



Handbook of Education Systems in Europe

Edited by:
Oscar Alberto Ramirez

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SUMMARY

For children, the education system includes elementary schools, junior and senior high schools, and finally, universities. The education system covers the socio-economic factors that usually influence schools at the state, federal, state, and community levels. The volume emphasizes that education is a key part of any development. Knowledge can increase wealth and well-being; college graduates in most countries earn higher incomes. The volume shows that people who have completed a high school diploma are more likely to show good health and wealth than those who have not received a high school education. However, the education system needs to be monitored and improved to provide better educational opportunities-starting from early childhood education and continuing throughout life. They need to provide people with the knowledge, skills, and tools needed to stay competitive and involved in society. Some of the topics covered in this book include Chapter 1: Education Systems in Europe, Chapter 2: Access to Education in Europe, Chapter 3: Educational Choices, Transitions, and Aspirations in Europe, Chapter 4: Globalization and Europeanization of Education, Chapter 5: Parental Involvement Across European Education System, Chapter 6: Reforming the Curricula Used in European Schools, Chapter 7: Fabricating Quality in Education: Data and Governance in Europe, Chapter 8: European Perspectives on Professional Development in Teacher Education, Chapter 9: Knowledge Transfer and Technology Diffusion Education, and Chapter 10: Education Policies in Europe.

PREFACE

Nowadays, the operation and management level of the school system is more decentralized than before, especially the management and financing have been transferred from the central state to schools and local authorities. However, in most countries, schools are still operating under certain restrictions or are excluded from the scope of operation. For example, in England, the central government has played an important role in managing action plans and sanctions against underperforming schools. Brazil and Argentina have consistently seen the restoration of traditional centralized programs and have imposed stricter definitions of educational goals. In principle, this volume mentions that there is a gap between the central state, which defines broad goals and monitors results, and the local governance and control of school processes. Although this is the direction of successful education system reform, the dichotomy is not always clear, and there are many gray areas.

Self-evaluation and a sense of responsibility for the results of public external evaluations strengthen the school's sense of self-responsibility for performance. In most states, performance standards are developed or expanded within the scale of reform efforts. These standards are usually part of a compulsory or core curriculum. Not only do they define national standards for students, but also define them for teachers. The volume also talks about the significance of external evaluation instruments, which include testing procedures, inspection/supervision, to generate reports from relevant institutions, and final exams. The information collected is used not only for accountability, but also for supporting targeted development of school activities. An important aspect of such response measures is to increase the flexibility of the school system, allowing the principal to seek appropriate response measures for specific schools.

The chapters discussed in this volume include Chapter 1: Education Systems in Europe, Chapter 2: Access to Education in Europe, Chapter 3: Educational Choices, Transitions, and Aspirations in Europe, Chapter 4: Globalization and Europeanization of Education, Chapter 5: Parental Involvement Across European Education System, Chapter 6: Reforming the Curricula Used in European Schools, Chapter 7: Fabricating Quality in Education: Data and Governance in Europe, Chapter 8: European Perspectives on Professional Development in Teacher Education, Chapter 9: Knowledge Transfer and Technology Diffusion Education, and Chapter 10: Education Policies in Europe.

In different countries, from the elementary school level, special attention has been paid to measures aimed at achieving comprehensive improvements in teaching and learning, including acquiring native language (reading and writing), mathematics, and natural science information to innovate and reform the school system. Other measures are aimed at improving pre-school education by providing more pre-school education for

all children between three and five years old worldwide, or by establishing conditions for pre-school students in disadvantaged communities to thrive.

As of the early 1980s, countries have been increasing the independence of schools in the operation of education systems, aiming to improve performance by delegating responsibilities to the front line and encouraging responses to local needs. In most countries/regions that performed well in student evaluations, local authorities and schools had full freedom to adjust and implement educational content and/or allocate and manage resources. The volume also shows that in all countries, most schools are responsible for student admissions and how money is spent, including for student discipline and evaluation.

Chapter 1

Education Systems in Europe

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1.1. INTRODUCTION

After much deliberation, the direction of this section will have to settle on a broad definition. It encompasses Europe's educational systems, especially colleges, in a geographical sense, with boundaries that basically correspond with those that unite the Council of Europe's member states. With their focus on primary and secondary schools, the education structures mentioned draw attention to a definition of Europe as follows. Europe defines Eurasia's westernmost peninsula, bordered to the north by the Arctic Ocean, to the west by the Atlantic Ocean, to the south by the Mediterranean Sea and to the east by Asia. The Ural Mountains, Ural River, Caspian Sea, Greater Caucasus, Black Sea, and Turkish Straits rivers are widely regarded as a separation of Europe from Asia. Although much of the frontier is land-based, Europe is widely recognized by its large geography and the importance of its history and culture as a complete continent (Zajda, 2020).



Figure 1.1. Europe orthographic Caucasus Urals boundary (with borders).

Source: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Europe#/media/File:Europe_orthographic_Caucasus_Urals_boundary_\(with_borders\).svg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Europe#/media/File:Europe_orthographic_Caucasus_Urals_boundary_(with_borders).svg)

The origin of Western civilization, whose lineage dates back to ancient Greece and ancient Rome, is definitive of European society. The decline of the Western Roman Empire in 476 AD and the following surge of migration signaled the culmination of ancient history in Europe and the beginning of the Middle Ages. The new age is marked by Renaissance humanism, study,

art, and science. Europe has played a leading role in foreign affairs since the Age of Discovery, which began with Portugal and Spain. From the sixteenth century to the twentieth, Europeans colonized America, most of Africa, Oceania and most of Asia at different times.

Through intellectual, political and economic times from the late 17th century to the first half of the 19th century, the Age of Enlightenment, the later French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars transformed the Continent. In Western Europe and gradually around the globe, the industrial revolution started in Great Britain at the end of the 18th century, and radically brought about technological, cultural and social changes. In the mid-2000s, the Soviet Union and the United States were prominent, after the two world wars that occurred mostly in Europe, leading to a reduction in western influence in international relations.

In the Cold War, up to the Berlin Wall's revolutions of 1989 and collapse, Europe was split by the Iron Curtain between NATO in the West and the Warsaw Pact in the East.

The notion of European unification to reach mutual aims and deter future wars was established on the Council of Europe in 1949. Further European unification by certain countries lead to the establishment of a new political body that acted like something between a Confederation and a Republic, known as the European Union (EU). The EU emerged in Western Europe but after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991 has expanded to the East.

1.2. THE HISTORY AND IMPORTANCE OF THE EU IN EDUCATION SYSTEMS ACROSS EUROPE

The EU began in Western Europe, however since the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991, it has been spreading eastward. The euro, the currency of most European Union nations, is the most widely circulated currency in Europe, and the EU's Schengen Area eliminates border and visa barriers between most EU member states and some non-member states (Young, 2008). There is a nationalist campaign advocating for the European Union to be transformed into a single federation that encompasses the entire continent.

As a result, when looking at any socio-economic and political structures, it should be based on the concept of 'elasticity,' which is illustrated in particular by the presence of the Transcaucasia republics as well as the two 'bi-continental' nations, the Russian Federation and Turkey. The complexity

of individual state studies in terms of the historical advent and evolution of ‘global education programs’ in their respective political, legal, socio-economic, and cultural contexts reflects this ‘elasticity.’

Significant variations in their systems can be seen at both secondary levels of education: at the lower level, a preference for convergence over vertical (bi-partite or tri-partite) framing, and at the upper level, a special type of interrelationship between establishments of general (liberal) and vocational training.

In this sense, the pre-school stage, whether within or outside of constitutionally recognized “college programs,” deserves special attention. Finally, the paradigm of diversity has major ramifications on curricula and syllabi, schedules, assessment processes, and teaching and learning methods.

The origins of modern Europe’s heterogeneity can be traced back to the establishment of ‘national education systems’ by absolute princes in Germany in the 17th and 18th centuries, which eventually spread across Europe. England and Wales came late to this movement, at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries. The chronological variations between the beginnings of nation-states and ‘global school programs’ have added to the complexity.

The wider spectrum of similarities that connect existing school programs cannot be disguised by observing analogous characteristics of variety. First of all, compulsory school attendance was introduced in Europe and is now being expanded. Everywhere, classes, regardless of their particular expansions and demarcations, are organized horizontally by primary, secondary and tertiary tiers. It is true that curricula and curricula are characterized by a broad range of subjects in terms of their scope, contents, and series. However, their core similitudes are important.

Analogous features of diversity cannot be masked by the broader range of distinctions that link current school programs. First, the introduction of compulsory school attendance in Europe is now expanding. Groups everywhere are grouped horizontally by major, secondary, and tertiary levels independent of their specific extension and demarcation. Curricula and syllabi are faithful to their scopes, contents, and sequences, distinguished by a wide variety of topics. Its key similarities are nonetheless significant (Wright, 2001).

The various European societies have formed supporting positions in the field of education since the early treaties. Also before 1993, a number of collective proposals on education were implemented. Member States

are responsible, including professional teaching, for their own programs at school; however, they do collaborate within the EU to achieve shared objectives ('Treaties Base,' 2010). Education was established as a field of Community intervention as early as 1957 under the Treaty of Rome.

As a part of the 1961 Bonn-Bad Godesberg Summit in which the Heads of State expressed the need for an increased political alliance and cultural solidarity became the first public evidence of the Community's involvement in school education. Education has been chosen as a field of collaboration explicitly and education ministers from participating countries have been suggested to organize the initiative (European Commission, 2006). Many first cooperative efforts failed, but there was now a base for partnership.

The State Ministers of Education formally interacted in a convention of the Council and the Ministers for Education of the Council in 1971 at the local level for the first time. It represented the community/intergovernmental essence of policies which will be developed and implemented subsequently (European Commission, 2006). Work began at university level initially with the objective of improved accessibility diploma acceptance, collaboration across higher learning institutions, the study of modern languages, and knowledge sharing across the European Network.

Moving forward cautiously and intentionally towards these objectives, it was decided that national framework standardization is not the aim and that the variability of programs and their country-specific origins is significant. By 1974, on-going efforts by education ministers culminated in the ratification of a resolution on education which established a Committee on Education, consisting of Member States' members. Higher education was the first priority. However, except for higher education, the signature of the Bologna Declaration will only be a significant agreement by 1999.

The deal was concluded outside the EU and involved non-EU nations. It was aimed at developing universal levels of degree and quality control in all parts of Europe. Four standards for the committee were contained in the 1974 resolution.

- Education coordination must be tailored to this field's unique goals and criteria.
- Schooling cannot simply be seen as part of economic life.
- The history and heterogeneity of their various education policies and structures must be taken into account through cooperation in each region.

- No result in itself can be regarded as the harmonization of certain processes or policies.

The policy was no longer confined to tertiary education but still covered school education in response to continuing work by 1976; the 1976 resolution affirmed that the diversity of education structures and activities in the Member States was promised to be respected. In early school work, proposals such as developing research experiments, topical tests and study tours were largely involved. The initial intention for these efforts was, via the sharing of knowledge and experience, “to provide reciprocal understanding, correspondence and closer relations among the systems (EC 2006, p. 69).”

In 1980, the Eurydice Network was created as a kind of repository for exchange, a network for reporting on education in Europe and details from the different Member States’ research studies and efforts. By the 1990s, this network is the main source of knowledge on Europe’s school systems (Wagner, 2004).



Figure 1.2. On 11–12 April 2016, Brussels hosted the 25th meeting of the Council of Europe’s Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education. It was held in cooperation with Belgium’s authorities and the Education Policy and Practice Steering Committee (CDPPE). The meeting was attended by 46 States Parties to the ECC. As observers, the OECD and various international NGOs engaged in the work of Canada and Japan, alongside the European Union, the UN Education, Scientific and Culture Organization (UNESCO).

Source: <https://www.coe.int/en/web/education/standing-conference-of-ministers-of-education>

1.3. THE STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

It is important to note that official educational institutions are operated collectively by the governments of the Member States of the European Union and not the EU itself. Each country has constitutionally considered public entities that are in charge of education legislature and policy.

All European schools are encouraged to provide nursery, primary and secondary students with multilingual and multicultural education, and the structure is fairly similar.

Two years of early childhood, five years of elementary school and seven years of secondary schooling, is the general norm of the European School system.

The diagram below reveals three principal high- and secondary-school organizational structures that all of the European education systems provide compulsory education.

- Training in a **single structure**. From the start to the end of mandatory schooling, education is delivered without any transition between the elementary and secondary schools and education is given to all pupils together.
- Provision of the **common core** resumes. All students move into the lower secondary school following the same general common core curriculum after the satisfactory primary education (Urban et al., 2019).
- **Lower high school differentiated**. When primary education is successfully completed, children need to pursue separate education paths or various forms of schooling, either at the beginning or through high school. Students take various careers in professional, academic, and general education in some countries. In some, they are enrolled in various general education forms. They obtain various credential standards at the conclusion of the studies.

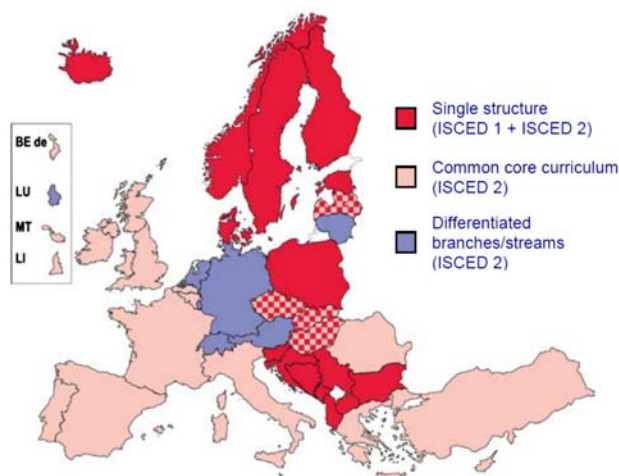


Figure 1.3. Education in Europe.

Source: https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/sites/default/files/the_structure_of_the_european_education_systems_2018_19.pdf.

In this respect, and to give fair credence to a variety of examples, we will spread our discussion through this chapter to cover countries that use each of the three systems and one other for variety in language.

1.4. EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

English education is regulated by the Department for Education of the United Kingdom. Public education policies and state sponsored schools at the district level are implemented by local authority authorities.

Formal education would ordinarily begin between the ages of 3–4 as early primaries (known as kindergarten in the US). Primary education would start from age 5 until the child is 10 years old, and secondary school would fall between the ages 10–15.

Students usually take General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examinations or other Level 1 or Level 2 credentials at the end of Year 11 (at the age of 15 or 16, varying on their birthdays). These credentials are approximately equal to post – secondary education in many other places, or high school graduation in the United States and Canada, for students who do not seek college qualifications before the end of Year 13.



Figure 1.4. Gavin Alexander Williamson CBE MP (born 25 June 1976) is a British politician serving as Secretary of State for Education since 2019 and the Member of Parliament (MP) for South Staffordshire since 2010.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gavin_Williamson#/media/File:Official_portrait_of_Rt_Hon_Gavin_Williamson_MP_crop_2.jpg.

Though education is mandatory until the age of 18, schooling is compulsory until the age of 16. As a result, post-16 education can take multiple shapes, whether academic or technical. This can provide “sixth form” or “college” education that leads to A-level certificates (normally after two years of additional study) or a variety of equivalent Level 3 credentials such as the Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC), the International Baccalaureate (IB), Cambridge Pre-U, WJEC, or Eduqas. Apprenticeships, traineeships, and volunteering are examples of work-based learning.

A three-year bachelor’s degree is generally the starting point for further education. Master’s degrees, mostly taught or through research, and doctoral-level research degrees, which typically take at least three years, are examples

of postgraduate degrees. English, Welsh, and European Union students pay £9,250 per school year in university fees for first degrees at public universities (Thiem, 2009). National school exams and technical education certificates are covered by the Controlled Qualifications Framework (RQF). It is linked to the European Qualifications System, and therefore to other European Union qualifications structures.

Degrees as well as other distinctions from degree-awarding institutions are covered by the Framework for Higher Education Qualifications (FHEQ), which is linked to the RQF. This is a connection to the Bologna Process' Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Region.

The OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment currently places British 15-year-olds 13th in the world in terms of general awareness and skills in reading, literacy, mathematics, and science, with the average British student ranking 503.7, relative to the OECD average of 493.

Legitimate education by means other than schooling is also recognized in England. Parents are accountable for their children's schooling "through routine attendance at school or otherwise," according to Section 36 of the Education Act of 1944, which requires children to be taught at home. Parents who chose not to send their children to school are not required to follow the National Curriculum, offer standardized lessons, or adhere to school hours and conditions, and they are not required to be certified teachers. A small but growing number of families are opting to raise their children far outside traditional educational programs.

All children aged 5 to 18 must receive full-time education, whether at school or elsewhere, and must start primary school during the academic year in which they hit 5. Children between the ages of three and five are eligible to 600 hours of state-funded pre-school childcare yearly. This can be done in "playgroups," nurseries, neighborhood childcare centers,' or school-based nursery classes. The mandatory stages of schooling are divided into a Foundation Period (encompassing the last two years of discretionary education and the first two years of compulsory schooling), four Key Stages, and post-16 education, also known as Key Stage Five, which can take several shapes, including 6th Form, which includes the last two years of Secondary Education in schools.

Key stage	Year	Final exam	Age ^[29]
Early Years	Nursery (or Pre-School)	None, though individual schools may set end of year tests.	3 to 4
	Reception (or Foundation)		4 to 5
KS1	Year 1		5 to 6
	Year 2		6 to 7
KS2	Year 3		7 to 8
	Year 4		8 to 9
	Year 5		9 to 10
	Year 6	SATS A grammar school entrance exam, often the 11-plus	10 to 11
KS3	Year 7	None, though individual schools may set end of year tests, or mock GCSE exams.	11 to 12
	Year 8		12 to 13
	Year 9		13 to 14
KS4	Year 10	GCSE	14 to 15
	Year 11		15 to 16
KS5	Year 12	Advanced subsidiary level or school-set end of year tests.	16 to 17
	Year 13	A-Levels	17 to 18

Figure 1.5. Levels of Government schools in England – part 1. This is ordinarily what many are acclimatized to in some fashion, even across commonwealth nations.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_England#Education_by_means_other_than_schooling.

Age ^[29]	State funded schools			State funded selective schools	Fee paying independent schools	
3 to 4	Primary		Lower	Infant	Various 'gifted and talented' programmes within state and independent schools. ^[30]	Pre-preparatory
4 to 5						
5 to 6						
6 to 7						
7 to 8			Junior			
8 to 9						
9 to 10						
10 to 11						
11 to 12	Secondary	Lower school	Middle	Senior	Grammar school and selective Academies	Preparatory or Junior
12 to 13						
13 to 14	Upper					
14 to 15						
15 to 16						
16 to 17	College	Sixth form				Senior (Public/Private school)
17 to 18						

Figure 1.6. Levels of Government schools in England – part 2.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_England#Education_by_means_other_than_schooling.

The two credentials systems in England include the Regulated Certification System (RQF), the Ofqual Qualifications Framework and the FHEQ, which are managed by the Quality Assurance Agency (who are an independent body in the UK that monitor the standards and quality of education systems), for certificates issued by degree award institutions. They have a similar level numbering system, which was also used in the previous Qualifications and Credit Framework. The RQF is connected to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF), while the FHEQ is referred to the European Higher Education Area Qualifications Framework (QF-EHEA)

About 93% of children aged 3 to 18 years receive free education in government schools (except for events such as swimming, cultural tours, theatre visits, and outings, which may be required for a voluntary donation and small charges at state-funded boarding schools). To comply with The School Information (England) (Amendment) Regulations 2012 and 2016, all schools must have an online portal where they must report specifics of their administration, finance, curriculum purpose, and staff and pupil safety policies. These are monitored by Ofsted (Suárez-Orozco, 2005).

Since 1998, England has had six different forms of established (state-funded) schools.

The 1997–2010 the Labor party formed academy schools to absorb underperforming community schools in regions of high social and economic inequality. Their setup expenses are usually covered by private sources, such as developers or NGOs, with central government covering operating costs, and they are institutionally free of direct county council oversight, similar to Foundation schools. The Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government of 2010 extended the function of Academies in the Academy Programme, encouraging a large number of schools in more affluent areas to become Academies, thereby removing the role of the former Labor government's Foundation schools. They are closely supervised by the Department of Education. Such Academies, like Grammar schools, have selective admission qualifications for some of their students.

Community schools are those in which the municipal government hires the teachers, controls the property and facilities, and is in charge of enrolment. In England and Wales, a community school is a form of state-funded school where the state educational authority pays the teachers, is accountable for enrolment, and owns the school's properties. School boards were dissolved under the Education Act of 1902, and their responsibilities were transferred

to counties and districts serving as local education authorities. As a result, the board schools were called county schools. The act also established county secondary schools, which grew in popularity in the twentieth century. The Education Standards and Framework Act of 1998 renamed the schools as city schools. In 2008, about 61% of England's government primary and secondary schools were community schools.

Free schools are recently founded schools in England that are set up by parents, students, charities, or companies where there is a potential local demand for more schools, as initiated by the Conservative-Liberal Democrat alliance. They are not governed by a government council, are subsidized by taxpayers, are scholastically non-selective and free to join, and are similar to Foundation schools and Academies. They report to the Secretary of State for Education at the top. The original Academy Program has been expanded to include free schools. As part of the free school reform program, the first 24 free schools opened in autumn 2011 (Shahriari et al., 2017).

The term was officially extended in May 2015 to cover new academies established by a local authority competition. Free schools, and other academies, are non-profit, state-funded institutions that are open to the public but largely independent of the city government.

Foundation schools are the third type of state funded schools we will discuss, and they have a governing body or a private foundation that owns the property and buildings of the school. The employees of the governing body are primarily responsible for enrolment. A small group of governors were chosen by the Foundation. Previously, all of these schools were grant-supported. The Labor Party recommended in 2005 that all schools be allowed to become Foundation schools if they so desired.

The Education Standards and Framework Act of 1998 established foundation schools to succeed grant-maintained schools, which were subsidized primarily by the federal government. Foundation schools were normally government funded schools that had formerly been voluntary controlled or county schools (but not voluntary aided). The property and buildings of certain foundation schools, also known as trust schools, can sometimes be owned by a foundation or trust. The legislative body can also own the property and buildings instead. In voluntary managed schools, the foundation typically appoints around a fifth of the school governors, whereas in voluntary aided schools, it designates the majority of governors.

In England, foundation schools account for around 2% of primary schools and 15% of secondary schools in the sustained market. Almost all

of these colleges are non-denominational. In Wales, where four primary schools and eight secondary schools have foundation status, the percentage is even lower.

Schools with voluntary status are connected with a range of organizations. They may be religious colleges, or non-denomination schools like those associated with London Livery Companies (about two-thirds the Church of England associated; about a third the Roman Catholic Church and many others). The benevolent fund contributes to the school's expense of capital (usually 10%) and appoints the remainder of the school governors. The regulatory body is responsible for employees and enrolment

The operating expenses of voluntary schools are entirely covered by the national government through the municipality, as are those of other state-run schools. They separate from most maintained schools because the government only meets 90% of its capital expenditure, while the base of the school contributes the final 10%. Many schools of the VA religion are part of the church's maintenance plans or other financing programs to help them cover these expenses. VA schools cannot charge student fees, while parents are normally expected to contribute voluntarily to the maintenance funds of the schools.

Voluntary run schools are something of a 'maintained academy,' which means that they are financed by local authorities or a central government and don't demand students' tuition. Most of them are also institutions of religion.

Land and buildings usually belong to a private corporation that often nominates about a fifth of the school's governors. The local authorities nevertheless hire the staff of the school and are also responsible for the provisions for school entry. Unique exemptions from Section 85 of the Equality Act 2010 allow for VC religious schools to apply religion qualifications to priority school pupils. The national curriculum is followed by students at voluntary controlled schools (Schaps et al., 2001).

University technical colleges (UTC), created by the Conservative-Liberal Democratic alliance in 2010 and run by a sponsoring university in England with close relations with local companies and industry are a final type of secondary school in England we shall discuss. It is financed by the public and is non-selective, free to participate and not monitored by local authorities. The university and industry affiliates help the growth of the UTC's curricula; provide professional development programs for instructors, and direct suitable students to commercial, foundation, or

graduate courses. A number of the UTC governors and main employees are appointed by the sponsoring university. At the age of 14, students move to a UTC to complete their secondary education. UTCs are unique in that they include professionally focused subject areas that combine National Curriculum standards with technological and vocational components. UTCs must specialize in areas that require technical and current tools, but they all incorporate business knowledge and the use of ICT. UTCs are often expected to have simple pathways into higher education or work-based training.



Figure 1.7. Secondary pupil numbers are expected to rise by 14.7% in the next 10 years, according to Department for Education (DfE) projections.

Source: <https://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-5948015/Englands-state-secondary-school-pupil-numbers-rise-400-000-2027.html>.

This is the basic education system in England and Wales, its history and development. As shown, the government places education quite high on its priority list, funding most, if not all, education institutions across its territory. It will become quickly apparent that many European nations act the same way.

1.5. EDUCATION IN GERMANY

In Europe, you will find the closest related education systems in Germany exist in Switzerland and Lichtenstein. The State Youth Welfare Office “Landesjugendämter” of the corresponding Lander shall be primarily

responsible for supervision of the German pre-school education, with the federal government serving a limited role. They are responsible for providing permits for pre-school education and health care facilities.

Providers must comply with the conditions to obtain this kind of pre-school education license. This requires the correct child/personnel ratio, qualified teachers, sufficient space, adequate equipment and sanitation and an adequate education policy of a generation.

German pre-school education is provided mostly by private day-care facilities and less through municipal institutions. Preschool services are children's nurseries, child wardens and day care centers. Children's nursery schools are also available (Scheunpflug & Asbrand, 2006).

Non-public entities including Churches, Welfare or Parent's Associations are given priority in providing children's education programs. Only if private programs or poor services are not provided to the above listed providers, local authorities can provide pre-school education services

Children between the ages of one and six receive optional Kindergarten (nursery school) education, during which academic engagement is mandated. Since each state (Land) determines its own educational policy, the scheme differs across Germany.



Figure 1.8. German Kindertagesstätte.

Source: <https://www.dw.com/en/german-teaching-brochure-sparks-spying-row-and-far-right-outrage/a-46560892>.

Kindergarten (plural Kindergärten) or Kita (short for Kindertagesstätte, which means “children’s day-care center”) is the German term for a nursery. Kindergärten, who are not part of the education system, cater to children

aged 2 to 6. They are mostly administered by city or town governments, churches, or registered organizations, all of which adhere to a certain educational philosophy. Kinder is not free, but it is also not compulsory.

Germans are obligated to pursue primary and secondary schools, from the age of 6 years to the age of 9 at the Gymnasium full time school or 10 at full time for other schools of general education.

The German education system has undergone a multitude of changes and reforms. One recent change, known as the G8 was an education reform that included the Abitur in 8 school years from 2005 to 2018. The policy struggled due to heavy pressures on students learning standards, and they were relegated to G9 in 2019. Just a few schools continue to use the G8 model. From the age of ten to eighteen, children normally attend Gymnasium. The Realschule focuses on a wider variety of topics for intermediate students and concludes with the Mittlere Reife formal examination after grade 10; the Hauptschule trains students for technical education and concludes with the Hauptschulabschluss after grade 9 and the Realschulabschluss after grade 10.

If young children cannot attend full-time courses at high secondary schools or general or vocational schooling, they must take part in partial left-behind lessons. This applies even though the obligatory training time has already expired. This duty is known as “Berufsschule Berufsschulpflicht” obligatory attendance which lasts for a period of three years. That’s the general overview of primary school.

Secondary education in Germany is divided into two parts: lower and upper.

Lower-secondary education in Germany is designed to provide people with a basic general education and prepare them for higher education. Germany offers a wide range of vocational options at the upper secondary level. Lower high-school tuition is the education available in grades 5/7 through 9/10 for students aged 10 to 15/16. The lessons at this stage are of a general kind and prepare for high schooling.

There are five different kinds of high schools in Germany. The Gymnasium is built to train students for higher education and culminates in the Abitur exam after grade 13.

One immediate recognizable difference in German education as compared to other European nations comes in grade 10; however, in practicality, it serves a similar role. There are two levels of grade 10: type

10b, which is the higher level, and type 10a, which is the lower level. Only type 10b, which is the higher level, will progress to the Realschule, which is completed after grade 10b with the final evaluation, the Mittlere Reife (Andrabi et al., 2011).

The formal education legislation in 1981 modified this current direction to completing the Realschulabschluss at a vocationally based high school – with a one-year eligibility limit. Pupils could begin with class 10 to complete the statutory cycle of schooling during the one-year transition period to the new regulations, which became mandatory after 1982.

The upper secondary education consists of training for students from 15 to 18 years of age who have completed a lower high school grade to qualify or obtain a technical degree. This level brings together all the courses from the lower high school level, which formed the foundation for the students' knowledge.

Secondary technical education is structured in such a manner that students learn high-level skills for a particular career. "The dual system of vocational education and training, also known as V.E.T, has been used by the majority of Germany's highly trained population." The V.E.T. services attract a large number of Germans. Around 430,000 businesses have collaborated with these V.E.T. programs, and about 80% of those companies employ people from those apprenticeships for full-time jobs. This educational system is really motivating for young people so they can see the result of their labor more overtly and first hand.

The German education system is fairly flexible and allows for other options. The Gesamtschule, which incorporates the Hauptschule, Realschule, and Gymnasium, is another choice. Förder- or Sonderschulen are also available in which one in 21 pupils is enrolled. Special schools or classroom catering programs for children with special educational conditions related to academic disorders, physical deficiencies, or behavioral issues are known as Förder- or Sonderschulen. Special schools are planned, managed, and properly funded primarily to offer adequate special education for children with special needs. In addition, students who attend special schools do not pursue any classes in regular schools.

Tertiary education is also a little different from what we observed within England. In contrast to other countries, many of Germany's hundreds of higher education institutions demand little or no payment. Students are often required to demonstrate their qualifications by exams (Pudas, 2012). German tertiary education in Germany offers qualification to people who

have finished secondary education above anything others in Germany and abroad who are entitled to study. Under the Basic Rule, higher education institutions can perform scholarly, academic and educational activities separately. These organizations must be in accordance with the Lander Ministry in administrative areas such as academic and legislative matters.

In Germany, the recognized universities offering higher education courses heading towards an occupation that satisfy the requirements of local and foreign employment markets are labelled higher education research providers.

German providers of schooling, recognized as institutions of higher education, are:

- Universities “Universitäten”
- “Technical Universities” “Technical Universities.”
- “Educational universities.”
- High Schools of Theology.
- Applied science universities “universities in applied sciences.”
- Colleges in Art and Music.
- Federal Armed Forces Higher Education Establishments.
- “Berufsakademie” offering concurrent studies at higher education institutions (BA).
- “Faculty of vocational education” institutions and “Fachakademien” in Berlin. Institutions of professional education. The education obtained from these institutions is equivalent to the first level of university education, according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

Students must pass the Abitur exam in order to attend university; but, since 2009, those with a Meisterbrief (master craftsman’s diploma) have also been eligible to apply. Many seeking admission to a “university of scientific disciplines” would typically possess an Abitur, Fachhochschulreife, or Meisterbrief. In the case that such credentials are lacking, students will still enroll in a college or university of scientific disciplines if they can demonstrate through a Begabtenprüfung or Hochbegabtenstudium that they would be able to compete with their peers (which is a test confirming excellence and above average intellectual ability). Duale Ausbildung (the dual education scheme) is a special apprenticeship system that requires vocational students to perform at-service training in a business as well as at a public school.



Figure 1.9. Humboldt University of Berlin.

Source: <https://smapse.com/humboldt-university-of-berlin-humboldt-university-berlin/>.

The Master's degree is the second higher education credential in Germany. A German master's degree program takes 2–4 semesters to complete. This time is mostly four semesters in universities and equivalent colleges, art and music schools. This duration is 3 to 4 semesters in universities in applied sciences.

Students must reach 300 ECTS credits to complete a Master's degree, plus the points previously in their certification. A student whose previous certification is a bachelor must earn 360 ECTS points to complete the master degree.

1.5.1. Brief History

In relation to the history of how these education systems were established, nothing in the last century has had a bigger impact than the Second World War. In reality it brought about the advent of the cold war and ultimately, 2 different Germany (East and West), split right across the Berlin wall. The two countries for a time, had independent education systems.

In the 1960s, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) developed its own centralized educational system. The Polytechnic High School (Polytechnische Oberschule) was the East German counterpart to both elementary and secondary schools, which all learners studied for ten years, from the ages of 6 to 16. An exit test was scheduled for the end of

the tenth year. Depending on the outcome, a student can opt to drop out of school or continue their education with a two-year-long apprenticeship supplemented by an Abitur.

Many who excelled academically and demonstrated allegiance to the governing party were eligible to transfer to the *Erweiterte Oberschule* (extended high school), where they could complete their Abitur exams after 12 years of education. Despite the fact that this scheme was scrapped following reunification in the early 1990s, it appears, even today, to still have an effect on school life in the eastern German states (Nóvoa & Yarıv-Mashal, 2007).

In West Germany, the case was a little different. Following WWII, the Allied powers (the Soviet Union, France, the United Kingdom, and the United States) worked to guarantee that Nazi philosophy was not taught in schools. In their separate occupation zones, they established educational structures that represented their own thoughts.

As West Germany achieved nominal independence in 1949, the new constitution (*Grundgesetz*) gave state governments (*Länder*) educational freedom. This resulted in vastly disparate educational environments, making it impossible for children to pursue their education when traveling between states.

Multi-state arrangements mean that all state education districts meet the same minimum standards. From the age of 6 to 16, all children are expected to attend one form of school (5 or 6 days a week). If a student's ability is incredibly high (or extremely poor), he or she will be required to move classes. The other states accept graduation certificates issued by one state. Teachers with the required qualifications will apply for positions in any of the states.

After the fall of communism in the 1990s, a few reforms have occurred:

- Bilingual curriculum is being implemented in certain subjects.
- Trial in various instruction methods.
- Providing laptops and Internet connections to all schools
- The creation of a local school philosophy and teaching goals ("*Schulprogramm*"), which will be reviewed on a regular basis.
- Reduced Gymnasium school years (Abitur after grade 12) and the start of afternoon breaks, like in many other Western countries (turned down in 2019)

After much regional dialogue in 2000 over Germany's alleged poor international score in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), there was a move toward a nonpartisan conversation about how to improve schools. Here are a few of the latest fads:

- Creating federal requirements for educational excellence
- Teacher education for a more realistic focus
- Any responsibilities are being transferred from the Ministry of Education to local schools.
- Such results include:
- English lessons in Grundschule are now required for bilingual education.
- The 2019 educational act (Bildungspakt) aims to expand the use of technology and the internet in classrooms.

Interesting facts about the education system in Germany includes their take on homeschooling. In Germany, homeschooling is illegal between the ages of *Schulpflicht*, which begins in primary school and ends at the age of eighteen. According to Germany's constitution, the rights of children include freedom to be in the presence of other children and people who are not their guardians, and parents cannot keep their children out of sexual education programs unless the state deems a child's right to be informed to be more significant than a parent's ability to suppress it.

Educators are paid by the Ministry of Education on behalf of the government and, after a given amount of time (*verbeamtet*), normally have a career for life (which, however, is not nearly the same in terms of time or ability to the typical tenure track, e.g., at universities in the US). This custom varies by state and is actually in flux (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). Parents nominate a commission to represent their interests to the school administration. Each class also appoints one or two "*Klassensprecher*" (class leaders; if two are chosen, it caters for both genders), and they meet as the "*Schülerrat*" (students' council) several times annually.

Every year, the students nominate a squad of class presidents, whose primary responsibility is to organize school celebrations, athletic competitions, and other activities for their peers. The janitorial and secretarial staffs are employed by the local municipality, which is accountable for the school facility. There could be two janitors and one clerk for a typical school of 600–800 pupils. Teachers are responsible for school administration and receive a decrease in their teaching hours if they attend.

In Germany, the church and the state are divided. The constitution prohibits obligatory school prayers and participation in religious activities in public institutions. (Even if one may not pray, one is expected to stand respectfully for the school prayer.)

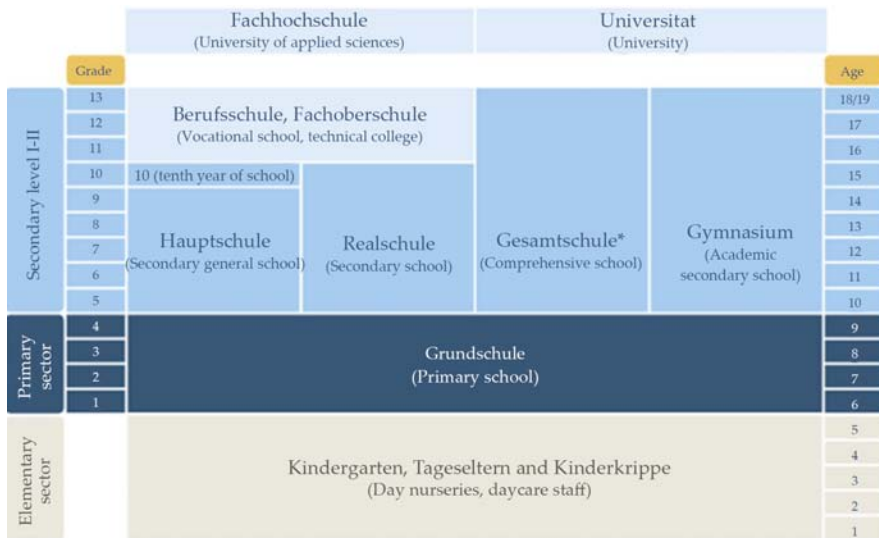


Figure 1.10. Germany's education system (it is recorded that over 99% of Germans aged 15 and up can read and write).

Source: <https://www.studying-in-germany.org/german-education-system/>.

1.6. EDUCATION IN FRANCE

In France education is structured with several subdivisions in a strongly concentrated manner. It is split into three phases: basic (primary education), secondary (secondary education), and higher (higher education). The starting school age of a pupil is 3 in France. Preschool (maternelle) is when three-year-olds begin their education rather than primary school. Then a kid starts elementary school in France at the age of six and soon reaches higher and higher degrees before graduation.

The majority of French primary and secondary schools, as well as a considerable number of universities, are government-run institutions with heavily organized administrations. Primary and secondary school curricula are uniform in all schools for each grade level. Napoleon founded the university and secondary education programs in France. The basic method

was started by Guizot. There were heated debates on whether the Catholic Church should have a leading position. At the end of the nineteenth century, the new age of French education starts. Jules Ferry, a Minister of Public Instruction in 1841, is generally credited with founding the modern school (*l'école républicaine*), which required all boys and girls aged 6 to 12 to enroll. He also made public education compulsory, free, and secular (*laïque*).

The Third Republic abolished much of the Falloux Laws of 1850–1851, which gave the clergy a prominent position, with these laws, known as French Lubbers, Jules Ferry laws, and others.

The Ministry of National Education (formally known as the *Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de la Jeunesse et de la Vie associative*) oversees all educational programs in France. The Minister of National Education is in charge of the department.

State civil servants hire all educators in public primary and secondary schools, making the ministry the country's biggest employer. The government employs professors and scholars at France's higher education institutions (Nair, 2019).

During the Fifth Republic, the dual system of elementary and secondary education was abolished. The Berthoin amendment of 1959, for example, expanded mandatory school attendance to children up to the age of sixteen. Second, beginning at the age of 11, the Fouchet reform (1963) made secondary education in colleges open to all students. As a result, final qualifications are no longer issued in elementary schools. Third, the Haby law (1975) established a special college for all children who completed elementary school. Focus education zones were developed in the 1980s to offer more assistance to schools with the most issues. In-house training events were used to establish vocational programs.

The framework law of 1989 established a large-scale initiative to advance the democratic approach to academics. Beginning in the 1990s, attempts were made to restructure timetables and lessen the burden of children. Education is a key policy concern, according to a new framework law enacted in 2005, and the curriculum should ensure that all students learn a similar range of expertise and skills that will provide them with equal opportunity in the workplace. The most recent amendment reinforced these values (law no. 2013–595 of 8 July 2013 and related decrees).

The academic year runs from early September to early July. The Ministry of Education divides the country into three areas (A, B, and C) to avoid overcrowding of tourism attractions such as the Mediterranean coast and

ski resorts by family vacationers. For example, Lyon is located in zone A, Marseille in zone B, and Paris and Bordeaux in zone C.

The educational system in France is divided into five levels:

Main school (ISCED 0). Kindergartens offer this standard of schooling for children aged 2/3–6. From the age of three, nearly all children are enrolled in kindergarten. Children discover how to become students and are exposed to their first ideas of algebra, begin to understand letters, acquire oral expression, and so on during the first two years of preschool (TPS and petite segment “PS”). The last two years of preschool, the Moyenne and grande sections, are more school-like, with students learning to read, write, and do more math.

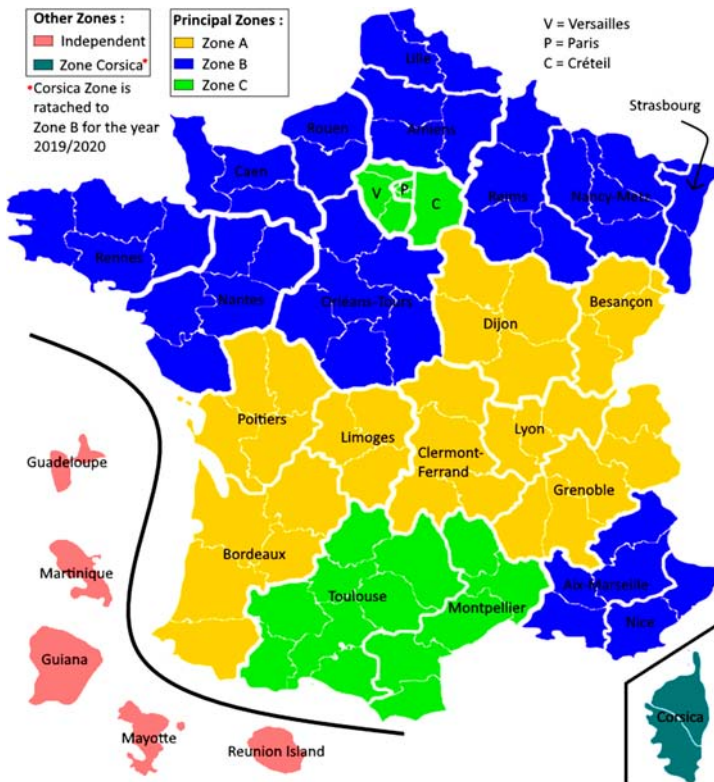


Figure 1.11. French schooling zones.

Source: https://www.wikiwand.com/en/Education_in_France.

Elementary/Primary (ISCED 1). For children aged 6 to 11, this standard of schooling is offered in elementary schools. Students who have passed

primary school do not take an examination; however, they are immediately sent to high school. Preschools can either have their own school zone (which is more common in cities) or be affiliated with an elementary school (mostly in villages). French primary school pupils, as students in other educational systems, typically have a single teacher (or two) who teaches the whole program.

The youngsters go on to the *élémentaire* after kindergarten (elementary school). They learn to write, improve their literacy skills, and gain a foundation in subjects such as French, algebra, physics, and the arts during the first three years of elementary school.

It's worth noting that the French term for a primary school teacher is *professeur* or *professeure des écoles* (previously called *instituteur*, or its feminine form *institutrice*).

Children attend primary school for five years, from the age of ten to eleven. CP (*cours préparatoire*), CE1 (*cours élémentaire 1*), CE2 (*cours élémentaire 2*), CM1 (*cours moyen 1*), and CM2 (*cours moyen 2*) are the classes (*cours moyen 2*).

High school (ISCED 2). For students aged 11 to 15, this standard of schooling is offered in four-year colleges. Learners of colleges have been studying the same subjects since the enactment of the Haby Law in 1975. After completing education, a *brevet* certificate is presented. Acceptance to upper secondary school is not contingent on passing the *une famille* (Muthu, 2015). Families of students are told whether their son or daughter can undertake general and technical studies or vocational training at the end of college. As a result, at the end of schooling, French students are required to specialize. High school (ISCED 3). Students aged 15 to 18 receive this degree of education across a three-year cycle. Students in general and technical *lycées* are prepared for long-term higher education, while students in professional *lycées* are primarily prepared for a career (although they have the option to continue their studies). The *baccalauréat*, a credential granted upon accomplishment of the *lycée* (high school), is a requirement for university entry. Students will receive the *Certificat d'aptitude Professionnelle* or Professional Aptitude Certificate (CAP) after two years in technical *lycées* and the *baccalauréat* after two more years.

So in essence, in secondary school, there are two levels of education:

- From the ages of 11 to 15, children attend college (middle school) for their first four years of high school.

- For children aged 15 to 18, a lycée (high school) offers a three-year program in further higher education. Pupils study for the baccalaureate (baccalaureate, also known as le bac) or the CAP (Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle). The baccalauréat (bachelor's degree) may contribute to further education or directly into the workforce (there are three categories of baccalauréats: general, technological, and professional).

The Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle is awarded by the CFA (center de formation des apprentis, apprentice learning center) for those who may not go through formal schooling.

All new education-related regulations (laws, decrees of the President of the Republic or the Prime Minister, administrative directives, and circulars) are incorporated into the Education Code in 2003.

At the primary and, secondary stages all French pupils of any particular class, whether in public, semi-public, or state-subsidized schools, follow the same curriculum. There are, however, specialized sections and a range of choices from which students can choose. The Bulletin officiel de l'éducation nationale, de l'enseignement supérieur et de la recherche (B.O.), which details all new programs and instruction orders, is the guideline for all French teachers. Annually, it is updated a number of times.

At this point, it is prudent to discuss the nature of private schools in this highly centralized system. In France, there are two types of private primary and secondary schools:

- Private schools with a government contract: At any step, private schools under contract with the state are private institutions; however, students at these schools follow the same national curriculum as students in public schools. Teachers in private schools are hired in the same manner as those in public schools and have approximately the same standing (Mundy et al., 2016). They are still directly recruited by the state, although they are not allocated indefinitely and are not permitted to switch to a job in a public school. In France, the vast portions of private schools are under agreement.
- Private schools without a government contract: Without a lease, private schools are free to hire their respective teachers to teach their own course of study; however, the state continues to regulate their educational standards and quality. The majority of these schools offer religious education.

Since French law only requires schooling, not inherently attendance at a school, families will educate their children at home if they follow the educational standards established by law and supervised by the government.



Figure 1.12. Lycée in Vesoul des Haberges.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Secondary_education_in_France#/media/File:Vesoul_Lyc%C3%A9_des_Haberges.jpg.

The License and License Professionnelle (bachelor's degrees), as well as the Master's and Doctorate degrees, are the three tiers of higher education in France, which equate to other European countries, allowing for internationalization. The License and Master's programs are divided into semesters, with six for the License and four for the Master's. Those levels of analysis also provide a variety of "Parcours" or "paths" dependent on UE (Unités d'enseignement or Modules), each of which is worth a certain amount of European credits (ECTS). These points, which are usually transferable between directions, are accumulated by a learner.

After completing 180 ECTS, a license is granted; after completing 120 additional credits, a master's degree is granted.

License and master's degrees are available in specialized fields and are marked with a special designation. During the second year of the Master's program, you can choose specialties that are either research-focused or technically centered. Skilled licenses with the aim of immediate work incorporation are also available. Continued schooling or the validation of

educational experience (VAE, Validation des Acquis de l'Expérience) may be used to return to school afterwards. In France, there are two types of higher education institutions: grandes écoles and public universities (Mee & Schreiner, 2016).

The student uprisings of May 1968 transformed higher education in France. During the 1960s, French public universities reacted to a dramatic increase in student enrolment (from 280,000 in 1962–63 to 500,000 in 1967–68) by cramming nearly one-third of their students into quickly and poorly constructed campus annexes (roughly equal to American satellite campuses) that lacked respectable facilities, resident professors, learning traditions, and the prestige of university status. Change was both necessary and imminent, with too many students primed for extremism after being pressured to study under such deplorable circumstances.

Rather than expanding already-overburdened parent campuses, it was planned to create new universities from the annexes. As a result, when opposed to other nations, one distinguishing feature of French higher education is the limited scale and diversity of institutions, each specializing in a more-or-less wide range of subjects. A medium-sized French region, such as Grenoble or Nancy, may have two or three universities (centered on research, sociological research, architecture, and so on), as well as a variety of other higher-education institutions.

Non-permanent scholars make up a substantial part of the teaching staff in engineering schools and technical degrees at universities; rather, part-time professors are employed to instruct one particular topic. Part-time professors are typically recruited from nearby institutions, research institutes, or businesses.

Another unique characteristic of the French higher education system is that a significant portion of scientific study is conducted by institutions such as the CNRS or INSERM, which are not directly affiliated with universities. However, in the majority of cases, such institutions' research systems are housed within universities (or other higher education institutions) and are collectively run by the research institution and the university.

In France, public universities are named after the main cities near which they are situated, with a numeral added if there are many. For example, Paris has 13 universities, numbered Paris I through XIII. Some of them are located outside of Paris, in the suburbs. Furthermore, the majority of universities have adopted a more casual name, which is typically the name of a famous individual or a certain place.

All in all, the successes in the French education system, just like in England and Germany cannot be ignored. France is seeing a slow aging of the population, however, that is less marked than in other neighboring countries (such as Germany and Italy), especially as the annual number of births is currently increasing slightly. In the school sector, there are eighteen million pupils and teachers, about a fifth of the population, and over 2.4 million in higher education. In 2000, the French Education Minister announced that 39 out of 75,000 public schools in the country were “seriously violent,” with another 300 becoming “somewhat violent” (Maringe & Sing, 2014).

Regardless, the country boasts a 99% literacy rate.

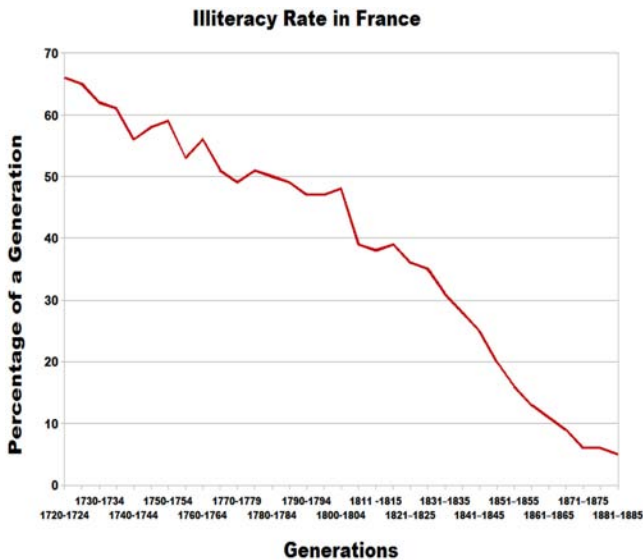


Figure 1.13. Illiteracy rates in France.

Source: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Illiteracy_france.png.

1.7. EDUCATION IN FINLAND

The last European education system we will take a look at is probably the best ranked not only amongst its peers in Europe, but consistently topped many global rankings for the most successful, efficient and effective education system in the world.

Finland’s educational sector has recently received a lot of attention. It is regarded as one of the world’s finest educational programs. In literacy,

science, and mathematics, it consistently outperforms the United States, its European neighbors, and even Japan. After the first triennial international survey of the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) in 2000, it has been a top performer. One of the cornerstones of the Finnish welfare state is education. They are proud of their educational scheme, which provides fair educational opportunity to everyone. Finland provides free schooling from pre-primary to higher education, the only education system on our case study list to do so.

Finland provides free schooling from pre-primary to higher education. The textbooks and educational materials are given free of charge. In addition, every day, students receive a free school lunch. Health-care services are also provided free of charge.

The school calendar varies from year to year, but the autumn semester starts in mid-August and finishes a few days before Christmas. The spring semester starts on the first weekday after January 1 and concludes in early (Marginson, 2006).

