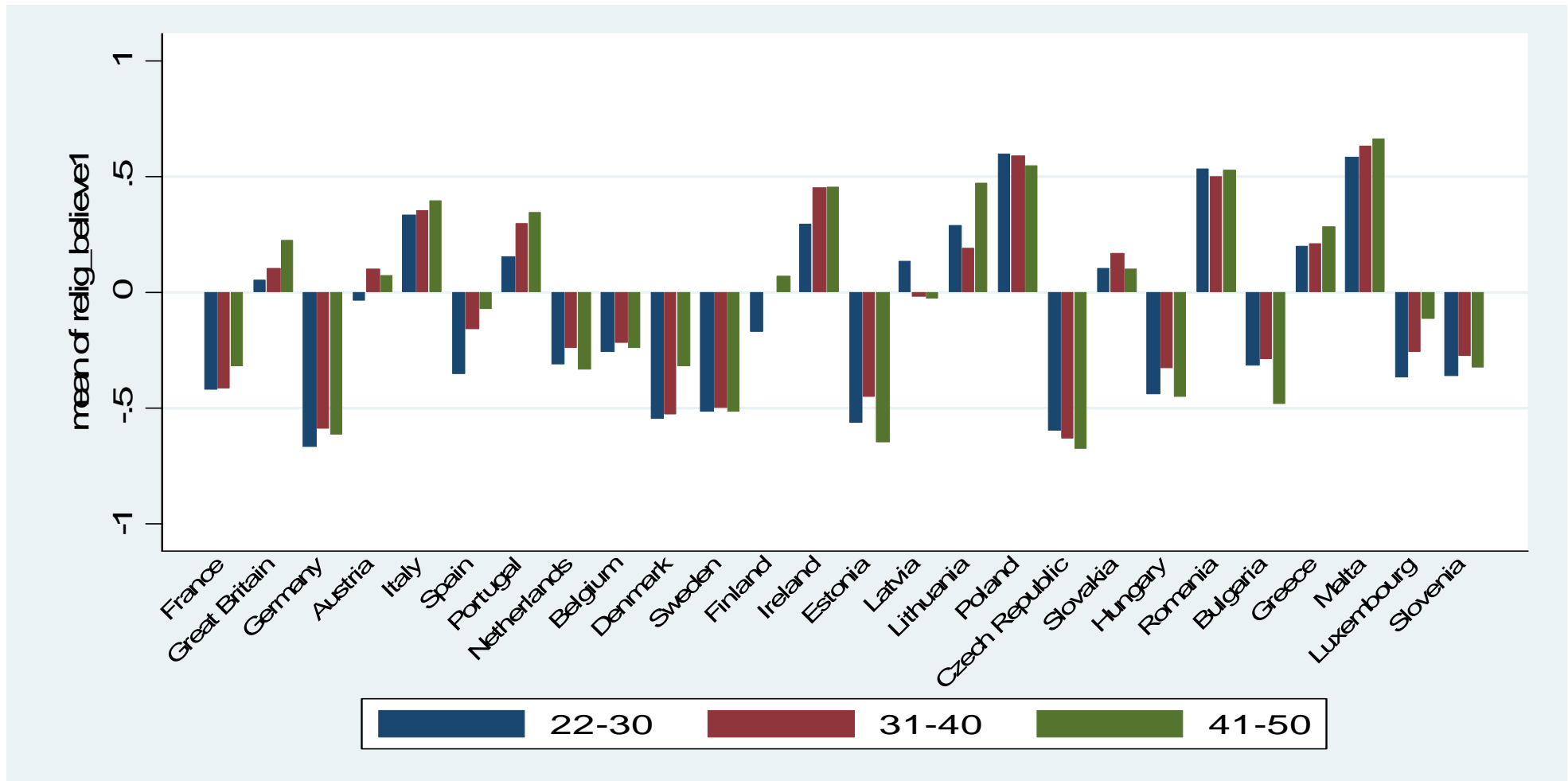


Figure 5: Religious believing by religious denomination (population aged 22-50)

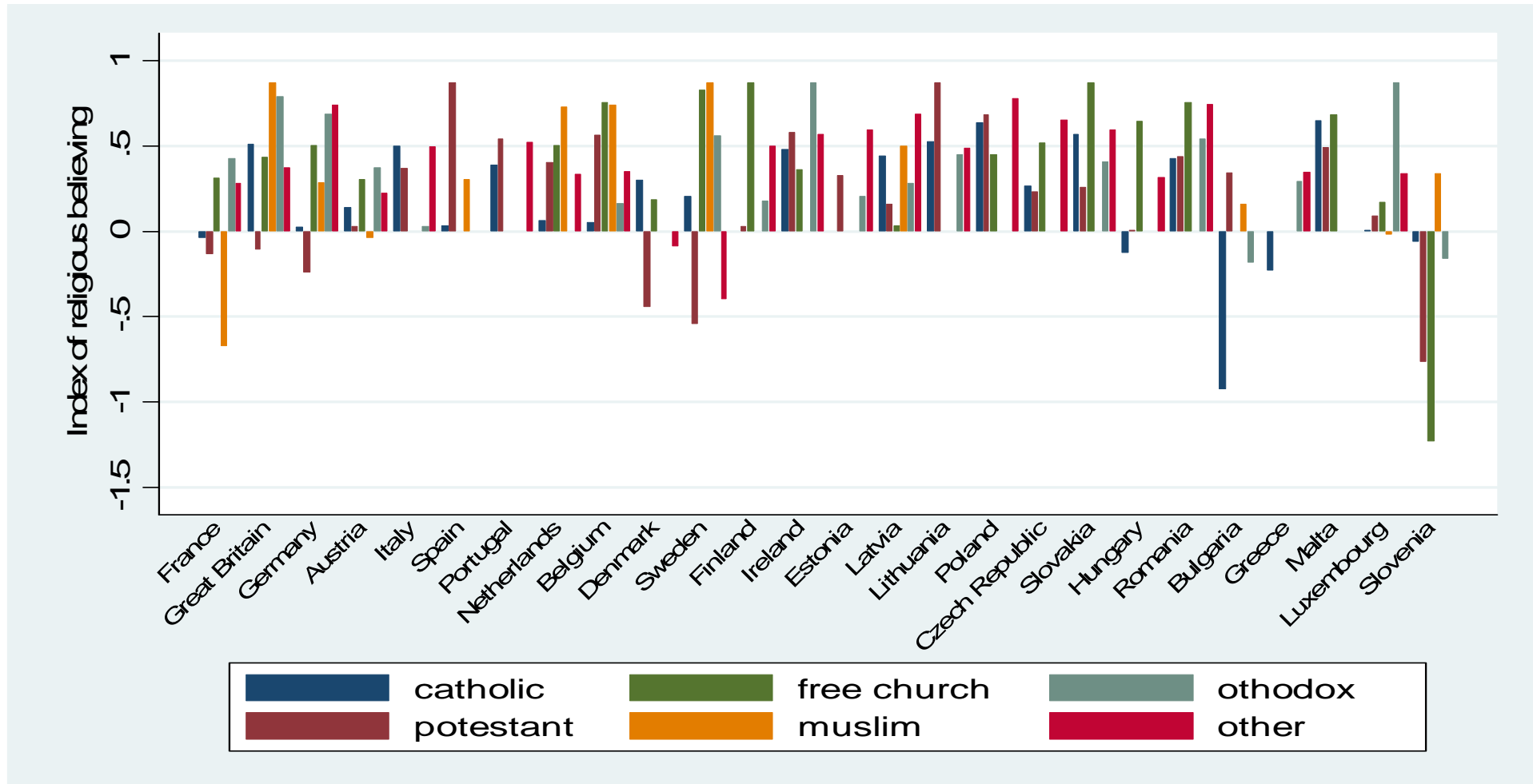


Figure 6: Religious believing by occupation (population aged 22-50)