Finland ranks among the best in the world in the Education Index, which was released in conjunction with the UN's Human Development Index in 2008 and based on statistics from 2006, with a score of 0.993, tied for first with Denmark, Australia, and New Zealand. "The education system (standard basic education for all age groups), highly qualified teachers, and the independence granted to schools," according to the Finnish Ministry of Education.

Finland has historically ranked high in the PISA survey, which contrasts national educational systems around the world, though it has slipped from the top spot in recent years. Finland was officially listed in reading, twelfth in mathematics, and seventh in science in the 2012 survey, while Finland was first in both science and reading and second in mathematics in the 2003 study. The World Economic Forum has also rated Finland's tertiary education as the best in the world.

Although Finland is lauded for its general performance, a gender disparity in 2012 PISA reading expectations was found in a 2015 Brookings Institution survey, although this can be attributed to a variety of reasons, including each gender's choice of professional field.

The output of 15-year-old boys was not substantially different from the OECD averages at the time, and they were 0.66 standard deviations below that of 15-year-old girls.

In Finland, the governments of Jyrki Katainen, Alexander Stubb, and Juha Sipilä slashed education funding by a total of €1.5 billion from 2011 to 2018. More than 7500 university and college workers were laid off.



Figure 1.14. Primary school students in Finland working on an abstract creative problem.

Source: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/02/how-does-finland-s-top-ranking-education-system-work>.

According to Finland's Ministry of Education, early childhood education and care promotes a child's growth, literacy, and well-being, hence why it is state-funded.

Early childhood education and care (ECEC) is a comprehensive and goal-oriented approach to education, instruction, and care for young children. The aim of ECEC is to increase children's learning opportunities while also promoting their growth, fitness, and wellness.

ECEC for children under the age of six is the responsibility of local governments, i.e., towns. For early childhood education and treatment, a customer fee is paid. The fee is dictated by the household income and size, as well as the amount of time the child spends in ECEC (Makarova et al., 2018).

The Finnish National Agency for Education developed the National Curriculum Guidelines on Early Childhood Education and Care, which direct the preparation and delivery of ECEC material and serve as the foundation for developing local ECEC syllabuses.

Pre-primary school is designed to expand the children's learning options and aims to enhance children's literacy and growth opportunities. Pre-primary education is an integral part of the educational spectrum that runs

from early childhood care and education to basic education. All children in Finland have been required to attend pre-primary school since 2015 and it is provided free of charge.

The individual who has supervision of a minor must guarantee that the child receives pre-primary education or other programs that fulfill the pre-primary education goals. The Finnish National Agency for Education authorized the National Core Curriculum for Pre-Primary Education, which directs the preparation of pre-primary education content and serves as the foundation for developing local curricula. Compulsory schooling begins in elementary school and finishes at the age of eighteen.

All children aged 7 to 17 are entitled to a comprehensive school education (basic education), which constitutes school years 1 to 9 (whole age group).

Mandatory instruction usually begins in the seventh year of a child's life. Both children who live in Finland on a permanent basis are required to undergo compulsory school. The cost of a comprehensive school education is zero. State governments (municipalities) and other education agencies operate comprehensive schools. A private or state school is attended by less than 2% of comprehensive school students. Each youth must register for post-comprehensive school education at the completion of comprehensive school. Compulsory education ceases when a person reaches the age of 18 or completes an upper secondary qualification (either a general or technical credential).

After completing a comprehensive school education, students can choose either a general or vocational upper secondary education. Students go to upper secondary school, where they can select between general and vocational education.

As the name implies, general upper secondary education (*lukio* in Finnish) offers a broad education. It does not prepare students for any specific profession. Students undergo a nationwide school-leaving examination known as the Finnish matriculation examination at the completion of general upper secondary school (Matthews & Sidhu, 2005). Those that complete the test are entitled to apply to colleges, universities of applied sciences, and technical institutions for further education. The average length of time to finish upper secondary education is three years.

Upper secondary and specialized certificates are all examples of vocational qualifications. Upper secondary technical certificates have the fundamental requisite skills in the profession. People may improve their skills at various points of their careers with the help of additional and specialized

vocational qualifications. Upper secondary technical qualifications are normally worth 180 ECVET points, while further qualifications are worth 150 points and specialist qualifications are worth 180 points.

The student and the university create a personal skill learning strategy for the student at the start of vocational education and preparation, detailing the material, scheduling, and research methods. Apprenticeships and internship agreements may be used to provide vocational education and employment in the workplace. Prior experience can be recognized as part of the research in a variety of respects. Adults and teenagers will both register for vocational education and training. Graduates may apply to universities or universities of applied sciences to continue their education.

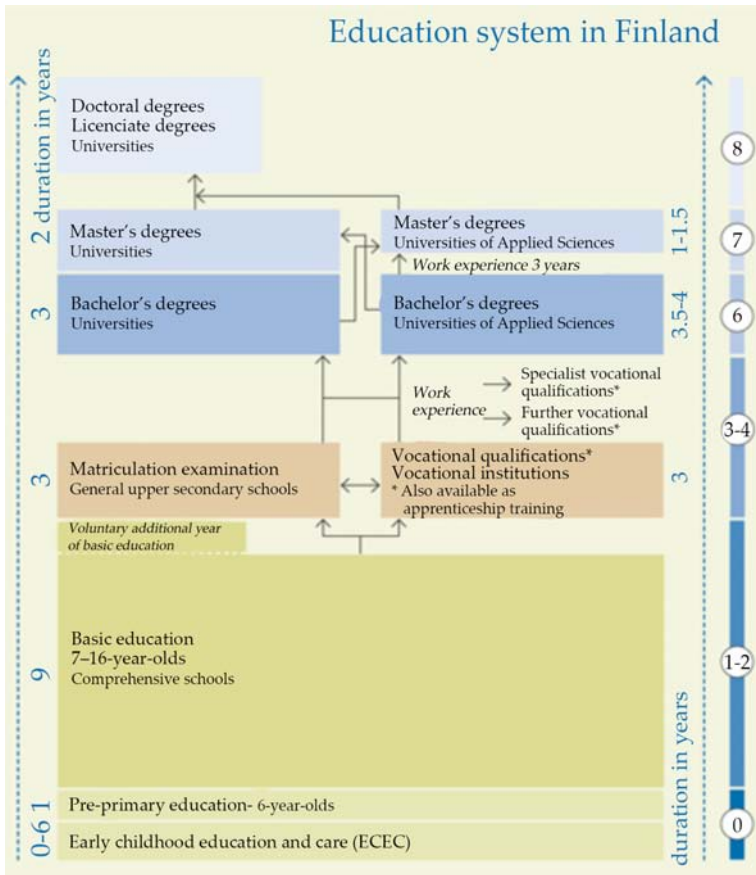


Figure 1.15. The Finnish education system, Ministry of Education and Culture.

Source: <https://www.globaleducationparkfinland.fi/about-global-education-park-finland/the-finnish-education-system>.

Universities and universities of applied sciences, sort of like the ones we find in France, make up Finland's higher education sector. Universities' objective is to pursue scientific study and offer education focused on that analysis. Universities of applied sciences (UAS) offer more realistic education geared toward meeting labor market demands.

Universities grant Bachelor's, Master's, and postgraduate degrees, such as licentiate and doctoral degrees, to students pursuing higher science and creative studies. UAS Bachelor's and Master's degrees are awarded by universities of applied sciences (Krogh & Slentz, 2010).

A Bachelor's degree at a university should take three years to complete, and a Master's degree should take two years more. A UAS degree typically takes between 3.5 and 4.5 years to complete. A UAS Bachelor's degree or another appropriate degree, as well as at least two years of job experience after the attainment of the previous degree, are required for Master's studies at a university of applied sciences.

One of the philosophies of the Finnish school programs that make them so popular is education and preparation in the tradition of lifelong learning.

Education contributing to a certification, graduate education, training for expertise qualifications, apprenticeship training, further and continuing education upgrading and enhancing professional skills, studies in subjects pertaining to citizenship skills, working life talents, and society, and studies in various crafts and subjects on a recreational basis are all included in adult education and training. This helps, if anything, have individuals have a sense of purpose in at least anything and serve as a productive member of society.

Adult education and preparation can be self-funded by the individual, or it can be offered or bought by companies as apprenticeship training, labor policy education, or staff learning and other instruction. Adult education and preparation is offered by educational institutions that only provide education for children and adolescents, educational institutions that mostly provide adult education, private businesses, and workplaces (staff-development).

Non-formal research is available via progressive adult education. This sort of intellectual free space has led to a highly cognitive adaptive and sophisticated populous. It encourages professional development, fitness, and well-being by providing recreational courses in civic skills and culture, as well as various crafts and subjects. Community education centers, folk high schools, learning centers, athletic performance centers, and summer colleges are examples of liberal adult education institutions. One of the most important aspects of liberal adult education is that anybody should qualify

to participate. The education does not lead to a diploma or certificate, and its content is not controlled by law (Kennedy, 2002).

Many other cultural takeaways and habits have been noted to foster success, like there are no standardized examinations in Finland. The National Matriculation Exam, a voluntary examination for candidates at the conclusion of an upper-secondary academic year, is the only exception (equivalent to an American high school.)

In Finland, students usually begin school between 9:00 and 9:45 a.m. Early start times have been found to be adverse to students' well-being, fitness, and maturation in studies. Finnish schools start later in the day and normally finish between 2:00 and 2:45 a.m. They have longer class hours and significantly longer gaps between them. The overall structure isn't in place to shove knowledge onto students' heads, but to foster a holistic learning environment.

All in all, education systems should be personalized and fitted with unique mechanisms if they are to be successful and effective.

Chapter 2

Access to Education in Europe

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2.1. INTRODUCTION



Figure 2.1. Immigrant children are nowadays getting the opportunity to learn in European schools.

Source: <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/access-education-refugee-and-migrant-children-europe-september-2019>.

The European Union (EU) considers persistent headway in education to be critical. Access to quality schools is a driver of financial development, social inclusion, exploration, and advancement – and significantly increases citizens' possibilities and self-awareness. In the EU, education structures are coordinated and managed by the member states.

This chapter recognizes key components needed to create structural level changes to improve school admission, including advanced education, for socio-economically minimized groups. It recognizes fundamental snags to education and prospects for advancement in school admittance for these groups, which are issues adaptable to each nations' unique circumstances. It embraces a fundamental spotlight on access across a scope of areas, such as formal and non-formal education. Through an emphasis on a more unique structuralism system, it builds up an imaginative post-Bronfenbrennerian perspective on structural levels of formative and instructive education in Europe. It likewise builds up a continental plan for change corresponding to these different structural levels for admittance to schools for marginalized

communities, through extraction of key underlying pointers to assess change and progress in a straightforward, socially viable way (Kang, 2004). The chapter recognizes current gaps and qualities in approach and practice that affect school admittance rates in Europe. These factors are illustrative and advise an essential way to deal with structural level changes and improvement for the advancement of education in Europe and beyond. Despite being the most advanced continent, many children in Europe, especially Eastern Europe, don't have access to quality education facilities.

While the obligation lies squarely on each country, the job of the EU is to help and enhance their ability. The EU in this manner collaborates with countries to provide policy and financing instruments. They additionally guarantee help through a far-reaching, yearly assessment of education and training systems across Europe. The EU additionally assists with building vocational training colleges to improve education access and versatility, advance basic skills and provide shared acknowledgment and recognitions across borders. Education is a basic aspect of the EU's extensive financial plan. It incorporates the Europe 2020 agenda and the European Semester in charge of managing Member States' economic initiatives.

2.2. RIGHT TO EDUCATION INITIATIVE IN EUROPE



Figure 2.2. Most European schools have access to modern technology.

Source: https://ec.europa.eu/education/education-in-the-eu/european-education-area_en.

In Europe, there are two principal organizations concerned about education freedoms: the European Union and the Council of Europe.

The Council of Europe was established in 1949 and has 47 party states. The European Union has 28 party states. They cooperate to advance and promote education access in Europe. The right to education is entrenched in the common law instruments. Specifically, the right to education (Article 14) incorporates the freedom to school admission and professional training; it ensures the privilege to basic education for children the opportunity to establish educational foundations.

Education is a fundamental liberty of each person. Most European states endeavor to meet their responsibilities in making education access a reality for all, some have made great headway in recent years. With new laws and approaches that eliminate excessive expenses in basic education, critical advancement has been made in propelling education. This has prompted a huge number of kids enrolled in schools, and the quantity of out-of-school youngsters has fallen by practically half since 2000. Significant advances have likewise been made with respect to gender equality, and countries have put forth attempts to raise the number of boys and girls attending school through improved teacher training arrangements and the development of better learning outcomes.

Regardless of these endeavors, gaps to education access still endure around the continent, represented maybe most distinctly by the way a great number of children and youth in Europe are still out of school. Women, people with handicaps, those from poor backgrounds, native people, and minorities are among the individuals who face the most noticeably segregation in education, affecting both their right to go to class and their privileges inside and outside school (Jian-Guo, 2009).

The right to education has been universally recognized as an all-encompassing right. Article 26 of the UN Basic Freedoms charter considers education as a fundamental liberty (UN, 1948) whereupon depends on the acknowledgment of different rights. This is emphasized in a few other global, local and public laws and approaches. The global conference on Education for All (EFA) additionally reiterates that basic education must be available to all. In particular, the requirements of children with disabilities should be given top priority as an indispensable part of the education framework (UNESCO, 1990). The Salamanca Declaration (UNESCO, 1994) provided a comprehensive way to deal with education. The core value of the charter was that government-funded schools ought to provide all youngsters with physical, educational, social, and emotional conditions suitable for learning. The charter further proclaims that all kids with disabilities ought to go to the

same local school they would choose in case they didn't have a disability. Nonetheless, it is the Dakar Action Plan (UNESCO, 2000) that formalized every one of these responsibilities by calling out member countries to guarantee education objectives and targets are reached and supported in particular nations. European countries are moving towards a 2030 objective of comprehensive and quality education for all learners. Consistent efforts by countries to guarantee education for all have been communicated through the millennium development goals (MDGs) of 2000. Objective 2 mentions that member countries should ensure universal education for all young men and women.

Regionally, the EU explicitly targets persons with disabilities and provides that they ought to be given equal rights and opportunities as those in good physical and mental health. It further ensures the privilege to education. They urge member states to take measures towards ensuring everyone gets hindered access to government schools, taking cognizance of the basic role of education in development. Education is viewed as the socio-economic contributor of improvement. It provides countries with skilled people needed to accomplish medium-term developmental objectives. Without a doubt, significant progress has been made in the training of kids with disabilities.

2.3. PEOPLE WITH DISABILITY



Figure 2.3. Students with disabilities should be provided with adequate support facilities.

Source: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/socialsustainability/brief/inclusive-education-initiative-transforming-education-for-children-with-disabilities>.

Roughly 6 to 10 out of each 100 individuals live with a handicap in Europe. Altogether, an expected 135 million individuals in the continent live with incapacity. An enormous number of them face rejection from education, which further sustains the cycle of poverty and incapacity. In Europe, special needs education is given in special schools, incorporated institutions, and in comprehensive settings in community schools. Be that as it may, a greater part of children with disabilities are not in schools. This contrasts with their able-bodied counterparts who, for the larger part, get quality education. Disabled youngsters are affected by poverty, orphan living, and mostly reside in rural areas or metropolitan ghettos. Research is needed to discover the degree to which kids with disabilities in Europe have access to quality education. This being an endeavor to add to the worldwide objective of a more sustainable and comprehensive education system.

Youth improvement is a basic part of education planning; education allows them to prevail in their life journey by improving their cognitive, emotional and social conditions. However, studies from different European countries show that they do not maintain data on the number of kids with disabilities for follow-up purposes. As per the local communities, a greater part of kids with disabilities were not in school.

2.3.1. Community Support for Education of Children With Disabilities

The local communities give practically no help to kids with disabilities to get an education. This is because of various variables, including socio-economic factors, poverty, and negative attitudes around them. These kids face segregation from both their families and their community. In some Eastern European nations, a kid born with disability is avoided and the family views such a kid as a plague. It is a no-no for a woman to bring forth a kid with a disability, and on the off chance that it occurs, the lady may be chased away from her marital home (Jongbloed et al., 2008). Negative attitudes towards handicap people are another explanation for children with disability not going to school. A few parents hide their children due to fear and disgrace, while others don't want to put resources into their schooling since they perceive them as people who can never benefit from education or life.



Figure 2.4. The community must encourage and motivate children with disability.

Source: <https://news.griffith.edu.au/2020/06/12/dignity-project-community-hub-brings-people-together-to-break-disability-stereotypes/>.

Poverty is yet another factor that makes families take youngsters with disabilities away from school. Some kids with disability require assistive devices, particular vehicles to school, and incur extra costs going to special schools and getting clinical assistance. There is a general absence of information about disability prompting carelessness in handing youngsters with the condition. It is only in developed nations like Germany that there are community schools dedicated to children with disabilities. Several other European countries have poor infrastructure in both normal and special schools; low progress rates and absence of reasonable standards to manage special needs students.

As highlighted by headteachers in Ukrainian schools, for example, some schools are not equipped to handle youngsters with disabilities. The government has not given enough course books and learning aids. The resources given to special schools is additionally not adequate to cater for the kids' food, infrastructure, and education needs. Assistive devices are likewise expensive and not adequately availed for all kids with disabilities. The evaluation of facilities, structures, and school hardware is needed to find out their appropriateness for use by kids with disabilities.

2.3.2. Readiness of Schools to Handle Children With Disability



Figure 2.5. A child with downs syndrome playing with the school's facilities.

Source: <https://theconversation.com/can-inclusive-education-do-more-harm-than-good-43183>.

Most community schools inside Europe have children with handicap. The schools are either special schools or traditional schools with non-inclusive facilities. Educators mention that they need more skilled teachers to offer training in their schools. In respect to the appropriateness of educational plans for youngsters with handicap, the schools report that endeavors have been made to adjust the standard educational program. By and by, there are challenges as to the accessibility of teaching resources.

Teachers believe that the educational plan utilized in special schools is excessively hypothetical, and there is a need to make it more realistic. The educational plan has additionally been depicted as inflexible and that not all subjects are adjusted to suit the needs of kids with disabilities. For instance, only English and Science have been adjusted to suit kids with hearing weakness. Additionally, the educational plan doesn't specify what teachers can do and when. It is also reported that kids with handicaps are exposed to a similar assessment as regular children. Indeed, even the additional time permitted during evaluation is not satisfactory to make up for the slower speed of learning for kids with handicaps. Schools need subsidizing from the government, hardware/offices and staffing to cater to all students. This way they can be more mindful of the importance of training kids with disabilities.

As indicated by teachers there is need for public education of parents to break cultural taboos, and assist individuals with understanding the requirements of youngsters with handicap. They propose that every area ought to have a school with a special unit for kids with disabilities. Punishments for guardians who don't take kids to class ought to be presented (Jones et al., 2010). The government should also prepare more educators for disabled children; there is huge demand for special needs teachers, but not enough people are taking up the career. Standard supplemental classes for all teachers on how to deal with kids with inabilities is also welcome. Besides, having more vocational centers and utilization of governmental policy regarding minorities in society would build progress from grade school to secondary schools, or prepare youth with disabilities for progress.

Education officials recommend that a review to be done to establish the prevalence and status of youngsters with disabilities in each European country, and to keep a data set on all children. Such information would be utilized in annual planning and programming of activities in education. More grounded partnerships between different partners dealing with issues of youngsters with disability is also needed, especially on the funding side. Community organizations also need to be more proactive on issues around the rights of children with disabilities and educating community members to be mindful of their needs. They are calls for the formulation of comprehensive training strategy rules in every country, and enforcement of applicable strategies when handling children with handicap.

2.3.3 Parents' Perspectives on the Training of Children with Disability

Parents agree that many kids with handicap in the community don't attend school. They credit this to restrictions whereby such children are seen as burdensome, due to their many demands. Some difficulties mentioned by parents include: the absence of a conducive learning environment, absence of assistive devices for kids with extreme handicaps, insufficient financial help to parents of children with disability, and absence of well-trained special needs education (SNE) teachers. Parents propose various procedures that would improve admission rate to schools including; setting up free clinical camps in communities for physiotherapy, building up conducive live-in schools, creating networks on the rights youngsters with disabilities, and providing them with relevant support and resources.



Figure 2.6. A student helping his special needs friend go down the stairs.

Source: <https://www.who.int/features/factfiles/disability/en/>.

Regional governments are accountable for education, and are along these lines expected to improve admittance to school for children with handicaps. Anyway, studies have found that many countries are not concerned with kids with disabilities welfare. On financing of schools, the budgetary allotment often excludes special needs kids. Infrastructure of special education schools has also been found to be insufficient. Notwithstanding, some basic necessities of special needs include accessible latrines, entryways and by providing ramps for access. Different countries have their own challenges, whereby in some cases, a single educator would take care of children of various kinds of disability, from deafness to sight and so on. Likewise, the absence of land for building special needs facilities, poor financing, insufficient oversight, particularly of many unregistered private schools and general lack of understanding of special needs students are also worth mentioning.

2.3.4. How Governments Address the Needs of Special Needs Kids



Figure 2.7. Education should be accessible to every student regardless of their background.

Source: <https://en.unesco.org/gem-report/report/2020/inclusion>.

Governments are responsible for funding schools, providing teacher training, equipment and handling objections. However, some lack information on the number of instructors for kids with disabilities in public schools. Some challenges affecting schools in the handling of special needs students include; deficiency of teachers prepared to work with disability students, lack of a thorough approach on preparing and organization of special needs instructors, and the need for controls in handling students. There is the absence of sufficient resources as a result of restricted budgetary allocations, and ensuing inability to provide facilities. Delays in arrival of dispensed resources obstruct any legitimate progress in administrations and provision of facilities; failure to do visit checking of execution of approaches; insufficient numbers of educators and poor parental guidance in the training of children with disability are also fundamental challenges (Hu et al., 2014).

Education executives have also mentioned various difficulties they encounter in the preparation of special needs educators, including deficient financing for research and interviews; absence of teachers in some specialized areas like language training; a high retirement rate of experienced teachers; and negative attitude towards special needs teaching. They likewise mention that the curriculum they utilize is not updated to meet the needs of special

needs students. Special needs children can't be catered for except if sound information on them is available. Researchers must determine the degree to which free essential education has been provided in Europe, by zeroing in on kids with disabilities in chosen counties. They must discover perspectives on various partner countries on instruction methodologies. Whilst considerable endeavors have been made in improving admittance to schools, there is still insufficiency in quality administrations for special needs kids. Information gaps must be filled for progress to be made.

The role of governments is to offer evidence, evaluation, and intervention in the management of special needs children. This is huge in light of the fact that identifying the basic needs of children is relevant to supporting and empowering children to take an early interest in learning, within a comprehensive environment. Moreover, early detection of disability is probably going to prevent further deterioration. School retention and progress rate of special needs children is a key concern among stakeholders, but addressing the problem early once it has been detected can keep children much longer in school. The general objective of European governments is to improve access, transition rates, and sustenance of students with special needs in education.

2.4. PRIVATIZATION OF EDUCATION ACROSS EUROPE

The topic of privatization is not unheard of. It has been discussed since the major financial crisis of the late 1970s and the subsequent public sector "crisis." The once-acclaimed welfare states of many industrialized European countries have been under different kinds of pressure: fiscal, social, administrative, and political legitimacy. Ideologically, the welfare condition is challenged by (neo) liberals believing that it is not just financially unsustainable, but also runs counter to the objectives of economic efficiency and the search for personal freedom. Privatization of education has also been criticized by political pragmatists, who believe that its bureaucratic nature has become increasingly challenging. The answer in the latter case is not (essentially) privatization, but the ability to provide greater diversity of providers in the education. Completion must be allowed so that the best schools can attract more students and education quality can improve.

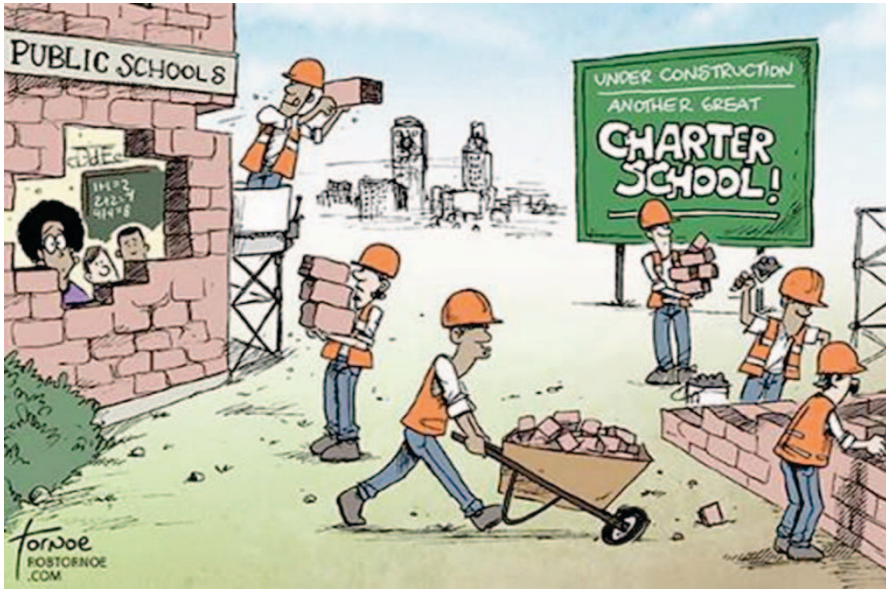


Figure 2.8. Public schools across Europe are increasingly being privatized.

Source: <https://medium.com/age-of-awareness/privatization-b7b711073682>.

This section highlights initiatives to privatize public education in different European countries, including England, Spain, Italy, and Sweden. In these countries, privatization is seen as a response to “policy,” “economy” and “governance.” In the past few decades, these countries have experienced ideological challenges and demanded reductions and reforms in their public service, which has led to new “austerity measures.” The states’ adaptation to privatization and market-driven dynamics reflects the different welfare state systems represented by these countries—liberalism, social democracy, and sub-protectionism, and also reflects their respective ideologies and historical trajectory. Including the “standard” way of conducting education politics (Heward et al., 2006).

The UK (and Britain specifically) have perhaps the most extreme cases of political ‘rights’ in the way power and education resources are appropriated, with a solid focus on changing government assistance regardless of the political expenses appended to any education policy. Sweden follows a totally different direction, having fabricated a solid Social Majority rule, notwithstanding the class clashes, there has verifiably been a more grounded approach and impartial dissemination of abundance and an overwhelming

inclination of cooperation, which make it simple to arrive at answers for social issues like education that everyone can acknowledge. Yet, the financial emergency of the mid 1990s proclaimed the beginnings of broad changes of the Swedish government, and the political test to the foundations of Social Vote based system. Following Esping-Andersen's (1996) portrayals of the 'mainstream' model of social governance in education, Italy and Spain (post-Franco) with planning models that depended on a statist system, have now accepted a more inclusive system, as far as education and training is concerned with some level of professional independence. Privatization appears to have been a good course in each of the countries above. In the first place, there was the privatization of state ventures in the post-1980 period and later the privatization(s) of different aspects of government assistance policy in the public arena, with education being directly affected. These moves include the changing responsibility for resources and administrations (from public to private hands), in addition to providing new ideas in the administration of education policies.

There is a need to investigate the forms of schooling privatization, and of different kinds of public sector changes as mentioned by the education stakeholders. In like manner, the privatization of schools in Sweden has totally different attributes, causes and results than the privatization of schools in Italy. The word "privatization" doesn't really portray a similar meaning in different countries, and unquestionably doesn't indicate the possible results yet to be determined of forces between general society and the private sector. Furthermore, notwithstanding the Europe-wide nature of individualism, privatization may not be the best model for schools in this region as maintaining quality standards among private schools may be challenging. However, and most shockingly, of the four nations mentioned above, it is Sweden that is the nearest to privatizing learning institutions that may go 'global' over the next few years. Accordingly, regardless of the basic model used in education, and the strategy compositions, all in all, privatization doesn't really influence education in similar ways across different countries. This presents a variety of attributes for privatization in school settings and gives bits of knowledge into the cycles of strategy often used.

the United Kingdom (and England specifically) represent one of the radical countries in education reform changes, with a robust primary state committed to reforming welfare notwithstanding the political costs attached to such a path of action. Sweden has a totally different trajectory, having built a solid Social Democratic system wherein, in spite of the internal

conflicts, there has traditionally been a stronger agreement on the “equitable distribution of wealth and a strong feeling of fellowship, which makes it especially easy to find solutions on social issues like education challenges.” But the economic disaster of the early 1990s heralded the beginnings of good-sized reforms of the Swedish welfare nation, and the political arrangement to the institutions of Social Democracy. There is a need for reforms in education to make it more accessible to everyone, and removing bureaucratic bottlenecks.

Privatization appears to have been a popular reform agenda across Europe. First, there has been the privatization of state schools, and later the privatization(s) of various aspects of student welfare provision within the region, with teaching being directly affected. These movements involved the converting ownership of educational capital, assets, and resources (from public to private hands), including the introduction of new activities and stakeholders, in addition to a redefinition of what each country ‘does’ to improve education and the way it governs. What these cases illustrate is the need to discover the versions of education, and other types of public sector reform rooted within the European contexts, which have given rise and shape to very specific and unique relationships between the state, the education sector, and citizens. As a consequence, the privatization of schools in European countries have different motives.

2.4.1. Characterizing the Terms and Drawing the Limits Between Public and Private



Figure 2.9. A public campaign against the privatization of schools.

Source: https://www.createdebate.com/debate/show/Privatization_of_education.

Almost every country describes education changes by expense cuts, liberation, progression and privatization, reevaluating, and the presentation of new suppliers of school resources (some for benefit and others not). Yet, what's more, they showcase the altering education strategies and discussion that provide a "pathway for of impact that currently lie open to private enterprise." Different kinds of privatization have been shown in the education strategy, for example, 'endogenous' ("the import of thoughts, methods and practices from the private area") and 'exogenous' privatization ("the kickoff of state-funded training institutions to private area on revenue-driven premise," and a portion of these terms portray well the new schooling changes across Europe.

In any case, changes including 'liberation' and 'progression' just as the presentation of 'semi business sectors' don't without anyone else depict privatization. Rivalry between state schools for subsidizing or positions allied tables, or parental rivalry for prestigious state school places for their children in an undeniably varied school market, may depict totally different methods of dealing with the state educational system (than the customary administrative model), yet don't comprise privatization. Such courses of action typically draw on Public Administration that works based on targets and the estimating of execution against set principles, with schools positioned against one another based on such exhibitions. Target and review driven administration and new changed talks on administration and organizations flourish in semi-economic situations, especially in Britain and Sweden, and this is occurring both among private and between state schools (Gough, 2013). The contention here is to decide on a particular importance of privatization as the "move of responsibility for and creation of products from the public to the private education sector." The Swedish Free Schools are the most clear model here of this meaning of privatization. Having the ability to produce benefit for their proprietors/investors, Free Schools are to be sure a type of holistic privatization strategy where the state has fundamentally diminished its operational obligations in the education arrangement. Nonetheless, it actually involves the privatization of the "creation" of administrations just, where the state subsidizes schools, arranges contracts with the private suppliers, reviews the policy framework they give, and upholds the legitimate systems that control education planning.

Different changes, driven by neoliberal and administrative goals, absolutely propose a basic change in considering the contribution of the state – from being an overseer of administrations to being a "market producer" and controller of these administrations. These changes highlight an altogether

different type of education model, which now and again includes revenue-driven privatizations, while in others cases, the state reserves, conveys assets, manages, and puts together teaching resources. As these changes are presented, it turns out to be evident that they should be considered not as individual piecemeal arrangements, however as major policy changes that Britain, Italy, Spain and Sweden (and different other nations) are seeking after with the express goal of changing the relations between the state, society and private market. The Spanish private education system has been depicted as a “fragmented quasi-market,” and the new types of crossbreed and reflexive types of administration set up are simply not sufficient.

All things being equal, it is a reaction to the apparent insurrection of private education, and what the creators call a “political response” instead of “political activity” to overseeing the public area. Additionally, the public school across Europe will before long be absorbed into the private system which pay teachers better salary, and the unavoidable flexibilization (and further de-professionalization) of the education sector may follow. The state is increasingly removing itself from education processes, by redirecting responsibility to political players and designating them to the institutional level. European nations are increasingly changing the connection between the state and the education sector, which is being ‘restrained’ through different types of the privatization of schooling conditions and arrangements.

The boundary between public and private is difficult to draw; a proposal is needed to adopt a ‘strict’ definition of privatization to mean the transfer of ownership from the state authorities to private actors – which comprise of both for-profit and non-profit players. Even though philanthropic institutions won’t necessarily offer education for income, they sincerely fall within that definition due to the fact that they cover a private sector that pursues its unique goals, even if this doesn’t mean monetary advantage. The Italian and English contexts provided here offer detailed examples of private players that, via the effective governing bodies, promote the availability of education to areas where the government has not yet reached, drawing on neoliberal and utilitarian concepts of teaching.

Philanthropic and non-secular organizations can be ‘privatized,’ but they argue that they act for the public good through their defined ‘ethos’ and ‘work,’ not necessarily to promote education. Governments ‘empower’ lobby groups by using mediating systems that connect the society to the state at huge. They may sometimes rely on voluntary institutions, the church, self-help groups, and different formal and informal organizations for the

supply of social welfare services to school (Alam, 2016). These thoughts mushroomed especially in the USA during the 1980s, and to a degree they've spread to Europe, with the English adopting communitarian policies and using ideas of collaboration and constructive social networks as answers to problems of social cohesion and poverty in marginalized communities. However, in spite of the proclamations of public ethos, the privatization of education appears to be characterized by two silent features: that of political pressures and powerful lobbyists in the systems who act as facilitators/regulators of education. The de-politicization of education is displayed in many ways, starting from determining the employability of teachers, the removal of neighborhood municipalities/government to community organization of education, and the turning of students and parents into stakeholders who make 'knowledgeable' decisions, and contribute to socio-economic development.

2.4.2. Re-Claiming Schools



Figure 2.10. Primary school students reading in class.

Source: <https://englishessaybysuresh.blogspot.com/2019/06/privatization-in-education.html>.

In a situation wherein education is provided with the aid of a combination of private and public institutions, as policy tendencies throughout Europe seem to be indicating, what are the parameters for this new order and what do they imply for students? This debate opens up an exciting set of normative questions. Wherein do the bounds lie between public and private education? What are the criteria and values that must be to set up

as standards for demarcating these boundaries, and what roles/duties are required in education studies? Actually, there are not any definite solutions to these questions, nevertheless one of the matters researchers can do is re-opening the discussion on privatization of education and its impacts.

First, as has been pointed out, nationwide and local authorities have mediated privatization policies in schools in diverse ways. Additionally, while looking at policy traits historically, scholars cannot but consent as true the Albert Hirschman's model of the cycles of "changing involvement" between "private" and "public" interest, in which societies oscillate between intervals of intense preoccupation with public concerns, and of general attention on character growth and individual welfare (Altun, 2017). Europe is virtually moving further right into a period of intensified privatization of schools, and the pursuit of self-interest in education, with neoliberal states being encouraging this practice as a hegemonic social factor (although tempered by using discussions of 'inclusion' and 'concord'). In most cases, there is observed a package of reforms concerning privatization, however with variations in practices and consequences with regards to shifts from civic duty to the search for private interests.

The second goal covers the difference between coverage and administration, and what this means for learning institutions that exist in education landscapes. The popularity of neoliberal thinking within EU states, and the associated rise of managerial practices within the public space are seen as opposing old school politics, and a crisis of legitimation of the state and other actors in the education sector emerges. As the management of public service turns into increasingly enterprise-like system, and schools have become more and more 'free' to operationalize policy guidelines and make budgetary decisions, their scope for turning into policymakers themselves is increasing. States may argue that they're still in control of the education curriculum-making process.

But, as researchers' advice, the 'polycentric/community model' has by means of purpose and design decentralized decision-making and obligation. The rise of operational factors to educational faculties, in combination with the pressures for them to become 'a hit' and attract more students have both the incentives and the freedom to define their institutional identity, challenges, and rules. In doing so, through advertising and recruitment approaches, overt and covert choice approaches, and through competing with different players for a space within the marketplace, they may be redefining coverage in methods that match their personal purposes. These

functions aren't necessarily within the carrier of public ethos. Educational rewards are dispensed on the premise of fulfillment as described by means of either income (for Sweden), by using exam results and the positions in education boards.

The inability of systems to separate management from policy will become great in situations wherein the boundary among public and private schools are blurred. A case is provided wherein policy-making goals, advocated and supported with the aid of the government, is a sure proof. The mediation and re-interpretation of policy at the institutional level allows for a gap between management and implementation, which leaves the doorway for private players to dominate the education sector. The arguments in support of these blend between public and private actors is that provision of private education may allow for diversity of learning institutions, and the opportunity for institutions to offer alternative options to kids other than the state curriculum – with all the opportunities for empowerment, however, some risks such as the quality of education still exist.

Nevertheless, studies over the past 30 years across Europe highlight the consequences of partial or full privatization and marketization of education, and those make an awful lot extra uncomfortable study for the exponents of such guidelines. Research findings mention geographic and social segregation of education, from specific socio-economic backgrounds because of parental preference and faculty positions, and an increase in social injustice in terms of the unequal distribution of educational 'rewards' to different social organizations. This ought to not come as a surprise. The incentives supplied to education institutions and community, acting on behalf of personal pursuits are to compete for role and for schooling rewards (Furlong, 2005). As for students and parents (from poor economic and cultural backgrounds), this may mean opposition to prestigious institutions of learning. For faculties, underfunding would mean reduced income (in some instances), lack of institutional autonomy, and less capacity to operate in the education market. Therefore, educational faculties as policymakers, and particularly faculties performing within robust educational marketplace parameters have an interest in interpreting official coverage in how to consolidate their success factors.

However, the reverse is also true. Rather than focusing on the erosion of the public obstacles through marketization and privatization, it is better to explore other opportunities. In countries that have invited the private sector to operate within the education space, there may be an erosion of government

influence on education matters. Ultimately, there is a need to speak about which schooling aspects are (and should be) basically governmental, and why. Literature around the fields of political, technological and social coverage suggest education privatization, and often these are underpinned via cost-benefit analysis, issues on accountability and effectiveness, and also concerns about abuse of power by centralized and monopolistic states.

Education is an evolving factor, requiring special consideration on its roles and functions. The very nature of education requires adaptation, since the world is constantly evolving and new skills are needed to meet new challenges. A vibrant society requires independent-minded people, and education is the key to achieving this goal. It additionally needs a diverse range of professionals who can tackle society's numerous issues. Of path, this still does not provide a long-term solution if the government education policies are all wrong. Truly there is no single answer to the education question, but each European country must identify its needs and address them accordingly. Unique policy implementation and methods of setting up teacher labor unions, in addition to the nature of 'competition' to the mission of privatization and marketization, will produce great results and education opportunities throughout the European countries.

2.5. EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES

Children in Ukraine's war-torn Donetsk and Luhansk areas bear consistent strain in their education. But coping strategies, such as community networking, now allow kids to continue learning in peace. Thanks to the assistance of the European Union humanitarian aid, schools along the contact line are receiving laptops, tablets, and printers to help them learn from home. Besides, with the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, PCs, tablets and different other devices for online studies have emerged as a priority. Supplying these facilities in not only Donetsk and Luhank regions, but Europe at large, provides the opportunity to improve the students talents and plan for distance learning which is much safer. Teachers can also enjoy online training facilities supported by the EU (Edmond, 2001). These training resources allow instructors to comprehend how adequate training can help build peace, and help teach children understand how to act during emergencies such as wars or pandemics, which are becoming quite common nowadays.



Figure 2.11. Conflict-torn Eastern Ukraine is not conducive for children's education.

Source: <https://www.unicef.org/stories/ukraine-schools-conflict-zone>.

The second wave of Covid are especially deadly, and schools are encouraged to adopt remote learning measures to manage the situation. The pandemic has aggravated an already worsening situation in Europe, with the danger of job losses making it difficult for parents to cater for their children's education needs. However, teachers have risen to the occasion in embracing technology for the safety and protection of students. Now, if there's a 3rd wave of the pandemic or quarantine, schools must be prepared to switch their operations online. Following the pandemic's first wave, now most teachers, students and parents at least understand how to make a video chat. Schools have provided some resources for online learning, such as internet service at their individual expense. Governments also need to provide more resources to help schools cope with the increased need for remote learning.

It's quite challenging to explain physics and math concepts remotely; teachers must therefore work harder to record video training to better provide an explanation for these topics. That is why the PCs supplied by EU in conjunction with the UN will help to resolve this problem. Some European schools have low attendance rates because parents fear that their children

may contract Covid 19 in school. Other children live in militia-controlled territories and are unable to make it to school. They're among the hundreds of European kids who have been cut off from the public schooling system, after the outbreak of conflict and the pandemic.

With the teacher sitting in the front of a computer and communicating through video call, it becomes easier to provide students from conflict areas with quality education without risking their lives. Digital resources such as Zoom, Viber, and smartphones have come in handy. Teachers are now making full use of these devices to allow them to teach and communicate with children from remote locations. Teachers also have more time online to explain tough subjects to the students. Whilst great development has been made to make sure more children get admission to first-class education globally, millions of youngsters continue to be left out. 1 in 4 of every school-going child lives in disaster-prone countries. Without getting admission to school, a generation of children living in conflict areas will be left out of development and will lack the skills needed to contribute to their countries or economies, worsening the already poor situation for these children and their families.

The European Union strives to ensure that each child gets a quality education, particularly girls, children with disabilities, and those living in poverty. Preserving children's rights is fundamental in war zone areas. Schools can protect children from abuse, exploitation, and recruitment into armed militias. The EU has emerged as the most significant donor for education in emergency zones, working closely with UNICEF on education programs across Europe. They provide resources for youngsters to reach their full potential through quality training. (Dewey, 2012). Moreover, the EU/UNICEF partnership works closely with governments to support and equip schooling systems. Thousands of kids in Ukraine are now living in regions that have benefited from UNICEF'S educational support. The goal is to promote—popularity for education, excellence in teaching, global orientation, and increase in knowledge that contributes to regional growth.

The European Union holds the opinion on a variety of strategic measures for education, which go past employment goals to cover social cohesion, personal and social fulfillment and active citizenship, the primary aim of education cooperation must be to help develop better education and schooling structures within member states which is aimed at ensuring: (a) The private, social and professional fulfillment of citizen needs; (b) Sustainable fiscal growth and employability, while also providing democratic values, social

cohesion, active citizenship, and intercultural cooperation. Throughout the member countries, senior EU representatives on education have been posted to countries like Bulgaria, England, Estonia, Austria, Belgium, Norway, Russia, Hungary, Ireland, Lithuania, Scotland and Slovenia. Their purpose is to identify concrete structures of interrelation and effective ways of overcoming challenges faced by students and parents. Structural signs (SIs), commonly framed as potentially verifiable sure/no solutions, address whether or not key education systems, mechanisms, or ideas are put in place in a location. As enduring functions or key factors of education, they're, however, probably flexible.

They offer a scrutiny of state or institutional effort. The primary education committee at the country level can gather knowledge on schooling patterns across marginalized communities, which can then be shared with the EU for funding purposes. Besides, there are policies that provide for the studying, getting admission to social inclusion in schools. Estonian uses finance as a rationale to implement a laissez-faire education strategy, where private schools are allowed to open and contribute to the socio-economic empowerment of kids who cannot access public schools. To create stable educational structural units, there is a need to alternate the prevailing division of labor. Extra centralization means more officers deployed to the ground. But most countries cannot afford that in the meantime, so the solution isn't the creation of structural units but rather empowering existing educational systems. Schools must be able to resolve their issues internally—this is what autonomy means. It is part of the long term development goals the EU has set out.

2.6. SOCIO-ECONOMIC EXCLUSION IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Education professionals recognize that there is not a transparent set of criteria for defining socioeconomic exclusion, however, alternatively, this measure is quite 'vague' aside from identity with the standard of ethnicity: The poor state of affairs is an indistinct idea because social class statuses can change in different intervals. Presently, marginalized children are those who need special education, those from poor families, and the individuals with minimal qualifications for admission into school. It appears that the contention isn't a lot from a lack of legal definition for socio-economic exclusion in Hungary, however instead its application in activities past ethnicity criteria, in some environments, the focal point on socio-financial

exclusion is primarily based on low income homes and education level of parents, and possibly the area of residence which would make the target organization one that is much less dynamic. Interviews targeting education policy officials in Bulgaria, Russia, Estonia, and Slovenia show that there exists neither uniform standards for getting entry into public schools, nor direct government intervention.



Figure 2.12. Children from poor backgrounds have little access to education.

Source: <https://borgenproject.org/8-facts-about-education-in-ukraine/>.

Children are missing out on school due to poverty, low parental education and socioeconomic injustices, there is also no specific attention of or willingness to seeking such criteria. In Hungary and Lithuania, there is minimal focus on low income homes, and this criterion seems highly conceptually relevant and with reference to statistics collection for this kind of target organization for access. There is additionally no formal committee to sell and enforce an agenda for increased right of entry into schools, and they're additionally no longer systematically monitoring the scope of marginalized students. Authorities might have tackled this if the situation had been close to them, but since it mostly affects the poor, they are not that much concerned (Brehony, 2004). In Norway, studies show that communities are increasingly using existing networks, institutions as well as spokespersons and opinion makers to share their opinions on education.

Students with similar ethnic heritage are engaged as role models amongst each other, communicating in their familiar language and with similar goals. Meanwhile, the Bulgarian national file observes that ‘no interaction is necessary between the NGOs and formal education systems.’ However, the Bulgarian educational lobbyists recognize the want for such interaction: There has to be a competitive policy in education, brought about by agencies, i.e., they have to organize on purpose. To help disadvantaged people to succeed over the barrier of integration is the ultimate duty of NGOs. In other words, to lessen the pressure that disadvantaged families go through to put their children in school.

The support of community guides can help triumph over this social hassle. NGOs also regularly interact with young Immigrants families in Europe, empowering them to support their children’s educational needs. Hence, the answer has been to set goals of universal education for all regardless of the children’s background or nationalities, namely young immigrants, their parents, or even the community they are part of. In this regard, ethnic communities in Europe become unified in the common goal of educating their kids, be it Indians, Tamils or Vietnamese who come to Europe in search of a better life. However, there is still a need to revise the cost of education and attitudes towards learning to make this goal a success.

2.7. ACCESS STRATEGY FOR THIRD-PARTY INSTITUTIONS



Figure 2.13. Students partnering to complete a class project.

Source: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/02/how-does-finland-s-top-ranking-education-system-work>.

There is a need to engage more with primary and secondary school students experiencing socio-economic marginalization. The Scottish national file gives the example of a strategic methodology towards getting admission to education, which engages with youngsters and comprising of strategies at the primary education level. Scottish colleges are increasingly becoming involved with community education bodies. They run special initiatives for school children, so the children are privy to educational goals from a young age, they're aware about the college and how they can improve their lives later on when it's time for them to pursue higher learning. The need for a countrywide and local strategy for non-formal training is also important: to improve but not diminish non-formal education, which promotes the learning of technical skills such as carpentry which students can use to gainful meaningful employment for themselves.

This illustrates the high precedence that should be given to non-formal education in Europe, which supplements the formal education sector. All government branches have the primary responsibility for investment in non-formal educational centers, and not just the education department. For example, the ministries of agriculture can provide training to the youth on how to raise livestock or grow crops. The Lithuanian government has presented the need for a strategic route on the topic of non-formal education: Lithuania has a training strategy; nevertheless, non-formal education isn't often emphasized. Some of the references to the existing regulation on non-formal training are provided. In reference, some of them are rather outdated and require readjustment. Government-funded strategies can help develop local networking and community-based learning centers, carrying education into the center of communities, as is highlighted by the Scottish national document: The place of education in community development cannot be underestimated, a variety of factors affect education, although some counties referred to the need for increased transparency through the provision of model-based training, where the education strategy meets the demands of the community (Davies et al., 2005).

Better strategies are needed to develop community based approaches that work, aside from Ireland, there are many other examples of network-based learning centers which participate in prescient extended learning as part of the cradle to the grave education strategy. In other cases, opportunities also exist for the interaction between different groups on non-conventional subjects from an early age and as parents, these topics include how to become better parents, contribute to societal development, enhance security in the community, and so forth. The Norwegian government emphasizes the

subsequent importance of continuity in non-formal education: significance for staff continuity is particularly required for immigrants and language study: when the instructor is well prepared to deal with community issues, they will cope better as teachers. In the meantime, there is a need for substitute teachers and recognizing that the individual's place in pursuing education cannot be underestimated. The next stage would be determining what the instructors' need, since education is not just about the students but the teacher as well. When a teacher arrives in a community but does not understand the dynamics of that particular community, teaching would be a daunting task. The long run of it will be an underwhelmed teaching fraternity and not so motivated students.

The EU has a campaign to promote integration of the teaching staff, and get school admission to a higher level for socio-economically excluded communities, and developing an evaluation strategy primarily based on enforcing the EU2020 developmental goal. There are reports available that reply to the proposed agenda of structural changes for admission to better education for socioeconomically marginalized communities. There are also records on specific review processes and reporting required to respond to structural changes, including the need for access to not just basic but higher education opportunities for the socio-economically marginalized groups to promote a country-wide non-formal education strategy pushing for provision of equal education opportunities to everyone.

2.8. SCHOOL ACCESSIBILITY: SPOTLIGHT ON GIRLS

Admittance to state-run schools ought to be guided by nondiscrimination principles, which applies to common laws of social rights and justice, just as to the privileges of children. Non-segregation isn't dependent upon reformist agendas, but must be provided as a basic human right. That being said, regardless of parental decision concerning the education of their children, girls have equal rights to education just as boys. Nevertheless, in rural communities in Europe, many families still value boy education than girls and would rather marry off girls for dowry than take them to school.

Gender segregation not only applies within the home environment, but also within the school environment. In reality, quantitative and subjective data is lacking on the rate of admission in schools, which has hitherto been missing for distinctly for girls in particular. The right to education has been shown as a remedial to fighting poverty. Governments for sure must commit

to sustaining the basic rights of students, since education should not be treated as a product (Chemerinsky, 2002).



Figure 2.14. Girls deserve to be in school just as much as boys.

Source: <https://www.unicef.org/eca/reports/focus-supporting-quality-and-inclusive-education>.

There has been a growing need for legislative intercession concerning admittance to school for girls. Numerous studies allude to the reasoning for such mediation as a policy gap. In its least complex form, it very well may be portrayed as the reluctance of parents to send their little girls to class, on the grounds that there is no monetary gain to putting resources into their girls' schooling.

An interest for girls' education consequently must be made by giving motivations to parents. Clashing assumptions among communities on the girl child's right to education may deny many of them admittance to schools. Since poor families rely upon every individual in the family for their success, balancing school and daily home chores can be a challenge for young ladies. A mismatch between non-accessibility of schools and parental decisions regularly blocks girls' admittance to school. There is a lot of misinformation on parental decisions, which lack of data and are influenced by myth rather than logic. Boys still have more access to schools than girls. It is hard to decide if the accessibility has a socioeconomic influence. Gender biases are

still rife within communities. Schools in Europe still have a higher ratio of boys in class compared to girls, one explanation is that there are more boys than girls in the community, which is simply not the case.

Outrageous perspectives on the part of the government in education are typified in considering the goal of education is providing equal schooling to all children, regardless of their gender. Much as in some other continents, gender imbalance in education is a real issue that must be addressed. The right to education should be given to each child, regardless of their gender status. The state is obliged to guarantee that all schools adjust to gender equality needs, in this way, segregated parts of the student population can have access to adequate training. Parents should give their girls the same opportunity to get quality education as the boys, cultural and philosophical ideologies that put girls second to boys in terms of educational priority have been passed by time.

2.9. EMERGING ISSUES IN THE EUROPEAN EDUCATION ENVIRONMENT



Figure 2.15. A high school chemistry lesson in progress.

Source: <https://surabayaeuropeanschool.com>.

Legislative commitment to ensure school enrollment for all children within the age of 6–15 has been hit major setbacks, but with endeavors currently in place to improve administrative commitments to offering some financial help to parents so that they can take their children to school. Orphans are the most affected because they are usually helpless, and have

no one committed to finance their education. Administrative commitments have largely been judicial rather than practical, a law may be passed to support needy children, but implementation becomes a problem. With regards to training for children with disabilities, native or minority kids, are often denied of their freedom, and many communities have no way of redress to meet the needs of these kids (Zajda, 2020). In spite of the fact that resources are provided to fund education for needy students, in some Eastern European countries, these funds do not reach the intended beneficiaries but are instead siphoned out by corrupt government officials. There is a need for increased commitment towards giving material support to disadvantaged children and increased rights in children with different physical and mental abilities. For instance, providing facilities that help students to overcome impairment that bring about learning difficulties. Besides, the significance of the right to education goes a long way past education itself. Some rights are simply not available to students who have been denied education due to their disability, particularly rights related to admission to schools.

Education works as a multiplier, increasing the cognitive power of students and providing opportunities for progress for everyone. Every student has the right to social wellbeing, which can best be guaranteed through education. It has produced a lot of homegrown and globally recognized scholars from just about every European community, it ensures that progress in socioeconomic inclusion is fast and simple. The coronavirus pandemic has made it even more urgent to ensure common freedoms during the period are achieved. Following the pandemic, there is an increased need for providing financial and social privileges to students. Initially, freedom laws weren't straightforwardly material in many European nations. Global freedom principles are, in many nations, rendered into local law, and afterward deciphered and applied. It is hence urgently needed to remove this practice and ensure global agreement on what comprises the basic freedoms of education, which yield various results in deciphering common liberties, and furthermore to gather the ideal answers for rights-based education.

Secondly, many international human rights treaties managing financial, social and cultural rights (with the exception of those produced by the ILO) have been written to prevent their domestic and global litigation. Social and cultural rights also constitute a large part of the undertaking in re-interpretation of socioeconomic rights adapted to modified circumstances – the basis with which governmental obligations have been defined. Systemic authorization is also needed on matters concerning socioeconomic rights, which sometimes cast doubts on complaint mechanism and points

to collective or public interest in cases of policy assessment. These factors are obviously and intently related: Provisions of international human rights treaties or European legal guidelines have a tendency to be the only steering used by educationists, but they do now not actually help to infer how unique real-life education challenges need to be addressed. Their interpretation is precipitated via the need to apply regulation to real-life cases and provide instruction in clarifying what governments should and must no longer be doing. Even in countries where education has not been acknowledged as a right, balancing parental and children's rights with reference to gender has not yet been fully addressed. The character and scope of human rights is examined through due process of law, wherein substantial challenges are described or clarified. Cases represent a bottom-up approach – whereas government stakeholders trigger interpretation and application of domestic and global regulations. Procedural issues and legal technicalities must also be addressed when dealing with education matters.

In conclusion, there's an adage that posits no rights can exist without responsibility. This truism is often forgotten or mistaken for socioeconomic rights, but actually includes everything, including the right to education, implying that education stakeholders need to be involved more in the implementation of equal rights activities in education, rather than just formulating policies. Rights cover corresponding responsibilities and must be observed by means of getting entry to, or access to quality education. The basis of human rights are then governmental duties. European governments are obliged to provide resources and capacity for their own populations to access quality education. While they cannot be held legally liable for violating human rights and other policies, co-operation with the private sector and other stakeholders in the education industry is needed to ensure universal access to education as one of the human rights proposed by the UN (Young, 2008).

On the one hand, some Eastern European countries can be pressurized into denying or violating human rights through conditions that are unfavorable to education. Union freedoms of teachers may be deprived as a way to retain their salaries and decrease budget deficits. Then again, governments should be assisted in protecting human rights where development is concerned in the context of education. In-among, many rules which can be seemingly human-rights impartial have enormous human rights effects. An example are provisions on the criteria for hiring teachers and consequently accelerating, or even sustained access to education.

This chapter discusses governmental obligations towards education at the local level. The right to education is economic, social and cultural; these are often deemed to be lacking support and are as a consequence dealt with as quasi-rights or half rights. For this reason, violations on the right to proper education are not addressed. This reductionism breaks the symmetry of regulation which balances rights, freedoms, obligations and duties. Keeping this in mind, the paper concentrates on governmental responsibilities which stem from the right to education and discusses matters on human rights which cover the right to education. Far from the often inaccurate depiction that Europe has no challenges in its education system, actually countries like Ukraine, Slovakia, and Yugoslavia require urgent reforms to make education accessible to every child regardless of their socioeconomic background and physical/mental abilities.

The right to education underpins the need for proper schools in the European context, including the clarity and specificity of human rights requirements necessary for addressing these key dimensions. Globally, human rights regulation underpins the universality of human rights, laying down minimum standards to which everyone is entitled. The necessities of which are interpreted each day. Children access to schooling can be impeded because they can't meet administrative factors, consisting of factors such as birth or citizenship certificates, or schools may simply be too far away. Besides, conflict regions such as Eastern Ukraine are not safe for children's schooling, and the rights of the kid are denied in such places. There is also great bias and opposition to educating girls or kids with disabilities. Student enrollment rates are often impeded by these factors. Various factors affecting the sociocultural life of students must be addressed when discussing education access in Europe, because education is not just about the school but also what goes on in the family and community where the student resides.

The right to education is recognized, promoted and safeguarded in many aspects– and it truly reflects the connection between the dual factors of globalization and privatization, which are now taking center stage. In different locations, proper schooling is the responsibility of regional and local authorities, while decentralization furthers the accessibility of education. The process of globalization also substantively influences the level of education that is available in a community. Nowadays, many schools across Europe embrace e-learning as a policy to reach every student across the country, even those found in remote areas. However, the socioeconomic impact of globalization affects the whole education pyramid, even as its

ideological underpinning tends to treat education more like an enterprise, which provides a service that can be traded just like any other, regionally and across the globe. Privatization has also been criticized for the same thing, that private schools in Europe are only concerned with making money rather than providing quality education to students. However, those in favor of private schools mention that they help to fill up the shortage of schools in the continent and provide diversity in the education system.

The position of stakeholders in education, affirmed in global and local rights regulation, provides an effective remedy towards the danger of compromising education standards through inappropriate teaching systems and other factors. The mobilization of existing human rights factors for schooling can neutralize poor dimensions of globalization in different aspects, for this reason allowing the human rights fraternity to thrive and contribute towards the goal of education for all (Wright, 2001). The right to education straddles the line between civic and political duty, on the one hand, and socioeconomic, and cultural, on the other. It embodies them all. Governmental obligation to recognize this basic right must be entrenched in order to provide education to needy students, who often don't have access to education compared to those from well-off families.

Chapter 3

Educational Choices, Transitions, and Aspirations in Europe

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3.1. INTRODUCTION

In Europe, the schools are considered educational establishments that are official and controlled jointly by the governments of the member states of the European Union. In the countries that are within the European Union, take the schools to be public institutions. The objective of these European schools is to make sure that they are capable of providing a multilingual and multicultural education system for the pupils in nursery, primary and secondary. In Europe, the school system consists of two years nursery school, five years of primary school and seven years of secondary education. In Europe, Early childhood education is designed for a number of purposes such as developing a child's abilities and personalities, help in building respect among individuals and the environment at large, help in preparing a child for a happy, healthy, responsible and a successful life, support a child's potential in learning, help children respect and appreciate their own culture and social identity while at the same time, the values and further help in promoting their European spirit.



Figure 3.1. Children in early childhood education. Early childhood education is helpful in preparing a child for a happy, healthy and responsible life. With early childhood education, children learn how to be responsible, respectable and have better self-esteem.

Source: School Education Gateway.

This section of education is considered to be fundamental in a child's life and further plays a vital role in supporting their growth, as they become ethical and responsible members of the society. In the early years of a child's development, teaching and learning plays a vital role supporting and

monitoring their physical and psychological wellbeing. It further helps in developing their social, cognitive and emotional behavior (Wagner, 2004). Furthermore, this stage plays a vital role in helping prevent any difficulties that may arise through providing the best learning opportunities. It is considered to be important to ensure that children develop a healthy sense of self-esteem with the help of positive learning in order to help them develop a positive experience. In Europe, the children that are aged four and five are mostly taught in mixed groups.

For the case of primary schools, the main focus is normally put on the children's understanding of their mother tongue. Other subjects that are normally on focus are the first foreign language and mathematics. Though these subjects are considered as vital, other subjects such as music, physical education, religion and discovery of the world are considered as important. Furthermore, understanding the European hours is vital in the European school. The reason behind this is the fact that, there are a good number of people with mixed nationalities that meet at this point with the aim of getting an education.



Figure 3.2. Students with mixed nationalities meet in European schools. Since the schools in Europe are filled with individuals from different nations then there is need to understand the European hours in order to be capable of meeting the demands of the country.

Source: BBC.

Once a child has been able to complete the European primary school or a school that is recognizable by the state, then they are allowed to access

secondary schools. In these schools, the pupils are regularly assessed and the reports are provided three to four times a year. For a student to be fully assessed, it is normally based on examinations and course-work. However, the form examinations are normally not considered as part of the assessment cycle. A criterion was established by the Board of governors, which were aimed at deciding whether a pupil was designated to move to the year above at the end of the school year.

For the case of educational support, there are different forms and levels that have been designed to help the pupils that are experiencing any form of difficulties. For those children that need any form of special educational needs were also given support by the government. This would allow them to develop and progress according to their potential.

3.2. PRIMARY SCHOOL TRANSITION IN EUROPE

Europe is a continent has many countries and their systems of education and curriculum are different. For example, in Poland the first school stage is the primary education, which consists of eight classes where they attend school for up to 20 hours a week. The primary is then subdivided into four classes the first four and the last four where they have new subjects introduced at the latter stage. After completing the primary, they then move to secondary education.

In the first stage of primary school, they are taught polish, mathematics, artistic, technical and music classes. From the fourth grade, there is a specific division into subjects, which include polish, physical education and/or geography. This shows that as they transition from one grade to the next they are taught differently, i.e., in the lower grades they are just taught but as they are now transitioning to the higher grades, i.e., from fourth grade up to the 8th grade they are now differentiated into subjects. The complexity of the subject will be determined by the grade at which the learner is. After they have completed the 8th grade, they are examined. They exam they are subjected to is to assess the knowledge acquired at this level of education and this will determine how the learner will then transition to the next stage of education.

Another country is the Great Britain, where they have four stages and these include primary school, secondary school, high school and higher education. Primary school is the earliest level of education in the growth of a child or learner. It is majorly divided into two, i.e., key stage 1 and 2. At this stage, the learners are taught English, math, nature, history and physical

education. At this stage, it is similar to that of Poland. At this level, there are no specified grades for the learners (Urban et al., 2019). That means the learners are not ranked based on their performance although the parent receives a description of how the learner is progressing with their studies. The description shows the learner's strengths and weaknesses. The teachers, the parents, closely monitor the progress and the learner as this may sometimes affect the choices of the learner when they will be in secondary school. The students take standardized exams, which is mostly done at the end of their primary education. The results do not matter, as the learner Regardless of how they have performed will transition into secondary school. The learners who transition to secondary are majorly between the ages of 11 to 14.

Germany is an integral part of the European Union but their education system differs with some of the countries if not most in Europe. They have primary school, which is referred to as *Grundschule*. In Germany, primary school education is mostly seen as a pathway to prepare the child to learn. The children in primary school learn more of writing, reading and basic mathematics. Upon completion of the primary school, the teacher then recommends on the future of the learner and the recommendation will be based on their learning and skills they have acquired. This helps the parent to choose on the best high school his/her child will attend. This primary school education in Germany helps learners to transition to one of three institutions, i.e., *Hauptschule* which prepares a learner/person for a specific profession. After graduating the learner are then able to practice an art or a craft. The second one is *Realschule* in the institutions the learners are prepared to go to specific jobs. In these institutions, they are mainly taught sciences and foreign language third but not least is *Gymnasium* this type of institution resembles a polish high school where the learners are taught different subjects in order to prepare them for college education. From these three institutions it can be noted that before any learner can transition or be allowed to transition to one of the three they are required to undergo primary education and receive a recommendation from their primary school teachers.

France is a major part of Europe and covers quite a large area. This area is occupied by a large number of people and where there are a large number of people there are children. These children go through three levels of education. In France, children should be at least six years old to attend primary school. In this stage of learning, it is divided into two the initial teaching and then the skill development. The learners are taught elementary skills in writing, reading and counting. After they have acquired some skills

they are then allowed to transition to the next level. As seen these skill help eases the learner into getting into the next level where they now encounter complex subjects. In the second stage where the students are taught different subjects, they are then provided with an exam, i.e., state le brevet exam where they are required to pass. Although they are required to pass, it is ironic that this does not hinder the child from being promoted to the next level. After completing their primary, they can choose one of two options, a three-year high school (*lycee*) or a vocational school (*lycee professionnel*).



Figure 3.3. Individuals doing vocational work. Upon completion of primary, the students have an option of joining high school or vocational schools.

Source: WYPR.

Spain is also in Europe and their education system differs from the other countries in that it is divided into two major stages, i.e., *educacion primaria* (primary education) and *educacion secundaria* (secondary education). Primary education is divided into three cycles, lower, medium and higher. In each of these, they have a single teacher and their responsibility is to ensure the learners are taught the basic principles (reading, writing and counting) and social coexistence, i.e., how to live with others in the society. After completing their primary education they automatically transition to secondary school.

In all these countries it is seen that as the children transition from one stage/level to the next the primary school level is important and essential to

the rest of the stages as it enables them to transition well and without any hindrance to the next level.

As learners transition from one level to the next, the transitions from one level to the next and from one stage to the next can lead the learner to become an underachiever and possibly lead them to dropping out of school. The pathways in the process of transitioning need to be flexible and provide adequate support and guidance to the learner. As the teachers and other school leaders' work together, they need to be sharing acquiring and sharing data among themselves and the different levels of education, as this will bring about inclusive approach and adequate support to all learners (Thiem, 2009).

Transition within the primary school system is easy and without major problems as the learner's teachers and the environment is the same. In the mind of the learner, they feel safe as this is what they are used to and they become eager to learn. The school setting provides a good environment for learning. The young minds also feel attached to the teachers as they view them as like their parents in a school setting as to some extent they help in problem solving while they are in school.



Figure 3.4. Students in a library. A schools setting provides a conducive space for learning.

Source: The school Run.

As learners are progressing from one stage or grade to the next it, is important to note that they are transitioning from one level to the next and there are expected to be some changes? It is then seen that learning is a prerequisite for development and positive growth at all levels that they are in.

the learners are therefore acquiring necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes that will be essential in their work careers and on the same point it helps them to grow individually in the sense that they have personal development and in their relationship with others. This then brings about inclusivity but it does not necessarily mean that all learners are approached universally or in the same way, this means that there will be a few that will require more than the others and for some the approach can be individualized.

As learners transition within primary school levels the people involved, i.e., teachers, parents, school leaders and other stakeholders need to have a strategic vision and good leadership in order for them to fully support the learners. This ensures that there is openness, which helps learners feel more reassured of their learning and have hope of their future even if they are transitioning and there might seem to be changes as they progress.

There are several guiding principles, which can ensure that the child's transition while in school is good, and they will have a better way of coping while they are in school.

- The early years of their primary school should have high quality learning experiences and be available to all learners to ensure that they have a strong base or foundation.
- The learner and parent's choices should be guided, i.e., the learner and his/her family need to be guided and there should be participatory decision making on the different types and levels of school education, future education and employment. They should all agree before doing anything.
- Collaboration between different institutions.
- The teaching and the learning need to have the appropriate curricula and this should also help in the transitioning and encourage the learner to become more responsible of their own competence and how their future will be when they live with others in the society.
- Accessibility and inclusion to ensure that institutions are flexible to ensure they cater for those who are joining and those that are leaving (Suárez-Orozco, 2005).
- There should be sharing of data across the board. This will bring about good continuity and progression in learning.
- There should be appropriate learning contexts. This means that the learning materials should be supportive, varied in some

ways and inspiring to the learner's environment. They should be created based on the stage and age of the learner.

- The learners need to be given emotional and social support. Especially during the period of transition as there are a lot of changes. This will ensure that the learners feel safe with the next stage of their lives.
- Support for vulnerable learners. The teachers need to identify them and provide a favorable environment to ensure the learner has a good environment to continue with their studies.

It has been noted that for children and learners to progress well and proceed without any problems then they have to invest heavily in the early years of the child's education. Many European countries have taken this into account and in most countries it can be noted that young children as low as the age of two are enrolled into school and government policies ensuring that any child above the age of five must be enrolled into a learning institutions. With this, it can be noted that they want the children to progress as age mates, which ensures that they think alike. Some countries have even gone further for example in Ireland they provide "enablers" to improve on the child's educational journey.

It can also be noted that finances play a vital role in transition of children as in some instances when a parent has to move to a different place at the end of a school year. They move because of their jobs which is vital for the family's survival but this can affect the transitioning of the learner in a different school as in some instances some are even bullied and this destroys their self-esteem. In some cases, some parents cannot even afford to take their children to school for the whole year due to finances to sustain them in school. Some countries have subsidized school fees and some are provided with scholarships for them to proceed with their education. With this, it has increased uptake of learners and it has maintained many to ensure they transition within primary school and even higher to other levels of education.

In Portugal, they have a different approach to how they teach. The government provides the learning institutions with objectives and a national curriculum, but the institutional approach is determined by individual institutional approach (Shahriari et al., 2017). In this instance, the learning institution has full autonomy to employ and train teachers according to the approach they see fit. With plans such as these, the teacher is able to observe their learners and use the best method based on the learner and not what does the government provide for.

It is important to note that as a child develops the brain also develops and problems and solutions come in all shapes and sizes hence the process of transitioning should be handled well as this may affect how the learner's future will progress.

3.3. WORKING CLASS EDUCATION FAILURE IN EUROPE

Since the inception of the state education, working class educational failure among them being contributed by the challenges brought about by early school leaving has haunted educational systems across the global north particularly in Europe. Many times the problem is experienced in terms of deficit working class culture and the many inadequate learners. This is however, a complex compilation of the impact in terms of the wider economic, class status, institutional policies and social conditions this includes practices and the relationships between classes, as well as experiences and dispositions within themselves. Past studies have argued that early school leaving is an extreme manifestation of the predominantly negative relationship the working classes have with their educational systems, one that still positions them as 'outsiders on the inside,' even when they manage to continue on to higher education.



Figure 3.5. Working class individuals. Failures of some of the individuals within the working class are the reason behind why they are left out in advancing their education.

Source: The Guardian.

In the process of trying to unpick this policy and practice minefield, many authors have suggested a number of helpful conceptual resources. They consider the invidious influence of dominant discourses about working class educational failure, as well as the difficult, sometimes painful, issues of researching educational failure with those who are seen to have failed. This has led to the working class population to be left out and or left behind in advancing their education.

The starting point for understanding working class educational failure, and in particular in the early school leaving, has to be the wider economy and social and political context. It is increasingly becoming hard to be a working class in the 21st century all over the world. the wages of the working classes have declined in real terms because of austerity measures, and their working conditions have become increasingly precarious as a result of casualization and zero hour contracts. To take the example of Britain, half a million more children now live in absolute poverty than did in 2010, while child poverty more generally is predicted to rise sharply over the next few years. In 2014 to 2015, according to Department for Work and Pensions statistics, about 28% of UK children were living in poverty, but the percentage could well rise to a third by at least 2020 if current austerity measures persist. According to the Joseph an author and researcher, about 13 and at least a half million people in the UK live in poverty, slightly over about 20% of the total population. Particularly worrying is the fact that the majority of people experiencing poverty are in working households, a proportion that has increased in recent decades. This is possibly unexpected as the unemployment rate hit a new low in 2016 of a percentage ranging about 4.9%. In the UK we are sold the myth of a country of strivers and skivers where the strivers outnumber the 'skivers' with a ratio of 20 to 1, and it is they who are living in poverty in increasing numbers. Nevertheless, this is not just a UK problem but also one that is endemic across the global north. The running down of welfare provision, the erosion of universal benefits, a growing gap between the rich and the poor, the demonization and undermining of trade unionism, the impoverishment of working class workers, and the reduction of affordable housing is very visible. The record goes on and on.



Figure 3.6. Working-class individuals in an office: with the running down of welfare provision, there is impoverishment of the working class while at the same time reduction of affordable housing.

Source: soL International-sol haber.

Mounting economic insecurity has been accompanied by growing political exclusion. So, for instance in both the US and the UK, changes in the political system over the last fifty years have increasingly marginalized the working classes. In addition, here, as in the economic sphere, the working classes are blamed for their own marginalization. While rank divisions are not as manifested as they once were, this is primarily because working class representation has been pushed outside the political system. Across Europe and North America, less and less politicians come from manual backgrounds. Taking the UK as an example, in 1964 over 37% of MPs in the Labor Party, the party set up to represent working class interests, came from manual occupational backgrounds (Schaps et al., 2001). By 2010, this had fallen to under 10%. The promise of universal suffrage has been betrayed in many ‘so-called’ democratic countries. Rather than the working class being incorporated within the political system, they have become increasingly excluded from it. This is one of the main reasons that America elected Trump, and the UK voted for BREXIT. The ways in which such economic relationships and political representations are played out in the educational system are highly complex and contested questions that many authors have no answers to. However, what is clear is the synergy between processes and practices in the economy and those in the educational system work to position the working classes at the bottom of a hierarchy of value and respect in both spheres.

As Tarabini et al (2016) point out, educational success and failure is powerfully influenced by social, economic and cultural contexts. Across Europe and Northern America, there is a tidal wave of austerity, which, particularly in the UK and the US, has disproportionately affected the working classes. It is difficult to remember among all ‘the fake news’ that the current austerity is a crisis of private sector capitalism and, in particular, bank speculation. The ruthless slashing of public sector expenditure in many European countries and the US is justified as necessary ‘austerity.’ It has become the chief mechanism for protecting private wealth. At the same time, there has been an exponential growth of the private sector in works the state can no longer afford to undertake. This is happening across the global north but nowhere is it more pernicious than in England. It is the English private sector’s insatiable greed for profit not public sector inefficiency that is impoverishing the public sector, from private consultants who charge the NHS thousands a day to educational consultants making millions out of the educational system. Scapegoated for economic conditions not of its own making, education in England is being hollowed out, as it increasingly becomes a moneymaking enterprise for capitalists. So for example, teacher supply agencies were paid about £733 million in 2014 but in 2016 this had risen to about £1.26 billion a year, a at least 38% increase in three years. Teacher supply agencies are making huge profits from state funding for schools with one teaching agency made a profit in 2014 of £15.4 million on a turnover of £63.7million.

This has resulted in an under-resourced, underfunded English educational system, but it is working class schooling that has suffered the most. Schools are now experiencing real-terms cuts in spending per pupil, while there will be a drop in school spending per pupil of at least 7% between 2014 to 2015 and 2019 to 2020. However, as Morgan (2016) argues, schools with the most deprived children will be worst hit in the Government’s proposed reallocation of the existing overall schools’ budget. Yet, despite relative under-funding and an impoverished curriculum, the working classes are seen to be responsible for their own educational success.

Saltman (2014) writing about American education in the 21st century defines what he call ‘austerity education’: Austerity education is not only about a turn to repressive control of disciplined workforce as the conditions of work and life are worsened for the majority of citizens. It is also about the rightist project of capturing public space such as schools to actively produce politically illiterate, socially uncritical, and un-self-critical subject positions for youth to occupy. Across Europe, as well as the US, ‘austerity education’

is a space that is producing increasing numbers of NEETS (young people not in education, employment or training). In England, this growth is despite legislation that requires young people to remain in education until they are 18 if they are not employed. Although participation is supposed to be compulsory, it has not been enforced, resulting in the UK having one of the highest NEET levels for the world's richest countries, not far behind Turkey and Mexico. ONS data shows that the decline in unemployment among 16- to 17-year-olds in 2015 'bottomed out' at about 24%, and has since been rising steadily, reaching 29% in 2016. However, when we focus specifically on NEETs, unemployment rates are even higher, and the underlying trend is worse. Thirty per cent of NEET 16- to 17-year-olds has been unemployed over the last two years, and in summer 2016 the percentage reached a high of 35%, and is expected to rise even higher. So how can we understand this failing of the working classes on a massive scale that is occurring not just in England but also in countries traditionally seen to have more equal educational systems

Basil Bernstein (1970) questioned fifty years ago, they are not places that can compensate for society, but rather spaces that stratify and reinforce social inequalities. The sociologist of education who allows us the most insightful understanding of educational inclusions and exclusions in the European and North American context is Pierre Bourdieu. Together with Passeron, he argues that: The major thrust of the imposition of the dominant culture as legitimate culture and, by the same token, of the illegitimacy of the cultures of the dominated groups or classes, comes from exclusion, which perhaps has the most symbolic force when it assumes the guise of self-exclusion. Processes of symbolic violence are endemic in contemporary educational systems. Bourdieu argues that the dominant only 'let the system they dominate take its own course, in order to exercise their domination.' However, our current political elites are engaged in a restructuring of educational systems, a re-traditionalizing of the curriculum, and the reintroduction of policies that work to re-inscribe the working classes as educational losers.

Most hard-working, well-behaved, poor, white, working-class students try to achieve academically, first in a predominantly working-class, multi-ethnic primary school, then in a comprehensive school, whilst simultaneously trying to maintain each individual standing within the peer-group culture. Despite the efforts and struggles, most boys and girls ended up leaving school at the age of 16 years with minimal qualifications. This is mainly experienced by many working class young people across the global north.

Many told stories are told of the difficulty that haunts many school leavers. The difficulties mainly entail managing movement across two different and at times opposing fields.



Figure 3.7. Unlike initially, the political elites are currently reliable as they help in restructuring the education system.

Source: Broadstreet Blog.

However, there is also a great deal of struggle and conflict. The difficulties of reconciling white, working-class masculinities with educational success in inner-city working-class schooling are real. We see throughout his narrative that combining the two generates heavy psychic costs, involving him not only in an enormous amount of academic labor, but also an intolerable burden of psychic reparative work. The sense of how blurred the lines are between psychic processes and social processes are evident. The position in which students find themselves is a struggle between two conflicting social fields, where, as Nicola Ingram (2011) has written about in her research, habitus is tugged and pulled in different directions. The different directions are equally compelling fields and are additionally ensuing internal conflicts. They might be two overlapping fields where the contradictions between white working-class male solidarity and the neo-liberal impetus to self-improvement and academic excellence are painfully apparent. This has resulted in a heightened emotional sensitivity in order to cope with such conflicts.

In the end the struggle between educational success and working-class peer group pressure became too, much and most people leave school by the time they are 16 because their friends are also leaving school. What

research with working class children, especially those who become NEETS, often reveals is that they have virtually no capitals with which to ‘play’ the educational game. In addition, research is often too short-term and positivist in approach to expose the enormous struggles they make, despite this paucity of capitals and an ill-adapted habitus, to stay in the system. Early school leaving is never an easy process, and often, when we take time and effort to elicit its roots and causes through in depth case studies what are revealed are extremely complex, highly emotional processes that are often difficult and painful for the young person involved. Despite emphasis on the agentic nature of his working class boys’ self-exclusion, I would question whether anyone wants to be seen and labelled as an educational failure (Alam, 2016). Rather most do have neither the resources nor the type of educational context that enables educational success. This is in the process of wanting to understand the failures of the education system in Europe.

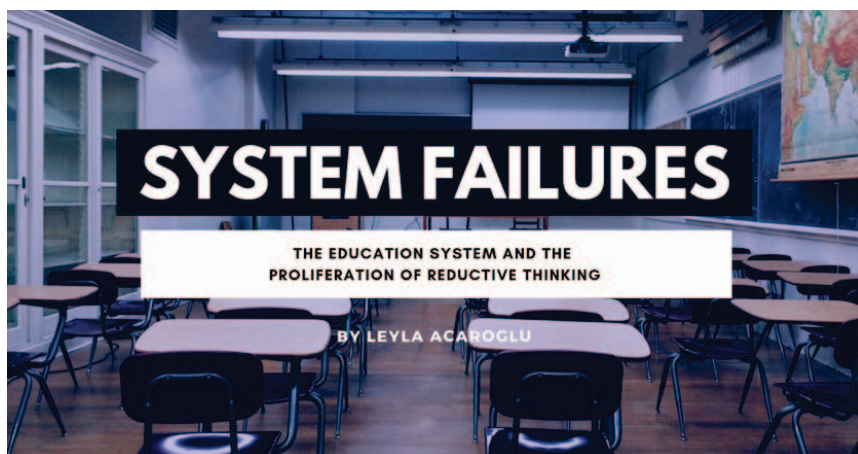


Figure 3.8. Understanding system failure in education system in Europe. These failures do not allow for the progress and transitions in the education systems.

Source: Medium.

Many working class children in urban areas are increasingly going to schools that are seen as not good enough for middle class children. In the following quote, we can see the negative repercussions for working class learner identities of demonized institutional habitus. It has been reported that if you do not get into any of the good schools they send you to one of the rubbish schools. In school, I have been hearing everyone saying ‘I hope I don’t go to Chiltern’ and stuff like that. Therefore, I then thought that was

really awful because all the kids there are bad and no good at learning, and I will not be able to do any good there. These schools often have common organizational features that despite, the best intentions of the teachers, work against working class educational success. The curriculum arrangements are also very different to those in schools that are more middle class. As research from 2015 found, the curriculum taught to children in poorer parts of Britain is significantly different to that taught in wealthier areas (Scheunpflug & Asbrand, 2006). External pressures to increase achievement levels in these predominantly working class schools have resulted in a preoccupation with testing and assessment that has turned education into a punishment as working class children are drilled in the 3Rs in order to improve schools' league table positions. In a misplaced effort to control and police student behavior they have an excess of rules and regulations seldom found in more mixed or middle class schools, and a culture that emphasizes control and regulation rather than creativity and curiosity. One key aspect of the institutional habitus of schools was that it had a huge staff turnover, and large numbers of supply teachers, this was highlighted in an Ofsted report at the time. Students could not replace reliance on his friends with reliance on the teachers; they were never there long enough. Students at the first year at school face difficult times in adapting to staying together.

Allen et al (2012) found a positive association between the level of school disadvantage and the turnover rate of its teachers. They also found poorer schools were hiring much younger teachers on average. Therefore, it is vital to develop understandings of the institutional habitus of schools and the ways in which they work against working class educational success. The seeds of early school leaving are generated in the practices and pedagogies of the school, just as much as they lie in the dispositions of working class habitus. Finally but not least, symbolic violence and symbolic dominance have analytic resonance in relation to working class educational failure. Many authors have studied or have touched on the power of symbolic violence in educational exclusions. According to Swartz (2013), 'symbolic power shapes the habitus and therefore takes the form of embodied dispositions that generate a "practical sense" for organizing perceptions of and actions of exclusion and inclusion in the social world. Symbolic violence constitutes 'a bending under the weight of domination, a distortion, a deformation, and an assault against the personhood of the individual and authentic identity of the group'; as such, it is a useful concept for making sense of how the working classes are treated in English education. In the quotes below, from my research into working class young people's feelings of inclusion and

exclusion in schools, we can see vividly the operation of symbolic violence and how it works to reinforce and sediment working class educational failure:

At least Martin and Danny recognize the processes of symbolic violence being played out in their schooling. Most of their working class peers in the bottom sets were engaged in self-blame, they told me they were 'too thick to learn,' 'no good at anything' and 'just dumb.' One consequence was the sense of abjection and disengagement expressed in students. These working class boys following 'a practical logic' in making their educational choices, education is 'not for the likes of them.'

Goffman's concept of a spoilt identity has analytic advantage both in relation to early school leavers and the predominantly working class schools they attend. They are stigmatized in the eyes of the middle class other and, as a result often come to see themselves not only as having a spoilt learner identity but a spoilt identity more generally. The identification of a significant number of inner city schools and their students as the 'untouchables' of the educational system works to discriminate between no problematic selves and problematic others. The denial of understandings through which positive identifications can develop all too often generates negatively framed and defensive identities expressed through shame, disavowal and misidentification, identities that are seen by others to be 'repellent,' and resulting students exiting from the educational system as soon as they can. In developing her notion of 'impossible learners,' Deborah Youdell (2006) argues that 'the micro exclusions that take place in the most mundane moments everyday inside schools cannot be understood as simply being experienced by students. Rather these must be understood as constitutive of the student, constitutions whose cumulative effects coagulate to limit 'who' a student can be, or even if s/he can be a student at all.'

Youdell is centrally concerned with the construction of inclusion and exclusion within schooling, and adopts what she terms 'Butler's suturing of Bourdieu's theory of habitus with Foucault's notion of discourse.' Students are constituted through constellations, particularly through 'dichotomies of good/bad students and acceptable/unacceptable and even ideal/impossible learners.' These constitutions link student identities to school practices, including some students but excluding others. Therefore, to summarize Bourdieu's tools of capitals, field, habitus, and institutional habitus are useful in understanding early school leaving but so also are his concepts of symbolic violence and symbolic domination. More widely, notions of

‘the impossible learner.’ Shining a light on working class failure is rendered particularly difficult because of the confusing and often misleading discourses surrounding the subject. Concepts of individualization, the inspirational self, excellence, and a whole plethora of other notions that have become popular under neoliberalism, distort rather than elucidate working class educational experiences. One such discursive minefield in the resilience debate is Walsh



Figure 3.9. Walsh University. This is one institution known to look at the needs of the working class in the society.

Source: Walsh University.

Most authors argue that we must be cautious that the concept of resilience is not used in public policy to withhold social supports or maintain inequities, based on the rationale that success or failure is determined by strengths or deficits within individuals and their families. It is not enough to bolster the resilience of at-risk children and families so that they can “beat the odds”; we must also strive to change the odds against them. The popularity of the concept of resilience continues the longstanding political project of the right to not merely individualize responsibility for social conditions and life chances but to emphasize agency and self-control (Pudas, 2012). Rather than focus on the social and economic conditions of the working classes, resilience studies concentrate on the exceptional ‘success against all odds’ narrative. The underpinning rationale is if only the unique characteristics that resulted in success can be identified policy makers can initiate a course of action that might allow for more students to succeed in spite of the context. Resilience frames individual and social problems in ways compatible with a politics of austerity that eviscerates the care-giving roles of the state.

3.4. TRANSITIONS AND ASPIRATIONS FOR STUDENTS FROM SCHOOL TO WORK IN EUROPE

School to work transition and employability are unified concepts. Employability is where an individual has the ability to secure and retain employment, to progress within the enterprise and between jobs, and to cope with changing technology as well as the labor market conditions. The structure of employability has a capability and an opportunity dimension such as whether the individual has the skills and knowledge demanded by the labor market and or whether the individual can access employment opportunities that make optimal use of his/her skills. Young people may be studying while holding jobs or alternatively may go back to school after work or decide to start off in irregular employment and then transition to regular employment and so on. thus the transition from school to work place by students may not be linear in manner. School to work transition are rather seen as a process which enables young people to move from education to productive and decent working environments.



Figure 3.10. Employees in a decent working environment. Schoolwork transition can be seen as a way of making individuals productive and allowing them to work in decent work environments.

Source: TopCV.

The educational transitions of young people most of the times viewed as the breaking points of their respective educational systems and are of vital importance when it comes to appreciative the dynamics of social inequality in particularly Europe. These transition points are crucial moments for explaining the whole youth population identities and opportunities, as well as the reproduction or reduction of social inequalities among the population.

It is quite at the point when students have to move from one educational rank to another that the conditions and effects of the choice-making practice come into view. As stated by Reay, 'who goes where' and 'who does what' are top research questions when it comes to understand the inequalities that emerge in times of a change over. It is also during transition processes that the meaning of potential expectations and aspirations become most pertinent. Besides, it is during the educational shift process that most of the dynamics of early school leaving in Europe take place and where the multiple dimensions of students' vulnerability become radically obvious.

In the year 2016, about 263 million children and adolescents were out of school, representing nearly about one fifth of the global population. Of these at least 61 million (23%) were of lower secondary school age and about 139 million (53%) were of upper secondary school age, with six out of ten children and adolescents not achieving minimum proficiency levels in reading and mathematics calculations as well as analyzing. This is linked to inequity in learning within education systems, with those children that are overage or with low learning outcomes most likely to drop out of the educational systems (Nóvoa & Yariv-Mashal, 2007). There exists a skills breach and a skills mismatch, with about 71 million unemployed youth worldwide and 156 million young workers living in working poverty where they earn less than at least \$3 a day. Three out of four youths not in education, employment or training are female, largely owed to childcare and domestic chores. These trends come at a time where the future of work is growing more unpredictable given the increasing but uneven impact of technology on the work force across both sectors and countries.

The young in most countries population face particular disadvantage finding employment, compared to older workforce. This includes a lack of labor market and job-search information and experience, as well as a mismatch between youth aspirations and labor market realities, with limited job led growth. Young people are often at the end of queue for jobs because employers opt for more experienced workers at the same wage level or for cheap labor by children, whilst labor market regulations that benefit-working adults tend to disadvantage unemployed youth. Young people may have fewer opportunities as they transit from school to working in self-employment and entrepreneurship environments because they lack business experience and access to finance to assist them with the capital that they may require to start. Finally, young people often lack organization and voice and are typically unrepresented in trade unions or employers' organizations with few channels through which to express their opinion. While the UNICEF's

goal is to improve the access, learning and skills of children from pre-primary to upper secondary age, particularly the most marginalized. In preparing children and adolescents for life, work, citizenship and life-long learning, UNICEF supports national governments and partners to systematically expand access to and strengthen systems to develop a breadth of skills, for all learners, athwart the life course, and through multiple learning pathways formal, non-formal, on the job and community based.

Skills development is a necessary, but not sufficient, component of such programming. Specifically, this Technical Note provides advice on the barriers for young people in the population in accessing and developing skills for work and making the transition to decent work, Programming principles to guide the design of UNICEF programming in the school to work transition area; Evidence based strategies for smoothing the transition from school to work with a focus on improving the work outcomes for older adolescents and young people. Tools and resources for developing programs and partnerships, including working with other UN agencies, to make certain continuity of services as the most vulnerable young people transition from childhood into adulthood; Case studies of UNICEF programs that have improved the skills and/or work outcomes of elder adolescents.

Young people may be impacted by a skills mismatch, whereby individuals may be well educated but not in the areas demanded by the labor market. As an example, in many countries, young people particularly those of the female gender study for degrees in the humanities, whilst the private sector is demanding skills for IT, engineering, piloting and other technical fields (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). For technical and vocational skill training, unless there is a clear skills shortage in the economy, signaled by open vacancies, that programs seek to fill, then all youth employment programs may succeed in doing is displacing other workers. Given the rapid changes in the economy, skills uncertainty presents enormous disputes to education policy-makers and the teaching profession. Given that the skills set needed by the future work force is not yet known, children may not be developing the skills that are needed in the future workforce.

Contemporary student transition studies are part of a broader research endeavor focused on life transitions, although this broader field remains dominated by an interest in student transition. Indeed, interest in students has increased with the growing importance of lifelong learning in late mode. A complementary observation is that most of the life transition research is concentrated on children and youth. Then therefore, when it comes to

adult life, research on transitions is still relatively undersized. There is a comparatively mature literature on transitions among young people, and particularly on the conversion from youth to adulthood and from school to work has limited research studies conducted on adult transitions. This entails even the higher education institutions where students who are a bit older than 16 transit less than they aspired in their desires in their lives.



Figure 3.11. Children in higher education. In other cases, children older than 16 years transit less than they aspired in their lives.

Source: iStock.

3.5. FRAMING YOUTH EDUCATIONAL CHOICES AT THE END OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING

Within the European Union Strategic Framework on Education and Training, transition to upper secondary school education is said to be very important. Data from 2015 provided by researchers showed that an average of 11% of young individuals had left their education and training process while they had not yet completed upper secondary. Of all the countries within the EU, Spain has the most alarming number with 20% representing the number of youths that did not attend upper secondary. This transition is considered to be a matter of individualistic and rational choice related to the achievements of the young individuals of the society according to the official national and regional discourses and policy documents in this field of education. This level of education is considered the first transition after the compulsory years of schooling. At this point, the young members of the society get to have

real choices regarding what they want to do with their lives. At this point, there are two main drivers that are aimed at guiding these transitions, which include relying on individual interest and possibilities. With this logic, it is with no doubt that hegemonic conceptions of upper secondary transitions in Spain and Catalonia tend to be decontextualized in social political and institutional terms.



Figure 3.12. Upper secondary education students.

Source: World Bank Group.

In Catalonia, educational transitions are mediated by three different elements. Such element include institutional, systemic and teacher-related. All these elements are considered to be playing vital roles, as they are helpful in understanding the construction of educational expectations and transitions. This involves mainly the transitions that affect the young members of the society that are said to facilitate their understanding in the transitions that are considered as normal or rather what is taken as granted according to the profiles of different youths. In most instances, the focus is normally on the working class student especially after the end of their compulsory education (Altun, 2017).

The Spanish education system since the mid-1990s has been compulsory for children that are aged between the years of 6–16. This statement means that, all the students are within the capacity to have a common curriculum with no internal differentiation when it comes to considering their age parameters. This curriculum was aimed at ensuring that there is the postponement of specialization of subjects until the moment they reached upper secondary

school. With this, the country was able to avoid the separation of young people in the case where they get to be specialists or rather have selective tracks during their early years. This is a structure that remains to be common over the entire period when the students are in compulsory education at primary and lower secondary school. In public schools, each and every phase is provided by different institutions and as such, provide different professional cultures. The system in European schools helps ensure that there is a clear distinction between the primary and the lower secondary phases. The structure of lower secondary education in Spain that is non-differentiated and formally comprehensive runs along the high levels of grade retention and what is known as 'de facto' ability grouping. According to researchers, there is a uniform integration modeling the Spanish education system of which such inclusive nature of comprehensive education system that is said to be more formal than a reality.

As researchers claim, the common structure by students that is adopted by the schools in the European Union, there is the intensive use of the grade retention. This is very common among the students in the lower secondary. In such grade levels, there is scarce use of individualized teaching mechanisms. When it comes to framing educational opportunities for the young individuals within the national context the above features are considered to play a crucial role. This is the stage when the educational transitions and aspirations are built. Furthermore, these features help in explaining the reason as to why the transition from lower to upper secondary is relevant in the Spanish case. This is in effective and analytical terms. In the transition stage, the comprehensive structure helps in explaining why the impacts of educational transitions tend to be expressed at this particular moment. There normally exists an internal differentiation of individuals within the lower secondary schools and explains the reason as to why grade retention and grouping practices play a vital role in explaining the different opportunity frameworks with regards to upper secondary education.

In Catalonia, one simple fact should be taken into account whereby, 21% of every 15-year-old students repeated one or more grade while they were still in compulsory schooling. However, the researchers claim that, the number cannot be explained by considering the legal provision when it comes to the repetition of classes. The reason behind this is the fact that, the education systems in other European countries is much similar to those other countries in the region. The reason behind the fact that Catalonia and Spain have high retention rates is due to the fact that there are very deep rooted beliefs regarding the benefits of using the practice. Furthermore,

there is lack of institutional mechanisms and incentives that would help in the development of individualized modes in integrating in the lives of the students in schools (Brehony, 2004).

It should be noted that, repetition rates are normally distributed randomly among the students but in most cases are seen to affect the students from the lower socio-economic backgrounds. As a matter of fact, the number of students repeating grades are four times higher than the other students. However, the disparities between the students cannot be solely explained by the disparities in their socio-economic backgrounds. Data actually shows that in schools, the decisions on grade retention is normally made based on the teacher's expectations and the various beliefs with regard of the students. Such situations show or rather explain the social inequalities that exist between the individuals within this field. As a matter of fact, the process which is taken in the process of the students retaining a particular grade tends to contradict every logic in the comprehensive system. The reason behind this is the fact that a good number of students are being left behind in the everyday life of the lower secondary school education. At the end of the day, the students remain to be stigmatized, as they tend to repeat the same curriculum while in the process, they get to be left behind by their peers. These tend to affect the students' aspirations and expectations in the near future.



Figure 3.13. Stigmatized child in school. Once a child has repeated grades for a number of times, they tend to be stigmatized as their peers leave them behind.

Source: Digital Promise.

Another widespread practice that has been adopted among the lower secondary schools in Catalonia is ability grouping. There are those scholars who claim that this is a common practice in lower secondary schools that help in managing the heterogeneity of students. Data shows that only 30% of 15-year old students are enrolled in schools in which students are not grouped according to ability. This is considered a pervasive practice as it is not considered by the national legislation. The claim is that the practice tends to frame the students' capabilities, educational attitudes, opportunities and experiences. As a matter of fact, a good number of groupings is done using the modalities that included in the national, regional and the state laws and regulations. What is claimed in the laws of Catalonia, the grouping of students according to their abilities is considered as a way of ensuring that the students feel included and further feel the comprehensiveness within the system. In order to ensure that individualized support is provided to the students, there need to be a flexible organization of the groups of people and furthermore ensure that the curriculum is flexible. This situation will make sure that they get to tend to the needs of the students effectively. It is with no doubt that there are a good number of students that use flexible grouping systems and claim to respect its very nature. However, this is not the case as research shows that flexibility is taken to be an official name for the development of a classical homogenous grouping in terms of the ability of the students in practice and not in theory.

Just like repetition, the students that are enrolled within the lowest ability groups are considered to come from the poor socio-economic backgrounds and individuals that are considered as cultural minorities. In disadvantaged secondary schools, ability grouping is considered to be a common practice while is very uncommon within the less disadvantaged schools. In a way, ability grouping is a way of doing internal segregation and should be taken into great consideration, as they tend to have huge consequences in terms of the success of the students educationally (Nair, 2019). Numerous studies show that ability grouping has a number of consequences including the fact that it hinders the students' learning experiences, lower the self-esteem of the students, the social position of the students within the school among other factors. Apart from all these factors, these grouping tends to affect the levels of excellence and equity in the entire education system, which promotes inequalities while at the same time it does not raise the performance levels.



Figure 3.14. Individual with low self-esteem. If a student tends to repeat classes, they have poor learning experiences and low self-esteem.

Source: TherapyTribe.

Studies shows that education retention has strong negative effects on the students' educational trajectories and further has an impact on how the students are expected to behave in terms of their trajectories and aspirations. In fact, grade retention has negative effects on the students on two different ways. On is that it affect the students' relationship with their teachers and farther affects their learning identities. It is with no doubt that repetition plays a vital role in the socio-emotional situations of the students and in the process, their self-esteem and self-confidence is affected. The students get to feel separated from their peers while in at the same time they feel labeled and stigmatized by their teachers. In an interview, one of the students had this to say "I could see that my friends were going to class together and I was not, they were having experiences that I was not having and this was affecting me a lot, you know, maybe it's better for your studies but it destroys you psychologically because you begin to feel you are a failure because it's the only thing you can feel." Another student Axel who was in grade nine showed her frustrations by claiming that "How can I possibly call myself a good student if I've repeated twice, this has removed any kind of motivation I could have had to continue studying, I'm so lost, I don't know what to do with my life (...) the thing is that I go to class with kids that are three years younger than me and fuck, that makes me feel so stupid" all these and more show how this education strategy is affecting a huge number of students.

With upper secondary schools, students get to have a chance in choosing what they need to do. It shows the very structure of this level that allows the students to succeed in their transition process. It may prove to be disadvantageous, but it rather shows that repetition and ability grouping helps to ensure that the best students get to go to upper secondary and shows that there are high possibilities for the students to succeed in this education level. In the case of upper secondary, the teacher attitudes and beliefs tend to change regarding the students and thus motivates them to work as hard as they can in order to ensure that each student gets to be successful in their endeavors (Muthu, 2015). As such, there is need for a comprehensive understanding of the education processing which individuals need to understand that various factors such as attitudes and dispositions, expectations and aspirations and decisions and strategies are not built based on nothing. The factor that need proper considerations are the systemic, institutional and teacher factors that frame individuals' educational desires, possibilities and opportunities.

3.6. FRAMING EDUCATION POLICIES AND TRANSITIONS OF ROMA STUDENTS IN EUROPE

Transitioning in schools and having students that drop out of schools is becoming a common norm among individuals in Europe. These factors are normally linked to the difficulties that individuals encounter especially when there is need for them to access the labor market and fall to the depths of poverty. One of the headline targets for the Europeans by the year 2020 was the fact that the number of children that drop out of school would drastically drop. The European Commission and Council of the EU came into an agreement with each other regarding the fact that there needs to be the establishment of policies that aid in handling the problematic situations that are rampant in hindering the transition of students in the school environments. According to a number of scientists, failed or the interrupted education, trajectories of the students that have little to no resources are brought about by a combination of factors such as those circumstances that reduce the capacities of the young ones to attend schools. The cumulative problems that are seen to be affecting the students include the fact that they face poverty in their home environments, unstable family conditions, unstable mental health, and in other cases, substance abuse.

For most of the students that are in Roma that are normally faced with disadvantageous situations, they tend to face discriminations within the school environments which then make them feel unwanted and thus end up

no attending the schools. The poor education trajectories have managed to succeed and there are those students that amid all those difficult situations have been able to complete the upper secondary education and have been able to join higher education and making a life for their own. Research shows that inclusive education policies and the various discourses that are experienced within the national and the local level of education have been able to offer educational pathways for the disadvantaged students in the society. Such policies have been able to provide support, providing mentorship while at the same time guiding the student in terms of their careers and ensure that the students get help and support from their peers, especially those that have been able to succeed in their lives.

Transitional policies are very important as help in positioning the education and the careers of the young members of the society. Within the framework of the European Union, policies of the society and those of education tend to be closely related. It is with no doubt that education tends to be organized by member states under the principle of subsidiarity. In the process, they ensure that the social standards are promoted in what are recognized as non-binding instruments. Roma inclusion in the European union was based on two important policy reforms which included the fact that there was a policy that ensued that there was the inclusion of governments and there needed to be cooperation between them and there was the conjunction of a number of international bodies with the aim of combating discrimination in the region (Mundy et al., 2016). Some of the international bodies that were involved included governments, NGOs and intergovernmental organizations, launched by the World Bank and UNDP. Second, the EU considered taking up certain commitments that would be worked on during the particular decade but there were certain four areas that were considered which included education, health, employment and housing. These areas were considered as the focus when they needed to come up with new policy reforms and they are considered as projects that needed funding.

When considering the EU, there is a form of complexity especially when there is need of defining education opportunities. The complication also occurs when trying to define inequalities that exists during the transitional levels and when there is, need to come up with the policies that may bring about positive results. With proper analysis of the same, it allows for the examination of the politics that are involved in the implementation process and tend to position the union, the various national governments in the regulation of the students in Roma during their education systems. Some

of the problems that the students in Roma face regarding their transitions in schools include school segregation and minimal access and participation in the education process. In most cases, segregation follows the placement of the students in special education schools despite some of the criticisms that are faced by the students in these schools. There also exists residential segregation, which is mainly linked to the socio-economic backgrounds of the students.



Figure 3.15. Education is key in life. Education was one of the sectors that was put into consideration as one of the sectors that would get funding and considered in policy reformations.

Source: The Conversation.

It is with no doubt that, the pathways in education are not predetermined but are rather negotiated and shaped by the various participants or rather the stakeholders involved. Education opportunities tend to have some form of transformative effects that are brought about by transnational pressure on the national and local education systems.

Chapter 4

Globalization and Europeanization of Education

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4.1. INTRODUCTION

Globalization is a term that can be replaced with internalization. It is used to refer to the interconnection and interdependence present between individuals and institutions in a global scale. However, internationalization and globalization do not have the same meaning. They bear common elements but each has adopted a technical meaning that is used to identify each to avoid misusing the words. One of the key distinguishing factor is theory. Internationalization bears less theory compared to globalization. Globalization is used by researchers to explain the interconnection between states and institutions. A large body of literature has been developed by researchers to explain the effects of global influences on local settings and how countries in the local setting react to global influences. Global influences affect the day-to-day activities of a human being.



Figure 4.1. Globalization has made the world become a global village.

Source: <https://www.slideshare.net/cristineyabes1/globalization-and-education-15972484>.