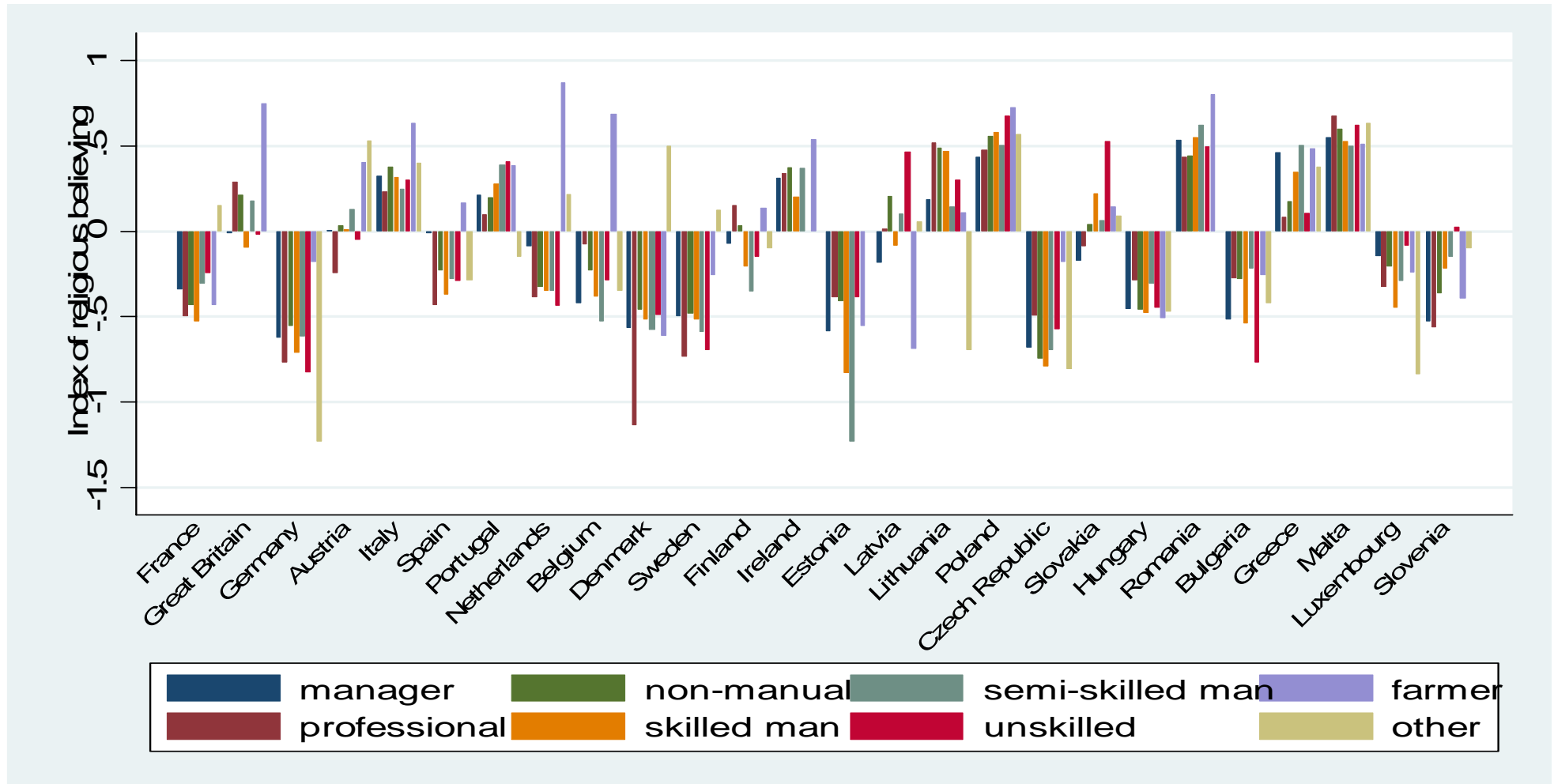


Figure 7: Religious believing by income group-part one (population aged 22-50)

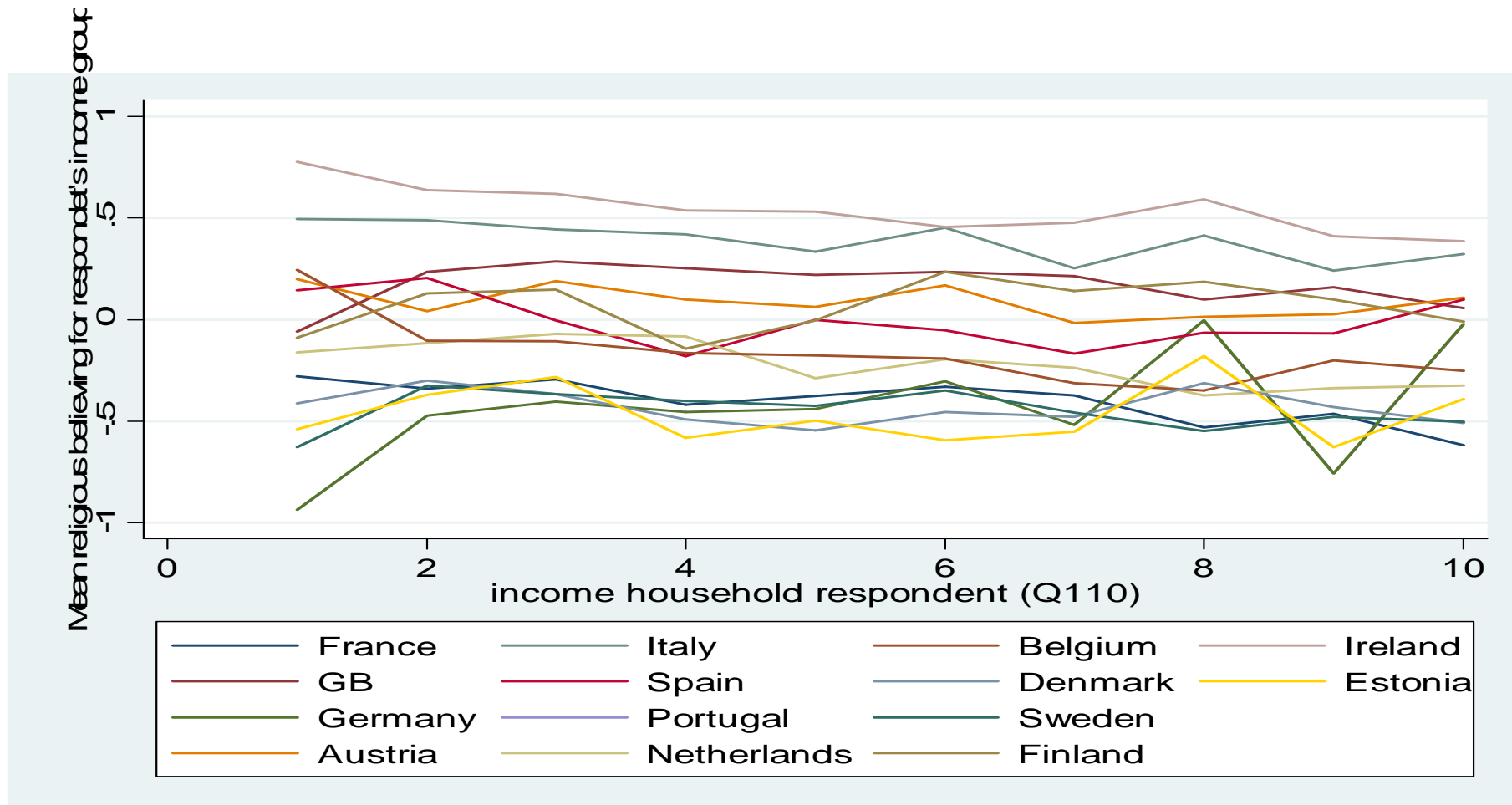
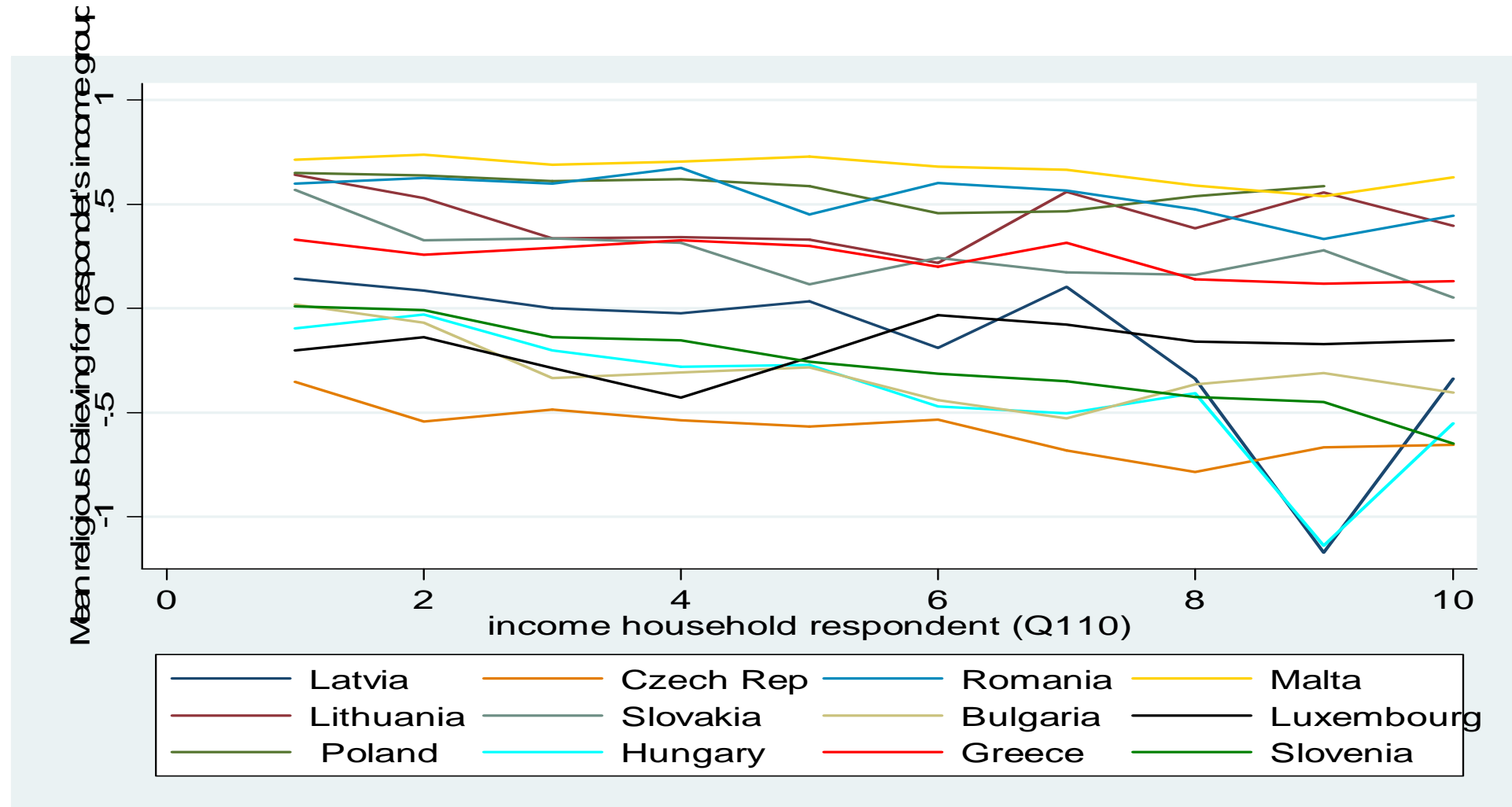