For instance, global influences have affected policies and charters on trade which have been useful in minimizing commerce barriers, create more employment opportunities and control prices of commodities sold between nations. Global influences have been useful in transferring dependence on old industries to new industries. This has resulted in dislocations and rendering some workers jobless. This has resulted in large and in some cases violent demonstrations in many countries. Many policies related to

politics in most countries a good example being democracy. It has been useful in giving individuals opportunities to occupy leadership opportunities (Mee & Schreiner, 2016). They also have a say in political issues that affect their daily lives. It has been useful in dealing with socioeconomic issues by giving individuals an opportunity and platforms to voice their opinions. However, globalization has faced numerous problems the major one being terrorism. Islamic fanaticism has resulted in international terrorism viewed as a negative reaction to globalization. The main goal is to advocate the eradication of western capitalism as well as other ideologies brought about by globalization.



Figure 4.2. Globalization is a multi-disciplinary concept affecting political, economic and social aspects of the society.

Source: <https://www.techrepublic.com/article/4-ways-globalization-is-affecting-your-teams/>.

Impact of globalization is said to be multidimensional. It has both political, social and economic effects. One major sector affected by globalization is education. With the development of education, world nations are working to develop World Wide education policies. Globalization in learning will allow the spread of education and facilitate adoption of western education norms. Several talks of globalization in the education sector have been held in the 20th century. Due to the numerous effects of globalization in education nations are working to achieve globalized education. One of the main benefits of globalization in education is increasing access to education. Globalization has become a major study topic in a bid to define school roles. As a topic of study, globalization has embodied comparative education and the application of social and historiographic scientific ideologies

and methodologies and their relations to matters regarding International education. As mentioned earlier, globalization possess loss of theories.

4.2. THEORY OF GLOBALIZATION

Globalization possess two major aspects. It has a process aspect and a theory aspect. Among the individuals involved achieving globalization is Ronald Robertson. He was involved in developing the globalization theory. He views globalization as a fastened reduction of the contemporary world. It can also have been used to intensify world consciousness viewing it as a singular entity. By compressing the contemporary world, the world becomes a single place. This is acceptable by virtue of ideas set globally. By adopting these ideas, traditions and societal and ethnical identities are rendered irrelevant. However, a compromise can be made if local contexts are brought to light. Globalization brings forth the notion of the world being a community. By so doing the world is referred to as a global village. Many scholars such as Marshall McLuhan have shared their views on the concept of globalization. His views were based on mass media experience which brought to light a contemporary understanding of globalization.

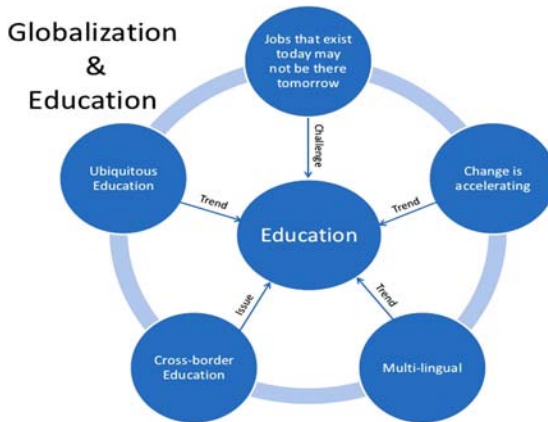


Figure 4.3. The theory of globalization has been studied resulting in the development of other theories.

Source: <https://steemit.com/education/@imbsnt/globalization-and-its-impact-on-education>.

During the 1960s people did not developed a better understanding of globalization and it was not recognized as a meaningful concept. This

changed in the 1980s as a result of multidimensionality and complexity of the globalization process was studied. Before the study, people viewed globalization as a change of society converging and becoming modern.

The globalization process has been present thought the course of history. The theory of globalization has been developed recently. Globalizing tendencies are being developed throughout the course of history. These tendencies have involved the unification of initially sequestered areas and formation of grand alliances by dynasties and nations. The main agenda under globalization is uniting world nations. This has resulted in initially separated territories under certain empires being united. With the development of the globalization theory, other theories such as the germ theory has been accepted by individuals. Heliocentrism has also been accepted and adopted. This has resulted in the development of transnational agencies involved in communication as well as regulation. It has also resulted in nations developing unified human rights concepts.

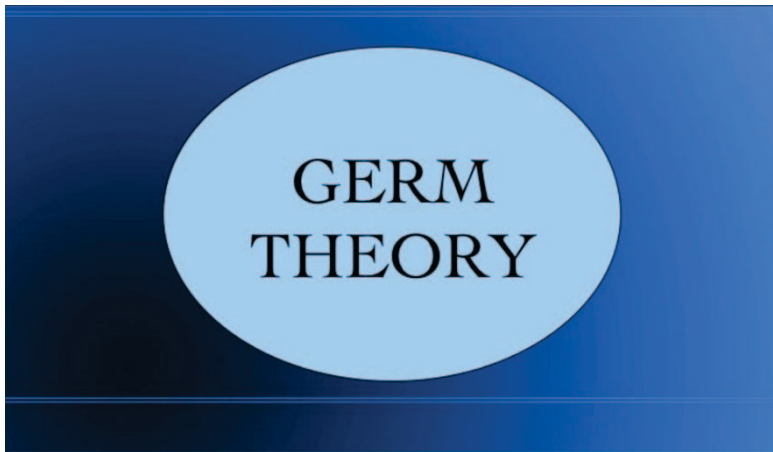


Figure 4.4. The germ theory brings out a new understanding of the globalization theory.

Source: <https://www.slideshare.net/headyclub/germ-theory>.

Multidimensionality and broad reach in interdependence has made globalization a unique aspect of contemporary life. In the wake of World War I, nations and states developed a monitored set of relations. The process was said to be akin to modernization in the late 1970s. Afterwards, modernization was accepted as a concept of linear progression. This saw national upgrades from traditional to developing. In some countries the

progress moved from developing to develop. In some countries it moved from *gemeinschaft* to *gesellschaft*. As a result, societal forms were viewed as too simple and unidimensional when used in explaining contemporary changes. Development of the theory of globalization is interrelated with the modernization theory. This is because globalization seeks to ensure that all countries use modern systems and concepts. The theory of modernization places much emphasis on how protestant ethics hold a functional significance useful in improving societies enabling them to become more modern.



Figure 4.5. Countries recording high levels of literacy are known to achieve different milestones with regards to development.

Source: <https://www.friesens.com/the-importance-of-literacy/>.

The level of modernization in a country is measured using the state of education, wealth and occupation. In such countries, citizens are more open to participate in political talks and debates. The development of the theory of modernization has yielded results. However, it presents its own challenges. One of the main issues with the modernization theory is that it places much emphasis on changes to be made within the society or state while comparing them to western societies (Maringe & Sing, 2014). The western society is used as a reference point when making comparisons. This makes it difficult to define the interconnection between societies and states. The same case applies in establishing and defining the interdependence present among nations. It is also difficult to identify roles played by other countries in helping western countries develop.

Among the scholars who identified the weaknesses of the modernization theory is Immanuel Wallenstein. By identifying the weaknesses of the modernization theory, he developed the world system theory. The theory

was used in explaining the world's expansion through the use of an ordered pattern of relationship present among individuals or societies. The capital system of economic exchange is the driving force under world expansion. The World system theory demonstrates how poor and rich societies are interlocked within a world system. By so doing they are able to advance their economic merits and demerits which have later on affected the culture and political system of the society. Some scholars refer to the globalization theory as a border. On one side, it advocates for the spread and transfer of knowledge across nations while on the other hand it pays less attention to how world economics are handled. By incorporating the world system theory, it was easy to shape the development of the globalization theory.



Figure 4.6. Global education will help developing countries improved their economic state.

Source: <https://www.muhlenberg.edu/academics/global-education/>.

4.3. GLOBALIZATION AND EDUCATION

The globalization theory seeks to ensure that knowledge is transferred between nations. Education is said to be the major agency or route of transferring knowledge. This is why schools hold a significant position in the theory and process of globalization. Globalization in education began way back to the colonial ages. For instance, there was the spread of religion more so the Christian religion by missionaries as they came to Africa to spread the gospel. This tampered with the traditional forms of education used in Africa and other continents that were colonized. It resulted in drastic changes in the education sector from being informal to formal. After the colonization age, globalization influences affected the shape of the education sector. With topics of globalization, people tend to think of political and economic ties between societies and states. However, it also entails a shared consciousness

among those under the global system. The consciousness is transferred through the transnational movements of individuals as well as the use of vast forms of media. It is also mainly transferred through formal education. The transformation exhibited through globalization has modified the contours and content of education. With regards to globalization, education still plays a vital role.



Figure 4.7. Education is a useful resource in fostering globalization through the exchange of knowledge.

Source: <https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/global-education-ideas-way-forward>.

Education plays a vital role in globalization through its structural adjustment policies put in place by organizations such as the World Bank. It also encompasses the role of other lending organizations in improving education in low income countries. These organizations have helped improve education in different parts of the world. They have helped countries manage their expenditures, reduce currency devaluation, liberate trade practices, minimize control prices and focus on producing products to be exported. They have also been helpful in privatizing various services including education. There are numerous causes for these changes among them being government dependence on foreign capital or aid to facilitate economic growth, financial forces and market or marketing ideologies.

Use of structural adjustment policies have been useful in minimizing public bureaucracies who may pull back or delay the delivery of good education among all children. This is achieved by minimizing expenditure not beneficial to the government. By minimizing wastage, the government is able to improve its response to education demand. The policies have been useful in promoting schooling among individuals. However, scholars such as Joel Samoff noted that utilization of structural adjustment policies focus on cultivating inappropriate skills and promote existing economic and social inequalities. This has caused a decline in school enrollment rate and a decline in the quality of education offered. It has also created a misalignment between the need for education and provision of education. However, structural adjustment policies have improved how resources are used and promote measures to improve student performance. It has also been useful in advancing utilization of cross-national school effectiveness studies (Marginson, 2006). However, some scholars have argued that the studies present a form of racism as it blames for school failure is placed on local cultures. Education plays a major role in promoting democratization. Scholars attribute the spread of education as an important factor in promoting education. School play a vital role in preparing people to take part in political and economic activities. This will enable them make more informed decisions. It will also motivate them to be involved in decision making activities that will contribute to the well-being of the society. They will also be conscious about the decisions they make and the impact of their behaviors. Several organizations have embraced the use of education to promote democracy. Some of these organizations include the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the United States Agency for International Development. They advocate for mass provision of education. They also advocate for the adoption of technology in the learning process which will allow distance learning. By so doing students from other parts of the world can get access to western education and concepts. This will expose them to new religions.

While using education to promote democracy, it is important for the government to involve structural adjustment measures. The two go hand in hand. Though the government provides education for students through public school, they are allowed to involve parents in paying fees. However, some countries have gone to the extreme of requiring parents to cater for student fees. This will tamper with access to education. Children from poor backgrounds may not be able to afford to pay for learning materials or even attend school. This has resulted in a furthered gap between the wealthy

and the poor. This has resulted in the decline in civic participation as much emphasis is placed on the need for formal education. In the case where the government chooses to expand school civics program, then there may be minimum resources available to allow engagement in political affairs.

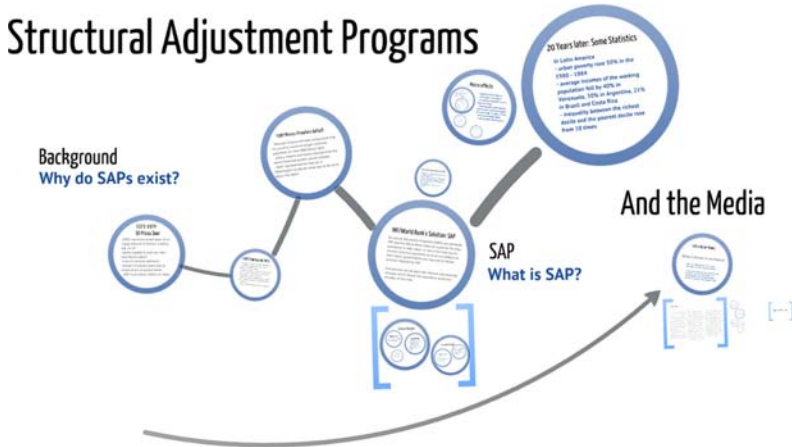


Figure 4.8. Structural adjustment policies seek to ensure children get access to education.

Source: <https://prezi.com/ktgnyo7vtdx3/structural-adjustment-programs-and-the-media/>.

To better understand the importance of education in actualizing globalization, we must know its penetration by the periphery. The education system bears more power and is more likely to penetrate cultural peripheries. Western ideas were introduced by colonizers and missionaries. By the 20th century, countries had already adopted these western ideas in the education sectors. Through globalization, education has been useful in spreading the western culture. However, it has made use of structural adjustment measures as well as democratization projects. There are scholars who argue that individuals are willingly accepting and adopting western culture even without visibly seeing or being consciously knowing it. However, it is important for governments and learning institutions to develop strategies that will enable them deal with rebellion among students. The strategies are also useful in ensuring that dominant ideologies taught in schools are eradicated. To achieve globalization, it is important to ensure that students from all walks of life get access to education. Studies show that students from poor backgrounds are more likely to access mainstream western education.

4.3.1. Globalization and Education Policy

From the knowledge above, we understand that education and globalization are inter-related. Most nations and states rank education as the highest factor in preparing student to live in a globalized world. It also equips them with the needed skills and knowledge to help promote globalization. This has affected the manner in which governments allocates money to the education sector. For this to be achieved, nations and states are working to remove traditional education policies replacing them with new policies. This is the main priority for most countries. Initially, states would develop policies to improve their education systems. For this reason, education policies were referred to as a national affair. However, with regards to globalization, development of education policies is now a worldwide agenda and termed as an international commodity. This is because it plays a significant role in the global economy. It enables world governments to invest in people gaining knowledge and skills (Makarova et al., 2018). Although development of education policies is a national agenda, when nation and states come together with regards to matters education it becomes a global agenda. The internationalization of the education policies is as a result of dominating global economies over national politics. The education sector is made up advanced systems of local, regional, national and global actors and practices. From this perspective the current state of education, education are made and implemented with regards to global context. To improve competition among students in a global scale, education policies developed across nations and states have been used to maintain.



Figure 4.9. Development of education policies is now a global affair due to globalization.

Source: <https://digitallearning.eletsonline.com/2016/11/57505/>.

In as much as globalization seeks to ensure all nations and states make use of a common system of education, it is important to ensure that there is still competition among the states. This will ensure that students are motivated to study. It is important for nations and states to recognize their duties in creating and implementing education policies that will enable them compete economically with other states. It is important for countries can achieve global competition by putting more efforts in improving productivity in internal labor force. This is made possible by implementing new education policies, education reforms and learning programs that lays a foundation for the acquirement of skills enabling students compete with others in a global scale. By fostering competition among nations and states, education will improve and also cause other countries to make efforts to be of the same status as other states. It is one way pressuring them to develop and adopt new education policies.

Among the numerous benefits of implementing education policies is that it help conduct needed reforms in their learning curriculum, assessments and pedagogy that will help foster competitiveness among nations and states. Some of these curriculums involved countries engaging in international comparisons seeking to evaluate performance, productivity of pedagogies and the national curriculum. Some scholars can support the notion that globalization has been useful in reforming and redesigning education policy terrains. This is because the globalization process has greatly shifted and modified the manner in which education policies are created, implemented and evaluated. This is because globalization has been present throughout the course of history witnessing the reworking of nation-states. This resulted in the creation of public policies. Currently, determination of education policies is no longer the work of actors in the nation-states. Though they will play a certain role, other stakeholders will have to be involved. They also have to use different complex process used globally.

The challenges, changes and pressures of globalization have affected education policies used in developing and developed nations. The changes and shifts in education policies brought about by globalization are not similar in all nation-states. This is because there is a variation in the manner in which developed and developing countries are affected by globalization. Some believe that developed countries are less affected by globalization compared to countries. This may be due to the fact that most education policies being used globally are adopted from developed countries leaving the task to developed countries to adopt the education policies. However, globalization has mostly affects developed countries compared to developing countries.

Globalization has resulted in developed countries completely changing their education policies.

4.3.2. Globalization and Education Policies in Developing Countries



Figure 4.10. Developing countries are mostly characterized by low literacy levels.

Source: <https://ksr.hkspublications.org/2018/02/13/education-policy-reform-a-catalyst-for-innovation-in-developing-countries/>.

There are numerous factors contributing to the extent in which developed countries have been affected by globalization. Developing countries are known to experience social, economic, and cultural problems, and to some extent they experience political instability. With regards to global contexts, education policies and systems used in developing countries play a vital role in helping the country achieve improved education status. The education system used should ensure that all children get access to quality education, more so at the basic level of education. To better understand how Education is useful in solving problems faced by developing countries, we need to understand problems faced by developing countries. Countries categorized as developing are those having low standards of living (Matthews & Sidhu, 2005). This means that they have a slow or retarded economic growth as well as poor social, environmental and cultural aspects of development. According to the contexts outlined by the UN, the term developing nation is used to refer to certain regions of the world. They include South America, some Asian countries, the Caribbean and Africa. In other contexts, these countries are referred to as third world countries while others refer to it as nations of the Global south. These countries suffer from certain economical,

social and political issues characterized by increase in population, severe cases of poverty, political instability, relatively low rates of literacy, corruption and exploitation among others. The quality of life in these countries is lower compared to developed countries. Some of the developing countries are to the extreme end of issues faced by developing countries with their citizens suffering from hunger, wars, Aids, poverty and poor levels of education.

However, one cannot say that all developing countries are the same. There are those better off compared to others. For instance, countries in Arab Gulf are better off as they record low cases of poverty and conflicts but still record high cases of unemployment. This is why some would say that problems faced by developing countries may be specific to them. There are those who are better off in some areas while facing challenges in other areas. This is evident in different developing countries. For instance, China and India are faced with the problem of population growth while Latin America is faces cases of economic fluctuations. Those in the Middle East deal with wars and population growth while Sub-Saharan Africa faces challenges of high poverty rates and HIV/AIDS. Education plays a vital role in tackling issues faced by these countries contributing to an improved global economy. This is because education and development are interdependent. In the context of globalization, education is a fundamental element in ensuring development. It occupies a central position in social and economic development.



Figure 4.11. Education is a useful resource in creating HIV/AIDS awareness.

Source: <https://time.com/3578597/aids-sex-ed-history/>.

Education is a key element used by states and nations to improve the quality of life as well as the standards of living. Studies show that increased levels of education helps to speed up development processes and ensure the development being done is useful in meeting the needs of its people. In developing countries, there is a well-defined correlation between the quality of education and a decline in problems faced by the nation. This is why these countries are advised to invest in their education system. By investing in their education, countries are able to achieve successful development, meaning that they will suffer from less economic problems. To achieve broad social and economic benefits, the capacity of education needs to be improved. This is crucial in improving creativity and raising the standards of living.

Usually, the main goal of education is to ensure that countries achieve economic and social progress. By maintaining the progress, countries are able to records increased consistently in both social and economic efficiency. Education plays a crucial role in achieving this consistency as they grant citizens the ability to know and understand decisions made by their leaders. Also it enables them to be aware of the problems faced by their country. For instance in Arab Gulf, the government discovered the importance of educating their children. The high literacy levels enable citizens to acquire jobs in different work fields, and therefore the government is able to generate revenue (Krogh & Slentz, 2010). It is also useful in helping leaders make more informed decisions with regards to government expenditures. In Sub-Saharan Africa, education has been a useful resource in spreading knowledge on HIV/AIDS. Children are taught on how to prevent and control the spread of the disease. By educating them, it reduces the stigma surrounding the disease.

Generally, there is an interrelation between globalization, education and development. Though education is useful in improving the economic and social state of the country, there is a role played by globalization in achieving these goals. Globalization seeks to unite in a global scale. By unifying education systems and policies, children across the world are able to gain knowledge and skills, enabling them to work in different environments. This allows individuals to work in different areas across the world. Globalization also put pressure on developing countries to improve their education system. This will improve development rates in those countries. Globalization also creates competition among countries to improve their economies. They are also working to ensure that nations and states have integrated the use of technology in the learning environment to allow students to acquire

digital skills to meet the demand for skilled individuals for the labor market. World organizations are able to help improve education in most areas. Currently, the World Bank has actively been involved in improving education in developing countries. Most studies conclude that education and globalization are inter-related. Education is useful in helping achieve globalization, while globalization is a useful resource in improving literacy levels across countries.

4.3.3. Impact of Globalization in Education

Globalization plays an essential role in improving and spreading education throughout the world. Globalization entails broad and complex concepts well explained in the theory of globalization. These concepts have been defined differently by individuals. There are those who argue that globalization has negative effects on nations, while there are those who fully embrace notions under globalization. The different perceptions of globalization have affected the willingness of nations to adopt global policies. Some of the effects of globalization to the society have contributed to the negative perceptions about globalization. However, benefits brought about by globalization in the society have encouraged many nations to adopt global education policies. Globalization has both negative and positive effects in education. Some of the effects of globalization in education are as follows:

Globalization can be referred to as a transformative tool. It has brought about radical transformation in the world in different aspects. Globalization is a useful tool in improving world economies. In the current day and age, the world economy has become interconnected and interdependent. Among the main concepts of globalization is ensuring that education policies have been improved so that it can foster development in all countries. As globalization has resulted in world economies being more competitive and dependent or based on knowledge. Globalization has brought about global education. Global education has been useful in fostering the interconnection of methods used by teachers during the teaching process. This allows teachers in developing countries to make use of teaching methods used by teachers in developed countries. By so doing it fosters international development improving environmental sustainability. It has also been useful in establishing and growing global industries. In the global education scale, there are initiatives put in place to ensure that children in every nation are able to access education in every level. In developing countries, governments are working to ensure that every child gets access to basic education. Global education system seeks to ensure that children get access to primary,

secondary, and higher education. Global education is beneficial to students as it ensures students are prepared to acquire multinational leadership skills.

One of the basic foundations to global stability in education. It is a useful resource in developing multicultural awareness at an early stage. While learning at a young age, it is easy to integrate different ideologies obtained from different societies resulting in a well-balanced understanding of different cultures in the world. This results in an interrelation between education and globalization as they both work to ensure they meet their mutual goals. They help ensure individuals secure a bright future that will allow countries to grow together. Globalization has been useful in solving some of the issues faced in the education sector. As globalization seeks to ensure that learners get access to education, it has enabled learner's be more familiar and understand concepts taught in schools. It also enables them to understand issues faced by nations and how they can be solved.



Figure 4.12. Globalization seeks to ensure every child gets access to education.

Source: <https://theirworld.org/news/record-28-5bn-pledged-for-education-by-developing-countries-and-donors>.

When handling information concerning society and global economies, one needs to have an understanding of holistic systems of thinking such as the business and world eco-system. The advantage of adopting global education systems is that individuals are able to develop and use a holistic approach to problems. Global education enable students to acquire a comprehensive understanding of different challenges faced by the world

system. Global education enable students to acquire skills that will enable them to manipulate symbols used by different countries (Kennedy, 2002). This will enable students to fit the job market, which requires students to constantly manipulate symbols used in the current global economy. Some of these systems include business, political and legal terms as well as digital money. Also globalization improves the learner's ability to get and use knowledge. It improves the ability of students to get, evaluate, integrate and apply knowledge. By so doing students, are able to think independently and exercise appropriate judgements. Globalization promotes collaboration among students enabling them to understand new situations.

Globalization has been useful in improving the quantity of technically and scientifically trained individuals. This is very important for the global economy as the economy is based on knowledge playing a crucial factor in managing production and industrial demand for individuals possessing scientific and technological knowledge. Globalization encourages collaboration among students. This is achieved by students working in teams. By developing this culture in students, they will be able to embrace team work in the working environment. Embracing team work in the learning environment, students are able to acquire and develop skills in debate, leadership and management, persuasion, compromise, and group dynamics. Globalization is also useful in breaking space and time boundaries. Globalization provides students with technological skills to enable them to use technology in the workforce. Globalization involves students using ICT tools to help them acquire a new system of learning, knowledge, and education that I applicable in both asynchronous and synchronous activities allowing both learners and teachers to break boundaries of time and space.

Globalization creates anan avenue where education, learning and knowledge problems meet opportunities presented by the information age. This is important in the world of business. Currently, businesses are based on knowledge requiring individuals have the capacity to learn new skills and acquire new knowledge making it easier to adapt to changes in the work place. With the current day and age, nations and states are integrating technology in the education sector. Globalization plays a crucial role in supporting information technologists, practitioners and policymakers. They are able to evaluate the education sector and help policymakers create an environment where knowledge and ideas can be shared among students Ina global scale. They can also develop support mechanisms for those who use education technologies.

With students, it is crucial to conduct experiments and explore ideas. Globalization promote experimentation and exploration of knowledge while using technology. It also seeks to ensure that technology used to make learning more effective. Globalization creates a platform where knowledge, intellectual assets, and skills can be shared to enable development in different levels. It also creates an avenue for mutual support and is beneficial in producing synergy for the development of individuals, communities, countries, and nations (Kang, 2004). Mutual support and global sharing is achieved through the creation of values and improving efficiency. All this is important in facilitating growth and meet the needs of people. Globalization is a useful tool that can foster international collaboration, understanding, harmony, and acceptance of diversity with regards to culture in different nations and states. It is also useful in promoting communication, interaction and promote multi-cultural contributions among states.

Globalization has its own negative effects in the society. The likelihood of a potential fallback of globalization in the education system is increased by the presence of technological gaps. The presence of a digital divide between developing and developed countries poses a threat to global education. Another challenge of globalization in the learning process is the fact that students from developing countries may not get equal opportunities on completion. Some refer to globalization as a new form of colonization. Another challenge is globalization seeks to promote western principles of education. This makes it difficult to adopt education policies used by other countries that have been effective in the learning environment. In a sense, it becomes a form of colonization as certain countries are required to adopt and comply with education policies and systems used in a global scale. This is why some countries or individuals may be against globalization. There are those who view it as a scheme to promote western cultures, thereby limiting political or economic policies and systems used by other countries from being recognized. When discussing issues concerning Globalization, topics like Europeanization come up as they are inter-related.

4.4. EUROPEANIZATION OF EDUCATION

Among the emerging issues as a result of globalization is Europeanization. This entails the process of integrating European principles. The process of European integration was expected to happen at a faster pace; however, many individuals have taken the process for granted. Many are reluctant to fully integrated European policies as it is deemed to be irreversible. Numerous

stakeholders have been involved in pushing the agenda of adopting European policies. Some of the individuals involved include executives, politicians and administrations have actively been involved in pushing for European integration in Europe and other countries. The push for this integration has taken a certain shape and has progressed. Most of the European population is open to the idea of integrating Europe. Some political scientists argue that this kind of attitude exhibited by European pollutants should be referred to as permissive consensus.



Figure 4.13. Several countries are adopting European education policies.

Source: <http://cybernet.ac.cy/about-us/eu-projects/europeanisation/>.

Efforts put by relevant stakeholders to encourage integration of European policies or features have gone unchallenged. There is a strong sense of influence no different members of the EU to incorporate the policies in their counties and societies. The process of integrating European policies is referred to as Europeanization. Scholars may refer to it as the process of changing national policies and standards and adopting European policies and standards while complying with supranational entities. They also make use it relate to social and structural foundations with regards to European integration as well as its impact to the society.

Though different processes are followed during denationalization and Europeanization, they play vital roles in achieving globalization. They have also been linked to numerous crises that have occurred in the past years, yet the situation remains the same. Through European integration, Europe

and institutions under the EU have become a form of reference turning into contentious objects of social and political conflicts among members of the EU. This is visibly seen through the increase in Eurosceptic polity parties throughout the world. This has resulted in efforts made by nations to achieve economic and political European integration being opposed on different grounds. Some of the grounds include requirements listed by the EU with regards to neoliberal projects or when the foreign rule is applied.

In as much as European integration is facing opposition and laden with conflicts, it allows the conceiving of educational and cultural realms useful in bringing different people together through the European spirit. It also contributes to Europe's social integration. This view of European integration has resulted in numerous initiatives, measures, and policies being implemented and adopted at the state and European level. This includes the adoption of the Bologna process. The process seeks to ensure the quality of education in higher learning institutions can be compared to other institutions in the world. It also aims at developing a common European Research Area as well as a European Higher Education Area. It has also resulted in the development and introduction of mobility programmes allowing students from different parts of the world to get access to education.

It has also resulted in school curricula being revised so that it can incorporate a European dimension in certain subjects. In some EU nations, the revision seeks to ensure that learning institutions possess a certain European orientation as a result of extensive usage of foreign languages in teaching different topics as well as giving instructions when conducting school activities. This is the case in different countries such as Germany, where there are national schools referred to as Europaschulen that make use of European education systems and policies (Jian-Guo, 2009). Among the EU countries is the Netherlands which has schools that make use of European education standards during the learning process. The cultural strategy under European integration is useful in creating a common identity achieved through the fabrication of cultural symbols. This strategy is useful in improving education. Among the common identities developed through cultural strategies include cultural cooperation. Cultural cooperation is made up of a European model of culture interacting with European integration.

To ensure an affirmation of a common space, education can be used as a form of cultural cooperation which establishes a new language of identity. To enable the development of the education sector, ministers of education in 1971 decided to develop a working party that would be in charge of

developing a European Center which would be involved in developing education. They did so according to the Objectives of the Conference of the Heads of state meeting held in 1968. Adoption of European policies and education strategies have proven to be beneficial to some extent. Both the Europeanization and Globalization processes have resulted in internationalized education policies said to be products of supranational organization. Some of these organizations include the World Bank, the OECD, the IMF, and UNESCO are currently viewed as recent pillars of knowledge in education. Their work is to promote discourses and values in the context of education as well as defined norms. However, there are restrictions present with regards to formal competencies.

Over the years, there is a notable increase in the gap present between European and global education policies. This is evident in the coherent variation in themes, discourses, and technologies put in place, allowing both European and global processes are transforming education systems and policies. Globalization and European integration processes are changing education policies such the focus from equality, social justice and democracy and directing the focus towards neoliberal values and market strategies which are mirrored in the culture of measurement, accountability, effectiveness and performativity of education and other areas. Throughout the globe, national qualifications frameworks have been established. It is viewed as one of the processes that supports the shift in education policies. Developing of NQFs are as a result of influences from Anglo-Saxon countries as well as the global neoliberal policy that covers up tendencies promoting the deregulation, commodification, and marketization of knowledge and education. The foundation of this information is evidence obtained from the early starters of the NQFs. Some of the early starters include England, Scotland and South Africa.

However, there is little knowledge on the impacts and normative aspects of the NQFs developed under European qualifications frameworks in Europe because little research has been done on the topic. Based on the Europeanization process, the level of adoption of EU among and the implementation of EU policy instruments, several questions can be drawn creating the need for research. Comparative research done on the NQFs involved all member state being brought to light. The countries include Slovenia, Denmark, Portugal and Germany. Studies done on the countries show that in all four countries, the EQF influenced the development of NQFs (Jongbloed et al., 2008). However, there is a variation from the NQFs in developing countries and among the Anglo-Saxon countries. The study also

shows that the development of NQFs in those countries is not a representation of neoliberal tools for the commodification, deregulation, and marketization of knowledge and education. Impacts of the concepts of European education policies are not necessarily direct impacts. However, the impact cuts across both local and regional histories and have expected or unexpected effects on practices and concepts. The EGF and NQF are actively involved throughout the process of Europeanization. The effects of the EQF on the four European NQFs can be established through comparative analysis.

The process of Europeanization seeks to implement certain legal and policy changes. The promotion of certain values by the EU may be said to be constitutive for its own community. There are concern with regards to Europeanization. There are those who question whether Europeanization can cause societal change in that a person's attitudes towards specific values and norms are changed. There are different areas of interest; however, in this case, the major concern is the changes experienced at the elite level of society and in large populations. There are concerns of how education plays a role in fostering these changes.

Attitudes towards homosexuality have been highlighted as they demonstrate the diffusion of EU minority-rights norms. During such studies, survey done in the 28 European countries are recorded under the Integrated Value Survey. The data can be utilized during research. Currently the IVS carries data from 1995–2014. Countries survey before 2004 were not members of the EU. This data can be used to gain knowledge on attitudes towards education as per the EU framework.

4.4.1. Europeanization in Higher Education in Germany

Germany is among the various countries that have adopted European education policies in their education system. Adoption of European education policies and systems has resulted in education reforms being done. In the case of Germany, the reform was done to improve the quality of education in higher learning institutions. The integration of European concepts was done through the Bologna process. This process took place from the year 2009–2012. After the Bologna process, national reports were written by German members BFUG, KMK and BMBF. In the report, the bodies presented significant developments as a result of the Bologna process. The report presented the effects of the Bologna process with regards to higher education, the German approach evident in its policy seeks to ensure that every child gets access to higher education. The German government seeks

to tackle issues of access to Education. Efforts made to handle issues of higher education are reflected in the Bologna Implementation Report that makes use of the report created in 2009 to monitor the performance even among member states.

With regards to alternative access to education, there is an issue with recognition of prior learning that resulted in Germany being ranked among too thirteen performers. It got a dark green grade. This is because Germany had put in place national procedures, policies, and guidelines for evaluation and recognizing of prior learning on two main foundations. The first foundation being student ability to access higher education programs. The second is the allocation of credits leading to the acceptance or denial of students depending on the program requirements. Majority of higher learning institutions in Germany recognize prior learning influencing alternative access to education. Though the Europeanization process in higher learning is a success story, there have been challenges. There are those who still criticize the integration of European policies and systems of education.

Chapter 5

Parental Involvement Across European Education System

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5.1. INTRODUCTION

Involving parents in schooling is important in ensuring effective development in children and in the school. Some scholars refer to it as a matter of principle. Some refer to parents as the natural and primary educators of their children. This is because knowledge is instilled in children from tender age by their parents. Throughout the parenthood journey, parents play the role of educators instilling basic knowledge and skills in children. In the home grants, parents play an important role in educating their children as they have the first contact with children. During the first encounter, the manner in which parents interact with parents as they learn will determine the educational impact on the child's life.



Figure 5.1. Parents are children's first educators.

Source: <https://www.pafe.ca/>.

Parents teach children how to walk and talk. They teach them how to pronounce certain words. Parents can be able to identify some of the weaknesses of their children. Parents know certain things about their children that no one else knows. They know what motivates, interest, talents and problems faced by their children (Jones et al., 2010). This is why giving parents a position in the education sector will be useful in improving student achievement. They can give valuable knowledge about their children that can be utilized by teachers. Knowledge of children is a valuable asset that can be used to the child's productivity. This knowledge can be used by schools to enable holistic development in children.

However, for many years, there has been a marginalization of parents in the learning process. In previous years parental participation and

involvement was localized and mostly sporadic. This is because parents put their complete trust in teachers to educate their children. Parents perceived teachers to be well educated and qualified to teach their children. They are also paid and trusted by the government to educate the children. This is why parents were not involved in the education process. As parents put their faith in teachers and schools to enable their students to meet education goals. Schools are required to improve the quality of education given to children.

In most cases, if parents were involved in the education system, it was mostly through the school committee. Their main role is to approve decisions made by the school administration. In most cases, they play the role of rubber-stamps to administration strategies. They are not allowed to engage in matters pertinent to parents and children in general. Some schools do not allow parents to participate in school activities. School administrations and teachers perceive school to be their domain. Involving parents in the learning process can be a form of interference. Some scholars perceive the education process as a government service delivery. This means that professionals should be involved in the learning. Individuals are trained and equipped with skills to pass knowledge and skills to students. This causes parents to be exempted from the education process. Initially, parents were not comfortable being in schools. In some cases, they felt guilty and embarrassed being involved in the learning process. Parents were not involved in the learning process as some of them were not educated. This makes it hard for them to participate in decision making processes.



Figure 5.2. Education systems used across European countries requires parents' participation.

Source: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2018/09/10-reasons-why-finlands-education-system-is-the-best-in-the-world>.

However, there are recent amendments made to the European education system require parents to be actively involved in the learning process. This has led to researchers, educators, and education authorities embracing the importance of parents in the education process. In the European Education system, educators and parents are equal partners in the learning process. The education system views parents having equal expertise and strengths useful in the education process. They make contributions and receive services on a common ground used by educators. They are given the same responsibilities and level of accountability allocated to educators in schools. In some countries, there are school acts giving a detailed guidelines used by schools as they involve parents in the education process (Hu et al., 2014). In the school act, parents are viewed as co-governors of learning institutions. Under the school act, school administrations should involve parents. Complying with these acts, schools are required to elect parents who will be involved in governing schools however they should not be more than half. The act required a parent to be chosen as a chair person as opposed to previously when school principals would chair school governing bodies.



Figure 5.3. Several European countries have developed governing bodies in charge of running schools.

Source: <https://www.iol.co.za/weekend-argus/opinion/lets-keep-corruption-out-of-school-governing-bodies-14054631>.

The European education system identifies parents as crucial players in facilitating transformation and innovation in schools. It identifies parental involvement is crucial in ensuring that learners perform well in their academics. They encourage students to take part in academic, extra-curricular and sports activities. Parents play a vital role in motivating

students to perform well in their academics. They have also been useful in reducing student drop-out rates as well as delinquency. All these results in the creating of a positive learning environment. Involving parents in early childhood education is also important in improving the teaching culture and help developing schools. Involving parents as co-governors in the school management means that they have a say and are involved in making decisions with regards to financial matters, discipline, curricular activities, and general school management. Other aspects of school development required input from parents. They are useful in helping school achieve milestones with regards to school development.

According to the European education system, the definition of a parent is the parent or guardian of the individual. It can also be used to refer to any individual who takes full obligation over the student. Therefore a parent is either the biological mother or father of the learner. Also, it can be any individual trusted by the parents or loved ones to take care of the child. Therefore it is anybody in charge of the welfare and the well-being of the child. Their interest should be the well-being of the child. Therefore parental involvement refers to the act of actively involving parents in supporting students. Those parents are involved as partners who work with school administrators as well as teachers in providing both formal and informal education to learners.



Figure 5.4. Parents have been included in education boards to help in decision-making, among other issues.

Source: <https://www.eabhes.eu/>.

By involving parents in the education board, they are able to get other parents to be involved in improving the education sector. However, the school management should be structured in a well-detailed and organized manner that will enable education objectives to be met.

Parental involvement may require parents to be continuously present in schools so that they can give their input on some of the concerns and issues faced by the school. By so doing they are able to ensure that the learning process proceeds smoothly. As part of the school management body, parents need to ensure that they comply with school acts. They need to ensure that they promote the best interest of the students and schools. They need to ensure that schools provide good quality education for all students (Heward et al., 2006).

5.2. IMPORTANCE OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

For European countries to put measures to ensure parents are involved in the education process, there are numerous positive impacts. Parental involvement positively affects schools, families and the child. This can be proven through the numerous research done by education departments. Research shows that children raised by parents who are involved in the education process tend to record good grades. They achieve tremendous results in terms of literacy. Parents work with teachers to help students pronounce and master several words.

Parents are good role models for children. By involving parents in educational activities, they are able to influence their children. This results in children who are well disciplined. Parental involvement therefore helps improve children behaviors. Parents are children's first education. They create a foundation for learning activities. The manner in which parents interact with children will determine whether teachers will be able to interact with the students. Research shows that parents play a crucial role in helping children how to interact and develop positive relationships with their teachers among other individuals. This is because parents interact with children on a daily basis. By involving parents in the learning process, it helps develop a sense of security among children. This enables them to fit in well and adopt to new routines. It also enables children to speak up in cases where they encounter challenges.

For instance if the parents allow children to open up, then the child will be able to express themselves. For instance, if the child tells their parent that they face difficulties in a certain subject, the parent can notify the teacher and

also encourage the child to ask questions if they did not understand or notify the teacher that they didn't understand. Involving parents in the education system is beneficial for teachers as they can share knowledge and insights with parents. For instance if the child skips a class or does not complete their homework, they can notify the parent who will talk with the child. Parents can inform teachers of some of the child's strengths, weaknesses, and interests. The teacher can use this information to make learning more effective.

Parental involvement is also beneficial for school administrations. Parents can give new and different ideas on how to improve the learning process. In some European schools, parents are involved in managing schools. They can be involved in generating funds used in developing the school. Parents can also give their input on how to run the school. For parents in state councils or federations are involved in making decisions and implement laws that affect the education system. Parents also benefit from parental involvement in the education system. By involving parents in associations, their self-esteem and confidence will improve. This is because parents participating in school activities minimizes cases of parental isolation. They interact with other parents creating social circles. It creates a sense of empowerment among parents. As parents interact with teachers and school staff, knowledge, expertise and skills are shared.

By involving parents in the education process, they are able to get knowledge about the curriculum. They can determine whether the method of learning used will be effective in teaching their children. Parents can also give insights on how they want their children to be taught. If the same is applied in the class environment, parents will be able to gain knowledge and courage to create a learning environment at home. This results in strong relationships created between parents, children and teachers.

5.3. PARENTAL CHARACTERISTICS AND FAMILY-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIP

One of the ways parents take part in school activities is through family-school relations. In Europe, most schools have developed family-school relations. It creates an avenue for parents to take part in educational processes. In most cases, the relations are beneficial for the parents as they get more information on matters of education. They can also receive help and jobs from schools. There are cases of parents forming partnerships with schools to provide some resources. In Europe, schools have different understandings

of parental participation. Some of them believe that by paying their taxes, they enable the government to offer public services by enabling schools to function for numerous years. There are those who believe that this kind of participation does not require parents to be hands on as some are so consumed with their work schedules limiting their ability to take part in school activities (Gough, 2013).

So many factors are taken into consideration with regards to parental involvement. Some of these factors influence the selection of parents who will represent other parents. Time, energy, lack of familiarity with the education system, inadequate knowledge of school curricula, and economic limitations may cause parents not to be involved in the learning environment. For this reason, schools in Europe have opted to embrace family-school relations. For family-school relations to be effective, there are parental characteristics needed. The characteristics are as follows: a sense of personal efficacy which allows parents to trust teachers' ability to educate learner's, psychological and social resources owned by parents. This includes their social networks, personal health and ability to cope with different situations. The Parent's views of their child understanding their child's learning and cognitive ability. For the relation to be effective, parents need to know their child future expectations with regards to education and acquiring jobs. They should also be able to determine some of the opportunities that should be availed for the child to succeed.

5.4. PARENTAL RIGHTS

In the European education system, parents are granted rights allowing them to take part in the education system. Parents are granted both collective and individual rights. This rights control the manner in which parents are able to participate in the learning process. These rights are shared among all members of the European Union as well as the EEA and EFTA countries. Some of the rights may differ depending on the specifications of the country.



Figure 5.5. Most European countries are members of the EU.

Source: <https://www.eumetsat.int/european-union/european-commission>.

5.5. INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS

Individual rights are enjoyed by parents under the EFTA/EEA and European countries. In this case, parents are granted natural rights, and in extreme cases, they are charged with the obligation of educating their children. Under the laws, parents are granted the power to decide the kind of school they want their children to attend. Parents can decide whether they will take their children to public or private schools. When making the decision, they take into consideration their financial status. For parents from poor backgrounds can enroll their children in public schools. The government caters for most of the fees. In some countries, children in the private sector may or may not pay fees. In most European countries, parents opt to take their children to public schools. However, the type of public school chosen restricts parents to the area of residence through a few exceptions are made for certain children.

In some European countries, parents are allowed to enroll students in a public school of their choice. They could choose public funded schools or pay the fees for themselves. In countries like Belgium, parents are allowed to exercise their parental freedom. In countries like the United Kingdom and Sweden, parental freedom is allowed, but there are some restrictions. The school is allowed to prevent students from being admitted if they have already achieved the total student capacity. In some countries, parental freedom in public schools can be limited on the basis of two terms (Furlong,

2005). One of the terms is the demarcation of the catchment area in which they live.



Figure 5.6. Individual rights grant parents the freedom to enroll children in schools of their choice.

Source: <https://www.heartland.org/publications-resources/publications/research--commentary-time-is-now-for-education-freedom-accounts-in-new-mexico>.

In this sense, parents are allowed to enroll students according to a selection criteria utilized when the school is not capable financially to sustain or meet the learning demand. This is the case in countries like Spain. In Spain, schools have a statutory criteria of selection. The criteria takes into consideration the general household income or whether or not there are sibling enrolled in the same school. The criteria gives guidelines on what schools are to do in the event where there is more demand for education that the school capability.

In European countries like Italy and Ireland, schools are granted the power to decide who they want to admit. The school administration handles all matters regarding student admission. There are rights allow parents to appeal decisions made by schools regarding their children's admission. This is in the case where the schools deny students' admission. In some European

countries, the freedom granted to parents in school selection is emphasized in secondary schools. In most of these schools, students' performance is the top priority. The school takes into consideration the student's performance after completing primary school. This applies in schools in Australia, Germany, Luxembourg, Liechtenstein, Ireland, and the Netherlands.

There are European Union, there are countries that allow parents to appeal decisions made by school administration. These countries include Spain, Australia, Luxembourg, France, Denmark, Belgium, and Greece. However, with appealing the admission decision, there are various aspects taken into consideration. The child's education assessment is a key issue. Parents can appeal on grounds of the type of schools rejecting their children's admission. In the European education system, parents are granted the right to access information on the students' progress records. In countries like the United Kingdom, the right to information on student's progress records is highly prioritized. In the country, there is a law that requires schools to provide or avail information on the internal school structures such as the school curriculum, school inspection and admission progress.



INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS

Figure 5.7. Individual rights allows parents to appeal decisions made by school heads or teachers.

Source: <https://www.alamy.com/stock-photo/individual-rights.html>.

Schools should also ensure that parents are knowledgeable of how funds have been managed and used by the school. The system of early warning is used in Australia, allowing parents to be knowledgeable on problems faced by children in the learning process (Chemerinsky, 2002). The aspect on the

name warning, parents are given this information in advance. By so doing, parents are able to put in place necessary measures to help deal with the issue. This prevents poor grades among children.

5.6. COLLECTIVE RIGHTS

Apart from individual rights, parents in countries under the European Union enjoy collective rights. This means that they have integrated public policies fostering collective parent involvement in the learning process. There is a variation in the level and type of parent representation in school management boards. The same case applies in parental representation in consultative bodies. Each country makes use of a specific pattern of school organization with regards to parent representation. In most cases, parent representatives are granted the power to be involved in decision making activities more so in choosing the main Educational character. Parents are usually involved in deciding the school curricula to be adopted, timetables, teaching methods and teaching schemes to be used. In most schools, there are organizations specially meant for parents in handling academic matters.



Figure 5.8. Collective rights grant parents the right to join associations, councils, and boards.

Source: <https://www.insidehighered.com/admissions/article/2020/04/27/some-parents-wont-pay-or-are-unsure-about-children-enrolling-online>.

5.7. PARENT PARTICIPATION

Parental involvement includes parents participating in school activities. Years back, parent participation in school activities was at a down low. This was noted among both members of the European Union and EFTA/EEA countries. However, from the year 1970 majority of the countries

began involving countries in formal structures used in education systems. In countries like Norway, Australia, Finland, Germany, Luxembourg and France, parent participation began before 1970. In the 1980s countries like Liechtenstein, Belgium, Sweden, Iceland, Italy, and Denmark were not involved in the establishment of legislation bodies. This established of these bodies relevant stakeholders taking part in decision making processes.

However, the development of parent participation did not take a linear form. They meant that there could be a period of about 20 years between the first legislation and the subsequent one in countries like Norway, Luxembourg, France, and Finland. Throughout the 1990s education reforms and development of education legislations were done among most EU countries. This resulted in new statutory being developed that form the foundation of parent participation in education systems. At the center of new legislations and debates in the education system was parent participation in school management and school autonomy. Parent participation laws were established by different countries at different times. For instance, Spain established a law in 1995 to reinforce parent involvement in managing individual schools, Iceland passed a law on Grunnskóli (compulsory education) while Ireland passed a law on White Paper on Education all in aid to ensure that parents are represented in different levels of education.

The year 1996 saw Sweden implement laws that define municipal rights in establishing of local councils having heavy parental representation. In the same year, Scotland and Australia established provisions defining the role of parents in the education process (Edmond, 2001).

5.8. PARENTS' ASSOCIATIONS

The most organized manner of involving parents in the education process is through the establishment of parents' association. Members of the EU as well as EFTA/EEA countries have adopted the use of parents' association working with national federations. However, the organization of the parent associations are not similar in the countries. Also, there is a variation in parent representation as well as techniques used to ensure coordination. In some countries, there are certain factors that will determine the number of parents' associations. Those of the factors include the level of education and the type of sector. In some countries though the parent associations are present, they are few in number or less active as expected. In countries like Portugal, Spain, Greece, and Australia, laws regarding parents' association are contained in school legislation. With parents' associations, national federations

are involved in the coordination. Some of the federations involved at the European level include the European Parents Associations, Groupement International Des associations de parents de l'enseignement catholique and Confédération Des organizations familiales de la Communauté européenne.



Figure 5.9. Parents meet and elect parents who will represent them in associations.

Source: <https://www.schooleducationgateway.eu/en/pub/resources/toolkits-forschools/subarea.cfm?sa=25>.

5.9. PARENTAL REPRESENTATION AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EDUCATION

At the local or regional level, parental representation is not good as parent representatives are not present in consultative bodies. The local region refers to the national and intermediate level. Italy and Belgium have German communities. In these countries there are consultative councils at the central or national levels. In Belgium the consultative councils is called Pädagogische Kommission while in Italy the council is referred to as Consiglio Nazionale fella Pubblica Istruzione. In both consultative councils, there is no parental representation. Some of the members of the European Union have consultative bodies made exclusively for parents. For such countries, the bodies are established at the national level. The main role

played by parents in the consultative bodies is to discuss and consult with the minister. This is the case for countries like Australia, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, and Ireland. In countries like Sweden, Norway, Liechtenstein, Iceland, and Germany the consultative bodies established exclusively for parents are established at the intermediate (local and regional) and at the school level. The most unique countries are Norway, Germany, and Sweden, which have the consultative bodies established exclusively for parents at every level.

5.10. PARENTAL REPRESENTATION IN PARTICIPATORY BODIES

There is a variation in the forms of representation among the European Union countries. The variation is dependent on the political contexts under which the participatory bodies work. Each country has a detailed layout of Participatory bodies exclusively for parents. Each country has a certain number of participants, other categories of members, election method, nomination method, proportion of parents, voting rights and powers. The three levels of parental representation include the central or national level, the intermediate which is either local or regional, and finally the school level. Parent representation is low in every level in most EU countries. There is no parity with other groups except in Australia at the intermediate level (Davies et al., 2005). The participatory bodies at the intermediate level are Kollegien der Bezirksschulräte and Kollegien der Landesschulräte. For the Flemish Community of Belgium, the Participatory body at the school level is called Participate Raad, in Italy is called Consiglio do interclasse, Schulgemeinschaftsausschuß and Schulforum in Australia, in Netherlands the body is called Medezeggenschapsraad and Spain uses Consejo Escolar del Centro for the private sector.

Countries like Ireland have adopted the use of a White Paper. However, with its adoption at the Intermediate level, its utilization would be based on participation parity as agreed by Regional Education Boards. Scotland and Denmark records the highest level of parental representation in the school level. The problem is that there is a variation in roles played by parents. In Denmark, power of decision weigh heavily on the Danish School board. In Scotland, school boards perform consultative functions, among other roles. By so doing there is a production of a balance of power as there is a delegation of consent.

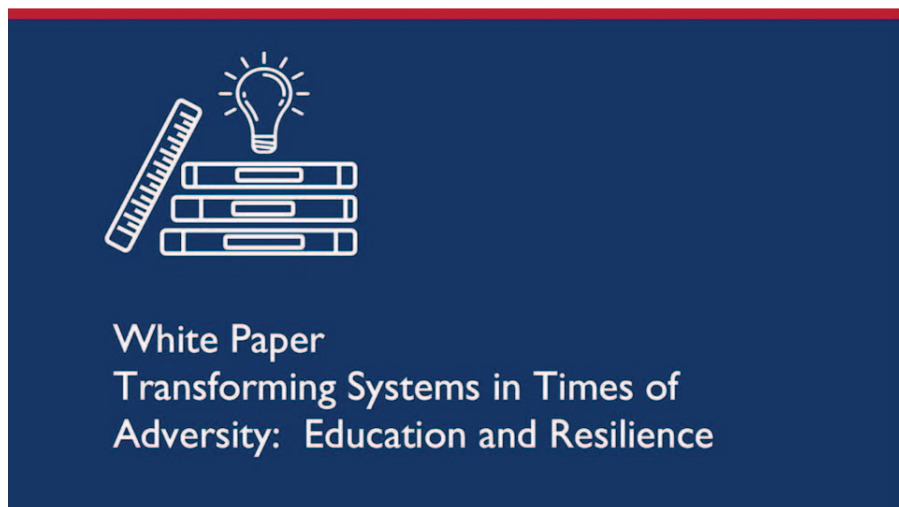


Figure 5.10. The White Paper is used in most EU countries to regulate participatory bodies.

Source: <https://www.eccnetwork.net/resources/transforming-systems-times-adversity-education-and-resilience-white-paper>.

However, the delegation of consent has to be in line with requirements laid out by Scottish Local Authorities. There are Participatory bodies made exclusively for parents operating in the three levels. In countries like Norway, Ireland, Sweden and Australia the parent exclusive bodies have been established for the central level while in Norway, Germany, Liechtenstein, Sweden and Iceland have the bodies at the Intermediate level. With Germany, representation of parents is at Länder. However, there is a variation in the representation determined by the type of local, regional or school level. In Spain, the type of school determines parental representation at the school level. However, there is an organized system requiring parent representatives to occupy a minimum of one third of the number of members of council.

In Spain, parents from private grant sided schools are equally represented. However, in Italy, parental representation occupies the minority at school level. Considerations are made that foster equal representation. In Sweden, there is a variation in student-parent representation in school councils as they have been introduced recently. Norway has allowed the establishment of councils especially for parents at the intermediate and school level (Dewey, 2012). There are other councils where parents' representatives are

the minority. Their method of selecting parent representatives involves them electing those who are members of the association. This method is used in the intermediate level. National federations are involved in choosing parent representatives at the central level. In some cases, parent representatives are selected from the local level. The method of selection occurs in successive stages and, in rare cases, direct suffrage.

Choosing parent representatives at the school level involves parents being elected from the class or school. In Germany, parent representatives at the school level those elected are members of a participatory body at the regional or local level. The issue with electing parent representatives is that there is a need for balance in terms of gender. In the 1995 White Paper, it was proposed that there should be a balance in parental representation. This led to the development of an objective criteria. This saw a balance in the number of men and women elected as parent representatives. This method is mostly used in Ireland. However, there are cases where other laws are used. In countries like Luxembourg, parents' representatives are elected through a nomination method discrete in nature.

5.11. POWER OF PARTICIPATORY BODIES

Participatory bodies may or may not include parents depending on the country. With regards to power, there are two main types, namely decision making and consultative. Decision making involves all procedures and steps required to choosing the way forward. Consultations involve one being granted the right to access information, voice their opinions and views, and look for other sources of information. The steps followed include preliminary approval, taking a decision and finally executing the decision. The role of participatory bodies (inclusive of parents) is mostly consultative at the national or local/regional level. This is the case in most EU countries in exception of Australia, Norway, and Liechtenstein. In the case of Australia at the district level there is a collegiate assembly and another at the Länder level. Both bodies are involved in the adoption of decrees as well as general directives. Their main role is to appoint principals and teachers in secondary schools. In Australia, parents' representatives in participatory bodies enjoy full voting rights. At the school level, participatory bodies are granted powers allowing the extension of decision-making.

There are two kinds of competencies with regards to decision making in the education sector. The first kind of competency involves decisions related to aspects of general management of education systems. This entails allocating

school budgets, determining the number of teaching and non-teaching staff, and identify and selecting school staff with the inclusion of principals. It also entails determining of teaching and curricula methods (Zajda, 2020). This kind of decision is done in countries like Portugal, Norway, parts of the United Kingdom, Liechtenstein, Denmark, Spain, Australia, and Greece. The second kind of decisions are those made on the basis of several aspects of the daily internal school management. This includes drafting and drawing timetables, controlling expenditure, organizing extra-curricular activities and maintaining good parent-teacher relations. This kind of decision is done by participatory bodies in most cases at the school level.

In some countries, decisions are made primarily by parents. This is because parents' representatives occupy the majority in participatory bodies. In this case, parents are involved in making decisions with regards to the school budget. They are also required to give their input on choosing a hook principals. In Spain and Portugal, the school council is in charge of electing and dismissing principals. Parents' representatives are involved in the process though they occupy the minority. In Ireland, the election of headteachers is done by the Boards of management. The board of governors in Northern Ireland participate in electing headteachers, establishing the major aims of the schools and also managing resources. The board also determines the number of teaching and non-teaching staff the school needs. In Wales and England, Governing Bodies conducts roles played by the Board of Governors in Northern Ireland. In some countries, there are parent governors. Though they have minimum representation, they are fully involved in the decision-making process. In the case where members of the school committee do not agree on certain issues with the school management, parent representatives in Greece are allowed to exercise the veto right. However, the right is applicable in the case where the representatives have sufficient information on the legislation to enable them to sustain the views they present before the committee members. In a bid to create more avenues for parent participation, in 1996, Sweden developed different types of councils. The challenge is that establishing of most of the councils has not been done in every municipality and school. In areas they exist, they pay consultation and information roles but are allowed to make decisions on certain issues.

5.12. TRAINING OF PARENTS

Training of parents is done in most states under the European Union and EEA/EFTA countries. In most cases, the training is offered in the form of

seminars or courses. Training is done with the aim of preparing parents or parent representatives to take part in academic affairs with regards to their children's education. In Norway, Iceland, Luxembourg, Sweden and Finland, training of parents is virtually non-existent. In Liechtenstein, Italy and Portugal, training is done on an ad hoc basis. To be able to conduct these training, funding is required. There is a variation in sources of funds among the countries. In some countries, funding is done by public or private bodies while in others parents' association caters for the funding. In the United Kingdom, France, Netherlands, Belgium, Ireland, and Denmark, training is funded by public authorities. In Germany, Australia, and Greece, parents are allowed to take modular training funded by the local and private initiatives of the countries. In Ireland and Spain, parents' associations organize and fund training courses. The Netherlands developed a certain legislation placing emphasis on the need for training parents to enable full participation in school council activities.



Figure 5.11. For effective participation in school affairs, EU countries opted to train parents.

Source: <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/104216178864986172/>.

In 1983, the European Federations of parents' association was established. The organization has been actively planning, developing and organizing training programmes for parents. They have also organized several training seminars.

To better understand parental involvement across European countries, we narrow down to some of the countries.

5.13. SPAIN



Figure 5.12. Spain is among the many countries that have realized the need for education in improving employment rates.

Source: <https://www.nytimes.com/2011/03/30/world/europe/30iht-spain30.html>.

As a member of the EU, Spain used the European system of education. The education system involves children of ages 6–16 acquiring compulsory education. In Spain, there are 17 Autonomous communities. For this reason the state and members of the community are involved in ensuring education is offered for every child. In some areas, the powers are shared. In some areas, all powers are given to the Autonomous communities. With these powers, the communities are able to establish their own administrative bodies in the field of education. However, there is a challenge with exercising these powers as some communities have not received the means to exercise the powers (Young, 2008). Usually the central education administration gives communities the means to exercise their powers. For those who are able to exercise their powers, their duty is to recruit, appoint and train both teaching and non-teaching staff. They also ensure that all education plans with their

subjects and courses are integrated. They also fund education in private schools. As mentioned earlier, there is the distribution of roles between the state and the community. Exclusive power is given to the central state when handling the following: creating and implementing laws on awarding students their academic diplomas. They are also in charge of adopting and applying basic directives with regards to constitutional rights in education. Both private and public schools have been established that are 100% grant-aided. Like other EU countries, there are rights enjoyed by parents. Some of the individual rights enjoyed by parents are listed in the 1985 law. The laws regulate these rights. The rights grant parents the right to decide on the school they want to enroll students' in. They can consider those presented by public authorities or other schools. However, there can be a limitation to applying these laws. Among the limitation is the capacity of the school. In the case where the school has a limited number of slots, there is a criteria put in place to be used in such a situation. There are four Statutory taken to consideration by the school such as the proximity of the school, family income, and presence of disability in the child and whether there other siblings were enrolled in the school. The criteria is used in both primary and secondary education. However, if the parents perceived that the criteria had not been properly met, they have a right to appeal.

Appeals in the education sector are taken to the provincial director of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Parents need to be keen on time if they are considering an appeal. It should be done before schools open. This is to ensure that the child can be enrolled in schools. Student admission is regulated by the Decree established in 1985. They establish the hierarchy and goals of education. Individual rights in Spain allows parents to establish private schools. They can also send their children to distant schools. Distant learning is usually organized by the state. With regard to religion, parents are allowed to choose schools according to their religion. For those who are Catholics, they can enroll their children in Catholic schools. The same applies for ethics. Learner guidance is considered as the responsibility of the parent. They are to be informed on student assessments. Parents should be knowledgeable on the steps followed during education related appeals. In as much as there are numerous laws surrounding parents roles in schools, their roles are minor.

With regards to the Autonomous communities, the status of the community will determine the type of special language provision given to them. For instance, education is provided in three languages in the Basque country while the Catalonia community offers education in one language.

Giving of provisions has both positive and negative effects. This is because they directly affects the variety of choices available for parents. Collective rights enjoyed by parents allow representation at various levels. At the national level, parental representation is mostly through confederations (Wright, 2001). These confederations are under the consultative council. They all handle compulsory education. Collective rights grant parents access to information regarding innovations being implemented at the national level. It also allows them to take part in political discussion. To ensure parental participation at all levels, mechanisms have been put in place used in the public administration.

There are numerous processes and development made to grant the 17 Autonomous communities total Autonomy. It involved decision making processes being transferred to the communities. They are granted the freedom to establish local arrangements that facilitate parental representation. With regards to legislation, there is a progression of the development of numerous laws. Parental participation is considered as a cruise part of the education system. In the education framework law established in 1985, parental participation is considered as an integral element under which structures used in the education system. Organization of such structures established under the democratic authority. The law developed in 1978 required parent participate in different school activities. This involved them supervising and managing schools running on public funds. The law on the right to Education developed in 1985 created the basis for the education system currently used in Spain. The laws is very important as it helped regulate parental participation in every education level. The law also defines the rights and responsibilities of parents. As parental representation is important, a Royal decree was established in 1986 that required both private and public schools to establish parents' association. Parental responsibilities with regards to the law developed in 1985 is outlined in the decree established in 1988. It also contains the steps to be followed in applying the law. In the decree, children rights are inter-related with parents' rights as they are in the same framework. Global reforms of the education system are covered under the Law on the General Organization of the Education System. The reform was to be done for a period of 10 years. There were several aims of the reform process, such as developing a common core curriculum to be used in secondary school, improve school Autonomy and democratization of education.

In Spain, there are different laws catering for different areas of the education system. There are laws controlling parental involvement in school administration, participation, and assessment. The law developed in

1995 allow parents through their parental association take part in school management. In some areas in some education levels, there is equal parent and teacher representation. In some councils, the third rule is used.

5.13.1. Parental Associations

There are several parental associations in Spain. It is covered under Articles 3–8 of the 1985 Act. The rights grant the associations to make use of buildings and facilities in the school premises. Each school should have a minimum of one parents' association. In Spain, there are two main state federations. Their main role is to represent all parents' associations. The confederations are developed according to the type of education. For instance association in charge of Catholic education is the CONCAPA while the one for secular association is the CEAPA. There are numerous roles played by the confederations, including providing information and parental training, parental representation, publications and lobbying.

5.13.2. Parental Training

In Spain, the government does not offer public training programs for parents. The challenge is that it is quite difficult to train every parent. This was evident in the report developed by the Education Ministry in 1994. There are instances where the government funds training programs to enable them to take part in the education system. There is a training department established by the confederations. They also benefit from financial aid given to them in the form of grants.

5.14. BELGIUM

Belgium is among the countries under the European Union. Its structure of education involved children from age 6–18 getting compulsory education. Belgium is made up of three communities, each defined by the language they speak. The communities comprise of German, Flemish and French-speaking Belgium. This resulted in the system of education being formed on the basis of the coexistence of three networks. This was done with the aim of fostering togetherness among schools administered by communities, those administered by provinces and communes and free schools administered by an organizing authority the official grant-aided network refers to countries administered by communes and provinces (Wagner, 2004).



Figure 5.13. Belgium is the headquarters of the EU.

Source: <https://www.expatica.com/be/education/children-education/international-schools-in-belgium-100225/>.

In the case of free schools, there is freedom in their administration in that they can choose to be connected to a certain religion or not. In 1989, the three communities were given the obligation to handle all matters of education. Though the duty was transferred to them, the federal-state retained its responsibility. They were to determine the start and finishing of mandatory schooling and teachers' pension schemes. They also determined minimum conditions to be achieved before one is said to qualify.

5.14.1. Parental Rights

As parents were to be involved in the education system, rights were established, enabling them to participate in school activities. Among the rights enjoyed by parents are the individual rights that allow parents to decide whether they want to home school their children or enroll them in private schools that are not under national regulations governing schools. By law, parents are required to ensure their children are enrolled in a school and have a regular attendance. Parents are also subject to the judicial authorities. In Belgium, Article 24 of the constitution allows parents to freely choose the school they want to enroll their children in. The article points out that education is free for all children and any measures seeking to prevent a child from attending school should be prohibited. The article also tasks the community with the duty of ensuring that parents' freedom of choice

is protected. As parents have a right to decide on which school they want to enroll students' in, denial of admission could result in the issue being taken to court. In the same article, communities are required to offer secular education. This decision resulted in a decree seeking to underscore secular education in French-speaking communities.

For minor students education legislations require parents to decide whether a certain type of education should be offered to their child. The parent decides whether the child received technical education, full-time or part-time special education, vocational education or ordinary education. Parents are granted the power to appeal certain decisions taken by schools more so with regard to student enrollment.

Apart from individual rights, parents also enjoy collective rights. There is a variation in parents' rights between the three communities. The variation is also noted among the three networks. Parental representation varies across the three levels. For instance in the French community, centralized consultative councils are well structured and established. Laws made with regards to the council require good parental representation. For schools to establish parent representation in schools at the local level, community education is required. In the Flemish Community, parental representation is structured at the community and local level. Catholic education makes use of its own system of service. This is evident in the Flemish and French communities. Catholic education requires parents to be involved in all levels. The German-speaking community is different from other communities. This is because in consultative bodies at the community level, there is no parental representation. As Catholic education does not follow the education system used by others, they allow parents to participate in the diocesan and regional planning. They also allow parents to have a say on the coordination of the CDPC and RPKS. In most cases, organizing authorities are able to consult parents' associations at the local level.

Education system used in Belgium has seen several laws being established to improve the education sector. The creation of legislations begun in 1970, which saw the creation of a consultative council to operate at the national level. The second legislation allowed parents to be consulted on certain issues such as teaching time. This was in 1984. There was an act established in the same year requiring parents and school management to decide on hours students should be taught (Urban et al., 2019). The French community in 1990 established laws affecting schools they administer. The schools were to ensure that parents are involved in school activities. 1997

saw the development of a draft decree seeking to define the main objective of secondary education. Structures were also developed to ensure the objectives were achieved. In the structures, parental roles and participation were defined. The years 1988–1991, saw the introduction of a generalized system controlling parent participation in the Flemish Community. Finally, the Flemish education council was created in 1993. Some of the legislation may be reformed.

5.14.2. Parent Associations

In Belgium, there are several parents' association. Some of the associations were organized based on humanist lines, while there are those established by the community. At the central and local level, there are parents' associations that are properly structured working among the three communities. In most cases, the associations are informal and engage actively in schools. In the French community, there is the Federation of Parents' Association in Official Education and the Union of The Federations of Parent' Associations in Catholic Education. The Flemish Community has four main parents' association. They include the Educational Association of Parents in Official Education, Flemish Confederation of Parents' Association, the National Confederation of Parents and Association of Parents in the Flemish Community, which represents parents in the Catholic community and the National Dutch-speaking Union of parents' association in official education.

There are two main parents' association in the German-speaking community. There is the VER composed of parents whose children are in grant-aided Catholic schools. Generally, the association handles those in grant-aided education. The association is in charge of representing local parents associations that are affiliated. There is also the EGS, an association of parents whose children receive community education.

5.14.3. Parental Training

There are different forms of training used by the three Belgium communities. Among the German and French speaking communities, there is no organized or specific training programmes used in training parents. Also, there is little concern among teachers in the need for parent's participation and creating family-school relations. The general confederation of teachers and Federations of association have developed short training modules used in training parents. The modules emphasize on the need for family-school relations. In some cases, the Belgium government funds the training. Among

the Flemish Community parents receive training. Parents come together to organize the training and involve the government. Since 1996, parents' associations have recognized the training and have been actively involved in organizing them.

5.15. DENMARK

The country uses European system of education. Its education structure involved education given to children from age 7–16 receiving compulsory education. Public education is administered by the state by local authorities. For instance, municipalities are involved in the provision of both pre-primary education and basic mandatory education. With co-education occurring and education being freely offered for students, there is no uniqueness in education offered in primary and lower secondary education. Upper secondary education is handled by the county while the states handles most of the upper secondary schools. There are rights enjoyed by parents in Denmark (Thiem, 2009). With regards to individual rights, parents should be granted the freedom to decide the school they want to enroll their students in. This right is covered under the Folkeskole Act.



Figure 5.14. Denmark shares strong cultural relations with Norway among other countries.

Source: <https://www.sciencemag.org/news/2020/05/should-schools-reopen-kids-role-pandemic-still-mystery>.

The rights allow parents to enroll their children in any school within the district as long as the child feels in the district in question or is a resident of that area. Parents also have the right to enroll their children in schools

outside the district. In the case where the school decides to enroll the child, they should do so in accordance to the framework laid down by the municipal council. Some of the framework covers school finances among others.

In the case where the school does not enroll the child, the parent is granted the right to appeal to the municipal council. Parents have a right to freely decide on the type of education they want their children to acquire. They are to be involved in deciding whether the child should transfer schools. They can also decide whether to enroll their children in boarding schools. Parents have a right to complain about certain procedures used by schools as well as take responsibility for specific lessons. Parents are granted the final decision on whether the child should repeat a class or proceed to the next one. Parents are granted the right to establish private schools with a certain number of learner's for the school to be considered for public grants. Parents should be involved in the examination process in that they are allowed to decide on subjects students will be tested. They should also be given information on the assessment of instruction. Collective rights enjoyed by parents involves representation and consultation in the Folkeskole as well as upper secondary.

With regards to legislation, there are laws put to allow parents involvement in the education system in an organized manner. In 1970, there was the creation of school boards. To allow parents to be consulted, the system used by school boards was diversified and decentralized. Following the establishment of school boards, the Act developed in 1990 saw the introduction of new school boards. This gave parents the opportunity to be a major influence in the education system. A national body was established under the Folkeskole Act in 1993.

With regards to parents' associations, the school and safety association accounted and represented a large percentage of relevant groups, including individual parents, parents' associations, and elected members of school boards. In Denmark, there is one major parent association in charge of organizing training courses nationwide. Training is done with the objective of improving and enforcing the Skolebestyrelse. Courses cover a wide range of topics, including contact with parents, decentralization of finances, school-home cooperation and Skolebestyrelse power. There are different sources of funds used in allowing project run. The individual may pay for their own training. For those parents who are members of the school board, they are involved in the allocation of school budgets and at times finances the projects.

5.15.1. Greece

As a member of the European Union, the education system used in Greece is similar to the one used in other EU countries. The structure of the education system involves children from age 6–15 receiving compulsory education. The education system is extensively controlled by the Ministry of Education. In this sense, it has established a supervisory Authority that oversees the education system (Suárez-Orozco, 2005). It is in charge of monitoring all educational aspects such as the decisions made by individuals to establish schools, hiring and managing school staff, developing if school curricula and teaching timetables according to the subjects being taught, and managing the distribution of resources. Over the, schools and local authorities have been given certain power. Education committed are in charge of managing funds allocated by the Ministry to schools at the local level.



Figure 5.15. The education system in Greece is divided into four levels.

Source: <https://www.dreamstime.com/photos-images/education-greece.html>.

Like other EU countries, there are rights enjoyed by parents. Individual rights see to it that children should get access to education. Those in state schools enjoy free education. To ensure equity in the provision of education, the principle of equal opportunity is used in state schools. State education should be compliant with the constitution. In this sense, the provision of free education is in accordance with the constitution. For parents who want to cater for their child's education on their own terms, there are private schools that charge fees. According to the Presidential Decree of 1979–104/79, the

geographical proximity of the school is to be considered when the parent wants to enroll the child in primary or secondary school. Children from age 15–18 are allowed to choose the school they wish to enroll in based on their preference.

Parental involvement is very crucial in Greece, more so with regard to student's performance. If a child gets poor grades in a number of subjects in a particular exam or throughout the academic year, parents are allowed to demand the exam done to be re-marked by a higher authority. This is applicable for parents whose children are in secondary level. For the exams to be released to the parents, they need to fill and submit a form requesting for their child's exams. The form should be given to the school head who then released the exams. They are sent to a higher authority. The results will be used as an indicator as to whether there is a deviation in the grade or the student is performing poorly. The results from the higher authority cannot be appealed.

Parents have a right to receive information from the school and also set up appointments to have consultations with teachers. They are allowed to acquire information at any time. Parents have the right to be informed by their teachers about their child's academic progress and general performance. Collective rights enjoyed by parents deal with their representation in schools. Law 1566/1985 requires parental representation in the school level, prefectural, municipal and national levels. There are laws requiring parents in every school to establish a parents' association to foster parent participation. There are certain laws used with regards to parents' associations. They are required to bear the name of the school. Also, the established association create its own statutes and present them before a court for registration. After registration, the court grants the association legal character (Shahriari et al., 2017).

With regards to legislation, the law established in 1985 sought to ensure that parental representation at all levels follows regulations under law 1566/1985. The law also stipulates the functions and mode of organization of the associations. Governing boards overseeing parents' associations are elected with regards to the 1985 law.

5.15.2. Parents' Associations

In 1945, the first parents' association was established. This was followed by the introduction of free education in 1963. The state was to be accountable for how money was spent in schools. Parents' associations were allowed

to collect money and support schools by catering for some of the costs. At the local level, unions have been established by parents' associations. They have also chosen a representative who will voice their opinions in the Municipal Education Committee. Unions established at the prefectural level. The unions are made up of federations, and one member is chosen to represent the unions in the Prefectural Education Committee. The Supreme Parents' Confederation of Greece is formed as a result of the combination of federations at the national level. A member is elected to represent them in the National Education Council. As representatives and governing bodies have to be chosen, a law was set to regulate the election process. The law requires voting to be done through secret ballots. Among the right enjoyed by parents is the freedom to join or be part of a parents' association.

5.15.3. Training

The state provides training for parents. However the kind of training is not specified. Initially, parents' schools were established in certain municipalities. Gradually, the functioning of the schools has reduced. In a bid to ensure that parents are trained, parents' associations, federations and unions have created their own initiatives that have funded seminars for parents.

5.16. FRANCE

The structure and system of education used in France is the same as the one used in other European Union. The structure of education used in France involves children from age 6–16 receiving mandatory education. In 1982, there was a decentralization process in France's education system. This was a shift from the initial centralized education. The respective power held by the regional and state administrations were changed. The change occurred in 1983. The education curricula and guidelines in France is continuously changing. The state is in charge of reforming the education sector. They also recruit, train and maintain both teaching and non-teaching staff. Operating laws and school statutes are determined by the state. The state needs to have hands on information on individual schools so that they can be able to determine the number of staff needed in schools. Regional and local authorities handle education in a certain level. For instance, pre-school and primary schools are handled by municipal authorities.



Figure 5.16. There are three education stages in France.

Source: <https://about-france.com/higher-education-system.htm>.

Relevant authorities are involved in the development of capital investments, and preliminary programmes used in the learning sector is the duty of relevant authorities. They also play a significant role in managing and running schools on a daily basis. Individual and collective rights are enjoyed by parents. Individual rights invoke student enrollment in schools. It grants parents the right to enroll their children in private or public schools. There are regulations to be followed by parents who enroll their children in public schools. One of the rules requires them to enroll children in schools found in the district in which the families reside. In some cases, there are exceptions made to allow parents to enroll children in public schools of their choice. In most cases, parents who enroll their children in public schools outside their districts do so to enable their children to learn new or foreign languages. However, they need to make their requests known to school heads in those schools. In other cases, the parent wants to enroll their children in special schools that offer music classes and European section go Ed on flexibility. Similar principles are used when parents want to enroll their children in upper secondary schools that offer technological or general education (Schaps et al., 2001).

Parents have the right to appeal decisions made by school administrations or principals with regard to student performance. In the case where the student get poor grades and the teacher or school principal makes a decision not acceptable by parents, the parent can appeal the decision to a higher authority. This gives parents the chance to prevent their child repeating a

certain class. With regards to parental representation, the rights are referred to as collective rights. In France, parents are allowed to take part in school, regional, department and national administrative levels. The same applies to the level of education. While participating in school activities, parents are given advisory roles. In few cases are parents involved in decision-making processes. This is gradually changing over the years as parents are being engaged in decision-making processes. In some councils, parents are involved in electing representatives. In 1982, the Civil Service Circular was developed. This allowed the provision of the certificate of absence to parents who are members of governing boards or class councils. This certificate is given on certain grounds. The absence of the parent should not interfere with normal operations.

5.16.1. Legislation

With regard to parent participation, the first Circular was developed in 1932. It was followed by the creation of school management committed in 1945. Further amendments on School Management Committees in 1968. For colleges and lycées, governing bodies overseeing their management was established in 1970. In France, an education reform was done referred to the Haby. In 1977, certain roles were given to parents. The establishment of education councils in different levels was done 1983. In management committed parent representatives are chosen through an election methods. In 1985, a decree was made seeking to regulate procedures followed during the election process. For parents participation to be effective, the roles of parents need to be well defined. This was done in 1985 through the establishment of a Curricula. The existence and functions of parents' associations are regulated by the same Curricula. Once parents enter the education sector, they become full-time members of the education community. For this reason a framework laws were established in 1989 defining roles played by parents. The roles played by parents in councils was redefined when the decree established in 1990 was amended. Parental participation in schools was strengthened and facilitated by a new school contract established in 1994. This saw work done by education councils improving. The developed framework required more parental participation, especially with regard to decision making.

5.16.2. Parents' Association

In France, there are four main associations the Ministry of Education recognizes. They are the Parents' Federations in Public Education, National

Union of Independent Parents' Associations, and Federations of Parents' Councils in Public Schools and the Federation of National Parents' Associations in Public Education. The UNAPEL, FFN and FAPEE are among other parents' associations recognized by the Education Ministry. There are Unions and associations established within the academies framework (Scheunpflug & Asbrand, 2006). In France, the moral and material welfare of learner's is the responsibility of the parents' association. They are to manage extra-curricular activities offered for students. To ensure effective learning, parents' associations need to closely work with both teaching and non-teaching staff as well as school heads. There are numerous councils established in schools. Parent representatives are elected to represent parents in those councils.

5.16.3. Training

Recognizing of the four parents' associations by the Ministry has enabled the state to grant the associations grants. In France, the state has invested in training of parents.' These funds are allocated according to the election results. The associations are given budgets. With this responsibility, the parents' associations are accountable to the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior. Once the funds are given to the associations, they have to use a financial plan. The financial plans are used to monitor how funds are used. The theme used during the training process is determined by the training plan adopted. Some of the plans have been developed based on holiday periods and mandated reforms.

Chapter 6

Reforming the Curricula Used in European Schools

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6.1. INTRODUCTION

Almost 60 years ago, in the wake of the Second World War, European Schools were established with the first opening in Luxembourg, which is one of the three European Union offices along with Brussels and Strasbourg and home to the Court of Justice of Europe. Approximately 25,000 students attend 14 schools in seven countries. They have a unique legal status in Europe for the children of workers in the European Union and follow a particular curriculum and assessment model combined with different European educational models currently used. It's common to call a school community a framework and this makes a lot of sense for the reasons we'll discuss below. However, the introduction of education as a method threatens to overlook the essence of practice, a collection of profoundly personal learning actions.



Figure 6.1. Any proposed improvements in the way a school or school system operates, from teaching methods to administrative procedures, are considered education reform. This identifies areas for change and highlights best practices and successful reform efforts by evaluating school reform models and conducting case-study studies of individual schools and school systems.

Source: <https://www.rand.org/topics/education-reform.html>.

As a result, any analysis of this educational method must begin with a consideration of the conflict between the natural desire to learn and the systemic effort to coordinate and regulate it. The fundamental necessitate for learners to access assets to support needs (interpersonal, moral, components, or academic) and the mechanisms of choice and influence that are at the root of this conflict in educational institutions. Education systems evolve over time, with changes to both internal and external processes and relationships. Whether or not change occurs is determined by the system's ability as well as the state of the change trigger or collection of reforms. These are organized in certain ways, in turn, to determine their capacity to act as agents of change. Changes in the personnel (caused by retirements, deaths, and power positions within the system), new financial frameworks, new accountability arrangements and duties, natural phenomena, new policies, external developments, and new asset arrays, all provide more potential for system changes than other catalysts. In other words, some of these changing catalysts are or have the potential to be more active than others. However, even here, it does not ensure or decide whether a change occurs to the catalyst's capacity to influence changes inside a system.

This is evident from some reform processes in the European School system, like the reforms from 2009 that paid attention to opening the scheme to a number of other students as well as the European Baccalaureate, system governance and cost-sharing between members. Any change or reform mechanism does not ensure or dictate the degree of systemic change, the duration of the reform, or any unintended effects (Pudas, 2012). Furthermore, some forms of change-catalysts are more likely than others to be active in causing systemic change. This is not only because certain educational approaches are more effective than others, but also because their ability to promote transition better matches the change process within the reformed system.

For example, a classroom change strategy backed by a strong motivation and penalty system is likely to succeed in provoking transformation at this level in a system with a high degree of organizational structure between the governing agency and its components. Contrary to teacher control programs, this could lead to less chance of success in the same process of change. Outsiders are operating in a similar way, as demonstrated by the International Evaluation Plan of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (known as the Program for International Student Assessment). In an attempt to build some sort of global panopticism, OECD and other global entities are making the actions of a supranational entity

visible to various national and cross-border processes, so that all parts of the system can be viewed from one single perspective. However, this requires a single surface of reference or at the very least a comparative system capable of doing so, in order for it to be considered useful. This is particularly true of a specific educational system, like the European School System.



Figure 6.2. Decentralizing the curriculum development process may result in more successful adaptation and contextualization of the curriculum to meet the needs of both employers and learners. This is because it may promote collaboration between schools and local businesses. Curricula established at the provider level are dependent on the formation of relationships and successful local negotiations.

Source: <https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/finland-schools-subjects-are-out-and-topics-are-country-reforms-its-education-system-10123911.html?amp>.

What are the criteria for the European School System to be classified as institutions and interconnections as well as a coordinating entity for a quantity of sub-systems with a certain main authority relationship and with a specific role? However, this does not mean that relations between the central authority and the schools, and between the system and other external bodies,

are continuous over time. These relationships can change for a variety of reasons, including the development of new ideas, natural development, historical structural tensions, etc.

An educational system is easy to think of as a legislative agency that informs a wide range of sub-units so that these subordinate agencies can carry on this if the governing body orders a specific action. Many other bodies are commanded by one body, all described to be system elements. This is the cohering element in the notion of a system being used here. Any real method, on the other hand, rarely works this way. The magnitude and form of control that the body coordinating has over the different elements can be performed in a variety of ways throughout the scheme. As a result, the coordinating body of a system can have more or less direct relationships with various system parts. In fact, it is possible that a number of these ties have weakened to the point that they're difficult to incorporate into the system. Furthermore, systems have internal laws, which dictate how their components are organized. All of this is applicable to the school system used in Europe if it is known that it was created with a specific goal at hand and a collection of accountability relationships to one main body, the European Union Commission, which implies that its institutional mechanisms are unique to that system.

No matter how we define a structure, any transition to it is still, to some degree, a transformation of the status quo. As a result, we must comprehend how certain structures and curricula are and have been organized. This means that the same reform program implemented in different educational systems would likely have different effects on the system's various elements and will have different backgrounds within the system. In the first place, we're interested in tracing the evolution of this almost unique educational system.

6.2. CHANGING THE SYSTEM

We must comprehend the concept of shift or modification. Objects and their relationships, as well as educational structures and individuals, evolve over time. The creation (insofar as the collection of concepts and connections between them is new) of the notion of probability in the nineteenth century, which changed the way social objects could be conceived and eventually organized, is an example of this change process at the epistemological level. Change may be contingent ontological, anticipated ontological, epistemically-driven ontological, or epistemological in the transitive field of knowledge. Two phases of transition can be described in the example

above, the invention of probability. The first is the epistemological stage, or the new arrangement of knowledge, where knowledge is generated and thus operates (Nóvoa & Yariv-Mashal, 2007). The second is where this knowledge has real-world consequences at the ontological level, resulting in new configurations, formations, and assemblages. The problem is that, unlike the physical universe, the social world is constantly in change and flux, making it difficult to claim that there are invariant rules under which the world operates at all times and in all locations, even in the most basic logical and rational sense.



Figure 6.3. In vocational education and training, the adoption of outcome-oriented curricula has frequently occurred first and has progressed more quickly in continuing education and training than in initial vocational education and training. This may be due to the fact that developing and implementing competencies for adults has become easier than developing and implementing competencies for young people still in the conventional and/or compulsory phases of the education system, because continuous learning does not have to take into account broader educational issues to the same extent.

Source: https://ssir.org/articles/entry/what_us_schools_can_learn_from_finlands_approach_to_education.

Continuous emergence, flux, and transition are concepts that define societies. Objects in the world can only be defined by their relations with other objects, not by their fundamental qualities. All of these interactions create new objects (understood as different types of structure), resulting in a befuddling variety of material and human entity arrangements; and since they are difficult to describe, definitive accounts of what is going on are seldom created. It's difficult to provide complete explanations of these object-interactions and their subsequent and temporary coalescences

because of their sophistication. Since researchers and investigators have not adequately established their tools and conceptual schema for collecting something which is both ever-changing and has too many components, i.e., it is too complex, the epistemic level is out of step with the ontological level. However, this does not rule out the possibility of offering more detailed explanations of events, processes, systems, and their relationships in the real world, and this indicates a concept of human fallibility, which implies that human behavior can be corrected. The twin elements of uncertainty and temporal evolution do not preclude accurate accounts of events in the world; they do, however, pose significant challenges. This is exacerbated by the way emergence works in the real world.

Many theorists go much further, advocating for a variant of emergence in which various formations are incommensurably incommensurable over time (whether material, embodied or discursive). Furthermore, since the concepts of the new mechanism are not provided in the current arrangements, it is difficult to predict what interconnections, new formations, and iterations of the object system would be realized. To put it another way, the relationships between objects and the objects themselves that make up activity structures are not patterned in any meaningful way; there is a radical incommensurability between these iterations (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). All discussions of an individual or a system of education over time necessitate some understanding of change; that is, the idea of change is incorporated into the human being or system's creation. There's also the question of perseverance. We would not have a sense of personhood or system identification if there was no cohering element amongst time moments, so that any moment involves a transition of person or system. And this is emergence in both its temporal and ontological manifestations: as an answer to reality's stratified existence.

Understanding the challenges in an educational system and becoming knowledgeable of possible solutions does not always equate to being able to function effectively in order to direct stakeholders in implementing reform. The nature of the expertise, skills, and reasoning that a system and those who enact its proposed changes bring to the reform process determines how quickly and successfully reforms are implemented in a school system. Furthermore, advances and reforms necessitate new and sometimes significantly improved expertise, skills, and thought in a variety of areas. This requires experience of both instrumental and affective transition challenges, as well as the change process itself. Keeping the focus on moral intent; recognizing the transition process; increasing coherence among diverse components of a change process; relationship-building; information

formation and sharing; and building engagement among an organization's internal and external members are among the strategies suggested by Michael Fullan (2001). Fullan focuses on the mechanics of how people collaborate, develop, and handle information, as well as being conscious of, influencing, and using the ideational realm of goals, commitments, and values.

Given what is learned about educational reform, systems of education and their "institutional structures" remain stubbornly opposed to change. In 2010, Argyris went even deeper, claiming that companies and their leaders are always caught up in the status quo and their own activities. Propensities to blame others, as well as self-deception and rationalizations, are common characteristics of these behaviors. Similarly, at both the institutional and individual levels, Kegan and Lahey (2009) describe a widespread malaise of immunity to change. Two key messages regarding overcoming resistance to change emerge from the work of leading change management thinkers.



Figure 6.4. Effective participation of stakeholders is also essential for learning outcomes approaches to contribute to clear and credible curricula. High-quality and long-term stakeholder involvement in the development process is the aim of outcome-oriented strategies. Stakeholder engagement means that stakeholders have up-to-date and reliable knowledge of what current and future competencies are expected and that they are able to convey this knowledge.

Source: <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/education-k-12/reports/2018/08/29/454705/curriculum-reform-nations-largest-school-districts/>.

The first is that those in positions of leadership must have a high degree of metacognitive, meta-affective, and meta-social memory. The second is

that people bring their personal understandings and emotions to work, which must be discussed in relation to work in order to understand how they affect the work process (Nair, 2019). To put it another way, workplace transition almost always necessitates more than mechanical or technological solutions. Whatever improvements are desired, they must usually be accompanied by changes in attitudes, emotions, experiences, and behaviors if they are to be sustained.

To move beyond strictly mechanistic solutions, Kegan and Lahey argue that identifying the assumptions that drive decision-making is essential. Assumptions are things we believe to be accurate without conducting a comprehensive investigation. For example, even though an organization's stated goal is to spread leadership to increase learning by students, a leader will not delegate enough because she or he does not want to give up power. She or he may assume that retaining control is the best way to keep expectations high. Significant progress will not occur until the fundamental presumption is questioned by research and the creation of a confidence in the ability of others to lead. Individuals, according to Kegan and Lahey, should be encouraged to investigate their own individual immunity to planned changes, whereas institutions should investigate their mutual immunity to the desired or planned change. It would be impossible for an organization to implement change without questioning fundamental principles on both a personal and institutional level.

6.3. REFORMING THE CURRICULA

Since a curriculum is essentially a planned program of learning, we must therefore establish a theory of learning in order to comprehend it. Learning is inherently linked to knowledge because when we consider learning and the methods of learning, we must also consider what is to be learned and how it is learned, and generally, what we are looking for in such concerns is some kind of knowledge. Knowing-that and knowing-how are the two main branches of understanding, according to philosophers. The implication is that these types of information are inherently distinct; in other words, there are clear and impenetrable distinctions between them. It has to be said that this is misleading, and that in consequence, some of these problems can be solved, by means of a Robert Brandom formulation (2000). This has ramifications for our philosophy of learning and development of knowledge and the following curriculum theory. As a result, different types of data have different statuses and priorities within society, for example, professional

knowledge (which widely defines as process awareness) receives less attention than academic knowledge (widely defined as proposal knowledge), but these value attributes are not found in telecommunications.



Figure 6.5. Any reform or change mechanism does not guarantee or dictate the degree of systemic change, the duration of the change, or any unintended effects. Furthermore, some forms of change-catalysts are more likely than others to be active in causing systemic change.

Source: <https://www.rand.org/topics/education-curriculum.html>.

Thus, knowledge is essential to the three forms of learning that have been identified: cognitive (concerning propositions), skill-based (concerning processes), and dispositional (concerning attitudes) (relating to embodiments). Cognition is the manipulation of symbolic tools (words, numbers, images, and so on) that point to something outside of itself (but not generally in a mirroring or isomorphic sense), though the referent may also be construed as internally-related, or more precisely, as a part of an already defined network of concepts. Since it is procedural rather than propositional, skill-based intelligence differs from cognition. Dispositional awareness refers to relatively healthy mental and physical routines, as well as occasion sensitivities and participation repertoires (Muthu, 2015). It's important to differentiate between knowing how to do something (or process forms of knowledge), knowing something (or, in Brandom's respect, evaluating the statement in terms of its connections within and to a network of concepts),

and articulated forms of knowledge (assimilating an action and being capable of performing in the spaces connected with that action); however, they're all knowledge in the end.

Since knowledge is converted at the pedagogic site, attributes like the simulation of the learning object, its symbolic mode, its degree and form of reinforcement, influence in the pedagogic relation, progression or its connections with other teaching materials (i.e., curriculum integration), the type of pedagogic text, and connections with other people can be suggested.

This means that as the learning object's properties shift during the learning process, the learning object takes on a new shape: simulation, representation, amplification, power, and integration, and textual type, relationships with other people, time, and feedback. The pure sophistication of possible educational forms of knowledge that allow connections between pedagogical structure, social arrangement and between those pedagogical arrangements and conceptions and notions of identity-forming and social placement can only be achieved in you, as in other frameworks, as for instance the sociolinguistic code theory or Maton's intelligence and knowledge thesis

The way elements of teaching and learning are realized is influenced by theoretical and contextual considerations. This enables learning models to be identified, such as evaluation for learning, evaluation, coaching, goal-clarification, mentorships, knowledge sharing, modeling, teaching, formation of concepts, reflection, metacognitive learning, solving problems, and training. Each of these is underpinned by a specific learning principle. This assumes that every learning paradigm that is used is built on specific ideas of how we can know the world and what it is. The various elements of a learning process are emphasized differently in these models or learning sets. The essence and structure of the learning object determine which model to use; in other words, the former is logically based on the latter. It also relies on which learning theory is selected. These learning models, whichever one is chosen, play an important role in learning processes and are part of Bernstein's pedagogic device.



Figure 6.6. Debates on what material or interactions result in an educated person or an educated community have changed the definition and methods of education. Historically, the reasons for change have mirrored society's actual needs. The belief that incremental, systemic improvements to educational standards can result in substantial social returns in citizen health, income, and well-being is a recurring theme of reform.

Source: <https://www.rand.org/topics/education-curriculum.html>.

6.4. REFORMING THE MODE OF ASSESSMENTS

The European Baccalaureate has been examining students in school systems in Europe since its inception. Baccalauréat is a concept that is used in a variety of forms in various educational systems around the world. In Canada and Belgium, it refers to a Bachelor's degree earned at a Francophone university. It is equivalent to British 'A' level qualifications in France and corresponds to the country's national school (lycée) diploma. The English Baccalaureate is a performance indicator used in high schools in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland to evaluate students' work (Andrabi et al., 2011). It is also a pre-university qualification in Wales. It refers to a specific form of post-secondary education in Spain. The International Baccalaureate Diploma is a course for students aged 16 to 19, which is the oldest and most significant of the four International Baccalaureate programs. A Baccalaureate service is a farewell address provided by a teacher or teachers to a graduating class in the United States of America.

The first of these is the French Baccalaureate, an educational graduation of French high school students. It therefore marks the end of the compulsory education cycle in France, which normally ends at the age of 18, and serves as a gateway for the next level. Napoleon I was used for the first time in 1808. There are other Bachelor's programs, such as the International Bachelor's Degree, but in France. Its most important aspect is that it cannot be awarded in a single topic.

The Professional Baccalaureate, the General Baccalaureate, and the Technologic baccalaureate are the three main forms of Baccalaureate in France. There are some baccalaureate-style restrictions that a student may show at certain French universities and it does not ensure that all French universities are admitted. Of these streams prioritizes one specialization over the others; however, this does not preclude a student from studying subjects from other streams. As a result, each stream assigns different weights (coefficients) to each subject. The Série Scientifique is geared toward students interested in careers in technology, such as medicine, engineering, and natural sciences. Chemistry, physics, and mathematics, computer science, or earth and life sciences are required specializations for these students.

The Economic and Social Series is for people who want to work in the fields of social science, management, business, or future economics. The most important topics are economics and social sciences, and they are offered only in this stream. Literary students are prepared for public sector jobs in the Série Littéraire. The most important subjects in this stream are literature, modern French language, philosophy, and various modern foreign languages.

Every June, the majority of the Baccalauréat exams are held. This is the last year's terminale for lycée students. The majority of these tests take the form of an essay. The student is given a significant amount of time (ranging from two to five hours depending on the test) to complete the written examination, which lays out the various arguments surrounding a subject. Exams in mathematics and science include problem solving as well as the writing of short essays. Students who are taking a foreign language exam must also be able to read text. Questionnaires à choix multiples (multiple choice questions) are commonly used in mathematics and the life sciences.

Students must also complete a short research project known as the travaux personnels encadrés, which is expected of all Baccalaureate students. These are standardized tests that take place in a regulated environment. The

test is anonymous to ensure equal marking by examiners, excluding any marking bias that might arise due to favoritism based on ethnicity, national origin, religion, or sex. Breadth, cultural maturation, comprehensiveness, curriculum convergence, enabling poor distinctions between values underpinning the idea of the baccalaureate, and these are the values between subject disciplines and balancing specialization demands with a more general and rounded education. It cannot be awarded in a single issue, as previously stated. As a result, all students must learn all of the subjects in a program, even though some are studied in greater detail than others. At the least in principle, the baccalaureate will give the students a start, which can serve to shape the lives and behaviors of the following students. As a result of individual and cultural maturation, they mature or develop as a person.



Figure 6.7. Despite demands for education reform and a persistently poor international performance, nothing is being achieved or changed within the educational system. Many private and public schools still use antiquated structures and timetables that were once appropriate for an agrarian society. We are producing ill-prepared workforce clones, rudderless adults, and an uninformed population as a result of today's automation and rigid assembly-line processes.

Source: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2018/09/10-reasons-why-finlands-education-system-is-the-best-in-the-world>.

Criterion-based evaluation is applied to the European baccalaureate cycle. Even if the standard evaluation systems are less common, they are not without flaws, the criterion-referenced evaluation systems. Easier to use pass failure systems, such as a driving test, than complex multi-level systems,

such as the European Bachelor degree. Criteria for measuring performance, for example, driving abilities are relatively easily recognizable, but it is harder to equate specifically with a number of different levels of learning, such as school curricula. In addition, criteria-related programs combine logical capacities and tentative hierarchies with developmental approaches to teaching students. Establishing acceptable requirements for various levels requires an average student that is never easy to decide. It evaluates the progress of students towards the level in which they achieved their learning objectives and the required skills outlined in a given curriculum (in this case, the European Baccalaureate). In addition to the standard for both oral and written exams, the European Baccalaureate inspectorate offers guidelines for assessment and marking.

Assessments can be more or less integrated with the students' learning programs. Some types of evaluation (for example, IQ tests) aren't intended to evaluate a student's learning (or the outcomes of a teaching program), so they're often linked to indicators of apparently innate student attributes like intellect (Mundy et al., 2016). Assessment at the integrated end of the spectrum is more likely to be informal than formal, formative rather than summative, method rather than product-oriented, and periodic or continuous rather than occurring just once, usually at the end of a program of analysis. Since it is better aligned with study programs, the European Baccalaureate gives designers of different curricula more leeway.

The European Baccalaureate has a developmental as well as a summative nature. The focus of the formative evaluation is on the process of learning. This is represented by the so-called A marks. The A markings reflect the day-to-day work of the students in a topic that covers a range of tasks and factors such as: level of attention and focus of attention to students; their active participation and quality of their class activity; the frequency and reliability of class and domestic work. These kinds of authentic assessment are mostly attitudinal and can be viewed as regulatory devices (i.e., control of a person's conduct) rather than learning opportunities and expertise tests.

Summative evaluation measures a student's success at the conclusion of a course of instruction. These Baccalaureate exams are structured to evaluate students' abilities in a variety of subjects over a long period of time. They are kept in uniform physical environments (room configurations, use of specific formats, invigilation procedures, and so on) and under time constraints. Although formative testing is most closely correlated with the teaching process, the outcomes of these summative assessments are the

most noticeable and public. Formative assessment focuses on providing information to teachers on how students learn. The emphasis of formative evaluation is on providing information to teachers on how students complete specific tasks. Since the knowledge presented is meant to be used directly in the teaching process, the emphasis is on how students approach these tasks and solve problems they are given. During formative evaluation processes, the assessment setting does not need to be standardized.



Figure 6.8. The European educational system is also undergoing change. The UCL recommendations significantly broadened the reach of the reform and provided a new path for our school system's growth. The curriculum design concepts suggested by the UCL multi-disciplinary expert team were focused on recent educational research results and new advances in pedagogy. Their study made a holistic link between educational research theory and daily schooling experience.

Source: <https://archive.shine.cn/supplement/education/Finland-education-system-based-on-flexibility/shdaily.shtml>.

Summative testing examines if students have mastered or not special elements of the curriculum. Summative assessments should be accurate and valid, and for comparability the context homogeneity is considered critical. A brief evaluation is the decision to avoid education and to devote all attention

to evaluation at a time when organic teaching and learning are otherwise theoretically involved. The stage in which this type of evaluation is most relevant is often determined by other variables than educational objectives, as shown by the European Baccalaureate, like fixed periods in the academic year or the requirement to report to other interested parties. Diploma holders of European Baccalaureates have the privileges and benefits of being able to obtain admission to all universities or tertiary education institutions in the European Union as nationals holding similar diplomas as other secondary school leavers in their countries.

In 2007, in order to determine its appropriateness, quality, and scope for recognition by the Member States, the Governing board designated an external evaluation of the European Baccalaureate and whether it was prepared to be delivered to students outside the European schools. The 2008 report, which was received, failed sufficiently to address both the realistic and conceptual make-up of the domestic and international relations of the Baccalaureate, paying attention to a small range of technological matters at the expense of examining fundamental curricula and evaluation concepts, although to a certain degree this is a fault to the work of the assessors (Mee & Schreiner, 2016).

The evaluators, Cambridge Assessment, said that the European Baccalaureate had no curriculum inconsistencies or grossly objectionable contents, methods, or demands. They did, however, classify one topic, Geography, as requiring immediate attention. It's worth remembering that this analysis was published in 2008, and that a lot has changed in the field of research since then. They also said that there was a limited selection of topics, implying that business-related and applied subjects, non-European languages, drama, and media studies could be included in the curriculum. They recommended that science curricula be revised and that a better and more consistent approach to the development of inquiry-based and investigative skills be implemented.

The European Baccalaureate includes a significant amount of teacher-led internal assessment. They claim that this is a possible strength because it provides an integrated learning and evaluation paradigm and contributes to its validity. Although European Baccalaureate teachers have extensive experience, they believe that opportunities for ensuring that all teachers have access to early induction and standards training are critical. In the marking of final exams, where systems of marking analysis across subjects, between examiners, and across years are not well-defined, the degree to

which similar standards can be seen to apply to all sub-subjects was also a problem for the evaluators.

They indicated that claims of actual time in the program would provide more consistency. The evaluators believed that the importance added by the internal evaluation of preliminary marks should be maintained when it came to weightings between various sections of the curriculum. It was argued that proposals for a predetermined weighting of exams that are written for oral examinations of L1 and L2, seemed to overestimate the importance of a student's oral performance in languages, especially to students preparing for university course in engineering, medicine, and science, for their overall ranking of the European baccalaureate. They suggested reconsidering the tradition of double marking, and the examiners encouraged European curriculum designers to move towards "virtual" methods of standardization, such as the use of digital scripts and online marking.



Figure 6.9. Language is the element that best describes the origin and development of the system. The schools have been established for a very special purpose. Officials who came to Luxembourg in 1953 wanted their children to have their own cultural heritage. This was achieved through the establishment of a system in which children can study in their mother tongue and follow the same standards as their country of origin.

Source: <https://education.jhu.edu/2020/04/covid-19-and-school-closures-could-summer-help/>.

In their study, they argued that all exams should be treated as "high stakes." Individuals place a high value on exams that mark the end of secondary school and enable them to advance to university, and they hold assessment bodies to high standards of accountability. Finally, the evaluators believed

that implementing quality assurance protocols established by the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) or ISO 9001 certification would be beneficial. They encouraged the European Baccalaureate to consider establishing its own Code of Practice to supplement the arrangements for applying it, which are more administratively focused.

6.5. REORGANIZATION OF THE EUROPEAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

In 2015, the European Baccalaureate was published in connection with an evaluation of the reorganization of secondary school plans in the secondary schools of Europe, for the four, five, seven, and six years. (cf. Gray et al.; Leaton, 2015). The goals of the study were to determine and demonstrate in relation to the current state the effects of the proposed new high school system (S4-S7 levels, S1–S3 being also mentioned, as both low and high secondary education require consideration for types of progression and curriculum coherence).