Figure 8: Religious believing by income group-part 2 (population aged 22-50)



Appendix 3: Educational systems in the European Union

| Country | Malta | Ireland | Germany | Austria |
|---|--|--|---|--|
| Religion and the state | Catholicism is the official religion | No official religion | No official religion | No official religion |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Catholic religious education compulsory in public schools; parents may opt out if they wish | Voluntary | Yes, religious instruction part of curriculum in public schools, except nondenominational schools; Islamic religious education-separate and voluntary | Yes; all children in public school receive compulsory religious education in their own faith, provided they are a member of a recognized church or religious community |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; any person may ask for a license to establish a school | Technically, all schools are private | Yes, freedom to establish privately-maintained schools established by the Constitution; special conditions for establishing privately maintained primary schools-only when serving a special pedagogical interest, non-denominational schools or inspired by a denomination/ideology inexistent in the public sector | Yes; under the Constitution (Basic Law) anyone has the right to set up a school at any level |
| Size of the private sector | 82 (Catholic) Church Schools (22% of pupils) 52 private independent schools (10% of pupils) | Primary schools- mostly state-aided parish schools (92% of primary schools Roman Catholic and the majority of the rest-other denominations) ; 39 Private | Primary schools- 567 privately-maintained schools (2% of pupils) Secondary schools- 2415 (30,9 | Around 10% of pupils go to private schools; two types of private schools- having public law status (i.e. equivalent to public schools) and without |

| | | | | |
|--|--|---|--|---|
| | | Multidenominational schools; 121 Irish medium Primary schools; Secondary Voluntary schools-denominational and privately owned-55% of pupils; the other 3 types (Vocational, Community and Comprehensive)-public | of pupils) | public-law status; the students of the latter have to sit examinations in public schools; |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Only Catholic Church schools are subsidized as a result of an agreement between Malta and the Holy See (the state pays 110% of staff remuneration costs); parents of children attending private independent schools receive a tax rebate | The large majority of primary schools receive funds from the DES (only 1.5% of primary schools- non-aided institutions) The state also pays for the purchasing of the site and building of new schools & renovations (however-a certain contribution from the community-necessary) At the secondary level-only voluntary fee-paying schools do not receive full funding but receive grants covering the majority of personnel expenses | Standard financial support guaranteed in all Lander (either a lump-sum allocation or a % of costs) + numerous additional forms of support depending on the Land; | Staff expenditures of all private schools maintained by a church or a religious community are paid by the Federation; |
| Common national curriculum | State sets national minimum curriculum and ensures that all schools comply (religious education is part of this); additional courses for a given school have to receive the | A national curriculum for primary & secondary education exists (Religious education is not part of it; the various denominations have the right to design their own curriculum) | The establishment of a curriculum is the responsibility of the Lander; coordination among the Lander based on a Standing Conference; | Private schools equivalent to public schools must adopt the latter's curriculum; private schools without public law status have their own curriculum which is laid out in |

| | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|
| | Ministry's approval upon a request made by the School | | | their Charter; the Charter is subject to official authorisation |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | Yes; the ministry has the right to inspect every school and school administration | <p>Primary schools required to develop their own School Plan that should include a system of school evaluation; each school is evaluated by the Inspectorate, Primary Branch and DES at least once in 5 years</p> <p>Secondary schools-inspections focused on subject areas rather than schools; self-evaluation-within the SDPI initiative</p> | <p>Privately maintained schools cannot hold their own examinations and award certificated until they are not recognised (i.e. between approval and recognition)</p> <p>All schools are externally evaluated by the respective Land institution; in most Lander-schools required to have a school-specific programme containing quality criteria</p> | School inspectorates at the province level, affiliated with the District and Province School Boards; no mandatory self-evaluation but a number of schools participate in the QIS initiative involving self-evaluation by the school |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Teacher certification by the Ministry required; in theory, freedom to have one's own selection policy but generally the same conditions of pay, promotion and dismissal as in State schools | Special teacher qualification (Higher Diploma in Education) required, but the Teaching Council has the role to recognize formal qualifications only for public secondary schools and primary schools in relation to the State salary; common basic salary scale for all teachers; state regulation of appointments (decision ultimately belongs to the management board) and especially dismissal; | Teacher training highly diversified per level and types of schools; harmonised federation-wide pay policy; most teachers in the Western Lander hold civil servant status meaning that they enjoy "absolute" job security (they can be dismissed only under extraordinary circumstances); remaining teachers are considered salaried employees and enjoy the rights conferred under general employment laws and union agreements; general federal | The Regional Educational Boards (Landesschulrate) have extensive influence on teacher appointments; Teaching diploma usually a prerequisite; however-provincial teachers teaching at lower secondary/vocational schools hired based on the conditions set by the province which is their employer; federal teachers have civil servant status; national legislation regulating pay; dismissal for lack of results possible |

| | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|--|
| | | | provisions regarding promotion; Lander-additional recruitment and promotion regulation | |
| Centralization of the school system | School system managed at the national level | School system centralized (Dep. Of Education and Science)- although some efforts made to devolve power at the regional level | Most legislative and administrative tasks related to education devolved at the Land level | Most legislative and executive responsibilities at the federal level; at the regional level, the Regional Boards (Landesschulrate) decide on all matters which have not been assigned to the Boards by the law |
| National examinations | Yes-annual examinations starting with lower secondary; 3 additional exams: Junior Lyceum Entrance, SEC and Matriculation examination | Yes- Junior Certificate examination-at 15 years & Leave Certificate Examination- at 18 years | No; each Land has its own provisions; some Lander have Land-wide examinations for obtaining some leaving certificates; coordination between the Lander on the standards that have to be achieved to obtain a leaving certificate | No |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | Church schools-no tuition fees but parents expected to pay for textbooks, transportation and make a regular contribution; independent schools- fee paying; | Primary education-free; Secondary education- approx. 8% of schools charge tuition; means-tested assistance is available to minority denominations to attend a faith-appropriate fee charging school | Most private schools (Ersatzschule) maintained by the Catholic and Protestant Churches charge no fees; legal provision that schools cannot segregate according to means; as a result, private schools have to charge small/moderate fees or have a socially equitable fee system; | Fees determined based on private contract |

| Country | Belgium (Flanders) | Belgium (Wallonia) | Bulgaria | Cyprus |
|--|---|---|---|--|
| Religion and the state | No official religion | No official religion | Official religion- Eastern Orthodoxy | No official religion |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Religious education in one's own confession part of the official curriculum; pupils may opt for non-confessional ethics instead | Public schools must offer the choice of religious education in a recognized denomination or non-denomination ethic course | Religion is a compulsory elective subject (i.e. is part of a group of subjects from which students must choose) | Yes; religious education is part of the of the compulsory curriculum; |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Organization of educational institutions may not be subjected to any restrictive measure | Organization of educational institutions may not be subjected to any restrictive measure | Private schools may be established by any entity subject to fulfilling certain minimum conditions; Ministry has to approve establishment | Yes; An application has to be made to the Advisory Committee for Private Education (which contains representatives of the religious groups); the final decision is made by the Ministry of Education |
| Size of the private sector | 68% of pupils attend private schools (majority attend Catholic schools) | Primary education- approx 42% of pupils go to private school (the majority of which are Catholic) Secondary education-approx 59% of pupils attend a private school | 59 private schools that operate at the primary or lower secondary levels catering to 0,4% of the student population; approx 175 private upper secondary schools-catering to approx 0.9% of the pupils | 27 private primary schools (approx. 6.3% of pupils) 36 private secondary schools (approx. 16% of pupils) |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Subject to conformity with legal and statutory provisions, subsidies amounting to approx 76% of per pupil expenditure in public schools, for both primary | 3 types of subsidies granted when the conditions to become a grant-aided institution are met: salary subsidies (equal to salaries paid in the public sector), | No public financing for private schools | The State contributes towards the fees paid by children of minority religious groups who attend private schools; |

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| | and secondary schools; also subsidies for the purchase, construction or renovation of initial buildings and equipment (70% of costs for primary schools and 60% for secondary schools) | operating and equipment subsidies (vary by level, form and type of education), subsidies for the construction and equipment of premises (60-70% of costs); | | |
| Common national curriculum | No; curriculum is devised by the school board based on the developmental objectives set out by the Flemish government; a school may also submit to the Flemish government a request to be exempted from a given developmental objective on the grounds that it's incompatible with its own vision | No; each governing body of a school submits its own curriculum to the Ministry for approval; the Ministry sets only objectives to be attained; no subjects compulsory but development in certain areas/domains mandatory; | Yes; private schools have to follow a core curriculum for compulsory subjects and may choose what to teach from the compulsory elective and free elective subjects (same conditions as for public schools) | Yes; private schools have to adopt the same curriculum as public schools; any deviations may take place only in exceptional cases and have to be approved by the Ministry |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | All schools inspected (in principle) once in 6 years; no mandatory self-evaluation | Awarded subsidies to private institutions are subject to control of their use (via a chart of accounts); all grant-aided schools inspected by a special independent Inspectorate; all schools visited twice a year; all school required to have a school plan and to submit a yearly report on its activity to the Steering Committee | All private schools may be inspected by the corresponding Regional Inspectorate of Education; | Current fees and teaching staff have to be approved each year; private schools may be inspected by the Inspectors of the Ministry of Education and Culture; annual report by the Head Teacher has to be submitted to the Ministry of Education and Culture |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Certificate of teacher competence required; the Flemish government lays out the required | The governing body is responsible for hiring, appointing and dismissing staff | Teachers required to hold specific qualifications (minimum a BA and professional | The teaching staff must hold certain qualifications in order to be able to teach; no imposition |