Furthermore, they tried to describe whether and to what degree the propositions: fulfilled the principles stated in the Conference; assured access to European tertiary and secondary education systems; takes into consideration the direction given by the Board of Governors; took into account the needs of pupils confronted with the demands of the modern world; were important, coherent, comprehensive, and provided for a wide range of options; were meaningful, coherent, comprehensive, and provided for a wide range of options; were relevant, coherent, thorough, and allowed for lifelong learning. The recommendations were comprehensive and consistent with guiding principles for developing effective learning environments. The Baccalaureate rules have been amended to allow each student to take 8 examinations, and the details of each such examination, such as the inclusion of oral, curriculums and/or written documents, as well as their connections, are further addressed. They argued that the extent that systems and institutional resources permit should be minimized for arbitrary groupings like the environment, streaming, multi-degree and multi-age arrangements.

One of the greatest recommendations was a nine-year upper tenurial restriction on teachers in European education and a loss of managerial experience to be replaced at the end of their tenures mostly by a lecturer who was not nominated on the same trajectory. This was done to ensure the preservation of the institutional remembering of the European Education

System and of its numerous institutions, including schools. Candidates should also take eight exams, according to our recommendation: communication and language (L1), mathematics, language and communication (L2), humanities, expressive and performative studies, scientific, social studies, option 1 and option 2. Students can choose between streams in both choice slots. In this route, they should only be able to choose one option from their stream (Maringe & Sing, 2014). Coursework, practical, oral, and written papers should all be included in each review. As a result, the proportion of the final total mark for the test assigned to the different sections should be determined by the subject area's curriculum material (i.e., awareness structures, abilities, and dispositions). To put it another way, not every subject should be evaluated using all four elements, but rather those that pertain to the subject's curriculum material.



Figure 6.10. Education reform refers to a timeline of major, systemic changes made to educational law, requirements, curriculum, and policy impacting a nation's public school system to represent the interests and requirements of contemporary society as part of wider social and political processes.

Source: <https://www.euractiv.com/section/economy-jobs/news/changes-in-education-as-a-result-of-covid-19-crisis-are-here-to-stay-experts-say/>.

Since this is a summative test, class marks can no longer be issued. In each subject, orals and practicals should be performed one month prior to the examination date. The following criteria will need to be applicable to coursework, oral and functional completion, and evaluation guidelines. Each assignment is criterion-referenced, with the requirements open to

students. Each criterion is given a score, which is then made public. The study should be carried out in an unregulated environment. It should be graded by the instructor, sample-moderated by the Baccalaureate office, and sample-moderated by an examiner, who may also compare the marking to other schemes. The results of the final test will not be published until the final examination result was announced. There are suggestions that can be implemented. They can, however, only be established in conjunction with a thorough understanding of evaluation and review procedures.

6.6. A MODEL FOR EDUCATION IN A NEW EUROPEAN AGE

It was proposed that the scheme has a framework of value: the eight skills. The justification for this program is and should be that it corresponds to the eight competencies which lead to the European Bachelor's degree: Mother-language interaction; interaction in different languages; mathematical ability, and basic scientific and technological responsibilities (Banks 1997, 1998, 2004). What happened all too much in the history of the European Education system is the development of an integrated set of values that are able to genuinely address the challenges of the modern educational systems while trying to develop a set of educational values and policies that are not capable of this critical task? What happened?

Theories that enable us to provide education in various ways, to recognize the citizenship of the minority group, and to promote democracy as educationalists must be answered. Things, like utopian views, human rights, citizenship, cosmopolitanism, and democracy must therefore be considered from a pedagogical point of view. Old Greek philosophy and the enlightenment in Europe are the origins of cosmopolitanism with a long history. The cosmopolitan ideal "connects a dedication to humanistic principles and standards, a commitment to human dignity, recognition of distinction and even a celebration of diversity."

Although the political culture of Plato and Aristotle is emblematic of the Ancient Greek Light, it is not cosmopolitan. A man (and a citizen is here exclusively male) is a citizen of a particular polis in the first instance, and his allegiance is not to any supranational person, but to any institutional body and anybody of citizens. This oath required him to protect the polis from attack, follow the democratic institutions' choices and contribute to their people's common good. The good citizen, moreover, was not to share or represent those living outside the boundaries of the city. The good Athenians

had an advantage over the outsider, and the freeman had duties and rights that were comparable to those that slaves, children, and women served and maintained. This is a very limited cosmopolitanism.

Even so, the entirety of antique Greek thought is not Aristotelianism and Platonism, and many Greek thoughts were following some of the tenets of cosmopolitanism. Although many xenophobic views and practices in the ancient Greek Polis were supported, they were not widely accepted. As Plato and Aristoteles wrote, other Greeks passionately advocated cosmopolitanism and refused to admit that the stranger was demonized. Traveling intellectuals such as Thales and Herodotus called for an academic and respectful lifestyle for human rights and freedoms. Socrates, too, was at least according to Plato's interpretation, susceptible to this sense of universalism. The idea of self-examination, which was understood by Socrates both in a political and personal sense and applied to both foreigners and Athenians, was of concern to him (Marginson, 2006).



Figure 6.11. Students are supposed to have a free range of choices, but the truth is more like a jumble of available subjects and choices that varies from school to school and year to year. There is an overemphasis on topic timetabling allocation as a metric for academic complexity and efficiency.

Source: <https://europeanmovement.eu/eu-education-at-school/>.

Numerous variables have helped to develop cosmopolitan notions during the European liberation, such as the rapid development of capitalism and global commerce; the creation of an empire and the early impact of globalization; the discovery and settlement of formerly unreachable regions of the world. Many intellectuals committed their loyalty to an informal

network of transnational thinkers instead of a polis, capital, or nation-state. This enabled them to think and take a cosmopolitan view of the world in terms other than the states and people. Under the effects, and especially in the early years of the French revolution, the concept of cosmopolitanism was rekindled. The 1789 Human Rights Declaration originated from and strengthened the cosmopolitan way of thinking.

These current forms of globalized thinking and practices came in different forms and dimensions. As long as they have real effects – vernacular pressures must also be taken into consideration – globalization processes work in two different ways: the operation within world markets of national governments and thus the shaping of their policies to comply or exploit the agenda; and the pressuring of national governments outside their competence on their policies. Furthermore, the effectiveness, or at least the course, of any intervention or experiment (by the state or another entity acting outside the state), is determined not only by the environment through which it is implemented, but also by the form of intervention being produced. Interventions and tests are timed such that different results are likely at different points in a country's or continent's history, such as Europe.

6.7. ENVIRONMENT USED FOR LEARNING

To learn to build a cosmopolitan authenticity (and, certainly, a European one) is a managed to learn test that involves the establishment and communication with the learning environment of appropriate learning processes in specialist environments including the European School System. Contextual and theoretical aspects have an influence on how teaching and learning elements are implemented. As a result, a variety of learning models can be identified, including evaluation for learning, evaluation, goal-clarification, coaching, mentorships, knowledge sharing, simulation, teaching, concept-formation, analysis, problem solving, meta-cognitive learning, and practicing. Each of these, in turn, is supported by a specific learning theory. This assumes that every learning paradigm that is used is built on specific ideas of how we can understand the world and what it is. These models or training sets (which include partial feedback mechanisms) place different emphasis on different aspects of the learning process.

The evaluation for learning model is the first of these models. Five central methods and one overarching concept can be viewed as assessment for learning. Engineering constructive classroom conversations, queries, and learning tasks; clarifying and discussing learning intentions and performance

criteria; offering input that pushes learners forward; activating students as owners of their own learning; and activating students as instructional tools for one another are the five main techniques (William and Thompson 2008). In other words, teaching is sensitive to students' requirements and testing information serves to enhance the education provided by instructors, learners, or their peers. The overall principle is that data on education is used to adjust education to align learning needs.

A significant feature of this model is the student's active participation as an instigator as well as a recipient of feedback. There is therefore a crucial link between assessment (forming as well as development) and learning. Feedback is continuous and is an important part of the assessment process in this context. The analysis for the educational movement was denounced for three reasons: emphasis on formative evaluation has inevitably sidelined other components of learning; as such, certain strategies are underestimated and misapplied; for example, the students who do not judge their peers' work in line with a list of requirements do not include knowledge sharing.



Figure 6.12. It is now clear that learning methods and evaluation approaches should be separated. If these evaluation methods are the same as learning approaches, the program, and more significantly, the form and content of learning that takes place, is likely to suffer.

Source: https://ecampusontario.pressbooks.pub/robsonsoced/chapter/__unknown__-3/.

The second learning set is an observation model. The instructor shapes the conduct which the student should imitate both in the classroom and in the application sense. Three main types are present: a vivid model, where the behaviors to be learned must be demonstrated or performed. There is a verbal model of instruction with behavioral data and clarification and a symbolic model, which includes scenarios and expression. Learning triggers exist. The learning capabilities of the student include: observing the performance of the teacher, be it live modeling, verbal instruction or symbolic modeling; evaluating the performance in an articulated form of display currently held by the student; modifying or replacing its current structure and practicing while being encouraged in the artifice. This model is supported by a cognitive theory of learning.

A coaching model is the third choice. The focus is on a set of phases: expert modeling, coaching as the student practices, and scaffolding, in which the student is assisted at first, with that support gradually eliminated as the learner gains proficiency (coaching involves the teacher recognizing for the learner differences from the model in the learner's performance, and then helping the learner). Coaching can be viewed as either a one-on-one or a group exercise within a culture of practice. This paradigm is more in line with a sociocultural approach to learning.

In a fourth model, learning intentions and performance criteria are defined and communicated over time with the student. Teachers do so in a lesson or sequence of courses by making clear statements and descriptions on the educational objectives (Zimmerman and Schunk 2011). There are three learner-centered dimensions of goal clarification that explain how they should accomplish these assigned tasks; opportunities for them to understand what they are expected to do; and reflections on their ability as self-led learners when completing the job. This method contains a number of methods: the definition and definition of the standard; the summary of the student's knowledge of the standard by the learner, so as to detect deficiencies in his ability to respond; recording of the students' current ability to further acknowledge them, and suggesting them (Meece et al., 2006).

The fifth model is mentorship. This enables the informal exchange of information on content, social capital and psychosocial instruments. It usually is done face to face, comprising two people whose intelligence, insight and experience are thought to be greater than the other. Five different mentorship techniques have been described (cf. Cohen and Aubrey, 1995): encouraging the learner by participating in the same event and learning alongside them;

educating the learner for the future even if they are not prepared or able to learn what is being provided to them now; catalyzing learning to provoke a new way of thinking a change of identity; a shift in identity or reorganization of values; personal illustration; and, finally, assisting and encouraging the learner in reflecting on their previous learning.

While the terms mentoring and coaching are often used interchangeably, there are significant differences between the two methods. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) differentiate these two concepts based on three distinct variations in emphasis: time-scale, method, and meaning. Coaching, for instance, focuses on improving performance, whereas coaching concentrates on the treatment of elements of life, whereas mentoring involves expanding the network. In this context coaching concentrates on immediate context. In addition, coaching is considered to take a much short time to achieve a specific goal and providing assistance is seen as a part of a long-term transition to immediate problems. The focus is on the growth of learner self-regulation through the use of effective resources such as critical reflection and groundwork assistance.



Figure 6.13. The elaboration of intercultural competences aimed to bolster the case that the European School System will benefit from making the intercultural competencies it seeks to establish clear. It is proposed that since intercultural competence is such a dynamic construct, it is unlikely to be well known across European schools unless curriculum documents refer to it and elaborate on it through similar expected learning outcomes.

Source: <https://theconversation.com/amp/finlands-school-reforms-wont-scrap-subjects-altogether-39328>.

Peer learning is a sixth form of learning. Uneven relationships between the instructor and the learner characterize the other types of learning. The premise here is that the learning relationship is one of equals, implying a particular type of learning. For example, if learning proved difficult, it is often easier to be offered emotional support by one person who undergoes the same learning process as you. The dyadic confrontations of performance in which learners learn through confrontational Interactions to test their hypotheses, concepts and structures against those who have been given the opportunity to learn; pair problem solving, where learning is made possible by cooperation between different learners of roughly equal standing, so that alternative solutions can be found in a problem solving exercise as there are two problems solvers, instead of one; and mutual peer tutoring, in which the benefit of each individual is to be able to produce their own non-experts tutoring between equals

Simulation is the seventh learning model. A simulation is a recreation of an occurrence or operation that takes place outside of the normal world in which it occurs. Computer games, role-playing, scenarios, presentations, and affective and conceptual modeling can all be used to create simulations. The goal of this study process is to simulate a specific event, in order for the person or persons involved to evaluate the internalization process, explore it, understand it and begin it, and to experience in a small way, though only feelings and emotions that would typically follow the experience in real life (Matthews & Sidhu, 2005). Simulations reduce time and remove unnecessary details. They are immersive learning experiences that enable you to improve your skills and results in ways that aren't possible outside of the simulation. Simulation is a component of learning that has consequences for many of the above-mentioned learning theories. The pedagogic object differs from the original learning object in certain fundamental ways as a result of the stimulative effect.

In the instructional model, the instructor must: obtain the group's interest; notify the students of the learning exercise's goals; stimulate recollection of previous knowledge among the group's students, so that new knowledge is constructively linked to previous and current learning; present material to the student; introduce effective scaffolding processes; stimulate the learner's performance; offer input to the learner in the form of a statement on their performance that encourages them to take corrective action; and review the corrected performance. Due to the extreme importance they put on invariant information objects and schematic changes to fit these objects, cognitivist theorists of learning often promote instructional models of learning.

The re-formation of the learner's conceptual schema is the subject of a concept-formation learning process, and one iteration of it is underpinned by an inferentialist pragmatist theory (cf. Brandom 2000). This situates information and knowledge creation within social and historical context networks. Learning is a dynamic process that can be both rich and rewarding because the learner is confronted with a plethora of facts, ideas, and opinions from a variety of sources (i.e., personal communications, emails, seminars, lectures, articles, books, and so on). The learner shapes this mass of information in a variety of ways, including partial shaping, full shaping, discarding without substitution, uncertainty, on-going, going forwards and backwards, and so on. Shaping occurs against a scholarly backdrop, some of which may or may not be tacit, and some but not all of which can be brought to light for discussion. Social, embedded, and selective learning are inextricably linked to conceptual learning. As a result, the learner must consume some of the concepts provided to them while discarding or partially discarding others. This concept-formation idea is influenced by socio-cultural theories of learning. Reflection is an essential aspect of learning.

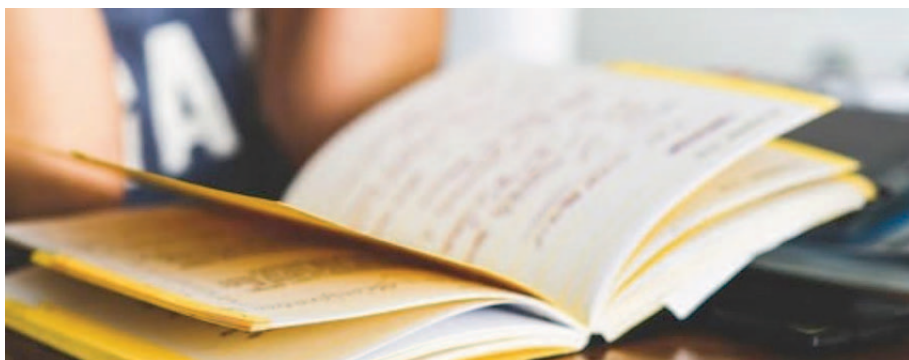


Figure 6.14. Students' leisure time priorities have changed over time, and this has ramifications for learning. The increased use of the internet, for example, has had an effect on young people's actions and perceptions, as well as how they spend their free time. Schools now have to contend more than ever before for the attention and time of young people. Many schools seem to be unable to adapt to the new demands and opportunities that innovation and technology have brought.

Source: <https://www.centerforpublicimpact.org/case-study/education-policy-in-finland>.

Critical reflection, reflective practice, reflective thought, and reflexivity are all terms that have been used to describe it. Others also tried to distinguish between different styles and levels of reflective operation, although others see these terms as synonymous and having similar meanings (cf. Black and Plowright 2010). It is not the only way of reflection that is critical. Bolton (2010: 13) describes reflection as ‘a thorough analysis of situations or events outside of ourselves: individual or with critical support,’ and reflexivity is considered a two-pronged process involving reflexivity and reflectivity, based on ‘strategies to challenge our own actions, thinking processes, principles, beliefs, prejudices and habitual behaviors,’

The following types of reflective practices are identified: intensive reflection of action, perceived as tacit, implicit, and occurring regularly in practice when people use tacit intuitive information (reflexive action) to augment practice; reactionary or reflective learning (activity knowledge) with immediate and reactive reflection of incidents which have already taken place.

Learners’ understanding of their own abilities and ability to perceive, control, and influence their own cognitive processes are referred to as metacognitive learning. The majority of metacognitive processes fall into one of three groups (cf. Harris and Graham 1999). Meta-memorization is the first. This applies to the learners’ understanding of their own memory processes as well as their capacity to use successful memory strategies. Meta-comprehension is the second. This refers to a learner’s ability to keep track of how well they understand what they’re being told, to know when they’re not getting it, and to come up with ways to fix it. The third factor is self-regulation. The capacity of a learner to adapt their own learning processes is referred to as this term. Self-regulation is a term that overlaps with meta-memorization and meta-comprehension; it focuses on the learners’ ability to track and operate independently on their own learning (without external stimuli or pragmatism). These regulatory processes can be highly automated, making it difficult for the learner to articulate them.

Instead of being given solutions to problems, a problem-solving strategy requires the students to figure it out for themselves. The learner is expected to engage in a series of interrogative processes with documents, individuals, and objects in the world, as well as come up with problem-solving solutions. Information processing, information synthesis and interpretation, and knowledge organization are also expected of the learner. Inadequate, incomplete, and unreliable syntheses and analyzes can be generated by the

student. But that is acceptable because the learning takes place not in the final product, but in the process. Problem-solving learning requires students to evaluate their work using a curriculum standard and to participate in meta-learning processes such as learning pathways, the development of formative evaluation processes, personal learning strategies and curriculum integration. Ultimately, there's the matter of practice. The act of rehearsing a behavior or engaging in an action over and over is known as practice. The learning associated with the behavior or action is reinforced, enhanced, and deepened as a result of this. In other words, the former depends logically on the latter. The essence and construction of a learning object determines which model it should use. It depends also on which theory of learning is chosen. Thus, as adopted in the European School System, the European ideal of cosmopolitan culture should be changed into a set of practical pedagogic practices in no way distorting or overlooking its basic principles, which require selecting among the above mentioned learning cases: evaluation for learning, evaluation, coaching, goal clarification and mentorship, peer learning, simulation and interdisciplinary learning.



Figure 6.15. It is important to consider the speed of a student working to complete the learning task or the pace of working against a certain standard, like the average or average of a population. In the sense that the idea is not to provide an objective description, but rather to provide an incentive to increase learning rates for the general population, is performative, Pace has an explicit normative role. Pace is a performative construction.

Source: <https://blogs.worldbank.org/education/educating-future-case-east-asia>.

Since 1953, when the European Economic Community (EEC) was founded, the European Schools Network has existed. Enrollment, funding, and management guidelines, as well as a program, are all unique to the scheme. It was initially developed for the then-new European Union to address the educational needs of children of officials who were working in Luxembourg. The diverse stakeholders (parents, leaders of the organizations, officials, and policymakers) understood that these children should be able to receive an education in their mother language in their home countries and at the same level as their national classmates.

It is critical to remember that mother-tongue communicating is more than a learned skill; it plays a cultural role at the very core of the European Schools project (from Jean Monnet's "...Without ceasing to look to their own lands with love and pride..." to being reflected in the Schools' First Objective and First Principle). The European School System's first concept is to protect the "primacy of the learners' mother tongue" (L1), and the program's first goal is to "give students trust in their own national heritage, the foundation for their growth as European people."

The curriculum in these schools is usually fragmented or conventional, which means that there are strong and consistent distinctions between the various subjects. The suggestive element of that essay is that the needs of students faced with the needs of the real world be taken into account fully; that they follow the agreed and rational principles of curriculum design; that importantly, coherently, thoroughly and in a way that allows for a full range of study opportunities for all students in the system. To achieve a positive effect, it must also be necessary to minimize established subject boundaries and to implement subject convergence and networked curriculum approaches to subsequent groups, such as students without a language section, students of particular needs, learners who speak more than one national language or who are language speakers.

Reform in European Schools must go through arcane issues such as institutions and frameworks, evaluation procedures, topic allocations and resourcing, and linguistic issues if it is to be genuinely valuable. It must take a more courageous moral stance that is relevant to society as a whole, even if it means setting the stage for broader debates. The adjustments already put in place and taken into account may seem to react to internal circumstances, but they actually stem from an urgent need to resolve questions concerning students and the social identities of contemporary students. Between the qualifying standard and occupational standard there is

little substantial difference (Krogh & Slentz, 2010). But a formal difference exists. Statements on knowledge and understanding were translated into distinct learning results in the qualification standard, while knowledge and understanding are presented as supporting all levels of performance under occupational standards. This translation allows the evaluation of knowledge and performance by defining separate assessment criteria – whilst knowledge and understanding through other activities are expressed through the structure of the occupational standard.

In many results-oriented curricula, content plays an important role. Its significance is sometimes hidden where the content of the qualification standard is little mentioned, but the content is laid down in the education standard in detail. In many cases, however, the content alongside the learning results is contained in the qualification document. Content may contain references to processes, science, work tasks, and process knowledge. This mapping is used for teachers who are used to teaching content, but who are required to reflect on results in terms of learning outcomes through the results-oriented curricula. The content description is less explicit than a non-learning specialist's outcomes. However, many teachers interviewed felt it more natural to organize their teaching in content rather than in terms of learning outcomes (which is more consistent with past practice).

The qualification standard in the Hungarian written curriculum is limited to generalized statements of competence. This is divided into various skills in the curriculum document and developed as a series of learning findings that detail the tasks to be performed by students. A guidance document is provided to the educational standard and does not prescribe teaching or evaluation. There are therefore considerable discretion for instructors and teachers in Hungary at the moment. While the Slovenian curriculum is highly prescriptive and highly granular, it was combined with evaluation system reforms. The amount of oral and project-based evaluation has been increased. These evaluation methods have been popular with students and have enabled us to assess more than one learning result in conjunction. In particular, the project work encourages education in which learning outcomes are collected in conjunction with a meaningful and practical activity. Evidence from this research suggests that some but not all of the teachers in this program rely so on the new curriculum.

As a result, it is critical to ensure that European Schools not only have an intrinsic sense of common interest, but also that this purpose is linked to societal changes occurring outside of their immediate learning environment.

Only then will a diverse group of students be able to access a genuinely valued education that meets their individual, societal, and global needs. Education is a contentious issue. The remarkable symmetry of education reform among the seven countries studied in this volume is striking. The questions they pose, as well as the opposing groups fighting for education policy, policy decisions, and policy implementation, have a lot in common. Furthermore, all seven countries discuss the same issues: equity, global competitiveness, and student success. The value of educating its people has long been recognized by the European Union and has also been described in terms of establishing a human capital strategy. One of the main motivations is to ensure that all EU people have the skills they need to succeed in a new, interconnected society. However, education has ramifications that go beyond the individual's ability to compete. Current macroeconomic research on nation-state development strongly suggests that an economy's future health is largely dependent on its workers' cognitive abilities.

Chapter 7

Fabricating Quality in Education: Data and Governance in Europe

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7.1. INTRODUCTION

Governance, like many other policy areas, is now one of the most important topics in the global education market. An ever-increasing array of stakeholders, the role of globalization, and the impact of emerging philosophies in policymaking, governance and public administration have all added to this. If the governance of complicated systems is already prominent on the policy platform in developed countries, developing countries, where the sophistication of the education sector appears to be higher for a variety of reasons, are much more interested in the subject. The reasons are diverse, ranging from governments' real ability to an environment of policy actors that is much broader than that seen in developing countries, including multinational organizations and donors whose reach seems to be increasing (Kennedy, 2002).

In this sense, UNESCO is initiating a comparative study of evolving governance challenges in the education field, as well as the changes and policy solutions that some Member States are pursuing, often in novel ways. The key goal of this study is to contribute to global discussions about education governance by offering platforms for peer learning and international exchanges, as well as evidence-based advice and policy guidance to Member States. There is a lot of necessary information from this research that pertains to fabricating quality education in Europe.

This study aims to support UNESCO's three main roles, namely

- Concept laboratory: forecasting and adapting to new educational developments and demands, as well as shaping educational policies focused on research and national priorities;
- Clearinghouse: encouraging the development, adoption, and propagation of effective educational policies and procedures; and
- Capability development: by enhancing Member States' ability to organize and operate education programs in order to achieve their national educational objectives (UNESCO, 2013).

Overall, this cutting-edge comparative study of education governance problems and reforms is designed to enable Member States in making strategic decisions for more successful governance structures in their respective contexts, especially in developed countries. As a result, this study takes the form of a comparative survey to see if countries are actually changing their education governance processes and structures. Schools are confronted with a variety of changing academic needs, including those posed

by students, culture, and the labor market. To aid them in their reaction, EU education ministers lately agreed that modern approaches to teaching and learning, as well as the regulation of school education systems, are needed.



Figure 7.1. Ministerial Conference unanimously adopts the Action Plan on Education for Sustainable Development in the Mediterranean.

Source: <https://mio-ecsde.org/ministerial-conference-unanimously-adopts-the-action-plan-on-education-for-sustainable-development-in-the-mediterranean/>.

The European Commission is committed to continuing to assist EU Member States in improving the educational experience of all students. The report described how EU support would contribute to stronger and more sustainable classrooms, improved resources for teachers and school administrators, and more responsive, fair, effective and efficient education structures in the 2017 Communication on school improvement and outstanding teaching (Iam, 2016).

The research by the ET2020 Working Group on Schools is particularly striking as it exemplifies the value of collaborating across Europe to find solutions to common problems. It emphasizes the value of peer learning among European countries and stakeholder organizations, as outlined in Education and Training 2020. This, according to representatives from education ministries and stakeholder organizations, is a critical way to promote and inspire policy growth. The report's concepts and messages are intended to be appli-

cable to and adaptable for all educational environments, while acknowledging that each is unique and nuanced.



Figure 7.2. The first meeting of the ET2020 Working Group on Innovation and Digitalization.

Source: <https://www.efvet.org/2019/01/25/et-2020-wg-on-innovation-and-digitalization/>.

In a broader sense, this study lays out a vision for school education structures that can aid in the definition of common ideals, collaboration, and accessibility within a European Education Area.

This chapter also builds on a variety of strategic policy assessments with a shared methodological context that answers a similar collection of research issues, taking into account the significant variations in approaches to governance across regions. The core definition of governance in the education sector is described first in this context. Second, it studies previous findings before arguing for this empirical comparison. Third, it outlines the study issues that will be answered in regional policy assessments, with an emphasis on identifying the factors that exacerbate governance complexity in developing countries. Finally, it gives an outline of the analytical methodology, both its benefits and potential drawbacks.

7.2. THE CONCEPT OF GOVERNANCE

While governance is commonly associated with the processes that governments use to devise, enact, track, and assess their public policy, as well as their relationships with other political players and the complexities that arise, the reality is that it is a nebulous, if not undefined, term. As a result, this section discusses the more widely used concepts of governance before introducing the viewpoint used in this analysis, which correlates governance with a change in public administration and public intervention from human social bureaucracies, where governance was the primary responsibility of government, to markets and structures, thereby providing new arenas for policy development.

The aspects and consequences of this paradigm change for the education sector must therefore be discussed, opening the way for the research questions answered later in this article.

There are a plethora of meanings for government, which is indicative of the concept's elusiveness. The Oxford English Dictionary defines governance as "the manner in which everything is controlled or regulated; method of administration, scheme of regulations." However, there seems to be no generally agreed international term beyond this generalized interpretation. According to literature assessments, the word "governance" is used in a number of contexts and has a variety of interpretations.

Certainly, the way that various foreign organizations (such as the OECD, UNDP, and the World Bank) interpret governance continues to promote the notion that governance is what governments do, and that their effectiveness could be strengthened if they were more efficient. To begin, the OECD describes governance as "the exercising of political, economic, and administrative authority required to administer a country's affairs." This term has been operationalized by the OECD to assess efficient governance.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) describes governance as "the exercising of political, fiscal, and administrative power in the administration of a country's affairs at all levels." It's a neutral term that refers to the diverse structures, procedures, interactions, and organizations that individuals and communities use to express themselves, exercise their rights and responsibilities, and mediate their differences.

Finally, the World Bank defines governance as "the manner in which control is exerted in the management of a country's economic and social capital for growth," according to one of the most often quoted concepts (World Bank, 1992). However, rising demands for good governance have

twisted this concept to make a significant correlation to the greater good: the World Bank has recently described governance as “the customs and structures by which power in a country is exercised for the common good.”

It may also be viewed as “the law of the kings, usually under a series of laws.” We could infer that governing is the mechanism by which rulers are given power, by which they render laws, and by which certain rules are applied and changed.

As a result, comprehending government necessitates identifying both the rulers and the law, as well as the different mechanisms by which they are chosen, identified, and connected to one another and to society as a whole.

In general, governance applies to all regulating systems, whether they are carried out by a state, a market, or a network; whether they are carried out over a family, tribe, organization, or territory; and whether they are governed by rules, norms, force, or language. In this sense, governance is a wider concept than democracy since it encompasses not just the state and its institutions, but also the establishment of order and discipline in social activities.

From a policy standpoint, the worldwide surge of interest in governance is more than a fad; it is an indicator that the way governments have exercised their regulatory powers is, if not threatened, at least moving into greater sophistication – even if power structure remains the most prevalent mode of public organization. As a result, policy is less about what a country does and more about how strategies are designed, executed, and analyzed in the light of the interactions of a variety of players, including governments. As a result, it necessitates a paradigm change in government conduct, which is especially difficult in the current context for developing states,

The word “governance” is often used as a synonym for “government” and is described as such in the dictionary. In reality, the word “government” in political philosophy refers to the state’s formal structures and their control of legal discretionary authority.

The governance scholarly literature is a bit of mishmash. Institutional economics, international relations, interpersonal studies, policy studies, political science, public policy, and Foucauldian-inspired thinkers can all be dated back to its origins.

Under this governance model, there is an increasing focus on good governance, which is distinct from efficient governance, the latter of which is the most important for this study.

Good governance is a general term that refers to a collection of qualitative attributes associated with rulemaking mechanisms and their structural basis. The openness of policies and public institutions to the interests of all people, according to the World Bank, is a key component of good governance. Women's and men's needs must be represented in policies and institutions, and equitable access to wealth, freedom, and speech must be promoted (Kang, 2004).

But the irony is that, due to its application within the sphere of international development assistance, good governance is a contentious concept because developed nations involve themselves with the use of good governance goals and benchmarks as a means of support conditions.

Good governance, on the other hand, focuses on the ability to address public policy issues and enforce effective laws for the organizations. At any point in the growth process, there are issues shared by nations. Talks on this subject have so far been restricted to topics related to "means of application" or rule of law.

In terms of analytics, strategies to policy have taken on a wide variety of aspects in the development sense: from the form and quality of government structures to the collection of economic institutions and policies. For example, the worldwide governance indicators of the World Bank (World Bank, 2012) relate to six governance components: voice and responsibilities, political stability, and the absence of violence/terrorism, efficiency of the administration, level of regulation, rule of law and corruption control. Democratic democracy, in fact, is also seen as part of good governance.

7.3. GOVERNANCE AND ITS ROLE IN EDUCATION POLICY

For decades, public education programs were intended to realize the welfare state ideology: the quest for a stable balance between redistributionist interventionism and consumer independence. However, this poor balance has recently generated tensions. As a rational answer to claims which were supposed to be homogenous, well-defined, rigidly and bureaucratically controlled, welfare policies are constructed under the hypothesis that education is above all the public sector – as UNESCO still considers it in its review of the Delors study.

Although education has always been a right and privilege of the modern state and a central aspect of its hegemony and independence, today

it is associated with foreign agencies and market players. Contemporary education governance is often scattered across a broad range of diverse players, changing their interaction. This is where the idea of governance takes on a radical change that can contribute to understanding how education governance is evolving and to identify innovative, even encouraging, ways for very different stakeholders to interact.

In the analysis of education policy, the philosophy of governance has become an important new theoretical aspect by stressing in particular the emergence of new players, the increasing transition to multi-level democratic structures, and an increasingly dynamic interrelation between the private and public sectors. This approach to governance is also especially important for providing new perspectives into recent educational changes.

The relation to governance in education, as an empirical viewpoint, highlights matters that address not only the results of education, but the way educational policy works. The state's hunt for a new position in education, the implications and limitations of denationalization—these developments and associated changes pose the issue of new governing forms that can effectively be answered and subjected to: a transition from a hierarchical way of government to different locations and modes of governance. In reality, once seriously studied, education is especially illuminating, and several different general policy phenomena can be explored in various ways, including their circumstances and the issues posed by them.

Whereas the policy objectives from a political standpoint of enabling or pursuing the education of people are still implicit in countries throughout the world and, particularly in the periods of worldwide lifelong learning discussion, education for all of the 2030 agenda, the delivery of education continues to differ.

Debates about government initially focus on liberal structural ideologies, such as contingency theory or stakeholder theory, in education like in other fields. These methods were designed in order to improve efficiency and sharing of governance processes, particularly in the private-sector business perspective (corporate governance). However, the strictly business method does not apply to education for a variety of reasons, even though the theoretical momentum of the New Public Management was significant in the last 10 years to reform many school systems.

Often these require a standard change of high-level assessment and school policy that involves increased rivalry between schools in terms of transfer and school management.

Education is also a difficult field in terms of government. Complication quickly arises and what is true in other areas, may not be working in education well when addressing school governance structures. Public management data reveals, for example, that public sector workers are highly motivated. Initial research findings support the theory that external benefits, including compensation or such controls, are created as a crowding-out effect of internal motivation in the public sector (Jian-Guo, 2009). However, these results about the overwhelming influence, features, and motivations of teachers show that intangible benefits, such as management structures or performance-oriented recruitment processes, should only be used with vigilance in education.

Whilst the idea of governance can be readily extended to a study of the educational field in general, there is another remarkable feature: the social aspect of education, which brings another complication – that of social involvement. Education Governance is not just a mechanism for the administration and management of education in a region, as described in the 2009 EFA Global Monitoring Report. In its larger context, it focuses on the structured and informal phase of formulating policy, identifying goals, allocating money and carrying out and monitoring changes.

Often in education, the debate on government was limited to the need to encourage decentralization. The results of the most discussions were on school-based administration, and several efforts were made to evaluate the influence of policies on the management and division of power among education institutions and system levels in order to address the capacity building requirements arising from such a trend towards increasing autonomy of schools or universities.

Governance is a challenge for all systems, from the Ministry of Education, to the class and population, not just for national governments. The government's aim is to have a stronger education system at all levels of decision-making. Very few countries are however well trained in the win-win situation to work with the private sector. IIEP research aims to minimize the expertise deficit in this field by adding to the current dialogue and delivering government professional assistance for policy and regulatory system architecture.

Different policy changes in the higher education sector so far have driven change; developments are an apt example of the funding of higher education. The World Bank's long-standing study examined various facets of formula financing systems for higher education and looked at how different forms of

policy goals to encourage access, equality, external and internal efficiency, and quality can be achieved. When the financing is focuses on production, universities' excellent results are credited, and so resources are created to further improve the higher education sector.

7.4. EUROPEAN DATA ON FABRICATING QUALITY EDUCATION

A Key Data study demonstrates that systemic and organizational changes have been carried out in education systems to reduce early school graduation rates and to ensure, in certain circumstances, that all pupils receive a basic education diploma. In this region, the most important change is the expansion of obligatory education in some countries. Another organizational pattern that results from the report is that schools and local councils have a strong degree of control to handle the financial and human capital – and the management of university employees often demonstrates a clear pattern.

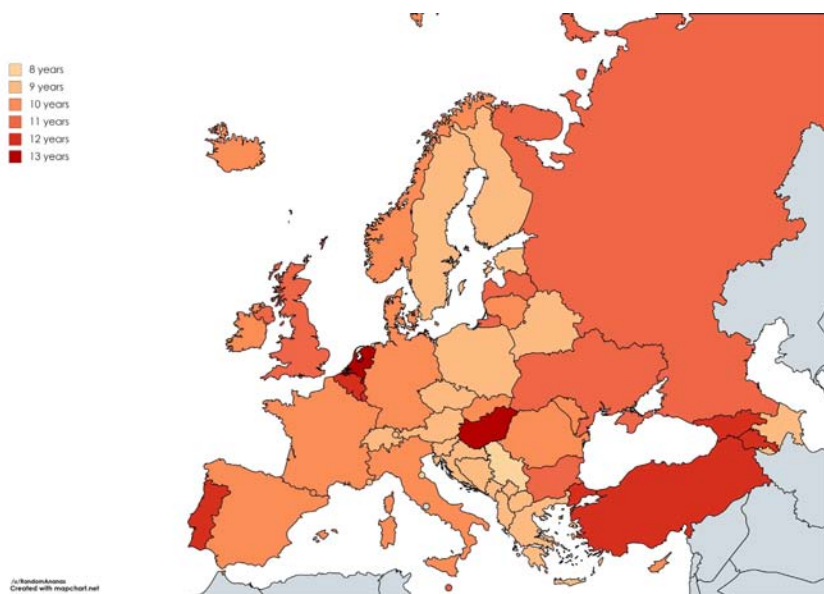


Figure 7.3. Compulsory education years in Europe.

Source: https://www.reddit.com/r/MapPorn/comments/8weajb/oc_compulsory_education_years_in_europe_4592x3196/.

The implementation of quality assurance programs is a significant tool for attaining the strategic goal of increased quality and productivity of education, and thus the education quality is being assessed progressively across Europe. This assessment will concentrate on the whole education system, or specific schools or teachers. In addition, the countries of Europe have implemented different and conflicting strategies focused on student achievement on school responsibility (Jongbloed et al., 2008).

In virtually every education system since 1980, a general shift has been witnessed towards more compulsory education to ensure the development of fundamental qualifications. In ten nations, one year (or even two in the case of Latvia) has been advanced for compulsory schooling. On the other hand, 13 countries have expanded full-time obligatory schooling by 1 or 2 years and in Portugal by 3 years after reform measures. Progressively young children begin formal schooling at younger ages. Over the years 2000 to 2009, the presence of pre-primary or primary children in the EU-27 on average rose 15.3%, the number of children aged 3 years, 4 years and the number of children aged five years by 6.3% and by 77% overall, up from 90% in 2009 to 94% respectively. In Belgium, Denmark, France and Iceland, 3-year-olds were almost completely involved with pre-primary schooling in 2009 and reached more than 95%.



Figure 7.4. A kindergarten classroom.

Source: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kindergarten#/media/File:Kindergarten_is_fun_\(2908834379\).jpg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kindergarten#/media/File:Kindergarten_is_fun_(2908834379).jpg).

Students are evenly distributed between primary education and high-school training programs. The share of university students as a percentage of all high school students, at EU-27 levels, rose by 5.5% points between 2000 and 2009, to 50.4% in 2009. This can be illustrated in part by the criteria for a general studies degree and not for a further university studies professional certificate. In almost every European country, male involvement in vocational training was higher.

In Europe most 15-year-olds go to schools with minimal drop outs. Compared to 2003, the medium size of the school rose by 50 to 100 students in the half of all countries studied. In Belgium (German-speaking community), Austria and Poland, though, a decline of more than 70 students per school is observed. As a rule, the number of students in the very big schools category decreased significantly between 2003 and 2009.

In 2009, in primary and secondary education, the ratio of students/teachers in Europe was 14:1 and 12:1. The proportion of pupils per primary education teacher and secondary school pupils has fallen in two thirds since 2000. The limit of classroom sizes rules were not substantially changed in the same timeframe

In 2009, almost 90% of Europeans aged 17 years already attended school and, over the last 10 years, post-obligatory education attendance rates have increased or been steady. Bulgaria, Malta, and Romania were among the most relevant countries in recent decades with the lowest turnout one and two years after completion of compulsory education in 2000. In 2009, though, the enrolment rate in those countries was already below 80% one year after the conclusion of compulsory schooling.

About the fact that there is a general shift in Europe toward greater school independence, there are still major gaps between countries. While a third of countries give schools greater control in handling financial and human capital, a small collection of nations – Germany, Greece, France (primary education), Cyprus, Luxembourg (primary education), Malta, and Turkey – give schools little to no discretion in this field.

In some countries, schools are more likely to be granted autonomy than in others. Schools have greater latitude in handling financial expenditures than capital expenditures, and judgments on teaching personnel management are normally made at the school level, while those about capital expenditures are usually made at the state level (Jones et al., 2010).

Those pertaining to the role of school principal are often under the supervision of a higher education jurisdiction. The acceptance mechanism

for schools is getting more fluid. Although pupils in public schools are usually assigned to a single school, a growing number of countries allow parents to seek an alternate school at any time during the enrolment process or after a planned school has surpassed its full enrolment potential.

Schools, on the other hand, provide much greater flexibility in daily educational practices, such as the selection of instructional strategies and curriculum, the grouping of students for learning activities, and the establishment of internal evaluation. Teachers are more interested in decisions about instructional practices, internal evaluation standards, and textbook selection in schools than they are in judgments about student classification.

In recent years, school and teacher evaluations have received more attention. Schools are assessed publicly, by an inspectorate, and individually, by school employees and, in some cases, some members of the school population, in the vast majority of countries. Individual teacher assessment has recently been adopted or expanded in many countries (Belgium [Flemish Community], Portugal, Slovenia, and Liechtenstein), often as part of a broader educational performance evaluation scheme.

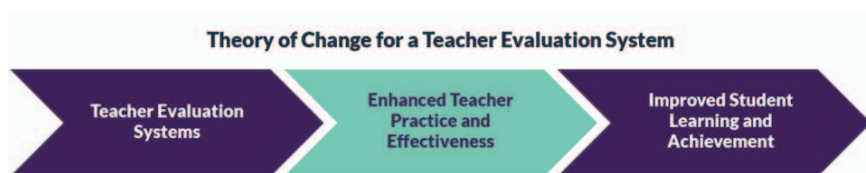


Figure 7.5. Theory of change for a teacher evaluation system.

Source: <https://www.frontlineeducation.com/teacher-evaluation/>.

Until 2008, the European Union kept spending about 5% of its GDP on education. Moreover, though overall public education spending as a percentage of GDP in the EU-27 stayed constant between 2001 and 2008, per-student spending rose.

Expense per pupil rises in tandem with educational attainment. The average annual cost per secondary school pupil (ISCED 2 to 4) in the EU is greater than that of primary school pupils (PPS EUR 6 129). (ISCED 1, PPS EUR 5 316). In the EU, the total cost per student in tertiary education was almost double that of primary school students. Education continues to get only a small amount of private support. Given that the majority of children

join public schools. The percentage of private funding in most countries is largely dictated by strategies for funding curriculum-oriented pre-primary schooling and tertiary education, i.e., when and how much tuition is paid by pupils and students.

On average, European Union countries devote 6.4% of their overall budget spending to direct public-sector funding for pupils and students at all levels of education. Furthermore, family allowances and government benefits are popular ways to help families of school-aged children.

Over the last decade, a growing number of countries have implemented various forms of fees for tertiary education students. Around the same time, providing tailored financial assistance to specific students mitigated the impact of universal administrative and/or tuition fee-charging systems.

In 2010, 79% of young people aged 20–24 in Europe successfully finished upper secondary education (ISCED3), highlighting the increasing trajectory seen in Europe since 2000. Since 2000, the overall percentage of EU citizens with a tertiary education has risen across all age classes.

Despite the fact that the number of tertiary graduates is increasing, a rising proportion of them continues to be overqualified for the jobs they find. More than one out of every five tertiary graduates is overeducated for their role, and this number has risen since 2000.

Graduates of tertiary education transition into the labor market two times faster than those with just a high school diploma. At the European Union level, the total time it took people with tertiary degrees to get their first substantial job was just 5 months, close to 7.4 months for those with upper secondary experience, and up to 9.8 months for those with lower education levels. Finally, though it has reduced since 2000, a gender disparity in the job rates of higher education graduates still exists to the detriment of women. Despite the fact that women outnumber men in virtually every academic sector, they are much more likely than men to be unemployed (Hu et al., 2014).

The decline in the birth rate in most European Union countries is reflected in the demographic pattern of the population below 30. (EU-27). The overall number of young people under 30 in the EU-27 has fallen by 15.5% in the last 25 years, from 204.3 million in 1985 to 172.6 million in 2010.

During this time, all of the age ranges studied have seen an average decrease. The 10–19 age group has the highest rate of decline (22%), led by the 0–9 age group (16%), and the 20–29 age group has the lowest rate of

decline (12%). (8.7%). Around 1985 and 1990, the population of the EU-27 in the 20–29 age group grew slightly. Following this rise, there was a long stretch of recession that lasted until 2010. Throughout the comparison era, the 10–19 age group saw a steady decline. The 0–9 age range saw a small rise of 1.9% over the last five years of the comparison era, after a decrease from 1985 to 2005.

In 2010, the EU's population under 30 accounted for 34.4% of the total population. In comparison to 2007, this was a 0.9% decrease (Eurydice, 2009a). The overall percentage of the highest age demographic (young adults aged 20 to 29) has decreased from 13.3% to 13.1% during the same time span. In 2010, the 10-to-19-year-old age group accounted for 11% of the overall population, down 0.6% from 2007. Just the percentage of children aged 0 to 9 years old was marginally higher (10.4%) in 2010 than in 2007. (10.3%).

In 2010, there was no major difference in the proportion of young people under the age of 30 amongst European countries.

Only a few countries were significantly different from the EU average. Turkey has the highest proportion of young people under the age of 30 in relation to the overall population, with 52.2%. However, in 2010, the percentage was 3.1% smaller than in 2007. Young people made up more than 40% of the population in Ireland, Cyprus, and Iceland. In 2010, Italy has the lowest percentage of young people under 30 (29.9%), followed by Germany (30.9%) and Greece (29.9%). (31.9%).

7.5. EDUCATION DECENTRALIZATION IN SOUTHERN EUROPE

The state creates the association of schools and curricula in Southern Europe, general education organization (GEO) and the role of the legal workers, thus retains oversight over the education systems overall roles and policies. However, a modern model of state, which reduces central government, and share more authority and responsibilities between local authorities on the federal, provincial and municipal levels, challenges conventional state hegemony on the management of the education system.

Centrals and district education departments and administrative facilities, have been split into school administration. Schools have an operational, professional, management and administrative sovereignty in principle. The Italian education sector, for instance, has been undergoing several attempts

since 1997 to reorganize schooling as per neo-management and capitalist dogmas. Global competition has been gradually used as the basis for a project that focuses on three foundations to streamline the education sector:

- The creation of training practitioners as “managerial” and “entrepreneurial” matters; and
- The development of a new assessment mechanism to assess the outcomes of the educational system;
- The shift from authoritarian to greater control and decentralization.

In 1999, schools were given expanded independence by presidential decree which entrusted each educational institution – a single school, an elementary school or a school network – with the task of coordinating teaching and learning activities which can, for example, take shape in particular projects designed to completely meet families’ needs.

In each region, three national organizations, the National Institute for Education Evaluation (INVALSI), the Educational and Research Institute for National Documentation (INDIRE) and the Regional Institutes for Educational Research (IRRE) are operating and provide technical support as well as programs such as professional development education. Educational infrastructure, local economic and social affiliates, family or other partnerships, and charitable donors are also the main players.

Private sectors have long been present in southern Europe, and in recent years, there has been little substantial increase in the private education market. Education management is characterized by a fluctuation of public-private frontiers, as the government is providing private-sector financing, and private-sector-inspired governance structures are profoundly penetrating the public sector, in particular transparency and pupil learning management. The government participates in public sector administration to the same degree as in the sponsored private sector (Heward et al., 2006).

However, in a setting marked by reform, both the public and private sectors are regulated. In Italy, religious or secular private schools. The bulk is secular, with less standard instruction and more laxness than public schools. There are a lesser number of private religious colleges, but due to their links with the Catholic Church, they are abler to exert strain on the political establishment.

The global tension over the last decade has brought in two political changes. Firstly, it gave private schools the potential, with the prospect of increasing public funds, of completely integrating into the national

education system. Second, they were decreased by loosening of regulation and accreditation standards in order to gain funds. These reforms have affected religious schools disproportionately, giving them new content and symbolic acknowledgement. Deregulation in this case did not lead to an increase in public/private rivalry, which could boost quality, production, and transparency- but afterwards, government power of private schools was weakened. Policies seem to be designed to support the rapidly unable private sector. The increasing need for government funding has placed heavy pressure on both center-left and center-right coalitions of the religious elite and the Catholic campaigns.

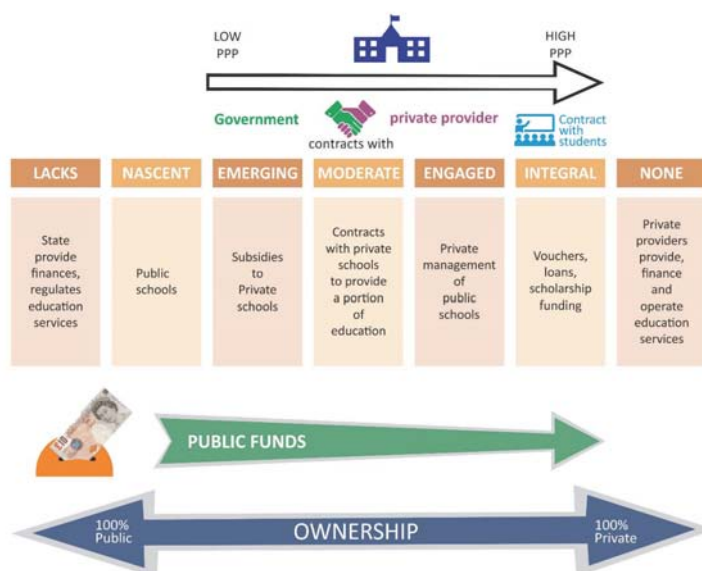


Figure 7.6. Spectrum of Public-Private educational provision.

Source: <https://mastercardfdn.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Public-Private-Partnerships-FINAL-1.pdf>.

The Spanish system has three categories of schools: regular public schools, government supported schools, and private schools. These schools derive much of their economic services directly from the State in order to offer compulsory and post-compulsory schooling and are most often religious. As in Italy, Spanish Catholic communities play a significant role in morphing the country's education policy. Analysis of the division of power into the management of education indicates the tremendous importance of the Catholic Church, which, as government funded Catholic schools fear losing grafts, rallies politically quite often.

Private educators have, however, segmented into conventional Catholic schools in the last few years. 53.2% of private schools for the 1999/00 school year was faith based (mainly Catholic); this fell to 41.5% in the 2004/05 school year. The Madrid area exhibited a consistent decline, as 44.2% of private schools (civil or religious) in 1999/00 reported as non-profit organizations, compared to only 34.3% in 2004/05.

The influence of international and regional organizations has been discussed, but in relation to Southern Europe and the countries around the Mediterranean, it is apparent that the interactions are purely on the basis of the state's dependency on these organizations.

In Southern Europe, the OECD has predominantly had a significant impact on the governance of secondary education – through the analytical PISA studies. A hot debate on the advancement of school autonomy, curricular reform and the implementation of a national testing framework for evaluating student performance by standardized assessments was initiated in the countries under study, with lesser outcomes from the Spanish and Italian pupils compared to the OECD median. The EU's secondary education governance in Southern Europe has had very little effect.

Generally, in Europe, education structures are diverse and work at domestic, state and local levels (vertical). Schools both operate as separate organizations and link to each other or other forms of organization (horizontal interaction). The basic structure of each educational system is characterized by the policy instruments and interventions used, and by the power and contact distribution of the participants at various stages of the system.

National governments are gradually passing further authority to the local level and retaining responsibility for the consistency of the entire structure in terms of production, efficiency, and equity. Different forms of funding can include national policy processes. They use direct measures such as laws or indirect measures, for example, mechanisms that can be tailored to local situations (Gough, 2013).

Interaction across various governance levels promotes knowledge sharing and curriculum growth. Policy supports diversity and integration but also enables versatility in addressing the varied demands of students in and outside of formal education in classrooms. In order to do this and create mutual responsibility and transparency, the policymaking should include all related stakeholders.

Furthermore, programs require high-quality feedback mechanisms and a knowledge flux to promote scientific proof intervention in order to progress

efficiently and to support schools in their growth. They are both important for all participants to be motivated and involved in the promotion of progress.

The main focus of school educational policy should be on enhancing the perceptions and results of all learners. It is therefore cautious to look at what is required at the school level and at the same time, at the policy level, the requirements.

Understanding schools as a learning environment is focused on cooperation and coordination between horizontal and vertical connectivity and specifically responds to the complexities of uncertainty and change. It can be between countries, schools, or between a school and a broader society where horizontal links exist. They may be formally or more informally based. Vertical relations, as between a school and the inspectorate, are also bureaucratic. In these ties, there are degrees of jurisdiction that can change the way the job is started and done.

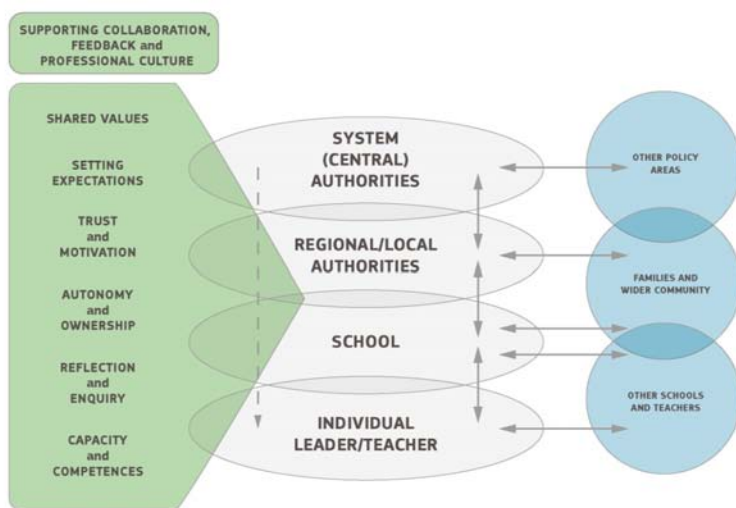


Figure 7.7. Vertical and horizontal relationships within school education systems with an approach to governance.

Source: <https://www.schooleducationgateway.eu/downloads/Governance/2018-wgs6-Full-Final-Output.pdf>.

Reinforcing and leveraging these contacts allows organizing joint knowledge to consider and respond to what takes place in various areas

of the system. For this reason, networks and feedback loops are essential structures. In order to guarantee continuity and legacy of education policy, a learning framework encourages a long-term step-by-step approach to the advancement of school education with pilot, consideration, and reviews.

The position of the central government in Europe is heavily focusing on promoting and encouraging local reform instead of prescribing it.

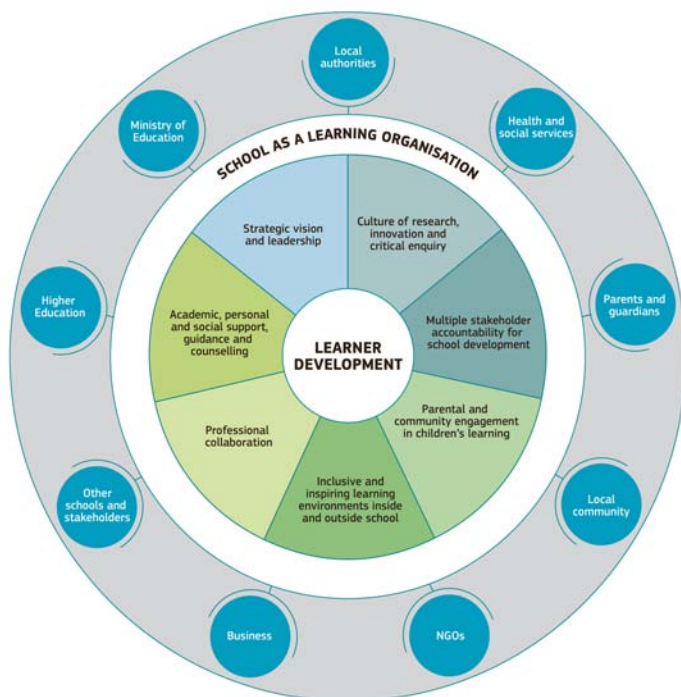


Figure 7.8. The different elements of schools as learning organizations. This was developed in several contexts: the thematic work on Teachers and School leaders using a similar OECD/UNICEF (2016) model; the Study on Supporting school innovation across Europe (European Commission 2018); and Working Group discussions on the aims and activity of education systems.

Source: <https://www.schooleducationgateway.eu/downloads/Governance/2018-wgs6-Full-Final-Output.pdf>.

Via local community learning, networking, and continuing professional growth, teachers and scholar leaders will strengthen didactical and organizational activities. Developing the capacities and roles of teachers and leaders in schools is important for schools to have a consistent strategic view

and leadership that leads and promotes teaching and learning entirely. Such schools are not isolated; they are integrated and integrated into a structure of teaching through which policymakers can benefit from changes in and outside the schools.

Fabricating quality education is done by putting into action the education policies meant to enhance education and the learning system overall. A procedure then starts as a sequence of investigation and decision-making based on the data. This cycle depends on acting and ingenuity of stakeholders within the scheme, their cooperation, their trust and their congruence with other efforts (Furlong, 2005).

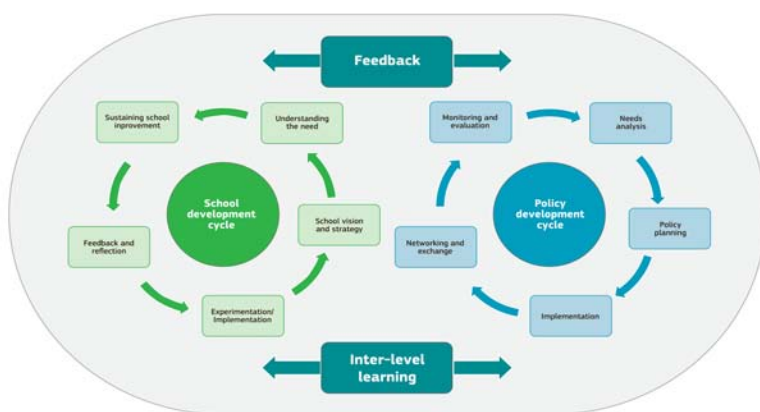


Figure 7.9. The twin cycles (processes) of development at school and system level, designed from the Study on supporting school innovation across Europe (European Commission 2018).

Source: <https://www.schooleducationgateway.eu/downloads/Governance/2018-wgs6-Full-Final-Output.pdf>.

Fabricating quality education involved putting policy into action and through good and effective governance. Some of the main thematic areas of policy development are listed below and may help us understand the data and governance in Europe.

7.6. QUALITY ASSURANCE

Fabricating quality in education involves quality assurance. There is a need for more cohesion and alignment in quality assurance – that is, the

successful dynamic of internal and external quality assurance systems (tools, procedures, and actors) – to ensure that they better support school growth and creativity while still allowing schools to respond to evolving learner needs.



Figure 7.10. Quality assurance approach.

Source: https://www.measureevaluation.org/prh/rh_indicators/service-delivery/quality-of-care/quality-assurance-approach.html.

National or geographic school tests, as well as large-scale learner assessments, are examples of external processes. Internal processes can include school self-evaluation, personnel evaluation, and learner evaluation in the classroom. The functions of these pathways are distinct but compatible.

They should, in theory, be part of a unified, coordinated strategy in which the various processes complement and strengthen one another. They can collect information on topics such as school environment, student well-being and career development, productive teaching and learning, and the effects of technology. Accountability requires quality assurance, and well-functioning educational institutions have processes in place to help and align vertical and lateral, internal and external oversight.

7.7. CONTINUITY AND TRANSITIONS

Learner paths can become broken in a variety of ways, putting students at risk of underachievement and dropping out. Transitions between stages and categories of schools must be carefully considered since they may be a source of difficulties or show signs of other problems. Learners can experience diverse forms and environments of learning that can have a positive effect on their progress if these pathways are properly adaptive and have adequate feedback and encouragement (Edmond, 2001). Student learning assistance can be formal or informal, and it can take place within or outside of the

classroom. Regardless of the context, each learner's main goals must be balanced by a consistent policy 'vision' and action. This is to assist them in acquiring the requisite expertise, abilities, and habits. For an active role in general societal work and life – now and in the future simultaneously, the aim is to promote the individual's personal growth and interactions with others, considering their interests and drawing on their strengths.

There are important ways that political action can support sustainability in the development of students: connecting transition areas between educational levels and fostering change between education types; efficient data generation and exchange with appropriate channels (how to measure and communicate); and appropriate use and reporting of data analyzes by various actors. As a scheme, being "inclusive" does not imply adopting a standardized solution to all students. Individualizing instruction for all students is a foundation for inclusiveness. It's also important to engage in specialized support for students who have special needs, such as dyslexia or ADHD.

7.8. TEACHERS AND SCHOOL LEADERS

Teachers and administrators in schools are crucial to the school's learning process. However, schools are organized, and pupils are essentially reliant on their skills, regardless of curricula production of adults to whom they are trusted with know-how, power, motivation, and creativity. This privileged duty will inspire teachers, but it is not simple and demands on society and the government. There will be a conflict between, on the one hand, teachers' freedom and school leaders' obligation, and, on the other, their responsibilities.

Although placed within a national or state governance structure for the education sector, teachers and school administrators serve in their local setting eventually. They have a true and immediate working environment, which also applies to the wider community, including parents and employers and assistance programs, outside the classroom. Policies should also strive to allow them to develop and promote team development and teamwork among all the employees in these environments with a focus on peer learning and shared leadership. The vast array of policies and rules which form these professionals' work environment and efficiency extend beyond curricula, guidance on the student assessment or school financing. It also requires initial educational training, recruiting, career and career paths, all of which are impossible if thought of alone. The identity of teachers

and school administrators in person and together is often important. If teachers and school administrators are confident and valued and completely incorporated into the broader education community, they will work together more effectively and strengthen the system locally and perhaps outside it.

7.9. NETWORKS

Networks are an instrument for promoting and supporting school growth for various agents and layers of school education systems – politicians, schools, school officials, teachers, and stakeholders. These parties can help discuss and perhaps overcome collaborative and scalable challenges related to the education of young people. They are vital places for mutual responsibilities.

Understanding how these specialist networks operate and defining key components will further achieve network aims, recognize networking opportunities through school education systems, and lead to a broad and integrated culture of education. This community values – and depends on – faith, inspiration, confidence, connectivity, vital (self) reflection and communication (Edmond, 2001). In particular, at the school level, it depends on teachers' adequate conditions and rank and recognition of their demanding existence. For your sake, networks do not exist: they rely on reciprocity and behavior that is geared towards common interests. It is necessary to make use of facts to ensure that policy has the greatest potential effect on its production and growth.

This next section addresses the evolving dynamics of European education governance. It would be prudent to discuss the building of the European educational space as one of a shared community, primarily established in the 1980's and 1990's, and the evolving environment for European education policies since 2000 and the Treaty of Lisbon. The section examines the changing discourses and traditions in the way the Commission has harmonized with education and addresses the causes why the instruments and resources for the governance of the European education area are viewed as a significant change.



Figure 7.11. Signing in the Jerónimos Monastery of Lisbon, Portugal.

Source: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Lisbon#/media/File:Tratado_de_Lisboa_13_12_2007_\(04\).jpg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Lisbon#/media/File:Tratado_de_Lisboa_13_12_2007_(04).jpg).

While education is at the heart of the wider Community agendas, it paved the path to unification, not just at conceptual and conversational level but also through political collaboration, mobilization of networks, alliances, and a number of actors in education in Europe. In the 1980s, new Community Higher Education and Training programs would be developed. The Erasmus program is named after the well-passed philosopher, theologian, and universalist Erasmus of Rotterdam, and is possibly the sign that European cooperation in the field of education has become the best known of Europe's university students.

As there was no legal base for a particular cultural policy, many informal 'cultural activities' have been justified because they are economically relevant to the growing field of culture (Forrest, 1994). Most notable developments of the 1980s were the resolution of the European Council, a Committee for a People's Europe. As part of the project to develop Europe, the committee provided two important findings with proposals included improving the cultural sector in Europe and the mutual acceptance of equal diplomas and credentials. Reports state that: 'the assistance for the promotion of Europe will and must be pursued by means of intervention in the cultural

and communications sectors important to the identity of Europe and its image in the minds of its citizens.’ The founding of a European Academy of Science, European Sport Squads, Schools, volunteer work camps and the implementation of a greater European dimension of education, including the ‘processing and access to suitable school books and educational materials, have been suggested. There have been proposals for this project. Ironically, supranational Europe underwent a significant state-building phase.

The Treaty of Maastricht was a culmination (mainly), in a string of political initiatives at Community level in the 1980s, such as the issuance of a single European passport, abolition of all customs and police officials, as well as the creation of a single flag, European anthem, European sportive teams and the creation of euro (European Council Meeting, Fontainebleau, 1984). In particular, the Treaty on European Union was first recognized as an inherent part of the unification process as education and culture.



Figure 7.12. Group photo of the Fontainebleau European Council (Fontainebleau, 25 and 26 June 1984).

Source: https://www.cvce.eu/en/obj/group_photo_of_the_fontainebleau_european_council_fontainebleau_25_and_26_june_1984-en-02f798e7-0637-41cf-a7dd-6a48c3fafc05.html.

In the current arrangement, vocational training has been slightly reduced as its special status has been lost and has been part of the broader context for cooperation between schooling, culture, and social work. Even if this

movement began in the 1980s, it was the first decisive step in the transition from the ‘technocrats’ Europe to a ‘peoples’ Europe.’

While Articles 126 and 127 of the Treaty on European Union state that no harmonization of EU school systems and no common European design of education would be advocated, there was much greater financial support for activities such as language learning, exchanges of young people, partnership between educational institutions, and, in particular, student movement.

In reality, the Union seemed to be in serious trouble at the beginning of the 1990s. The hierarchical management no longer seemed to be appealing with its administrative and core character. Again, the unifying myth was necessary in Europe. The CFP does not seem to explain the European initiative – education could become a key element in creating ‘the Europe of the People’s,’ to ‘make people more conscious of their European identity before a European cultural region was established’ (Dewey, 2012).

Europeanization has identified some of the most important carriers of a shared European identity in the areas of education and culture. I am not referring to the legislative mechanism for closer cooperation between education systems across Europe. Instead, I mean all those factors that steadily change the way Europe is portrayed, theoretical and tangible, formal and informal, person and collective. These were not just the official and informal interpretations promoted by the Union or by the Member States.

For starters, the Erasmus program was still very popular by 1992, so it was intended that in the 1990s, there were hundreds of thousands of students exchanged across Europe. Europe was not just a theory; it was a fact for thousands of Europeans’ educational encounters and interactions. However, what will make the inhabitants of Europe different from those of the more globalized environment on other continents? The response was given by the Maastricht Treaty that the idea of “European citizenry” was to become the new definition of unification for the people of Europe who were now part of this sui-generis programme, apart from being nationalists, – the production of the European ‘community.’



Figure 7.13. The ERASMUS PLUS Programme.

Source: <https://ied.eu/blog/the-erasmus-plus-programme/>.

In the context of creating the space of European education, ‘research’ and ‘the information community’ quickly were to be the current prevailing rhetoric. While there was a strong interest in assessing educational success through numerical measures back in the mid-1970s, the idea of metrics and optimization received specific support from European education ministers at the meeting held in Prague for the first time in 1999. The Ministers passed a resolution on new collaboration strategies in education and training to enhance the “continuity, quality, and performance of education in Europe.”

They emphasized the need for a more comprehensive system to both Community action and an organized civic debate and events process in the years ahead. The conference concentrated on the quality of education in schools; the policymakers voted to create a national technical committee to draw up a list of quality benchmarks for school education in Europe. The 16 quality assurance metrics prepared by the Expert Committee were not drawn up at all (Davies et al., 2005).

They were based on triangulation of current evidence that was considered valuable at this moment; in a way, much work has already been done to develop the latest quality control system for European education. The coordinating of results, organizations, and minds on the demands of the modern information economy has now been important. The Bolognese method (1999), with the implementation of a streamlined scheme of more

straightforward and equivalent degrees across Europe, is designed to achieve a coherent and compatible European area of higher education before 2010.

This will include converging national programs under a shared Bachelors and Masters Setting. Furthermore, it was necessary to take into account the European Transfer and Accumulation Credit System (ECTS), which was previously designed for the needs of the Erasmus program and also the European quality assurance cooperation. The adoption of the Bologna Declaration was subject to a medium-term initiative

Nevertheless, the Lisbon Council of 2000 was the pivotal moment for a greater commitment in establishing standards for educational systems in Europe. The Lisbon Council was, however, notable for one other reason: the first time that the Council promoted the need to converge European education systems, as well as the establishment of new strategic targets and the policy mechanisms to drive them forward. As has been mentioned earlier, this dialog has been in progress for a long time, especially in the domains of lifelong learning, training, and higher education. Coordination at the obligatory school level of the European education systems was, however, a very recent undertaking.

7.10. THE OECD'S ROLE IN EUROPEAN EDUCATION GOVERNANCE

Located within the area of European education governance, let us discuss the matter of the OECD, as a key expert institution for the governance of European education, rather than concentrate on higher education which is well known by the study of the Bologna Process on mobility and traveling. This is where focus on the field of compulsory schooling, which has been considerably firmer and considered very limited and set and embedded in national norms and curricula. Research has also shown that guidelines from the European Commission and the OECD are mostly presented as standardized at the national level.

Through its introduction into the European educational policy arena, OECD was also a big European player, but in fact it was monopolizing its focus and its political influence, and it went one step further; working on an international comparative test particular case, it looks to the OECD's deliberate and systematic consolidation to become a leading actor in educational policy (Chemerinsky, 2002).



Figure 7.14. The 2012 Recommendation of the Council on Regulatory Policy and Governance.

Source: <https://www.oecd.org/gov/regulatory-policy/governance-of-regulators.htm>.

The development of education indices by major multinational and transnational organizations like the OECD, World Bank or UNESCO thus added a more level of uncertainty to the picture. This is crucial to consider because Europeanization constitutes yet another conduit for globalization. The OECD is now mostly a think tank that focuses on economic policy issues and has set up a niche as a theoretically extremely capable organization for the advancement of educational and comprehension metrics. It is now divided up in all the main transnational institutions, some of which are at the forefront of measurement ability.

In particular, the PISA of the OECD is dominated internationally as the central international comparison of the effectiveness of school systems by a non-curricular assessment of students' comparative educational success in the field of reading, arithmetic, science and problem-solving at the conclusion of obligatory education. These international comparative tests are a key focus: the position of experts and policy coordination many researchers look at to build their case.

These principles are reflected in the management of comparable international research. Project boards normally cooperate with a wide variety of consortia of foreign investors and strategic consultants (statistics, media

experts and fascinating philanthropists), consulting with a broad range of actors such as researchers, private firms, policymakers, partners, state correspondents, regional working groups, etc. Training courses, workshops, and regional, topical and global conferences are provided on a regular basis.

The circumstance of the OECD is especially curious because, unlike the EU, it does not have legal or financial instruments to effectively foster national policymaking among Member States. Nevertheless, the educational strategy has become important not only to develop national, but also to develop policies by ranking assessments such as the yearly reports on Education and the Education, the IALS and the ITAL project, the most recent International Survey on Teaching and Learning (TALIS), which focuses on teachers, through PISA and national and stylistic policy reviews.

The question then is: What has made the OECD one of Transnational Education Governance's most important operatives. In this debate, several experts made a significant contribution to the suggestion that the 'comparative method' – a scientific approach to the decision-making process – has been a key factor of the progress of the OECD (Itun, 2017). The OECD policy suggestions are agreed by both policymakers and researchers to be accurate, 'without seeing the author of a need outside of the mark "OECD" to defend the authoritative nature of the information found within,' it has acquired a brand which is unquestionably considered.

In terms of all the comments they have made, and this is an indication of the way they have become an acknowledged part of the OECD's current educational policy dictionary worldwide, within and outside the OECD, and of its increasing importance in the work of the OECD itself since the 1980s. PISA now covers for about 30% of the budget of the OECD Education Directorate and is financed by involved countries explicitly. One could argue that the greater influence of the OECD was on its Indicators Agenda, like PISA, and its position in building an international education policy sector through comparing governance.

PISA became a key tool in the provision of data for European education systems right from the beginning after the popular IALS effort. PISA was particularly important as an indicator of the final outcome of the educational policies in its international dimension, which supersedes the borders of Europe in comparing the performance of students in countries as varied as the United States, Greece, and Indonesia.

The fact that the pupils are not examining the mastery of the school curricula is the main reason for the testing of reading, mathematics, and

science literacy and its creative dimensions – and part of its interest as a governing instrument. Focusing on the “true life,” the students have been distanced from the less explicit educational objectives that defy evaluation (e.g., democracy engagement, creative abilities, politics and history) for a more realistic interpretation of the value of education: “the importance of lifelong education” through their ability to reach the labor force with key qualifications, such as literature and numeracy (Brehony, 2004).

The brief debate on IALS and PISA above illustrates why international comparative assessment has now become one of Europe’s main instruments of regulating information management and sharing in education. Their growth has provided the required prerequisites to understanding policies, travel, and translation and thus a political agreement amid local characteristics and histories. The tale of international assessment progress should not, however, mislead us to draft an ideal form of political mechanism, in which real debates and the creation of relationships and alliances generate new information.

The topic of organizing, preparing and carrying out international tests is an ideal example of the sort of mobility of the policy making system which Freeman discusses. It also represents an argument for a closer look not just at the policy movement in itself, but also at those who move it.

The function of specialists is key because their own in-depth and trustworthy knowledge enables them to be extremely versatile; in the name of their specialty expertise several experts are required; they work for various policy- and research agencies and can be held accountable to them on their own. However, their main function in the legitimization of information is ceremonial, they provide justification for policy.

Given the specialist commercialism of findings of the studies worldwide, performance errors are commonly reported, so there is a need for decisive intervention. Indeed, the OECD’s convincing force lays down the building and the calculation of educational indicators; information and behavior are the quantitative knowledge that it generates at the same time as there is no marker that is meaningful unless it indicate action. In other words, OECD is not only easily and efficiently producing data but is also digesting and providing decision-makers with policy solutions.

In other words, OECD is not only easily and efficiently producing data but is also digesting and providing decision-makers with policy solutions. In a sense, the OECD by-passes these barriers in four main ways whether it is used to make European policy accountability sluggish, cautious, or ‘coming

from nowhere.’ It first describes the limitations of what can be calculated by proposing what can be ‘done; Second, it has no political authority, because it poses no foreign threats to national policymaking, as the Commission or other EU institutions may have done; it now has the expertise, infrastructure, and technical and material tools to pace up the policy mechanism so that it can display ‘results’ during the typically short period of time that policymakers are in power; Last but not least, it conveys all of the ‘right’ ideological messages for twenty-first-century school programs – that is, it ties schooling positively to labor market results and intellectual resources.

Notwithstanding, how did the OECD become such a strong force in European education governance? Some officials may have suggested that the Education Directorate staffs in Paris make little, if any, determinations; the OECD, they say, is nothing more than the participating countries and the national players and specialists sent to OECD committees and meetings. So, how accurate is it to study the rise of this modern policy arena by relying solely on this single foreign actor (Zajda, 2020).

So, how correct is the development of this new policy area to be examined simply by concentrating on this single international player?

This is where travel and bias are once again important, as the history of the OECD’s rise as an important player (mainly based on its massive international tests) is once again a tale of tension – the expert passion and expert warfare that have shaped the tradition of international success measurements comparisons for more than a decade.

This is not necessarily a case of knowledge policy information, as is usually the situation; it is in effect a convergence between the two spheres, which poses important questions about the degree, in particular, of the technicalization and de-politicization of education issues and even more generally of problem-solving issues.

In a certain way, it signifies a change from information and strategy to knowledge policy, where experience is transferred to one organization and work, and policy solutions are sold. The next and final segment will aim to preliminarily theorize these ideas so that awareness can become more general regarding the role of multinational expert bodies in the governance of education and governance.

In the context of multinational education management, the OECD has become the border organization par excellence. Working on the development of performance metrics, it has become the central producer of policy-referred intelligence in the developing world with its current successes

in international comparative research, providing not only observable and comparable information, but also – as considered – accurate policy-making directions. The OECD frequently presents the evaluation of education in a superficial way as an analytical challenge which is not only epistemic and political but is thus subject to categorization and change.

The OECD has been a global pioneer in organizing the world of global education politics, both in the science and political fields, through its networks. So how did this happen? What is schooling that demands such a double organization, the need to speak up to convince employers and colleagues when boundary work is required when policies in polite areas such as genomics, climate change, immigration or global poverty need to be carried out? (Young, 2008).

There may be two answers: first off, the essence and experience of the policy on education in Europe and, secondly, the absence of dynamism in influencing policy in the Member States of Europe by the DG Education and Culture. The results showed how, when and when the Commission persuaded the OECD to follow a policy platform from the latter. The results showed. In other words, the OECD was not necessarily mobilized to become a policy player and a central one out of its own intent.

Chapter 8

European Perspectives on Professional Development in Teacher Education

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8.1. INTRODUCTION

Professional development in teacher education is something that has been an increasingly important feature in European education policy. With the existing social, cultural, economic, and – of course – educational demands for adjustment in all European societies, there is broad consensus that all teachers should be given prospects to enhance the skills they need to perform their tasks as well as possible during their careers, allowing them to achieve the goals of high quality education throughout their working lives.

Although teachers are recognized as learning specialists with sufficient knowledge of educational philosophy and subject areas on which to construct their classroom skills, this competence is increasingly being replaced by that of a conscientious lifelong learner, capable and willing to see her or his professional career as a continuously self-cycle of personal and professional growth. The most crucial component of any initiative aimed at improving quality is guaranteeing that teachers have the necessary skills.



Figure 8.1. Teachers are educational experts.

Source: <https://www.theguardian.com/teacher-network/2017/sep/28/how-can-teachers-support-vulnerable-children-at-school>.

Teaching is seen as a social practice that requires time, freedom, and versatility to adapt to rapidly evolving conditions, bearing in view the development of educational science in conjunction with societal changes. The need to redefine CPD's (Continuous Professional Development) position and duty is therefore a high priority item in many working groups in the

European debate, and it is also seen as very relevant by the general public. This chapter looks at how the quality of teacher educators is addressed in the current European policy discussion? (Wright, 2001).

As shown by unique problems of the European Journal of Teacher Education and Professional Development in Education, as well as the work of ATEE's Research and Development Center "Professional Development of Teacher Educators," the role of teacher educators is being increasingly recognized in scholarly discussions. Nonetheless, there is a scarcity of literature on teacher educators. The emphasis on CPD was discussed in the introductory remarks of the Feldkirch Conference on Strategies of Change in Teacher Education- European Views, as the professionalism of teachers has taken primary focus.



Figure 8.2. The Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) is a non-profit European organization, whose aim is to enhance the quality of Teacher Education in Europe.

Source: <http://llplatform.eu/who-we-are/members-and-partners/atee/>.

The idea that individual teachers must increasingly take responsibility for their own professional advancement is generally acknowledged. Despite the fact that teachers' roles are evolving and that they are required to be self-directed learners who are motivated and willing to adapt to change and meet the diverse demands of their students, it is the responsibility of all appropriate agencies and responsible authorities to adjust to particular requirements for further education, such as improving teaching and the actual classroom condition, learning controversy, and so on.

It is also the employer's duty to include adequate working practices and ample services to allow for such a continuum of professional advancement. CPD is a crucial topic in the field of lifelong learning, moving well beyond the conventional model of In-Service Training, which seems to be the only venue for teacher continuing education in several European countries up to now. Teachers' professional growth, which targets at the auto- and co-construction of skills and know-how, as well as strengthening the individual

option of teachers fulfilling their need to further improve or enhance their personal skills and abilities, is recognized by policymakers and participating organizations in Teacher Education and Training. Teachers, as inventors, scholars, and critics, are seen as beneficiaries of this information transfer.

New studies on the professional consistency and advancement of teacher educators has aided our understanding of the development of teacher educators' identities, self-study by teacher educators, recruitment of new teacher educators, and teacher educators' expertise. But for research on the Dutch professional guidelines for teacher educators, the majority of studies have mostly concentrated on the professional development of particular teacher educators, with little addressing concerns relating to more institutional problems or legislative initiatives that promote the professional development of teacher educators as a community (Wagner, 2004).

Given the strong European policy focus on teacher quality and education, we expect policymakers to pay more attention to the quality of teacher educators, and as already explained, this chapter looks at whether this focus exists inside national and European policies. This is extremely important because policymakers' commitment to the advancement of the career of teacher educators would place demands on the technical group of teacher educators and could open up new possibilities (and funds) for additional teacher education study. This thesis had an exploratory nature because there had been no prior studies on policies for teacher educators.

8.2. THE CONCEPT OF PROFESSIONALISM AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The sociological study of occupations and professionalism has a long history dating back to the turn of the twentieth century. Sociologists have attempted to classify both the basic principles associated with professions and the requirements that differentiate professions from other occupations. This discussion employs a variety of changing viewpoints, each emphasizing a particular element of professionalism.

Comparing teachers to traditional professions like physicians or lawyers and identifying similarities and discrepancies is one way to assess their professionalism. Four basic characteristics in occupations are highlighted in this 'traits' or 'attributes' approach.

Specifically, professional independence and discretion over their own work; control over admission into the profession; authority over the

profession's core principles and good behavior through the use of ethical standards and penalties; and a broad academic knowledge base that underpins professional practices.



Figure 8.3. Professional development.

Source: <https://www.teachhub.com/professional-development/2019/11/15-professional-development-skills-for-modern-teachers/>.

Another perspective on professionalism reflects on what people want in today's neoliberal dynamic information society. New elements are highlighted in this approach, which focuses on 'new professionalism' rather than traditional professionalism.

In other words, explication of professional performance standards, public transparency for professional performance outcomes, lifetime professional development of professionals, cooperation with colleagues and interested parties, participation in professional advancement and involvement in developing the academic and practical knowledge base.

Career Development Model



Figure 8.4. Career development model.

Source: <https://careerprocanada.ca/we-need-to-value-career-development/>.

A third approach relies on underlying discrepancies in labor market logics. Its proponent describes three logics: bureaucracy, free enterprise, and professionalism. These logics suggest that different characteristics are essential for each of them to function. The focus is placed on quality management by the industry, by clear ethical principles and ethics, as set down by professional standards of conduct. The underlying ethical and benevolent nature of the occupations is highlighted in this context.

This altruistic behavior is associated with the power imbalance between the worker and the customer. The role of professionals in serving customers (such as teachers' services to parents and pupils/ students) demands professional autonomy, based on the strict application of an ethical code, which must be based on public confidence in expertise and professional intentions (Urban et al., 2019).

While some of the professionalism and professional development viewpoints have been questioned, together they establish a multifaceted view of professionalism, focusing on: the application of professional norms

and ethical codes to govern the work and competence of the professional members; admission regulations in the form of training programs or credentials required; professional lifelong learning (including professional development inducing and programs); cooperation within and outside of the profession; professional content accountability; utilization of expanded knowledge base; and academic involvement to improve and sustain knowledge base. Different parties stress the three technical viewpoints. The profession itself (via professional organizations, societies, etc.) is leading from the first and third viewpoint (the classical profession and professionalism as the third logic, respectively), while from the second perspective, governments and employers are regarded as leaders.

8.3. VARIOUS UNDERSTANDINGS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND CRITERIA FOR LIFE-LONG LEARNING

In all European countries, facing diverse national origins and cultures, teachers go through just about the same main phases in their careers. In some countries, this is more connected to the schools as a field of exemplary practice and studies, which provides teachers with theoretical and practical perspective into their own future profession and allows them to reflect on the emergence of new ones. In all Member States, the professions are increasingly becoming ‘universitized.’



Figure 8.5. Lifelong learning is a form of self-initiated education that is focused on personal development.

Source: <https://www.valamis.com/hub/lifelong-learning>.

In reference to the multidimensional facets of vocational advancement, researchers define various phases. Some view the stages as the stage of planning, assignment, initiation and duty, while others talk of career-related phases such as pre-service, initiation, skill development, motivation and progress, worker dissatisfaction.

Given that this lifetime career growth and learning path entails many transitions, we can understand that the technical skills and job-related challenges of teachers vary greatly when starting work and later on.

There are primarily changes in perception, knowledge concepts, concepts of learning in general as well as auto-conceptions of their own method of learning, their teacher image, their control of the teaching subject with all the fluctuations and changes in the world.

Many nations have paid very little regard to systematic interventions in these stages of their teaching careers, with particular attention to transition in education needs.

While initiatives stressing the spectrum of teacher learning are being discussed in many nations, the often simplified notion of a linear continuum appears to be consistent with the intention of achieving universal educational results or the political objective of being able to monitor teacher training in a national context.

There are numerous foreign studies about the ways in which teachers are developed and learned, and most of them emphasize the fact that teachers have not usually participated actively in producing information about them. Issues such as how teachers should become engaged in this area and reflect on their thoughts, theories and approaches, preparation, class strategies, actions – in other words, their mentality or interpretation of what a teacher or even a good teacher in a certain topic or a certain environment.

For several nations, 2010 might be the golden benchmark year in the area of teacher education in general, and especially CPD and lifelong learning methods, since it corresponds to the Bologna Process and a related effort to fulfill the Lisbon Convention's criteria.



Figure 8.6. The Lisbon Recognition Convention (Convention on the recognition of qualifications concerning higher education in the European region).

Source: <https://iqaa.kz/en/international-documents/lisbon-recognition-convention>.

The growing recognition that all European citizens should benefit from higher-quality education and thereby be able to participate fully in the information society necessitates a teacher profile with the qualifications and competencies to assist potential citizens through the educational process, the development of new skills, and the anticipated mobility.

A high-quality professional identification is needed to ensure quality development, increase assurance, promote appropriate improvements, activate potential change agents, and recognize teachers as key players in the adoption and academic diffusion of the reforms required.

These reforms aren't just about modifying curricula or planning specific classes and potentially making them obligatory in the hopes that the necessary changes will occur. Europe is undergoing a philosophical shift that is resulting in a cultural shift in teacher career growth, self-concept, and professional consciousness (Thiem, 2009).

The expression "continuous professional development" means that the various stages of teacher education should be designed as a cohesive and continuous structure. Several countries emphasize the importance of aligning Initial Teacher Preparation, Induction, and Continuous Professional Development with a single coherent teacher education program so that teachers can draw on this basis at various stages of their certification and professionalization.

Although it is beneficial for students in their early stages of education to have interaction with accomplished teachers in their research areas at school, it is also beneficial for serving teachers to become abreast with the latest discoveries in their subject areas or the didactical domain in general, as it will provide schools with exposure to a broader context of intellectual culture and research developments in various fields. CPD, in this light, is a process of continuous development, depth, enrichment, exchange, and transition, rather than a process of ‘updating’.

In this regard, education researchers will learn from teamwork and collaborations, as well as student encounters with classroom conditions, individual teachers, and the whole structure, and will incorporate these results into their potential theories and idea creation to help improve Initial Teacher Education quality.

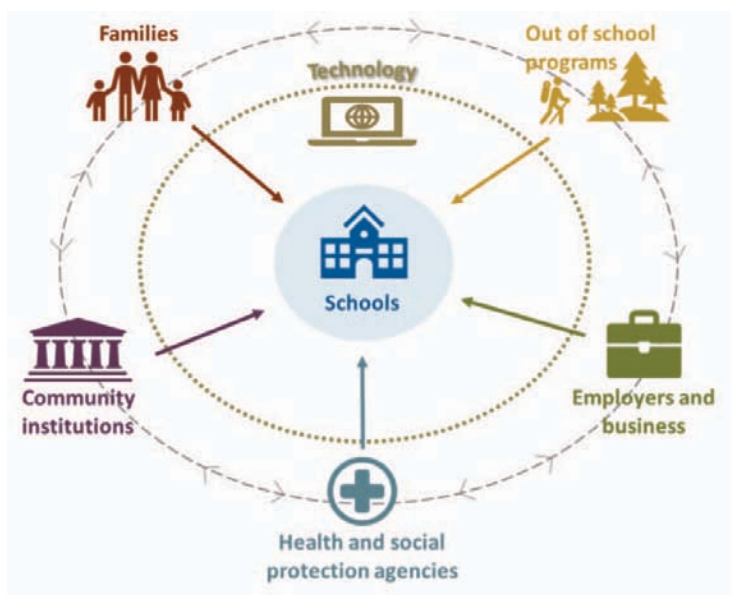


Figure 8.7. Stakeholders in education.

Source: <https://www.brookings.edu/research/beyond-reopening-schools-how-education-can-emerge-stronger-than-before-covid-19/>.

This recently initiated iterative pattern of movement between rehearsal and results is likely to re-empower performing teachers and they will be more likely to try to keep up with current cognitive and instructional expectations, recognizing that they are active participants in this overall phase, and will

be newly inspired to adapt to reforms introduced by policymakers, school planners, and their personal desires for improvement.

A welcome side effect of such a collaboration and cooperative model, which may also entail the exchanging of personnel in some programs or modules, could be quality growth and improvement, as well as higher levels of certification of training and teaching workers in all establishments participating in the various stages of teacher education.

8.4. PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR TEACHERS

Person growth plans serve various roles in such learning communities, as well as in other institutional approaches; they are commonly used in a few countries in Europe and are being generally discussed as solutions for the future in many more.

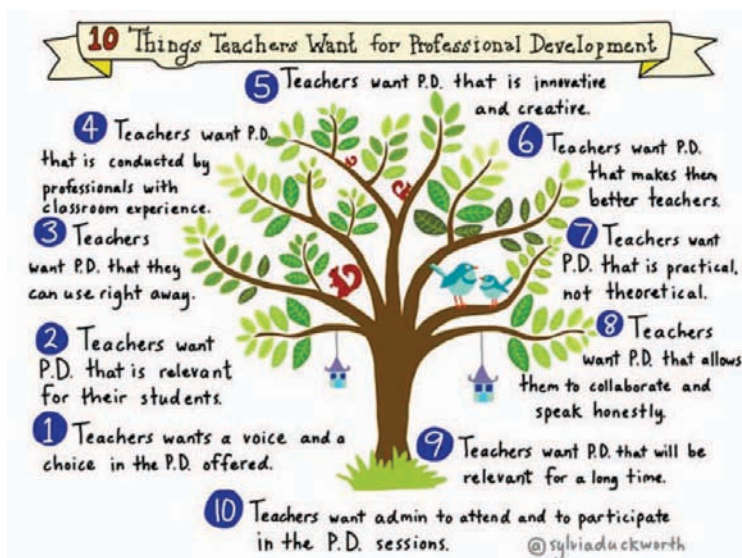


Figure 8.8. Ten things teachers want in professional development.

Source: <https://plpnetwork.com/2015/08/28/10-teachers-professional-development/>.

Specific learning plans are formulated with the instructor and the educational institution's administrators, supervising committees, or the school's principle in collaboration with inspection boards, and may include

the whole teaching career or focus on further development with or without promotion consequences.

It can also be used as a punitive measure in a derogatory way after a time of poor success and resistance for different reasons.

Since teachers assume mobility as a centerpiece of the early stages and on-going development programmes, teachers with an individual development plan and performance reports on a personal portfolio will be able to access mobility opportunities in which their learning status will be better acknowledged and better recognized (after European wide mobilization).

Teachers will also be helped by their personal and career portfolios to report on success and reporting of online portfolios. This is possible online (Suárez-Orozco, 2005).

In the framework of school assessment and inspection, some school supervisors proposed that all schools should hold profiles of expertise for all their teachers so that schools would define more clearly their staff's abilities and proficiencies. However, these profiles can only be used as a tool for growth and not regulation within the concept of a learning organization. Confidence is an important matter here again.

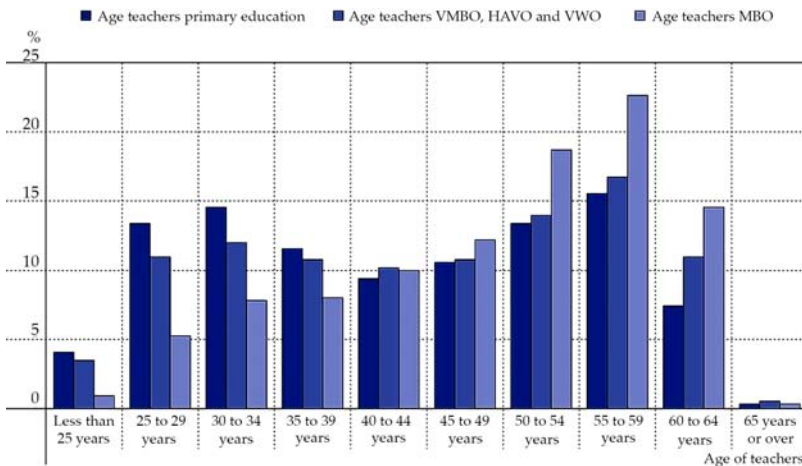


Figure 8.9. Distribution of teachers at education level and programme orientation by age groups.

Source: <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/9789264257658-8-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/9789264257658-8-en#fig-5.1>.

Various measures are taken through structural efforts on the ground in a number of countries like personal development projects or more general plans for specific areas, certain types of schools within a partnership framework, or for the entire country. Such programs are prepared or already developed by ministries, education departments or at other policy levels; some countries also prepare system-wide leadership changes, while others are uncertain of the possible institutional effort and focus on more preparation by individuals of future school leaders and others who work.

Present systems are updated or scheduled to be changed when prospective leaders of specific CPD offerings in line with this strategy are now awaited and primed.

The outcomes of school growth and the outcome and progress of the further development of employees will only be made accountable to school administrators with added consistency and added benefit if all people in the system have the individual resources and systems required for learning.

8.5. ASSESSMENT OF CPD METHODS AND PROGRAMS AS A WAY OF ENSURING LONG-TERM FEASIBILITY, QUALITY DEVELOPMENT, AND ASSURANCE

The values that underpin School Assessment and School Development Planning, which include school analysis and self-evaluation, should allow educators to take greater responsibility in determining the CPD needs of their schools and their staff, in accordance with each school's particular goals. A framework that allows for daily needs analysis should make it easier to identify and include CPD principles and programs for whole-school learning as well as individual teacher development.

It is critical to plan assessment processes on the basis of basic principles of quality training, since each approach to evaluation means a specific definition of quality. "If a school can justify testing its teachers with the same methods, the school is almost certainly lacking in innovation."

Another critical way of assessment that aids in the governance and monitoring of transition mechanisms is quality assurance through the evaluation of method progress as well as teacher professional development in relation to school results (Shahriari et al., 2017).

As a result, CPD as a core component of the initiative to increase teaching efficiency must be evaluated in terms of its effectiveness in achieving this

goal. Staff should be motivated to understand all types of assessment as a tool for furthering their skills and contributing to school success and outcomes as a whole by focusing on their own jobs, perhaps revising or even modifying their self-concept, and recognizing their own skills and abilities.

They should be expected to see this as a crucial yet positive assessment of their own development, abilities and competencies, the quality of their instruction, classroom practice, and the school system as a whole. Teachers' professional learning should be reviewed and monitored on a regular basis, which can help them internalize new attitudes about their career and motivate them to increase their personal expectations in the areas of content competences, as well as educational, social, and didactical abilities.

This professional dialogue with a detached perspective of the framework and individual development, in addition to a constructive culture of input among all participants in the area of school and education, will undoubtedly be one of the motivating opportunities to make growth and transformation happen.

As stated in The Common European Principles, being equally involved in engaging with their own professionalism and expressing themselves constructively and creatively within the school system and to other players such as school boards or supervision bodies should be a requirement in a career focused on collaboration.

Discussions within schools and between schools and Teacher Education Institutions can lead to an implied and internal method of appraisal through stimulating connections, individual collaboration, or even long-term institutionalized relationships in order to share the experiences and effects of learning societies within schools in the light of lifelong learning.



Figure 8.10. European Doctorate in Teacher Education (EDITE).

Source: <http://www.edite.eu/>.

Offering a coordination framework that provides for a constant sharing of information about various personnel needs or advances achieved within such individual or institutional improvement activities enables the partners to focus more on specific facets of their own teaching and school development problems. Finally, the following topics are seen as being particularly important for national and European policies aimed at strengthening teachers' Continuous Professional Development:

- CPD programs that are too prescriptive and do not take into account human growth needs, environmental factors, or the participants are unable to succeed;
- Teachers' career learning is more successful where there are systemic opportunities for reform, taking into account the attitudes of all stakeholders involved;
- Regardless of national policy conditions such as sovereignty, centralization, decentralization, shared leadership, or sharing of responsibilities among teacher education institutions, all school partners should want to create a new learning culture and enable teachers to do so;
- This creative learning atmosphere should not be limited to school staff; it should include school boards, supervisory councils, and parents as well.
- In the process of integrated lifelong learning, school leader growth is critical to an awareness of relationships within a school environment.
- Teachers should not be removed from policy decision-making systems as reform agents and civic actors;
- Policymakers should seize opportunities to exchange action study findings and foster a culture of collaboration among experts on an equal footing.

8.6. THE EUROPEAN NETWORK ON TEACHER EDUCATION POLICIES IS A NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION DEDICATED TO IMPROVING TEACHER EDUCATION (ENTEP)

ENTEP's mission is to foster cooperation among European Union Member States in relation to their roles in original, in-service, and continuing teacher education policies, in order to:

- Improving the standard of teacher education in order to improve the quality of teaching and preparation in the European Union and meet the challenges of lifelong learning in a knowledge-based society.
- Incorporating a European perspective into teacher preparation programs.
- Improving the general perception of teaching and shared confidence in Member-State-awarded teaching qualifications.
- Encouragement of instructor versatility.



Figure 8.11. ENTEP Coordinator Dr Daniela Worek.

Source: <https://www.entep.eu/>.

To achieve its objectives, the network creates ways for participants to learn about teacher education strategies from one another, by analyzing and evaluating policies and topics, and by exchanging best practices through a variety of events. The network uses an open baseline for informal interaction and information sharing based on written and oral presentations on relevant problems and topics relating to teacher education policies. Discussion texts, such as “What is a European Teacher?” that are made open to a larger public, are one of the results of such exchanges.

Europe has been an exceedingly significant focal point in culture. This is maybe far more so for teachers who are responsible for educating new generations of Europeans. The aim of ENTEP is to create a European dimension of teacher education programs. However, despite the fact that European teachers serve in a European context, we also know very little about their “Europeanness,” or what it means to be a teacher in the context of European professionalism.

This debate will act as a stepping stone for further debates about the future positions of teachers in Europe, as well as raising awareness about a new standard for what makes a European teacher.

Teachers in the European Union not only train prospective citizens of their respective member countries, but also assist them in becoming future European citizens. They operate within a national context, emphasizing the importance of national citizenship as a foundation for transnational understanding in a European society. In educational policymaking, the term “European Dimension” has been used to align national and transnational ideals (Schaps et al., 2001).

A European teacher profits from the European Union in part because of the ease with which he or she can move about. This versatility includes studying overseas, speaking languages, and being familiar with the cultures of other EU countries. He or she may look for work in other countries and participate in European Union exchange programs. This leads to the development of a Europe of diverse languages and cultures, as well as cultivating cultural diversity as a vision for future life together.

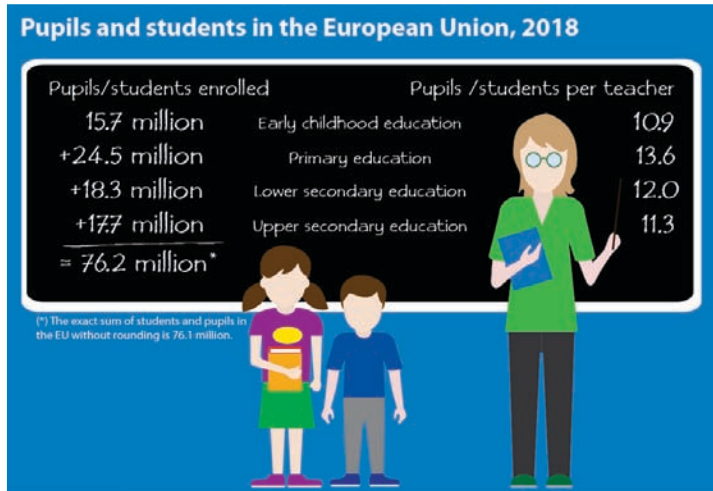


Figure 8.12. Student-teacher ratio in the EU.

Source: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/products-eurostat-news/-/DDN-20200604-1>.

A European Teacher promotes student mobility by allowing them to interact physically and digitally with peers from other European countries.

8.7. TEACHER RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

In the field of teacher education, the value of teacher education cannot be overstated, and if we are to talk of professional development, we cannot ignore recruitment in the first place, and then retention. Supply cannot be overlooked, which raises a slew of questions such as the profession's demography, government judgments on the scale of primary and secondary school schools, and the appeal of teaching as a job. Since the publishing of the 1994 resolution, the ETUCE (European Trade Union Committee for Education) has focused heavily on topics of recruiting and retention, as teaching has lost ground to other occupations and career options, and severe teacher shortages have emerged in some countries.

The European Trade Union Committee for Education (ETUCE) is a coalition of 127 education trade unions from 51 countries, with a combined membership of 11 million people. They are the European Commission's and other European institutions' social collaborator for teachers and other education staff, as well as a protector of their rights.

ETUCE is made up of national teachers' and other workers unions from all areas of education, including early childhood education, primary and secondary education, vocational education and training, higher education, and science. Both EU and non-EU countries are represented by the member organizations.

The ETUCE has encouraged government officials to solve the shortages, urging them to increase the appeal of teaching as a discipline by enhancing its prestige, salaries, and conditions, as well as its job opportunities. So far, far too little has been done to prevent the situation from being an epidemic in the worst-affected countries.

Teacher supply is currently facing a new problem in a variety of European countries, owing to the approaching retirement from schooling of the 'baby boomer' era, which was born in the decade following WWII.

The generation began teaching in the 1960s, after post-war rebuilding had been completed, and at a period when education in many countries was characterized by hope and expansionism.

In certain nations, teacher education was also a route into further research for many young people who would otherwise have been refused a university education at a time when options for access to formal higher education were scarcer than they are now. Many nations have battled and won conflicts for teacher education's proper position as a part of higher education (Scheunpflug & Asbrand, 2006).

For the past 40 years, the scale of the 'baby boomer' generation, the ideals it espouses, and the knowledge it has gained have had a significant impact on education. Following teacher admissions have often encountered greater uncertainty, accelerated transition, and a questioning of the teacher's position in education and community. The retirement of the "baby boomers" may be seen as a further shift away from old certainty and toward a more dynamic and competitive future.

In the near future, most European countries will need to hire and retain teachers at a faster pace than in previous years if they are to keep up with the number of teachers who will retire and others who will be lost to other causes. Public bodies and schools may have to deal with the challenges that come from the lack of a large number of their most qualified teachers, who are also in charge of program planning and implementation, teacher career development, or school administration. Teacher education institutions and programs are important vehicles for attracting new teachers, serving as a kind of shop window for those contemplating a career in education. Their

academic programs must appear appropriate, thrilling, and appealing. To ensure that newcomers to the discipline are able to incorporate the core elements of their curriculum successfully in the classroom, they must find a balanced means of balancing theory, experience and expertise, and monitored practice

Furthermore, unlike 40 years earlier, teacher preparation programs must recognize that the abilities that teachers learn prepare them for a variety of other technical opportunities and that a majority of potential teachers will join such alternate careers shortly after qualifying or after just a few years in the classroom. Similarly, students enrolled in programs leading to other careers may be drawn to teaching and enroll in teacher education programs. This two-way flexibility is unavoidable, and it has been aided by the trend of teacher education students studying among other students in general educational establishments.