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| | <p>qualifications per subject, stage, branch and level of education; the schools may select the staff they which, provided it has the required certification; salary scale for the entire educational sector; both disciplinary issues and poor performance are grounds for dismissal (though for the permanent teachers conditions are stricter)</p> | <p>members; minimum government-set conditions have to be fulfilled to obtain an appointment; schools may require additional conditions; all salaries are paid by the French community directly, i.e. the same rules apply for the public and private grant-aided sectors; Disciplinary and incompetence are grounds for dismissal; redundancy dismissal possible only if lowest priority (seniority)</p> | <p>qualification as a teacher); hiring, promotion and firing are the responsibility of the school within the limits imposed by the Labour Code</p> | <p>of rules existing in the public sector on hiring, firing and pay</p> |
| Centralization of the school system | <p>Overall regulation of the Flemish government but substantial school autonomy; 'school networks' play an important role</p> | <p>Overall regulation of the Walloon government but substantial school autonomy; 'school networks' play an important role</p> | <p>Centralized system; educational policy carried out by the Ministry of Education through the Regional Inspectorates it controls</p> | <p>Administration of education is centralized</p> |
| National examinations | <p>No</p> | <p>No</p> | <p>Not yet but efforts are being made to implement national examinations at the end of each educational level</p> | <p>Yes; the Common School Leaving Examinations organized at the end of secondary school</p> |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | <p>Primary & secondary education in all institutions is free; Direct fees may be charged only for education beyond compulsory schooling; some costs for educational materials or some educational activities may be imposed on parents</p> | <p>During compulsory education, no fees may be demanded; reimbursement for a small number of expenses can be requested from parents</p> | <p>Private schools are fee-paying</p> | <p>Private schools are fee-paying by t the state contribute towards the payment of annual tuition (120 CY£ for primary level and 600 CY£ for secondary level students) of minority and religious groups</p> |

| Country | Czech Republic | Denmark | Estonia | Spain |
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| Religion and the state | No official religion | The Evangelical Lutheran Church is the national Church | No official religion | No official religion |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Voluntary; at the request at the parents, if there are at least 7 pupils | Yes; Christian Studies normally part of the curriculum | Voluntary; a school has to provide religious education provided that there is demand from at least 15 pupils | The schools must offer religious education -Catholic or other denomination, but attendance by pupils is optional |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; two types of schools may be established: private and denominational; rules for establishment are fairly liberal (an application to the Register of Schools and School Facilities); | Yes; establishment subject to regulation and must be approved by the Minister | Yes; an educational licence from the Ministry of Education and Research must be obtained | Yes, natural and legal persons have the right to set up educational establishments and to determine their specific character |
| Size of the private sector | Primary level-1,5% of schools (0.6% of pupils) private and another 0.9 % (0.6% of pupils) denominational Secondary level -22,7 % of schools (13,7% of pupils) private + 2.5% of schools (1.6% of pupils) denominational | 760 private elementary schools (approx.18.8% of pupils) | 29 (5%) general schools are private (approx 2.2% of pupils); 12 vocational private schools; | Primary level-approx 25% of schools are private catering to approx 33% of the pupils; Secondary level- 48% of schools are private catering to approx. 27 % of pupils |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Denominational schools funded on equal terms as the public schools (with the exception of investments); Private schools also receive subsidies amounting to between 60% and 100% of their | The government disbursed grants according to the number of pupils of the school; in principle, the per pupil amount matches the per pupil expenditure in municipal schools | The State covers the acquisition of textbooks for primary and secondary schools, the salaries of teachers and some of the in-service training of teachers are covered as well as the | Schools meeting certain conditions receive public funding, either from the central State or from the Autonomous Communities; schools may be have their entire cost subsidised |

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| | costs (to receive an increased subsidy, the school must satisfy additional quality conditions and be a non-profit entity) | minus the fees charged to the parents | expenditure for pupils in state-commissioned places in a vocational school | if they comply with some conditions (no tuition fees, similar admission criteria and staff policy as public schools) |
| Common national curriculum | Yes; core subjects, their content and amount of teaching time are prescribed by the Ministry; however- schools may modify up to a certain percentage, both the content and the amount of time; they also can submit their own alternative curricula to the Ministry for approval | No; the Ministry only sets targets to be attained but the schools themselves decide on how to attain them, i.e. have their own curricula; the Ministry issues curriculum guidelines which have the status of a recommendation and as such are not mandatory | Yes; some core subjects and their corresponding number of teaching hours is set in the national curriculum; schools have freedom in choosing a substantial number of optional subjects | Yes; the government sets the minimum core curricula in terms of objectives, basic competencies, subject content & minimum hours and assessment criteria (55-65%); the Autonomous Communities complement this with their own part of the curricula (35-45%) |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | The Czech School Inspectorate inspects all types of schools registered in the Register of Schools and School Facilities; each school has to submit an annual report of activity to its organizing body | The Danish Evaluation Institute evaluates all private schools in receipt of a state subsidy; the Ministry develops tools for self-evaluation to be made available to the schools; | Private schools are subject to state supervision; each educational institution is required to conduct internal evaluations, based on the criteria set out in a governmental regulation | Schools are evaluated by the Educational Inspectorate of each Autonomous Community; self-evaluation is compulsory for all schools; the Autonomous Communities design the self-evaluation tools/models to be implemented by the schools in their region |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Several requirements, including professional qualifications, necessary for a teacher to be hired; payment and dismissal subject only to Labour Code regulations (liquidation, unsatisfactory performance and | No special rules regarding the profession of teacher; most teachers employed based on a group contract; considerable flexibility in the qualifications needed to perform as a teacher (ex: for primary and lower | Government sets out the requirements needed to fulfil in order to be able to profess as teacher; special education/ qualification usually required; minimum salaries by category set by the state; dismissal may | In subsidised institutions, hiring must observe rules in the public sector + public sector remuneration scales+ dismissal more difficult ; in non-subsidised institutions, only general employment laws apply; |

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| | disciplinary reasons are all grounds for dismissal) | secondary, only a training course is required) | take place only on grounds an indecent act | still, the minimum pay for teachers is set through a Collective Agreement |
| Centralization of the school system | Fairly decentralized; considerable responsibility regarding the establishment and management of schools devolved to regions; schools also enjoy a certain degree of autonomy | Decentralized; large school autonomy | Some decentralization; some responsibilities devolved to the county or to the local level | Decentralized; the administration of the educational system is the responsibility of the Autonomous Communities |
| National examinations | No | Yes; National tests during primary and lower secondary; At the end of upper secondary education students sit an external examination based on subject-specific questions issued by the Ministry | Yes; at the end of basic schooling and at the end of upper secondary schooling | No |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | Private schools generally charge a fee related to the complexity of the education they offer; denominational schools may also charge a fee but usually they do not | Normally, private schools are fee paying; around 33 to 50% of costs are paid by parents (average annual fee at a primary school- approx 7000 DK) | Private schools may charge tuition fees which cannot change during the academic year; tuition may be increased up to 10% between academic years, lest the contract between the student and the private institution stipulates otherwise; vocational education is usually free | Schools that are fully subsidised must provide education free of charge; schools that are only partially subsidised may ask fees up to certain maximum level; parents may be asked to pay for textbooks, extracurricular activities, additional services such as canteen or transport etc.; if no subsidy is provided, the school is free to set its fees |

| Country | Finland | France | Greece | Hungary |
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| Religion and the state | The Evangelical Lutheran Church and the Orthodox Church have special status | No official religion | Eastern Orthodoxy is the official religion | No official religion |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Yes; religion/ethics part of the core curriculum; a pupil is entitled to receive education in its own religion, provided there is a group of minimum 3 pupils who demand it | No; public education is secular | Yes; religious education is part of the national obligatory curriculum | Optional; separate from the normal activities of the school; the teacher is employed by the Church |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; subject to licensing; providers of basic education are required to have a contract with a local authority unless they are deemed to serve a national educational interest | Yes; private educational institutions must be registered with the relevant authorities | Yes; subject to obtaining licence from the Ministry of Education + an annual licence from the local Bureau for Primary and Secondary Education + approval from the relevant Department | Yes; private bodies are free to establish a specific profile for the school they which to found; subject to a procedure requiring permission at the local level; |
| Size of the private sector | Basic level- only 1.5% of institutions are private Upper secondary general- 7.9 % of institutions are private Vocational studies-56.7 of institutions are private | Primary level- 13% of pupils in private schools Secondary level- 21% of pupils in private schools Approx 13% of all educational institutions are private; Vast majority of institutions-Catholic | Primary level- 388 schools (7.2 % of pupils) Lower Secondary level- 119 schools (5.3% of the pupils) Upper Secondary- 189 schools (6.6 % of pupils) | Basic education level- 289 schools (6.3% of pupils) Upper secondary level- 727 schools |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Private educational establishments receive state funding on a par with public institutions; investment subsidies | State funding is provided to schools that sign an “association contract” with the state; the state pays the teachers’ salaries and | No subsidization of private schools by the state | Private schools are subsidized from the state budget in the same amounts as public schools maintained by local authorities |

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| | are also granted provided they have been pre-approved by the Ministry of Education; for vocational schools-performance based financing along traditional criteria | their in-service training; regions and counties may grant additional subsidies | | (usually 60-70% of costs); schools maintained by Churches are entitled to supplementary subsidies; if an agreement is reached with the local authority, additional subsidies may be granted |
| Common national curriculum | Yes; national core curriculum establishes objectives and content of different subjects and assessment principles; local authorities and/or schools develop their own curricula based on the national core | Yes; national curriculum is set centrally by the government | Yes; the national curriculum is set at the central level and private schools must follow it; upon special approval, they may teach additional subjects/ classes | No; the National Core Curriculum only contains principles and objectives to be attained, broad areas to be studied and a loose specification of the hours to be taught (minimum and maximum); schools may develop their own curricula based on the above, but have to take into consideration the requirements of state examinations |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | Institutions are obliged to carry out self-evaluation; they are expected to take part in national evaluations undertaken by research institutes, universities etc. | All private schools are subjected to inspection, however, schools under contract with the state have to undergo more thorough inspections, including programmes and schedules, financial and administrative issues | The staff of the school is subject to administrative assessment from various bodies, mainly from the Regional Education Director; private Vocational Training Institutes supervised by a special public body | No mandatory internal or external evaluations; |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Teaching qualifications established by decree; salaries established through collective agreements; dismissal may take | Schools under state contract must be recruited subsequent to an examination similar to the public sector; they become | Pedagogical degree required for hiring; hiring and employment conditions under general employment laws | Special qualifications to perform as teacher required; the director of each educational institution has considerable autonomy in |

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| | place due to economic and productive reason, inability to carry out duties or neglect to carry out one's duties | employed by the state and thus civil servant; dismissal- only under certain conditions; in all schools teachers must possess o given level of qualifications (although the requirement is less stringent, if no state funding is provided); | | establishing employee rights; in unsubsidized institution, only general employment law applies; appointment has to take place however through an open competition; in subsidised institutions, special regulations concerning the wage scale and dismissal conditions of public servants apply; incompetency is grounds for dismissal though |
| Centralization of the school system | Some decentralization; municipalities charged with organizing and running (especially basic) schools in their area | Very centralized | Centralized; the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs administrates the educational system | Decentralized; local governments bear the primary responsibility for the schools they administer; also- school autonomy |
| National examinations | Yes; final examination at the end of basic education; national matriculation examination at the end of upper secondary level; | Yes, different types of 'baccalaureate' | No | Yes; at the end of grade 12- "érettségi vizsga" |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | No fees may be charged at the basic level, unless education consists of a foreign language | Private schools are fee-paying; | Private schools charge tuition fees; the amount set by each school | If they enter an agreement with the state to provide public education (higher subsidization), schools may not charge tuition; otherwise, they set their own tuition fees; the majority of schools charge only modest or voluntary fees |

| Country | Italy | Latvia | Lithuania | Netherlands |
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| Religion and the state | No official religion | No official religion | No official religion | No official religion |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Voluntary; Catholic religious education is offered upon request | Voluntary; upon parental request | Voluntary; offered in response to parental request | Voluntary |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; two types of schools exist- recognized schools ('scuole paritarie') which can issue legally recognized certifications; they have to satisfy 8 conditions; non-paritarie schools also have to fulfil a more restricted range of conditions | Yes; regulations for registration, accreditation, and licensing are the same as for public schools | Yes; conditions established in the Law on Education; the founder must reach an agreement with the head of the education department of the municipality where the school is to be founded; | Yes; freedom of establishment is established by the Constitution; |
| Size of the private sector | No information | 31 private general schools 6 private vocational schools | Primary level: 6 non-state schools (0.6% of pupils) Secondary level: 7 non-state schools (0.4% of pupils) 2 private vocational schools | Primary level- 67% of schools are private (the majority either Catholic or Protestant) Secondary level- 71% of schools are private (majority either Catholic or Protestant) |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Tax rebates for families who send their children to 'scuole paritarie'; Regions may offer further subsidies; favourable tax treatment for non-profit entities; further state grants are available for private primary schools; | State and municipality subsidies are available to schools offering accredited basic and secondary schooling; the state covers the salaries of teachers while municipalities may offer additional subsidies based on an agreement with the school | Subsidies based on the number of pupils (higher rates for children with disabilities and certain disadvantaged backgrounds); proportional to financing of state schools or international to agreements; | Private schools are funded by the state in the same way as public schools; primary schools: approx 85% of staff costs are covered + block grants; secondary schools: block grants consisting of a per-school grant and a per-pupil amount |

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| Common national curriculum | No; Compulsory subjects and the specific objectives to be attained are specified at the central level; based on these, the schools formulate their own curricula | No; schools may set up their own “programme” of education which has to be licenced and registered in the Register of Education programmes and accredited within 2 years from registration | Yes; compulsory subjects, their content and amount of teaching hours is set centrally; a certain number of hours is at the discretion of the school | No; the government sets broad areas to be studied and the corresponding attainment targets; within this framework, schools develop their own curricula |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | No external evaluation, except for financial and administrative (i.e. non-quality related) issues | All educational establishments have to be accredited within 5 years from establishment; all educational programmes have to be accredited separately within 2 years from establishment; accreditation lasts for 6 years; the heads of the institutions are professionally evaluated; accreditation carried out by teams of experts appointed by the Ministry | Schools required to undertake a yearly internal audit based on a detailed methodology comprising 7 areas and use their corresponding indicators; | The Education Inspectorate inspects all schools once in 4 years (and on a less comprehensive basis, annually); each school required to have a school plan and upgrade it every 4 years-it contains the measures taken to improve quality; most schools have pupil monitoring systems, although having one is not obligatory |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Schools that gain state recognition (paritarie) must follow the collective agreements in their policy concerning staff; dismissal can take place only on disciplinary and unjustified absences of at least 15 days; pay scale regulating min amounts | Specific teacher qualifications required; appointment has to be competitive; general employment laws apply; pay scale set centrally; dismissal may be grounded only on disciplinary grounds, lack of qualifications and liquidation of the school | Specific regulations of the certifications of teachers; general employment rules apply for hiring and firing; the scale of tariff-based salaries set by governmental regulations | Special teaching qualification required; each post in education has a corresponding salary scale; dismissal may take place due to reduction of activity, denomination, clash of personalities etc.; however, the employer must first try to find another job for the dismissed teacher |
| Centralization of the | Some decentralization; many | Fairly centralized; some decision- | Some decentralization; some | Decentralized; municipal |

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| school system | responsibilities relating to the administration of the system evolved to the provinces; the state still maintains control over school regulation and programs, evaluation of schools and the legal status of the school staff | making responsibilities delegated to local municipalities | responsibilities have been transferred to the municipal level | authorities charged with the running of schools in their area |
| National examinations | Yes; state exam at the end of lower secondary and at the end of upper secondary school | Yes; state examinations at the end of 3-rd, 6-th, 9-th grade and at the end of secondary education | Yes; Matura examinations at the end of secondary school | Yes; at the primary level- CITO tests may be administered voluntarily (around 80% of pupils take the test); At the secondary level- CITO tests based on attainment targets for each subject; final leaving examination |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | Private schools are normally fee-paying but fees and contributions are usually low | Private schools set their own tuition fees | Each school sets its own fees | Education is free until 18 although some expenses are paid by parents+ some voluntary parental contributions |

| Country | Poland | Portugal | Romania | Scotland |
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| Religion and the state | No official religion | No official religion | No official religion | The Church of Scotland is the established church |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Voluntary | Optional; part of the optional disciplinary curriculum | Optional; normally students are provided with religious education in their own faith but can opt out of it if they wish | Yes; schools must provide religious education although parents may withdraw their children from it |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; if qualified teachers are employed, the core national curricula is used and evaluation standards conform to those set for the Ministry, schools may obtain public school status | Yes; natural and legal persons may establish educational institutions subject to the conditions of the law | Yes; natural and legal persons can establish private schools in agreement with the County School Inspectorate and subject to accreditation; private education has to function on a non-profit basis | Yes; must register with the Scottish Government Schools Directorate |
| Size of the private sector | Primary level-525 schools (1.35 % of pupils) Secondary level- 1224 schools (6.39% of pupils) | Basic level-1045 schools Upper secondary level-348 schools 18.5% pupils-in private education | 6 vocational schools No further information | Primary level -60 schools (3.1% of pupils) Secondary level- 55 schools (5.9 % of pupils) |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | If they acquire public school status, schools may receive municipal or state subsidies up to 100% of the average per pupil expenditure in a public school | Education expenses are eligible for tax relief; subsidies similar to funding of public schools are awarded to schools located in areas where there is a deficit of public schools (an association agreement must be signed with | No public financial support for public schools | No provisions for public subsidization of private independent schools Denominational schools are funded on the same basis as public schools |

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| | | the state); agreement with the Holy See to subsidize Catholic schools | | |
| Common national curriculum | No; the Ministry sets the subjects to be studied and the approx. teaching hours per subject, which can be increased up to a max level; schools and teachers may develop their own specific curricula based on a list of textbooks approved by the Ministry | No; the schools design their own curricula provided they meet the conditions set centrally (i.e. some subjects are compulsory, min number of hours for the study of some subjects, the compulsory experiential teaching of sciences etc.) and they attain the required development objectives | Yes; common core curriculum that establishes the compulsory subjects, their content, objectives to be attained and number of teaching hours; it is complemented by a school-based curriculum which is school-specific | No; only broad objectives set centrally; each school decides how to implement them |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | Regional Education Superintendents conduct school evaluations; schools must carry out self-evaluations | Schools are assessed by the General Inspectorate of Education before granting a school autonomy; schools are obliged to carry on self-evaluations based on the instruments provided at the central level | Schools are inspected by the Country School Inspectorates either on a subject basis or on a full inspection basis; every five years schools are evaluated by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Pre-university Education; all schools have to have a commission for evaluation and quality assurance | Private schools are inspected by HM Inspectorate of Education; schools are required to produce annually a Standards and Quality Report or a Statement on Institution-led Review; |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Teachers at the 2 bottom positions are employed based on general employment laws, while teachers in the upper 2 positions are employed based on regulations in the Teachers' Charter; pay scale regulating salaries; dismissal-difficult for | Specific teaching qualification required; conditions of employment regulated by the Collective Labour Agreement (usually follows legislation in public schools); if subsidized, the State salary statute applies; dismissal is subject only to | Teachers have to be employed according to the Teaching Staff Statute; remuneration according to national pay scale; appointment has to take place subsequent to a competitive procedure; dismissal- only under certain circumstances (indecent | No special qualifications required; appointment done on a competitive basis; |

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| | appointed/chartered teachers | general labour laws | behaviour, disciplinary problems, health problems etc) | |
| Centralization of the school system | Decentralized; administration of the schools is the responsibility of local authorities | Centralized; the school system is administered by the Ministry of Education and its regional agencies; municipal educational councils have only an advisory role | Centralized; administration is carried out by the Ministry for Education, Research and Youth through its County School Inspectorates; local authorities are responsible for organizing the maintenance of school physical facilities | Decentralized; the administration of the schools is entrusted to local authorities |
| National examinations | Yes; at the end of primary school (6-th grade), at the end of the 3-rd year of gymnasium and at the end of upper secondary/ vocational education | Yes; at the end of 9-th grade and at the end of upper secondary education if the pupil wishes to go on to higher education | Yes, at the end of lower secondary (8-th grade) and at the end of upper secondary (12-th grade) | At the primary level-no mandatory requirement but teachers expected to use National Assessments; at the upper secondary- national qualifications examinations |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | Schools establish their own fees; however, many schools have tuition waivers for the most talented students or for students of underprivileged background | Private fees are set by each school; schools in association agreement with the state cannot charge fees | Each school establishes its own fees | Private schools set and charge their own fees |

| Country | Sweden | Slovakia | England, Wales | Luxembourg |
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| Religion and the state | No official religion (since 2000) | No official religion | The established church is the Church of England; | Catholic, Protestant and Judaic Churches have a special position |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Yes; religion normally part of the core curriculum | Yes; religious education is part of the core curriculum; agreement between the state and the registered churches on the provision of religious education | Yes; religious education is part of the National Curriculum which is compulsory for public schools; parents may withdraw their children | Yes, religious education part of the normal curriculum; a dispensation may be given to a student who belongs to a denomination for which no religious education is available |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; subject to approval from the Swedish National Agency for Education; | Yes; registered churches are allowed to set up private schools | Yes; must register with the Secretary of State/ Welsh Assembly Government/ Department of Education | Yes; |
| Size of the private sector | Basic education-585 schools (8% of pupils) Upper secondary-241 schools | Basic education level- 112 Church schools (11.1 % of pupils) +30 private schools (1.3% of pupils) Upper secondary-55 Church schools(15.6% of pupils) + 35 private schools (3.7% of pupils) | Approx. 2300 independent schools (570.000 pupils) in England Most voluntary-aided and voluntary-controlled schools are set up by different Churches | Most private schools are denominational (Catholic); there is a Waldorf schools and some international schools which normally cater for foreign pupils |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Schools receive grants from the state and from the municipalities in the same way as municipal schools; municipalities decide | Private schools are subsidized by the state; the subsidy reaches 100% of the per-pupil average expenditure in public education | No provision for state subsidies for independent schools; voluntary aided, voluntary controlled and foundation | Private schools (denominational and Waldorf) are partially funded by the state budget; grants are calculated per-pupil |

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| | themselves how to allocate funding-both their funds and state grants; financial support may be denied to a schools if it is deemed it would create severe problems for the municipal schools in the municipality | if no fees are charges and the public curriculum is implemented; 70% if fees are charges; 90% if the public curriculum is not implemented; no subsidies for capital investment | schools are funded by the local authorities (the latter two) or by the state and the local authority (the former-15% of costs must be covered by the school) | |
| Common national curriculum | No; general objectives to be attained in a number of subjects as well as a minimum number of teaching hours per subject during the entire basic schooling period are set centrally; based on the above, schools/teachers develop their own curricula | No; schools devise their own curriculum which is subject to approval by the Ministry of Education; some subjects must be taught compulsorily for a certain number of hours | No; schools set their own curriculum which is evaluated during a school inspection; publicly funded schools must implement the National Curriculum | Yes; denominational schools offer the public curriculum; only the Waldorf school has its own curriculum |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | Schools are evaluated by the Swedish National Agency for Education and may be inspected by the local municipalities; schools are required to produce annual reports stating the extent to which their objectives have been met | Private/church schools are inspected by the State School Inspection; each school has to submit an annual report containing information in 16 defined areas | Schools may be inspected by the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills; inspection takes place every 3 years; schools accredited by the Independent Schools Council are inspected by the Independent Schools Inspectorate; religious schools are inspected by Schools Inspection Service; | Primary schools are inspected by inspectors reporting to the Ministry of Education; secondary schools are evaluated by the "Comité de Gestion" (Administrative evaluation) |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Teaching diploma/ training requires; salaries are negotiated with the teacher and one of the trade unions; appointment, pay | Teaching qualifications required; salaries based on salary brackets; appointment-usually competitive; Labour Code | Not required to have Qualified Teacher Status; conditions of employment and salaries are set by each school; teachers in | Teaching qualifications required; teachers are public employees and civil servant legislation applies; appointment |

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| | and dismissal subject only to general employment legislation | regulations apply for dismissal | voluntary controlled schools are employed by the local authority | is made through competitive examination at the primary level and a semi-competitive procedure for secondary level; basic pay scales for civil service apply; |
| Centralization of the school system | Decentralized; schools are administered by the local authorities | Centralized; schools are administered by the Ministry of Education | Decentralized; local authorities are responsible for administering schools in their area; the system in N. Ireland is more centralized | Centralized; administration is carried out by the Ministry for National Education |
| National examinations | Yes; at the end of the 9-th grade; optional at the end of the 5-th grade | Yes; at the end of upper secondary education; Monitor 9 initiative to test pupils at the end of basic education | Yes, national tests at the end of key stage 1, 2,3 (ages 7,11, 14)- only in England- and the General Certificate of Secondary Education at the end of secondary education | Yes, at the end of secondary education Pupils at private schools must sit public examinations in order to receive certification |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | No fee charges may be imposed (except boarding and international schools) | Private schools set their own fees; if they receive the 100% average pupil expenditure in public schools, they may not charge fees | Publicly funded schools (voluntary/foundation schools) may not charge tuition fees (an exception is made for voluntary grammar schools which may ask up to 130£/year; independent schools set their own fees; | Private schools normally charge a fee which is pro rata to family income |

| | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|
| Country | Slovenia | | | |
| Religion and the state | No official religion | | | |
| Religious education provided in public schools | Optional; schools are obliged to offer it as an optional subject | | | |
| Freedom of other religious entities to set up schools | Yes; must registry with the Ministry; programmes have to be approved by the Council of Experts of the Republic of Slovenia for General Education and they must be tested; | | | |
| Size of the private sector | 1 private elementary school (Waldorf) 5 private secondary schools (1.3 % of pupils) | | | |
| Subsidies provided by the state to schools set up by religious groups/entities | Elementary schools are entitles to state funding in the amount of 85% of the per pupils expenditure in the public system; secondary schools may receive state funds only based on a concession; public financing is not available if the private school jeopardizes the existence of the only public school in the area | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| Common national curriculum | Subsidised schools have to follow the public core curriculum; they may freely choose the optional part of the curriculum; schools which offer education according to special pedagogical principles (non-subsidized) may have their own curriculum | | | |
| Control of the schools by a national authority | Schools are inspected by the National Inspectorate for Education and Sport at least once every 5 years; | | | |
| Freedom in handling staff policy | Teacher certification required; if subsidized, salaries of teachers may not exceed corresponding salaries in the public sector; employment based on general employment legislation | | | |
| Centralization of the school system | Centralized; administration carried out by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport; municipalities have the right to establish schools | | | |
| National examinations | Yes; State-wide examinations compulsory at the end of basic education only for pupils wishing to enrol in secondary schools with limited | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| | enrolment; Matura examination at the end of upper secondary | | | |
| Cost of attending a private (primary) school | If subsidized, schools have a ceiling on the amount of tuition they may charge which is related to the pupil's family income | | | |

Appendix 4: Variables used to predict school choice

| Variable | Definition |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Gender | Student's gender- male=1 female=0; present in the original dataset |
| Immigrant | Student's immigration status; First or second generation immigrant=1; else=0; first generation immigrant - both the student and at least one of the parents has been born abroad; second generation immigrant - at least one of the parents has been born abroad; constructed from questions on the country of birth of the student and of each of its parents |
| Foreign language used at home | Language used in the home; foreign-1; else-0; present in the original dataset |
| Cultural possessions | Index available in the original dataset: based on several questions on the availability of classic literature & poetry books and works of art in the home; continuous variable constructed through IRT scaling; higher values represent more cultural possessions |
| Family wealth | Index available in the original dataset: based on the presence of durables in the home (DVD/VCR, dishwasher, number of cell phones, televisions, computers and cars , country specific items) as well as a personal desk and an Internet connection; constructed through IRT scaling; continuous variable; larger values indicate higher wealth; |
| Mother ISCED | Highest educational level attained by the mother in the ISCED classification; categories range from 0 to 6; present in the original dataset |
| Father ISCED | Highest educational level attained by the father in the ISCED classification; categories range from 0 to 6; present in the original dataset |
| Mother SES | Index of the international socio-economic index of the mother; continuous variable; higher values indicate higher status present in the original dataset; based on the occupation of the mother |

| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Father SES | Index of the international socio-economic index of the father; continuous variable; higher values indicate higher status present in the original dataset; based on the occupation of the father; |
| School social composition | Percentage of students in the school that have at least one parent with tertiary education; constructed based on the educational level of the mother and father of students within a school; continuous variable; higher values represent a “better” social composition |
| School size | Total school enrollment; present in the original dataset |
| Admission - parents' endorsement | The school's admission policy includes the criterion that the student's parents endorse the school's philosophy; yes-1; no-0; variable constructed from a similar one present in the dataset – the original categories 'prerequisite' 'highly important' and 'considered' have been collapsed into one category - 'yes' -1 |
| Admission – special programme | The school's admission policy includes the criterion that the student needs or wishes to attend a special programme offered by the school; yes-1; no-0; variable constructed from a similar one present in the dataset – the original categories 'prerequisite' 'highly important' and 'considered' have been collapsed into one category-'yes' -1 |
| Student-teacher ratio | School size divided by the number of teachers; a part-time teacher contributes 0.5 to the number of full-time teachers; continuous variable; present in the original dataset |
| Computer-student ratio | The total number of computers existent in the school divided by the total number of students; continuous variable; present in the original dataset; |
| Educational resources | Index available in the original dataset: based on questions tapping the principal's perception of the shortage or inadequacy of science lab equipment; instructional materials; computers for instruction; Internet connectivity; computer software for instruction; library resources; audio-visual resources; continuous variable constructed through IRT scaling; higher values indicate more resources; |
| Tuition | The school charges tuition fees-1; the school does not charge tuition fees-0; constructed based on the question on the school's funding sources; |

Appendix 5: Descriptive statistics for the variables entered to predict private dependent school choice, by country

| | Austria | Belgium | Czech Republic | Denmark | Finland | France | Germany | Greece | Hungary | Ireland | Italy |
|---|---------|---------|----------------|---------|---------|--------|---------|--------|---------|---------|-------|
| DEPENDENT VARIABLE | | | | | | | | | | | |
| School type (%) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Private dependent | 6,52 | 67,58 | 4,64 | 22,09 | 4,43 | 14,24 | 5,48 | 0 | 8,82 | 57,52 | 2,91 |
| Public | 90,7 | 30,83 | 95,1 | 77,43 | 95,57 | 77,89 | 94,29 | 95,87 | 89,92 | 40,04 | 94,99 |
| INDEPENDENT VARIABLES | | | | | | | | | | | |
| INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Gender (% girls) | 49,77 | 48,2 | 49,63 | 50,66 | 50,87 | 50,74 | 50,21 | 50,18 | 48,47 | 50,56 | 50,58 |
| Immigrant (%) | 17,39 | 22,47 | 7,92 | 13,44 | 4,46 | 24,03 | 18,85 | 12,12 | 3,74 | 15,5 | 8,22 |
| First generation immigrant (%) | 8,02 | 6,57 | 1,37 | 4,42 | 1,9 | 2,87 | 8,33 | 6,12 | 1,99 | 5,4 | 3,2 |
| Second generation immigrant (%) | 9,37 | 15,9 | 6,55 | 9,02 | 2,56 | 21,16 | 10,52 | 6 | 1,75 | 10,11 | 5,02 |
| Foreign language used at home (%) | 8,27 | 13,6 | 0,85 | 4,89 | 1,45 | 5,12 | 7,71 | 2,99 | 0,74 | 1,22 | 12,1 |
| Index of cultural possessions (average) | 0,01 | -0,3 | 0,19 | -0,08 | 0,12 | -0,3 | 0,04 | 0,15 | 0,33 | -0,17 | 0,22 |
| Family wealth (average) | 0,26 | 0,14 | -0,28 | 0,57 | 0,36 | -0,15 | 0,32 | -0,28 | -0,38 | 0,09 | -0,01 |
| Mother ISCED (Average) | 3,73 | 4,32 | 4,27 | 4,40 | 4,46 | 4,36 | 3,84 | 3,84 | 4,17 | 4,03 | 3,48 |
| Father ISCED (Average) | 4,01 | 4,43 | 4,27 | 4,15 | 4,23 | 4,41 | 4,15 | 3,86 | 4,12 | 3,83 | 3,51 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Mother SES (average) | 41,82 | 43,67 | 45,77 | 42,77 | 43,06 | 42,57 | 43,28 | 45,02 | 45,97 | 43,7 | 43,44 |
| Father SES (average) | 44,31 | 46,1 | 44,68 | 44,7 | 44,66 | 44,11 | 45,13 | 43,6 | 41,17 | 42,77 | 42,78 |
| SCHOOL CHARRACTERISITCS | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Social composition (% parent's having tertiary education)-(average) | 19,04 | 36,57 | 29,43 | 31,06 | 37,82 | 44,08 | 32,12 | 34,09 | 25,69 | 27,62 | 18,96 |
| School size | 586,45 | 693,13 | 508,38 | 440,38 | 382,9 | 892,09 | 666,62 | 284,12 | 511,49 | 564,67 | 664,88 |
| Admittance-parent's views considered -% | 45,85 | 71,92 | 54,13 | 54,26 | 47,85 | 91,85 | 49,55 | 34,54 | 62,47 | 70,26 | 35,1 |
| Admittance-special programs considered- % | 79,26 | 69,96 | 80,89 | 65,04 | 66,73 | 100 | 74,48 | 61,22 | 88,38 | 66,7 | 76,89 |
| Teacher-student ratio | 12,23 | 9,49 | 14,93 | 11,53 | 11 | 12,55 | 17,55 | 9,43 | 10,88 | 14,22 | 8,97 |
| Computer-student ratio (average) | 0,22 | 0,15 | 0,11 | 0,19 | 0,16 | 0,13 | 0,08 | 0,08 | 0,21 | 0,1 | 0,17 |
| Educational resources (average) | 0,21 | -0,09 | -0,11 | -0,1 | -0,01 | -0,49 | 0,16 | 0,16 | -0,07 | -0,09 | 0,21 |
| Tuition % having tuition fees | 72,96 | 61,64 | 32,53 | 31,81 | 1,57 | 68,59 | 31 | 37,54 | 24,87 | 51,63 | 94,51 |

| | Luxembourg | Netherlands | Poland | Portugal | Slovakia | Spain | Sweden | UK |
|---|------------|-------------|--------|----------|----------|-------|--------|-------|
| DEPENDENT VARIABLE | | | | | | | | |
| School type (%) | | | | | | | | |
| Private dependent | 13,52 | 73,31 | 1,98 | 6,17 | 8,51 | 35,66 | 5,05 | 0,61 |
| Public | 86,48 | 26,69 | 96,31 | 91,73 | 91,2 | 57,44 | 94,95 | 95,52 |
| INDEPENDENT VARIABLES | | | | | | | | |
| INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS | | | | | | | | |
| Gender (% girls) | 50,1 | 49,31 | 49,82 | 52,41 | 49,3 | 50,57 | 49,05 | 50,42 |
| Immigrant (%) | 48,05 | 17,64 | 0,8 | 12,26 | 6,4 | 7,43 | 20,28 | 13,39 |
| Foreign language used at home (%) | 22,43 | 11,37 | 0,48 | 1,66 | 0,9 | 1,58 | 7,45 | 2,49 |
| Index of cultural possessions (Average) | -0,03 | -0,32 | 0,17 | -0,09 | 0,37 | 0,18 | 0,08 | -0,17 |
| Family wealth (Average) | 0,38 | 0,43 | -0,57 | -0,06 | -0,38 | -0,01 | 0,62 | 0,36 |
| Mother ISCED (Average) | 3,49 | 4,05 | 4,07 | 2,64 | 4,03 | 3,36 | 4,63 | 4,17 |
| Father ISCED (Average) | 3,82 | 4,33 | 3,89 | 2,62 | 4,04 | 3,47 | 4,37 | 4,02 |
| Mother SES (average) | 40,57 | 43,09 | 41,93 | 37,98 | 44,77 | 39,74 | 43,32 | 43,43 |
| Father SES (average) | 44,29 | 48,38 | 38,76 | 40,51 | 42,37 | 42,64 | 45,67 | 44,72 |
| SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS | | | | | | | | |
| Social composition (% parent's having tertiary education)-(average) | 24,13 | 48,71 | 18,72 | 19,57 | 24,49 | 29,34 | 48,45 | 33,48 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------|---------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|
| School size | 1420,93 | 1005,02 | 463,13 | 974,41 | 554,6 | 709,66 | 492,27 | 978,81 |
| Admittance-parent's views considered -% | 50,6 | 50,45 | 50,56 | 56,57 | 23,07 | 44,86 | 49,28 | 46,84 |
| Admittance-special programs considered- % | 73,54 | 66,2 | 61,82 | 86,04 | 74,34 | 53,94 | 57,42 | 57,32 |
| Teacher-student ratio | 9,68 | 15,79 | 12,07 | 9,6 | 15,12 | 12,8 | 12,47 | 15,03 |
| Computer-student ratio (average) | 0,2 | 0,17 | 0,09 | 0,09 | 0,07 | 0,11 | 0,15 | 0,25 |
| Educational resources (average) | 0,11 | 0,27 | -0,17 | -0,18 | -0,67 | 0,01 | 0,05 | 0,25 |
| Tuition fees | 23,86 | 90,97 | 34,14 | 80 | 14,18 | 43,85 | 45,14 | 35,65 |

Source: pooled data PISA dataset for 2000, 2003 and 2006

Appendix 6: The coefficients of the logistic regression predicting the choice of a private-dependent school relative to a public school per country, including tuition

| Regression coefficients | Gender | Immigrant | Foreign language used at home | Cultural possessions | Family wealth | Mother ISCED | Father ISCED | Mother SES | Father SES | School-soc composition | School size | Admission-parents' endorsement | Admission-special program | Student-teacher ratio | Computer-student ratio | Educational resources | Tuition |
|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| Austria | -0,906* (0,112) | 0,275 (0,161) | 0,400 (0,226) | 0,018 (0,063) | -0,024 (0,071) | -0,032 (0,050) | -0,023 (0,047) | 0,009* (0,004) | 0,006 (0,004) | 2,17* (0,314) | -0,001* (0,0002) | 2,415* (0,132) | -0,826* (0,176) | -0,121* (0,022) | -3,686* (0,600) | 0,128* (0,052) | 3,553* (0,236) |
| Belgium | -0,113* (0,043) | -0,683* (0,054) | 0,541* (0,072) | 0,045 (0,024) | 0,072* (0,030) | 0,013 (0,019) | 0,022 (0,019) | 0,002* (0,001) | 0,001 (0,001) | 0,761* (0,149) | 0,0015* (0,000) | 1,478* (0,050) | -0,082 (0,050) | -0,024* (0,008) | 0,763* (0,184) | 0,319* (0,024) | 0,620* (0,043) |
| Czech Rep. | -0,230* (0,098) | 0,281 (0,174) | 0,101 (0,592) | 0,055 (0,056) | 0,089 (0,059) | -0,149* (0,063) | -0,097 (0,060) | 0,004 (0,004) | 0,012* (0,004) | 1,172* (0,268) | -0,007* (0,0003) | 1,498* (0,131) | -0,470* (0,148) | -0,108* (0,015) | -2,866* (0,563) | 0,119* (0,051) | 2,510* (0,109) |
| Denmark | -0,177 (0,110) | 0,311 (0,199) | -0,437 (0,376) | 0,219* (0,061) | -0,038 (0,067) | -0,125* (0,053) | 0,008 (0,054) | 0,010* (0,004) | -0,005 (0,004) | 0,989* (0,318) | -0,002* (0,0003) | 2,245* (0,152) | -0,910* (0,166) | 0,030 (0,026) | 2,617* (0,508) | 0,198* (0,069) | 5,246* (0,124) |
| Finland | -0,084 (0,102) | 0,015 (0,262) | 1,503* (0,363) | -0,015 (0,061) | 0,060 (0,075) | -0,073 (0,044) | 0,020 (0,043) | 0,006* (0,003) | 0,004 (0,003) | 4,002* (0,332) | 0,002* (0,0003) | -1,149* (0,124) | 1,531* (0,160) | -0,248* (0,035) | -12,88* (1,022) | 0,364* (0,064) | 2,749* (0,214) |
| France | 0,076 (0,136) | -0,047 (0,176) | 0,942* (0,316) | 0,145 (0,075) | -0,022 (0,102) | -0,045 (0,063) | -0,013 (0,060) | -0,0007 (0,004) | -0,002 (0,005) | 0,319 (0,492) | -0,0001 (0,0001) | Droppe d † | Droppe d † | -0,020 (0,031) | 1,200 (0,783) | 0,180* (0,075) | -0,219* (0,142) |
| Germany | -0,806* (0,112) | 0,156 (0,187) | -0,370 (0,387) | 0,217* (0,066) | 0,345* (0,071) | -0,106* (0,052) | -0,078 (0,050) | 0,003 (0,004) | 0,014* (0,003) | 2,312* (0,344) | -0,0003 (0,0002) | 4,012* (0,251) | -1,117* (0,235) | 0,062* (0,014) | 5,539* (0,874) | 0,143* (0,053) | 2,229* (0,112) |
| Hungary | -0,137 (0,089) | 0,135 (0,207) | -1,585 (1,052) | 0,056 (0,057) | -0,032 (0,062) | 0,089 (0,050) | 0,054 (0,054) | -0,002 (0,003) | -0,0007 (0,003) | 1,858* (0,249) | -0,003* (0,0002) | 1,806* (0,103) | -0,163 (0,139) | 0,102* (0,010) | -1,063* (0,285) | 0,203* (0,054) | -0,408* (0,100) |

| Regression coefficients | Gender | Immigrant | Foreign language used at home | Cultural possessions | Family wealth | Mother ISCED | Father ISCED | Mother SES | Father SES | School-soc composition | School size | Admission-parents' endorsement | Admission-special program | Student-teacher ratio | Computer-student ratio | Educational resources | Tuition |
|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| Ireland | -0,477* (0,065) | -0,017 (0,091) | -0,149 (0,332) | 0,043 (0,035) | 0,121* (0,045) | -0,096* (0,026) | 0,018 (0,024) | 0,012* (0,002) | 0,005* (0,002) | 3,456* (0,267) | -0,004* (0,0002) | 1,546* (0,087) | -1,957* (0,090) | 0,094* (0,013) | -21,97* (0,888) | -0,294* (0,034) | 1,708* (0,068) |
| Italy | 0,353* (0,111) | 0,342* (0,167) | 0,333* (0,148) | -0,115 (0,068) | 0,025 (0,079) | 0,018 (0,048) | -0,004 (0,048) | 0,0002 (0,004) | -0,014* (0,004) | 2,224* (0,401) | -0,004* (0,0003) | 1,348* (0,124) | -0,662* (0,131) | 0,006 (0,020) | 0,846* (0,268) | 0,149* (0,057) | -2,975* (0,122) |
| Luxembourg | -1,769* (0,202) | 0,612* (0,175) | -0,292 (0,231) | -0,023 (0,084) | -0,152 (0,100) | -0,013 (0,053) | -0,088 (0,057) | 0,005 (0,005) | 0,016* (0,006) | 2,794* (0,753) | -0,010* (0,0005) | 7,527* (0,420) | -8,054* (0,539) | 0,024 (0,078) | -23,28* (2,220) | -0,804* (0,104) | 5,560* (0,334) |
| Netherlands | -0,112 (0,058) | -0,464* (0,082) | 0,011 (0,111) | 0,040 (0,034) | 0,034 (0,042) | 0,003 (0,022) | -0,012 (0,022) | -0,005* (0,002) | -0,003 (0,002) | -0,393* (0,185) | 0,0000 (0,0000) | 1,343* (0,069) | 0,085 (0,067) | -0,005 (0,008) | 1,226* (0,457) | 0,244* (0,031) | 0,230* (0,095) |
| Portugal | 0,154 (0,094) | 0,028 (0,168) | 0,370 (0,364) | 0,046 (0,056) | 0,182* (0,064) | -0,088* (0,038) | -0,091* (0,039) | -0,004 (0,004) | -0,003 (0,004) | -3,645* (0,505) | 0,001* (0,0000) | 2,479* (0,161) | -1,748* (0,156) | 0,107* (0,006) | 0,380* (0,183) | 0,350* (0,047) | -1,291* (0,103) |
| Slovakia | -0,018 (0,090) | -0,031 (0,181) | -0,638 (0,750) | -0,049 (0,059) | 0,299* (0,067) | -0,042 (0,054) | -0,020 (0,052) | -0,001 (0,003) | -0,0000 (0,003) | 2,494* (0,249) | -0,004* (0,0003) | 1,492* (0,091) | -0,584* (0,101) | -0,013 (0,016) | -5,768* (0,967) | 0,359* (0,068) | -0,384* (0,147) |
| Spain | 0,094 (0,078) | -0,231 (0,157) | -0,169 (0,361) | -0,020 (0,048) | 0,027 (0,056) | 0,029 (0,027) | -0,027 (0,027) | 0,0036 (0,003) | -0,004 (0,003) | 0,577* (0,265) | -0,001* (0,000) | 1,631* (0,107) | -1,245* (0,105) | 1,267* (0,025) | 11,090* (0,484) | 0,151* (0,041) | 3,310* (0,091) |
| Sweden | -0,177 (0,111) | 0,732* (0,148) | 0,306 (0,240) | 0,266* (0,061) | -0,174* (0,074) | -0,154* (0,047) | 0,004 (0,044) | 0,014* (0,003) | 0,012* (0,004) | 4,478* (0,384) | -0,020* (0,0005) | -1,718* (0,152) | 0,762* (0,137) | 0,191* (0,015) | 0,511 (0,356) | 0,395* (0,067) | -0,197 (0,128) |