It's another intergenerational shift, away from the presumptions and constraints of a "career for life," and it represents 21st-century society's shifting trends. Mature entrants who have successfully practiced in another career direction should be encouraged to enter teaching under such conditions, provided that proper re-qualification is completed and the levels of qualifications are upheld. This not only provides high-quality students, but it also reinforces the ties between education and other aspects of community and work. These students, too, should be motivated to pursue a career in education by providing them with programs that cater to their specific needs.

However, public bodies should not use the creation of programs that promote new and more versatile routes into the teaching profession as an opportunity to cut investment in teacher education or as a quick fix to solve urgent recruiting crises (Pudas, 2012).

The 'pool of retired teachers' – individuals who have qualified as teachers but have left the industry for some cause – is a current issue that has evolved dramatically in some national structures. Many of these people may be working in other fields, but some are unemployed.

There is a great deal of hope for them to return to successful teaching. However, the right circumstances – in particular, the appeal of the school setting and of teaching as a well-paid, high-status occupation assisted by sufficient professional growth, including professional development especially tailored to help them as they re-enter teaching following a break – must be created for these inactive teachers, as well as for other future practitioners. It must be acknowledged that an increasing majority

of students, as members of other professions, are going to want more consistency in their work schedules.

Teachers from other nations, including from outside Europe, have been recruited to help meet the burden of teacher supply and retention across Europe. There is also a growing trend in Europe for teachers to move about. These developments have posed a slew of realistic and ethical concerns. This includes the need to shield new teachers from abuse, interventions to incorporate them into sponsor schools to ensuring that their vocational teaching aligns with the needs of the host system, and the need to defend their home countries' education systems from the lack of qualified teachers functionaries.

At its finest, hiring teachers from other countries will result in a "win-win" scenario, but this scenario must be deliberately pursued if it is to be realized. The host countries' teacher education programs will have specific needs for recruitment and re-orientation for incoming teachers. The ETUCE (European Trade Union Committee for Education) believes that the EU should promote the implementation of international conventions and agreements that exclude active recruiting from developing countries while also providing opportunities for teachers to gain reciprocal professional development through working in different countries and cultures.

Finally, headteachers and other administrative positions are mainly recruited from within the educational system. Experts believe that this is correct and should remain so, not only for the sake of career advancement, but also to maintain the intellectual dignity and collegiality of schools and their managements.

However, this ensures that teacher supply policies must account for this aspect, which will force a number of teachers to leave front-line teaching entirely or partially; and that teacher preparation and recruiting plans and curricula must take into account the fact that a large percentage of new teachers will be called upon to take on managerial roles at a later point in their careers (Nóvoa & Yariv-Mashal, 2007).

8.8. COMPETENCIES AND QUALIFICATIONS

Teaching is a difficult career that necessitates a diverse set of skills.

Competencies and information Teacher education certificates are widely accepted as part of higher education with most European countries. The ETUCE firmly supports the classification of teacher education certification

as higher education and would vigorously oppose any effort to undermine this status. The ETUCE would fight any efforts to dilute or shorten courses, such as those made under the Bologna Process and its mandated degree course lengths. We believe that all teachers should strive for advanced qualifications at least to the level of a master's degree in the Bologna system.

We may not want to be prescriptive on the length of teacher education courses, but it is evident that the total length of initial study, covering subject and professional learning as well as teaching practice, would need to be at least as strong as what is needed.

To meet the needs of an increasingly varied set of candidates, a variety of various courses and programs of study and practice now contribute to a teaching career in a number of countries.

This is welcome, but we believe that such versatility cannot be used to reduce the amount of achievement required of applicants until they can be deemed eligible teachers.

The presence of legislative and/or officially recognized professional frameworks liable to and accountable mainly to teachers but also incorporating the voices of other involved parties is a central feature of collaboration in teacher education, career growth, and the preservation of a self-regulating practice.

The accountability of such a system for the implementation and preservation of ethical practices limits the chances of policymakers interfering directly with the teaching profession by short-term and/or ill-informed policies.

Teacher preparation programs must include topics such as educational philosophy, pedagogy, and classroom methods, as well as exposure to a variety of different fields such as child psychology and curriculum law. Furthermore, courses must better combine instructional experience in classrooms, mentoring, and oversight under regulated conditions.

8.9. TEACHER EDUCATION POLICY FORMULATION IN THE EU

At the EU level, cooperation on teacher education has improved in recent years as a result of increased political collaboration on education since the Lisbon Strategy was launched in 2000. One of the main priorities for improving the overall standard of the EU's curriculum and training services was to enhance the education of teachers and trainers. In 2002,

the Commission formed an advisory group comprised of representatives from Member States, social partners, and other stakeholders to aid in the achievement of this goal, especially by defining key issues and sharing best practices (Nieuwenhuis, 2011).

The Commission uses evidence from both the OECD and Eurydice in its reporting on teacher policy: Eurydice released four papers as part of a systematic study on “The Teaching Profession in Europe: Profile, Trends, and Concern” in 2002–2004. The EU has now entered into a systematic data collection partnership with the OECD as part of the establishment of EU metrics of education. The data gathered from the TALIS survey will officially serve as the foundation for an EU measure on teachers’ ongoing professional growth.

This measure would be added to the three existing indices on teachers at the EU level, which have long been recognized as insufficient because they only address teacher vacancies and surpluses.

The Commission’s Communication on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, published in August 2007, examines the current issues in teacher education and suggests policy solutions at the national and EU levels. Unlike the work done in 2004–2005, the emphasis here is on the policy measures that must be taken in view of the new problems, rather than on defining a “profile” of teachers.

The Communication identifies a number of problems, including insufficient exposure to professional development for teachers in many Member States, poor participation in professional development in the EU, and a lack of coherence and consistency between initial preparation, induction, and ongoing professional development.

The Commission proposes a series of legislative actions in the Communication. This include lifelong learning for teachers, which includes proper induction, mentoring, and meetings with teachers and school principals on growth needs, as well as ensuring that sufficient support is available for these purposes.

Other policy measures involve guaranteeing that teachers have the ability to recognize and individual learner’s needs and encourage them to become truly independent learners, working in multicultural environments, and assisting young people in acquiring core competencies. Teachers should also be motivated to participate in classroom-based study and to continue to draw on their own experience in a systemic manner. In addition, the Commission suggests that teacher preparation programs be offered in both

the Master's and Doctoral (as well as Bachelor's) cycles of higher education. The OECD and European Union teacher education

In 2002, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) launched a review of teacher policy in 25 countries. The OECD released *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing, and Retaining Effective Teachers* in 2005, according to data provided by each country and peer evaluations in ten countries. The study offers policy recommendations on a broad variety of issues related to teacher training. The OECD cites the highly diverse pressures on schools and teachers as justification for the study, as well as evidence suggesting that quality education is maybe the policy sector most likely to contribute to significant improvements in student achievement (Nair, 2019).

The OECD has been conducting a large-scale questionnaire study of teachers and school leaders – TALIS – as a check since 2005. The study would gather data on teachers' views and behaviors, as well as their professional growth and school administration, from eighteen EU countries.

The OECD says that the overriding goal for countries should be to provide a straightforward and succinct profile about what teachers are supposed to recognize and be willing to achieve, as well as success criteria for what constitutes as effective teaching, in its policy recommendations in Teacher matters. The OECD emphasizes that the model ought to be evidence-based and built on the teaching profession's strong participation in identifying competencies and success expectations.

Second, the OECD emphasizes the importance of understanding teacher development as a continuous process that encompasses lifelong learning. The OECD states that initial teacher education is the most prominent subject in most countries, but it advises that, in controversies about the length of teacher education, countries should place a greater emphasis on initiation and career learning rather than lengthening initial teacher education.

The OECD recommends that the teacher profile provide a specific set of guidelines on teachers' own responsibilities for their own continued learning as a policy approach to ensure teachers' professional growth.

It also suggests that the most detailed model will be a mixture of three methods for integrating professional growth across one's career: i) Collective bargaining-based entitlements; ii) incentive-based professional development, connecting professional development to requirements found in an assessment scheme and/or making professional development a

prerequisite for pay increases; iii) professional development linked to school enhancement needs (Mundy et al., 2016).

The policy recommendations for initial teacher education center on making it more “flexible and sensitive.” This includes the opportunity to train as a teacher after completing other studies; an improvement in the common components of teacher education for different levels of education to increase the opportunities for teachers to move between levels of education during their career; alternative routes into teaching for mid-career changers; and retraining and upgrading programs for teachers.

In terms of the content of teacher education programs, the OECD states that the general perception from the nation accounts in the survey is there seems to be uncertainty about whether primary school teachers are adequately oriented in subject matter material and whether they have the expertise for on-going growth, while secondary school teachers are more concerned about a lack of specialized knowledge.

Improving teacher entry recruitment is also seen as vital, particularly in countries with teacher shortages, due to the possibility of a higher amount of students who are not adequately encouraged to join the teaching profession if access to teacher education is unregulated. In response, the OECD recommends that realistic field experience during initial teacher education be improved, particularly early in the curriculum, that initiation programs be improved, and that further relationships between schools and teacher education agencies be established, as well as initiatives to enable schools to grow as learning organizations.

8.10. EDUCATION OF TEACHERS OF HIGH STANDARD

In recent years, the quality of teacher education has been a major concern. The educational component of initial teacher education is high on the European agenda, and teacher education programs and institutes are being checked in several countries. The ideal way to describe the competencies and credentials needed to be accepted as an eligible representative of the teaching profession is gaining popularity. Given recent developments in a number of countries, initial teacher preparation is still not properly training teachers for the challenge of today’s teaching profession in many ways.

Teaching is a difficult profession. Teachers are required to have a wide range of experience, abilities, and competencies, to be trained educators, and

to adapt to a variety of activities in classrooms. Teachers in today's culture are taking on a growing amount of responsibility both in the classroom and in the larger school setting. Teachers no longer interact solely with their students, but also with other educators and members of the society, as classrooms and other educational facilities become more collaborative learning environments (Mee & Schreiner, 2016).

They keep in touch with their parents, higher-education agencies, and friends from other schools in the country or elsewhere. Teachers are often required to comply with children's and young people's nuanced social and personal issues, which can lead to dissatisfaction and academic difficulties, as well as to overt anti-social and aggressive behavior in schools on occasion. Initial teacher education should be well-structured and lengthy enough to include comprehensive credentials on all related subjects, including pedagogical practice.

The EU's Education Ministers recently issued a joint recommendation urging teachers to attain a high degree of competence during their teacher training. This recommendation's main points are in line with the ETUCE's view of teacher education. Both abilities include the ability to teach a variety of transversal competencies, as well as the ability to provide a healthy and appealing school setting; instructing in a heterogeneous class of pupils from various social and cultural backgrounds with a variety of skills and requirements; working closely with partners, parents and the larger public; learning new skills and becoming creative by working in constructive practice and research;

While elementary school teachers in only 6 European Union states are now studying at the Master's level, trends in Europe have been going in the right direction (Estonia, Finland, Germany, Poland, Portugal and Slovenia). Serbia recently launched a Master's program for primary education educators, and in Iceland, the education minister has submitted a proposal to create a Masters' program for all instructors, even elementary teachers. There is no question that teachers in Finland had to finish their master's degree for several years have led to this country's appealing, strong professionalism and high social status as well as to the excellent performance of its scholastic system.

Types of qualifications	Standard programme		Institutional providers
	Structure	Allows for teaching in	
Primary education teaching qualification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Four years integrated bachelor programme (education and practice). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary education -all grades • Special education - all grades 	University of Applied Sciences (HBO) - 'Pedagogic Academic Basic Education' (PABO)
Secondary education 2 nd degree teaching qualification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Four years integrated bachelor programme on subject (e.g. English). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • VMBO - all grades (1 to 4) • HAVO - grades 1 to 3 • VWO - grades 1 to 3 • MBO - all grades 	University of Applied Sciences (HBO)
Secondary education 1st degree teaching qualification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Four years bachelor or master programme focused on subject, followed by 1 or 2 years pedagogical and didactical integrated master 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • VMBO - all grades (1 to 4) • HAVO - all grades (1 to 5) • VW0 - all grades (1 to 6) • MBO - all grades 	University - teacher education college University of Applied Sciences (HBO)

Figure 8.13. Teacher education qualifications: Standard programme and institutional provider.

Source: <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/9789264257658-8-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/9789264257658-8-en#fig-5.1>.

Early instruction for teachers must be of good quality. It should be research-based and comply with high academic expectations while at the same time being immersed in schools' daily life. Teachers must be aware of and willing to use the new findings both within their respective fields, related disciplines and with a view to teaching high-quality courses. It is essential that the theoretical elements of teacher education and training in the classroom are in close contact with each other.

Teacher qualifications in all related fields and didactic practicality must be provided by initial teacher education. Teacher education shall include information and knowledge, including pedagogical, methodological and

didactic skills, on academic subjects. Educational research has to be an inherent component of studying child development (psychological, physical, social, and cognitive). Around the same time, student teachers must cultivate the ability to focus on, adjust and innovate their own practices, collaboration, the role of a team, conflict reduction or management, both with adults and with children and adolescents (Maringe & Sing, 2014).

In particular, initial teacher preparation must provide teachers with the necessary qualifications and abilities to successfully contribute to college work at all school levels. With the welcome focus over the past few years on the need to cultivate cross-cutting capabilities (learning, social and civic skills, etc.) it is vitally valuable for student teachers to work interdisciplinary during their studies in terms of establishing their own merge skills (learning, critical thinking, social justice, etc.).

Teachers' education must provide future teachers with the qualifications and realistic skills to determine which instructional practices are suitable for each child/pupil/student category and the particular child/young person. Teachers should have awareness and expertise in a variety of learning strategies, including but not limited to the ever-expanding range of media and approaches that ICT advances make accessible. It is one of the most complex and most fulfilling roles of a teacher to be able to change instruction to balance the academic interests of a classroom as a whole with the needs of the particular students. To this end, teachers should be able to exercise the high degree of autonomy of judgment that is necessary in order to tailor their teaching practices to each circumstance.

Teacher teaching takes place in a variety of settings and under a variety of names. It could happen at universities, university schools, or specialized institutes. The length of time it lasts varies by country. Primary teacher education programs last three years in eight EU/EFTA countries, four years in fifteen countries, and about five years in seven countries. Ireland and Romania are two countries that offer 3- and 4-year teacher preparation programs. Under the United Kingdom, Scotland offers 4- and 5-year teacher preparation programs.

Across Europe, the research framework for teaching credentials ranges. The concurrent model and the consecutive model are the two main styles. During the initial education, philosophy and experience are merged in the former (Marginson, 2006). After completing the initial schooling, the latter obtains the teaching certificate by pursuing pedagogical studies/training. Additionally, an individual teacher can earn a higher degree of teacher

certification or a qualification for a different teaching role by doing further studies throughout their career.

Teacher preparation at the Master's level can be structured in a variety of different forms. In most cases, that would include (a) combining educational and subject studies in the same organization or branch of a university; (b) combining studies for a Master's Degree in education and subject studies in the same or another department of the university/college; or (c) mixing educational studies in a particular program of the university/college and studies for a Master's Degree in a particular program of the university/college. In other ways, it means that students who have a degree in a particular subject undergo pedagogical instruction that is equally demanding in terms of the expectations placed on students in order to register as a teacher, as is the case with teachers at the upper secondary level.

8.11. THE NATIONAL LABOR AGREEMENT IN BULGARIA'S EDUCATION SECTOR GUARANTEES TEACHERS' CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Since 2004, several guidelines on teachers' continuing professional growth have been included in Bulgaria's national bargaining agreement, which covers pre-primary, primary, and secondary education sectors. Both signatory bodies – the Ministry of Education, employees' and employers' organizations – must adhere to the Agreement's text in its entirety. As a result, the Agreement covers all associates of the original signatories.

Workers who are not members of the school trade union are entitled to participate in the collective bargaining process if their employer does.

Part III of the Agreement deals with the jobs, career advancement, and qualifications of those who serve in education.

As a result, Article 5 of the 2007 national collective agreement allows for reciprocal negotiations on financial supplies between the three parties to the agreement for:

- teacher professional development corresponding to the start of the new school year, especially in relation to the new instructional program that will be adopted at the start of the following school year.
- The foreign language teacher's extra certification.

- The technical and pedagogical resources required for the implementation of every new program, including foreign language and ICT instruction.

As a result of the contractual agreement, national teacher trade unions have the power to decide on the appropriate financial resources for the effective adoption of the new curricula leading to its implementation, but also how the financial funding accessible can be used for teachers' professional advancement. International language teaching and the need for continued professional growth for foreign language teachers are given special consideration. Article 6 of the same collective bargaining deal from 2007 gives teacher unions and employees the right to access preliminary reports from the Ministry of Education about the amount of teacher job losses. As a result, national social partners have the right to meet with the Ministry of Education to explore the options available to these teachers for obtaining new qualifications in order to be reassigned in the national education system (Makarova et al., 2018).

The 2008 national bargaining agreement, which is still under negotiation and is scheduled to be signed soon, expands on the terms of the 2007 agreement's article 5. As a result, the joint consultations between the three parties will also look at financial resources for ICT teachers to maintain their qualifications and for teachers to receive further professional development.

8.12. ALL TEACHERS GRADUATING FROM INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND ARE PROVIDED A FULL YEAR OF PAID INITIATION

All graduates of a Scottish university's initial teacher education programme, whether they completed it concurrently (Bachelor of Education) or consecutively (Post-Graduate Diploma of Education), are assured a paying full-time one-year induction position in a Scottish public school.

Teachers who complete these courses would have met the Standard for Initial Registration, allowing them to be provisionally accredited with the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS), the official professional body for which all public school teachers must always be registered and which is accountable for the certification of all teacher education courses. They may have met the Standard for Full Registration by the completion of the initiation year. Both Standards have the same layout, making the transition from initial registration to full registration easier to prepare.

As part of their initial teacher education, all newly educated teachers are asked to fill out a basic questionnaire in which they rank five education authorities (local councils) in sequence of choice on where they would like to conduct their initiation year. Although their first choice of authority is not assured, the majority of applicants are assigned to their first or second choice authority.

The initiation year entails full-time paying work at a single school. During this time, the new instructor is given a schedule that only requires class commitment for 70% of the contract term.

The GTCS provides detailed instructions on the structure and substance of this induction. The employing education authority (local council) is responsible for doing this, which is accomplished by the headteacher designating a member of staff within the school as a probationer's tutor. It is her/his duty to ensure that the probationer has access to a variety of personnel development resources, that they are tailored to the probationer's needs and desires, and that she/he watches and shares the probationer's teaching with her/him (Matthews & Sidhu, 2005).

The strategy was put in place in 2002. The Teacher Induction Program was developed and implemented as part of 'A Teaching Profession for the Twenty-First Century,' a negotiated arrangement between teacher unions, municipal governments as employers, and the legislature.

Chapter 9

Knowledge Transfer and Technology Diffusion Education

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9.1. INTRODUCTION

It is with no doubt that innovation, learning and knowledge have become vital in the attainment of wealth, employment and further help in the economic development of a nation. Individuals from the academic literature have also agreed with the matter. Consequently, there has been a lot of work that has been done in order to understand and further help in explaining this major shift of the world towards a learning economy or rather a knowledge based economy. According to one of the technology gurus, Rogers, the study of innovation has led to the emergence of diffusion of innovation as a multidisciplinary research topic in most of the social sciences areas. All fields, including agriculture and education are learning of the diffusion of innovation into these fields. Ideally, the process of technology adoption involves a decision making process that are mostly influenced by individuals thinking and the paradigm is considered of uttermost important in the decision making process (Krogh & Slentz, 2010). According to Rogers, innovation is considered to be a decision involving making a full use of a certain innovation and is considered to be the best practice to be adopted. With the adoption of a certain technology in any field, there are always different people that are seen in the process of diffusing. There are those who come up with the new technology described as innovators.

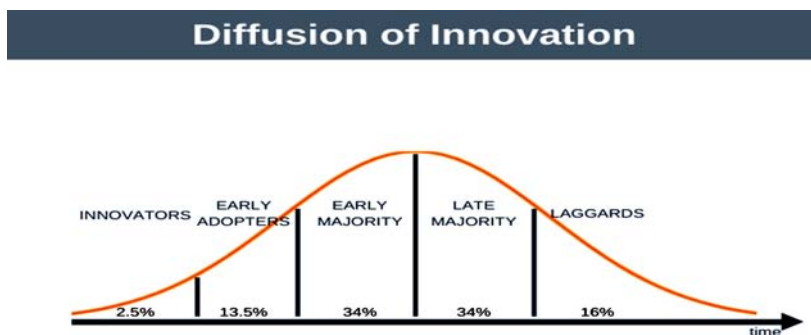


Figure 9.1. Diffusion of innovation theory according to Rogers. According to Rogers, there are those who come up with the innovation known as the innovators, the early adopters who are always willing to take the risk of adopting a new technology, the early majority who are the group of individuals who think that the technology will be helpful, followed by the late majority and finally the laggards.

Source: Expert Program Management.

They are then followed closely by the early adopters, the early majority, the late majority, and lastly the laggards who normally wait to observe the impact of the technology before they decide to adopt a particular technology. Diffusion of innovation is not the only aspect that gets the attention of most of the individuals; knowledge transfer is another important aspect. This is especially in the area of knowledge management. Unlike the diffusion of innovation, the field of knowledge transfer is yet to be discussed. Even though there is no situational context regarding the understanding of knowledge transfer, there is the rule of thumb that is understood by all, which helps individual in understanding the knowledge transfer process in our day to-day activities. This shows that in someway there is a relationship between knowledge transfer and diffusion of innovation. Some of the evidence-based literature that have been discussed have proven that it is quite difficult to determine how and in what ways the two actually relate, which is in a way confusing. One understanding is that of whether knowledge transfer forms part of innovation diffusion or rather that diffusion of innovation being part of knowledge transfer or the fact that one of them triggers the other. In order to fully understand how knowledge transfer relates to diffusion of innovation, researchers have been able to present an analysis of existing studies regarding a particular theory which provides a link between Knowledge transfer and innovation diffusion. To achieve this, one needs to adopt a four-step model as discussed below.

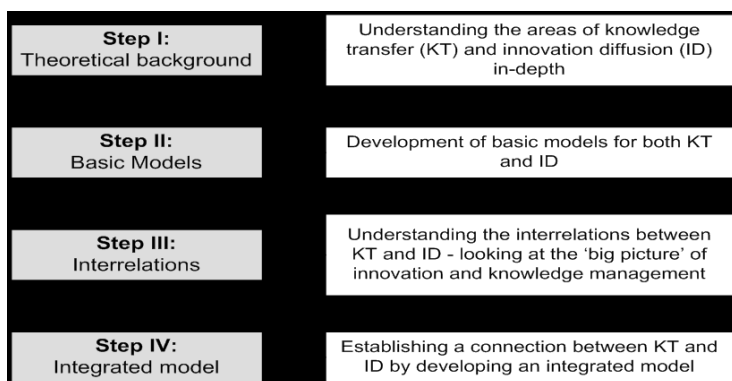


Figure 9.2. A four-step approach to develop an integrated model for knowledge transfer and innovation diffusion. This integrated model helps in understanding the relationship that exists between knowledge transfer and innovation diffusion.

Source: Champika Liyanage.

9.2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this section, there is the establishment of a number of theories that help in understanding the field of knowledge transfer and further innovation diffusion.

The first is the theoretical background on knowledge transfer. According to researchers, knowledge transfer is considered a part of knowledge management that is basically concerned with the movement of knowledge across the boundaries that are known in the creation of knowledge domains. It is with no doubt that there is the conveyance of knowledge from one point, person or rather ownership to the other. When there is a success in knowledge transfer, it means that the new knowledge has been assimilated by the individual that is on the receiving end of the unit. A successful knowledge transfer normally deals with the transfer of knowledge concerning what the other subjects already know or rather consulting other individuals with the full aim of understanding what other individuals think about a particular subject. In an organization, when the subordinates discover that there a particular knowledge that can be critical to the organization, they use different knowledge transfer mechanisms to ensure that they are able to get access to that particular information (Kennedy, 2002). After that, they can then come up with mechanisms that make sure that the other members of the society can be able to access the particular knowledge.



Figure 9.3. Effective communication among employees in an organization. With knowledge transfer, individuals within the organization have the capacity to understand each other in terms of what they are coming up with. This process of knowledge transfer is what is described as an act of communication.

Source: Entrepreneur.

In other ways, they can also decide to exploit it in a creative or an innovative manner in order to add value to the information available. It is with no doubt that knowledge transfer requires that people get to understand each other, network, and as such encouraging close ties between the individuals that are involved in the process. Within an organization, this can be identified as an act of communication.

This process of knowledge transfer has been described by many researchers by the use of a number of models. Major and Cordey-Hayes were even able to come up with two streams of model described as the node models and the process models. The node models describe the nodes in different manners that are gone through in the process of knowledge transfer. With the case of process models, the description of knowledge transfer is based on separate processes that are all undertaken. Apart from these two models, there are also other models that have been described by other researchers. Most of the models tend to have some form of similarities even though they are considered to be contextually different. Apart from the use of models, there are those researchers that try to understand the process of knowledge transfer by the use of theories. One of the researchers was Boyce who was able to describe the diffusion of innovation theory by the use of intermediate modes and voice-exit and game theory. Basically, in understanding issues that are concerned with knowledge, collaboration of the same and further learning tends to lie at the heart of most of the theoretical approaches discussed by the researchers.

In understanding the theories that have been developed, there has been a draw back from the basic idea of communication and collaboration that normally exist between the sender of the information and the receiver, which was initially developed through a mathematical approach. The process has been further developed in a particular researcher's theory of communication. The original approach that was developed was able to explain or rather adequately define the relations that existed between the sender of information and the receiver. From this perspective, it can be easily understood that knowledge transfer can be understood in two different perspectives. One of the perspective is that the sender is responsible for sharing the knowledge that they have, and the receiver is responsible for receiving the same knowledge. The second perspective is that even though, knowledge transfer looks easy, it may be considered to be a very complex process as it involves a number of prerequisites (Kang, 2004). Apart from that, it also involves a number of factors and contextual issues that are seen to surround the process. Knowledge transfers have been integrated into the education system in order

to help the students have the capacity to fully understand the trends that are happening in the world. In most cases, knowledge transfer involves the transfer of new ideas, especially those of innovation to new individuals. As such in understanding knowledge transfers in the schools to make the process easier for the students, there is a need for understanding a number of topics, including Technology scouting, Technology and market assessment, IP protection and management, IP promotion and negotiation.

9.3. TECHNOLOGY SCOUTING

This is an occurrence in research, which deals with consistent, and a systematic way of observing technological developments and recognition of technology that is emerging. With scouting, the main intention is to search for new technologies, which are in the process of being developed. This therefore is the starting point of a long-term way of starting a relationship between technologies that are already there and those that are or have just started coming up in order for the institutions to be prepared for new developments.

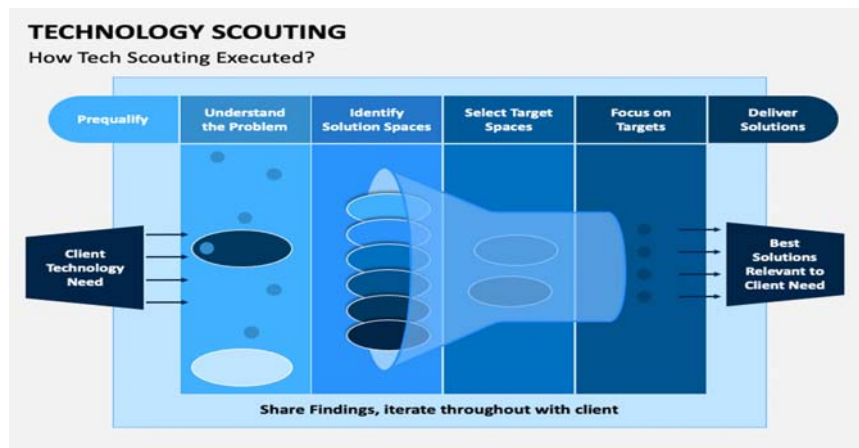


Figure 9.4. Execution of technology scouting. Scouting of technology involves the process of searching for new technology with the intention of developing it to help in a particular aspect. Students need to understand how to scout for new technology in order to help them in their career.

Source: UT Center for Industrial Service.

With this technology, scouting can be seen as a technology management which its intentions are: (1) identify technologies that are emerging, (2) to support the acquiring of new technologies, and (3) new technology information are channeled into an organization. Over the last few years there has been globalization have led to an increase in completion on the open market. This has mostly been led by an urge to try to satisfy and meet customer demands. In the current world, it can be noted that the economic powers are now shifting from developed markets to emerging markets, and this can be seen with how china is developing at a very fast rate.

A recent look into the Chinese higher learning institutions one notices that they are producing many research papers as compared to their competitors and most of these papers are oriented towards science and technology. With this, it leads to most of the technological scouts becoming centered to Chinese institution in order to observe what they are in the process of developing. China alone accounts for almost 5% of the world publications and journals. Of these 5%, the bulk is within physical science and technology with material science, i.e., physics and chemistry being predominant. This is notices in china's traditional core strength of being an economy of a lot manufacturing and a lot of industries. This has led them to investing heavily in educational institution because they know with this it makes china become a platform of strong innovation and modernization of their industries.

In these, there has been external collaborations, which is the collaboration between industries and universities. This has been seen to be beneficial to both parties. This can be seen whereby universities get connections to real world applications, and in some instances, there is an employer waiting for the innovative minds to work for their companies. This collaboration also helps universities get research funding and also increases the access of research. This is beneficial to the industries as the universities already have infrastructure in place to carry out research; hence it becomes cost-effective to them (Jian-Guo, 2009).

Within the research field, it can be noted that with the Chinese researchers, they are more application-driven rather than theoretical which in research is very good as it gives the researcher a hands-on approach and is easier to work out the problems and come up with the best solutions. A good example of technology scouting is through the "863" project which is a government sponsored and monitored project. This project majorly deals with biotechnology, laser technology, marine technology, energy technology, automation technology, information technology and space technology. This

project is carried out by national level institutes and universities. They are mostly carrying out this project for improvement of technology, but the main intention is to improve national security.

With technology scouting, there are several driving factors, and in combination with learning, they correspond with each other.

Globalization; with the becoming a village by the day, learners and educational institutions are getting students from all parts of the world and in this these institutions have to look at innovations from a global perspective and the technological trends that are occurring in order to get the full picture.

Tight budgets; with most research and development departments in companies getting less and less budgets over the years and the cost of their work increasing, they have resorted to external technologies and ideologies, and this helps them remain relevant. This has led to many students learning and being paid salaries at the same time for the work they do for different companies they collaborate with.



Figure 9.5. Working-class students. Most research and development departments have tight budgets, and with the current issues in the societies, the budgets are getting tighter and tighter. Companies have thus resorted to outsourcing the outside technology, which allows them to remain relevant in their industries. As such, they are well within the capacity to pay for the students that are working to aid in paying their school fees.

Source: The Conversation.

Short cycles; with technologies only being relevant for very short periods, companies have to increase their research and development of new products for the ever-changing markets. This is mostly seen with phone companies where these companies have to be constantly releasing new products in order to remain relevant in society.

Flood of information; there is a lot of information out in the world and the industries have to sift through all and they do not stop being provided and hence this leads to technology scouts who in turn look for the relevant information based on the company they are working for. The information that floods the world is from learning institutions, the student have done their research, and with this, each company has to sift through what they want and/or need.

In the world today, technology scouting has led to an increase in innovation capability in that there is an increase in innovation strength whereby, the scouting helps learners and students are efficient and effective in managing the field evaluation, idea generation and project management of an innovation.



Figure 9.6. Netflix is a filming agency that has a good number of subscribers. With the uprising of Netflix, there was the downfall of the blockbusters. It was able to lose its market base since it came up with a new technology that allows its viewers to access films whenever they wanted to. This can be described as a disruptive technology as it was able to replace blockbusters and remove it from the market completely.

Source: Nairobi News-Nation.

There is a reduction in danger of disruptive technologies, with disruptive technologies they have been known to replace existing products and remove

them from the market completely. A good example is blockbuster which was a film and video distribution platform, but with the arrival of Netflix, it lost its market base as Netflix came up with the use of streaming service, blockbuster ended up losing its customers, and it ended up filing for bankruptcy in 2010.

With these, it can be seen that technology scouting helps in education especially in universities where it helps find you and innovative talent and with this university end up getting funding. Young talents and skilled individuals are able to get the right support from big tech and big pharma's in order to develop their innovation. This has led to many collaborations between big tech companies and many big industries and/or companies. This has helped learners get employed early and to the university getting equipment and funding to develop themselves for future students.

9.4. TECHNOLOGY AND MARKET ASSESSMENT

In everything that is new to a company, institution, or company, one needs to look before they leap, and this is the need for market assessment of technologies before they roll into the market. The reason is to make wise decisions based on analysis that has been critically scrutinized on the impact of the technology choice and the market opportunity. This is essential, as information is key in order to launch an innovation into the market and hold an advantage over your competitors. Education to this is very essential as it involves a lot of research into it (Jongbloed et al., 2008).

Students are mainly taught to collect information, i.e., to come up with percentages that are important to a particular product. They are taught to observe the potential market for the product, the demand and supply trends for the intended market and the intended audience. In case there is a competing product, then they are also asked to collect relatable information on the competitor. With all this information, an individual gains insight on the competitors and will learn on the weaknesses of the competitor in order to exploit it so as to get an advantage the shared market.

Another aspect to be observed is the fact that people might see education as a one-room schoolhouse, but education has evolved, and it has grown to become an industry that is spanning the whole world. This has led to a significant growth and investment in the education sector. This has led to investors and companies dealing in education to note; rapid growth in population from developing countries, there has been an increase in demand

for educational tech tools and services, an increase in digitization, which is seen to increase outcome and efficiency.



Figure 9.7. Students learning in a zoom meeting. Education is no longer a one-room schoolhouse, and currently it has developed all around the world in that students are even learning worldwide. It has become an industry that is spanning all around the world, and as such, investors are investing in the same.

Source: Zoom Blog.

With development of technology, there has been an increase assessment of schools as a market. This is observed because educational institutions are now trying to modernize, and many tech companies are trying to outdo each other in order to get that market as it is heavily funded. With the increase in use of computers, laptops, tablets, and mobile devices, they are majorly used in learning institutions. They are used to improve information retaining ability and to ease the workload of the teacher. These devices have reduced contact, which can be good or bad based on the situation, e.g., in 2020 during the covid-19 pandemic schools were closed, but learning had to continue hence the use of these gadgets, on the hand it leads to reduction in social behavior especially among children. The school is then seen as a market for tech products as the better the tech, the more the consumers as this is a very large market base as it might comprise of each household.

Educational institutions can be used as a source of data collection center for use to assess the different markets. This is mostly done by universities and national institutes.as assessment requires gathering information universities have ended collaborating with big industries from farming to technology to medicine and even the environment. This means the big industries providing

the funding and target market as the student be tasked with looking for ways to gather information and data (Jones et al., 2010). With this, students get to acquire direct application of knowledge they have acquired from school. They use it to get marks and get their certificates as it also prepares them for the job market.

With the different products entering the market this means there is intensified market assessment, where they use these steps; 1) determine the purpose, an individual should understand why they are carrying out the market analysis, 2) research on the state of the industry, one needs to understand the industry whether there is a future for the product to be rolled out, 3) identify the target consumer, the market analyzer needs to know the customers they are targeting for their product, 4) understand the competition, relevant information about the competing product or company in order to counter and even overdo what they can produce, 5) gather additional information, this is to further increase on the information so as to help in decision making, 6) analyze the data, this is calculate the numbers and come up with good ways to improve a product and how to attract new customers and 7) put the analysis to work.

9.5. IP PROTECTION AND MANAGEMENT

This involves protection of intangible creations of the human intellect and how it is managed. They are usually known as copyrights, patents, trademarks, and trade secrets. They can include inventions. It is mostly divided into two. These include; industry property, which may include patents, inventions, trademarks, industrial designs, etc., and the second one, is; copyright it overs literary works, e.g., novels, poems, plays, movies, etc. for companies especially the big pharma the IP is more important than the physical asset. In most cases, many students come up with very good ideas and inventions.

The main disadvantage is that big industries carry out research with these students and when these students come up with brilliant inventions, they are tied down with the agreements they signed; hence they end up losing the prized possession. Many students are now encouraged to enter into agreements that are beneficial to them at the moment and their future. Some students have developed new inventions that are priced high but bought down due to their naivety.

When these students understand what they have, these are the steps they follow to keep their IP safe. 1) Know the type of Intellectual Property (IP)

one has. 2) know where the intellectual property is and who has access to it (the less the better), 3) prioritize your intellectual property, 4) label value the intellectual property, this helps when stolen as it will be seen that it was protected and nobody without access is allowed to retrieve it, 5) secure the intellectual property to ensure it is safe and inaccessible. Keep access to the information to yourself,

The intellectual Property world is very productive and profitable; with these, it means innovators are prime targets by companies either to buy it from them or work with them for them to have access to the property. Researchers in institutions such as universities encourage students to be innovative and most give credit to students even though they helped in the development.



Figure 9.8. Students being innovative. Apart from the university level, educators and organizations are encouraging the students to be innovative in order to help build the society. With the achievement of an innovative mind, students will be able to manage themselves in the future, especially in their careers. Technology is currently the driver of the economy and as such need to be diffused to the lives of the young generations to ensure the success of the future.

Source: The Tech Advocate.

9.6. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND ON INNOVATION DIFFUSION

According to Rogers, innovation diffusion can be described as the process of communication, the spread and the adoption of new ideas among the social communities or rather the individuals around the world. In his explanation, Rogers was able to describe that it is not only the new ideas that are of great significance but also the social networks that allow the communication of the ideas. Both aspects are considered to be important in the process as they are ideal in the process of understanding innovation diffusion and how it is developed across various organizations. A number of researchers agree with the fact that social networks are considered as important as they allow the communication of new ideas. In particular, it allows for the link between the technology suppliers and the users of the same. It shows that both strong and weak relationships are important in the process of diffusing new ideas to the members of the society. The strong ties normally exist between the members that work within an organization, while the weak ties represent the link between the members of the society and the organizations that exist in different sectors. These are the stores in which the individuals relate to in their day-to-day activities. The process is considered to be very important in the process of innovation diffusion since through weak ties the organization is within the capacity to go beyond their usual way of operation.

According to the community innovation survey that was conducted by the department of trade and industry, innovation diffusion can be fully understood and described in two distinct ways. There is the description of innovation as two types of the same namely the product and process. In the description of innovation as a product innovation, it is claimed as a market in which there is the introduction of a new good or a service or a significantly improved good or a service with regards to the capabilities that they have (Hu et al., 2014). Such capabilities include those of quality, being user friendly in terms of the software that it uses and the subsystems that it has. In order to be considered as new, the innovation must not only be new to the society but the organization as well. The vice versa is actually not true since the innovation need to be new to the organization but in other cases are considered to be new to the market. It does not actually matter if the innovation was initially developed by the enterprise or rather the other enterprises.

have been able to establish their standards in order to make sure that all the students are within the capacity to improve their academic performance. This was done by ensuring that they can be able to monitor the students' performance by the provision of a statewide assessment tests. The educators were filled with the responsibility to ensure that the students were able to perform hence a high level of accountability and as such were required to meet the needs of all the students. In order to have the capacity to meet this level of accountability, it is the duty of the educators to possess the knowledge and skills to be able to instruct, assess, provide a curriculum and further be able to master how these skills can be implemented in order to ensure that there is the improvement of the academic performance of all the students (Heward et al., 2006).

With the introduction of standardized tests, schools were faced with the challenge, which is that of equipping the teachers with the real skills, and the strategies that are required of them to perform successfully. It has also become clear over the years that in helping students achieve their academic success, understanding their individual learning needs will not be the only determinant. In the current society, there are high stakes in the nature in which the students are being assessed and thus raising the expectation to enhance the instructional support that is provided to the educators.

Through the staff development programs, the educators are exposed to the knowledge and skills that are required for having better instructional strategies, assessments, and curriculum. The staff development is a term that is used by most educators in describing the continued education of the teachers, administrators, and all the other school employees. It is considered a very special component in each school system and designed to arm all of the staff with the proper skills to create an atmosphere for the students that will aid them in achieving successful education. In the process of integrating the new knowledge and skills in their everyday lessons, teachers are well within their capacity to ensure a great degree of success, as they can be able to help the students achieve higher education standards. Various researchers have been able to agree with Sparks and Loucks-Horsley that staff development is the process in which job related knowledge, skills, and attitudes of school employees are being improved. Furthermore, they have the capacity to show a number of effective practices such as:

- Teachers participating as the helpers to each other and to the administrators as well

- Emphasizing on the need for students to be self-instructors and have different training opportunities.
- The programs that are being conducted within the school need to be in conjunction with the efforts of the schools in the region.
- Teachers having an active role and having the capacity to choose activities on their own.
- The need for an ongoing supervision for the students and availability of support from their teachers when the need arises.

In order to ensure the success of the schools, there need be staff development programs that are aimed at improving the education standards for the students. In the process, the goals of most nations is that as part of the teachers' daily work, all the teachers in the schools need to be able to experience a high quality education experience. This will be able to improve the practice of the teachers while in the process impact the performance of the students.



Figure 9.10. Better academic performance of the students. In order to achieve better academic performance, teachers need to be able to experience high quality education experience. This can be achieved through the adoption of quality staff development programs.

Source: EduCare Student Service.

Quality staff development programs have been developed to be able to incorporate various standards such as content cognition and context. Such standards help in the provision of a benchmark for most if not all schools in assessing the development programs that have been adopted in their

schools. When the schools align their staff development programs with the above stated standards, the learning by the students can be easily improved. Through a publication described as *Breaking Ranks II*, the National Association of Secondary Schools agreed that the alignment of quality staff development with the above stated standards would not only be beneficial to the schools but to the country at large. The recommendation by the researchers is that the standards be used as an assessment tool to ascertain the level of adherence by the schools to the stated standards. If the standards are used in a certain particular manner, one can be able to easily determine whether they can be able to equip educators with the required knowledge and skills to reach all the students.

Staff development is only seen to be significant when the educators take charge in implementing the process. It should not only be once but a number of times in their teaching process and in their strategies. By implementing, a new acquired knowledge is what researchers describe as knowing-doing gap. It is believed that individuals and organizations are not good at or rather not successful in the implementation of a new activity, which is the reason for the prevention of sustainable growth. The reason behind why instructors fail to implement interventions or fail when implemented is the fact that such interventions require the instructors to change their instructional practice (Gough, 2013). In other cases, and actually in most, the teacher is always unwilling to take the risk of implementing a particular strategy. According to the researchers Pfeffer and Sutton, they stated that, “people in many organizations are highly skilled in making excuses about why something cannot be done, why something will not be able to work and therefore why the present, albeit imperfect, condition is presumed to be better than trying something new and actually implementing new knowledge and ideas.”

In order to be successful in the current society, there is need for diffusion of information regarding the best practices. Ideally, knowledge that is acquired by doing is considered more efficient than reading, listening, and even talking. Knowledge transfer and technology diffusion in the education system is considered as one of the best education practices. To fully understand the best education practices, they need to be explained.



Figure 9.11. Innovation diffusion in the classroom. Adoption of technology in the classroom is considered one of the best education practices.

Source: The Conversation.

9.8. BEST EDUCATION PRACTICES

Best education practices comprise of a wide range of activities, policies, and programmatic approaches, all mainly set to achieve positive changes in student's attitudes or academic behaviors to enhance class and general life performance. The term is used to encompass the different levels that are involved in supporting students and or educational institutions outcomes to be promising, validated, and exemplary. Research findings have reported parental involvement to be powerful in enhancing educational activities. Parents who create a comfortable environment in their homes for their children are likely to create a positive impact on their children's performance in their academic work. The home environment has a very powerful effect on what children and youth learn within and outside the school settings. This environment is considerably more powerful than the parents' income and education in influencing what children learn in the first six years of their life and during the twelve years of primary and secondary education in the early education life. One major reason why parental influence is so strong is that, from infancy until the age of eighteen, children spend approximately 92% of their time outside school under the influence of their parents or guardians. The joined efforts by parents and educators to modify these alterable academic conditions in the home have strong and very beneficial effects on knowledge acquirement and skill learning in the classroom.

In about Twenty-nine researched study's authors have reported, about 91% of the comparisons favored children in this kind of systems over non-participant control groups. In the classroom sometimes called 'the curriculum of the home,' the home environment refers to informed parent/child conversations about school and everyday events, encouragement on the schooling as well as discussion of leisure reading; monitoring and critical review of television viewing and peer activities; deferral of immediate gratification to accomplish long-term goals; expressions of affection and interest in the child's academic and other progress as a person; and perhaps, among such unremitting efforts, laughter and caprice. This is all made possible with parent involvement in the student learning (Furlong, 2005). Reading to children and discussing everyday events by parents prepare students for academic activities before attending school institutions. Collaboration between educators and parents can support these approaches to be effective and efficient. Educators or teachers can suggest specific activities likely to promote children's learning at home and in school settings. They can also develop and organize large-scale teacher/parent programs to promote academically stimulating conditions and activities outside the school in a systematic and orderly manner. Learning is enhanced when schools encourage parents to stimulate their children's intellectual development. Some instructions may choose to set aside a day for academic discussions with parents, teachers and students for those in boarding schools setting institutions. This approach is reported to increase the students in the boarding schools learning capabilities and enhance the knowledge gained as the student is motivated by this activity.

Alternatively, other authors have argued that students who are given assignments and go with them at home to do as homework are more likely to learn more. Students learn more when they complete homework that is graded, commented upon, and discussed by their teachers in class or in-person on what was expected in their homework. Many research findings find that assignment and completion of homework as well as graded homework yield positive effects on academic achievement. The effects are almost tripled when teachers take time to grade the work, make corrections and detailed comments on improvements that can be made, and discuss problems and solutions with individual students or the whole class in general during class hours. Homework also seems particularly effective in also secondary school. In the classroom, among developed countries, the United States has the least number of school days because of the long summer vacation. Students also spend less time, on average, doing homework. Extending homework

time is a proven way to lengthen study time and increase achievement, although the quality of the assignments and of the completed work is also important. Like a three-legged stool, homework requires a teacher to assign it and provide feedback, a parent to monitor it and a student to do it. If one leg is weak, the stool may fall down. The role of the teacher in providing feedback in reinforcing what has been done correctly and in re-teaching what has not is the key to maximizing the positive impact of homework. Districts and schools that have well-known homework policies for daily minutes of required work are likely to reap benefits. Homework ‘hotlines’ in which students may call in for help have proved useful in the developed educational systems. This enables the learner to learn faster because he or she is comfortable at learning.

Teachers could also employ procedures in which students are given an opportunity to grade their fellow students work. This approach not only relieve the teachers workload of grading but also enables students to learn cooperative social skills in the class as well as learn on how to evaluate their own efforts and the efforts of others.’ The quality of homework is as important as the amount and or the quantity. Effective homework is relevant to the lessons to be learned and in keeping with students’ abilities. This is so as to ensure continuous learning by the students and learners in their academics.

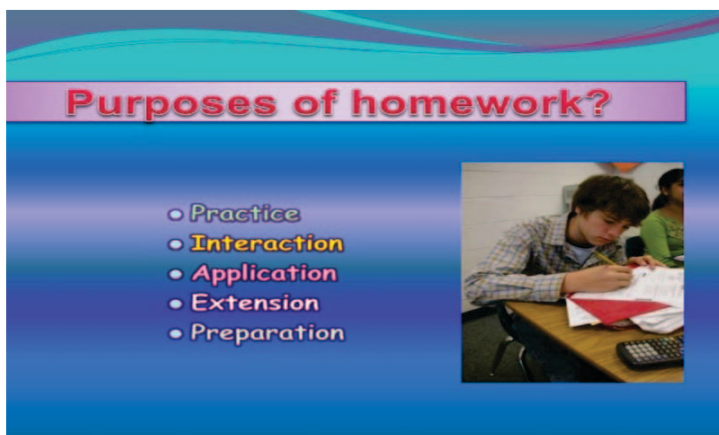


Figure 9.12. Homework for students. it is aimed at maintaining the students’ abilities by ensuring that they practice what they have been learning in schools.

Source: SlideShare.

Given that from research findings, many students study more than they learn, the students' time should be aligned properly to ensure better performance. Time alone, however, does not suffice. Learning activities should reflect educational goals. This alignment or co-ordination of means with goals can be called curricular focus or study focus. A similar reform term is systemic reform, which means that the three components of the curriculum, which are goals, textbooks, materials and learning activities, and tests including other outcome assessments are well-matched in content and emphasis, are allocated for time effectively. In the classroom, the amount learned reflects both study time and curricular focus. Curricular focus represents efforts to decide what should be learned by a given age or grade level and then concentrating attention, time and energy on these elements. Consequently, students at a given grade level should have greater degrees of shared knowledge and skills as prerequisites for further learning; teachers may then avoid excessive review; and progress can be better assessed (Edmond, 2001). Teachers have the most direct role in ensuring that this emphasis is carried into the classroom. The teacher's skillful classroom management, by taking into account what is to be learned and identifying the most efficient ways to present it, increases effective study time. Students who are actively engaged in activities focused on specific instructional goals make more progress towards these goals. Additionally, students who visit the library for personal studies are also more likely to perform exemplary in their class and academic tests.

Learners who are actively focused and motivated on educational goals do best in mastering the subject matter. Many studies show that direct teaching can be effective in promoting student learning. The process emphasizes systematic sequencing of lessons, a presentation of new content and skills, guided student practice, the use of feedback and independent practice by students. The traits of teachers employing effective direct instruction include clarity, task orientation, enthusiasm and flexibility. Effective direct teachers also clearly organize their presentations and occasionally use student ideas. In the classroom, the use of direct teaching can be traced to the turn of the last century; it is what many citizens and parents expect to see in classrooms. Completed well, it can yield consistent and substantial results. Whole-class teaching of diverse groups may mean that lessons are too advanced for slower students and too repetitive for the quick. In the last decade or two, moreover, theorists have tried to transfer more control of lesson planning and completion to students themselves so that they 'learn to learn,' as several subsequent practices exemplify. Six phased functions

of direct teaching work well include Daily review, homework check and, if necessary, reteaching, Presentation of new content and skills in small steps, Guided student practice with close teacher monitoring, Corrective feedback and instructional reinforcement, Independent practice in work at the desk and in homework with a high (more than 90%) success rate and Weekly and monthly reviews. These could be termed as a good educational practice is done consistently in the learners' academic life. Direct teaching is most effective when it exhibits key features and follows systematic steps in the delivery of learnings to students.



Figure 9.13. Direct teaching in a classroom. With direct teaching, students are in the capacity to understand what is being taught.

Source: Dataworks Educational Research.

Advanced organizers have shown that when teachers explain how new ideas in the current lesson relate to ideas in previous lessons and other prior learning, students can connect the old with the new, which helps them to better remember and understand. This is a best education practice that is meant to increase the learner's memory in his or her studies. Similarly, alerting them to the learning of key points allows them to concentrate on the most crucial parts of the lessons. In the classroom, Advance organizers help students focus on key ideas by enabling them to anticipate which points are important to learn. Understanding the sequence or continuity of subject-matter development, moreover, can be motivating. If students simply learn one isolated idea after another, the subject matter may appear arbitrary.

Given a ‘mental road map’ of what they have accomplished, where they are presently, and where they are going can avoid unpleasant surprises and help them to set realistic goals.

Similar effects can be accomplished by goal setting, overviewing and pre-testing before lessons that sensitize students to important points and questions that they will encounter in textbooks and will be presented by teachers. It may also be useful to show how what is being learned solves problems that exist in the world outside school and that students are likely to meet in life (Dewey, 2012). For example, human biology that features nutrition and its implications for food choices is likely to be more interesting than abstract biology. Teachers and textbooks can sometimes make effective use of graphic advance organizers. Maps, timetables, flow charts depicting the sequence of activities, and other such devices may be worth hundreds of words. They may also be easier to remember when they are given a recap, and they get to understand the connectivity of the different concepts in the classroom by their teachers.

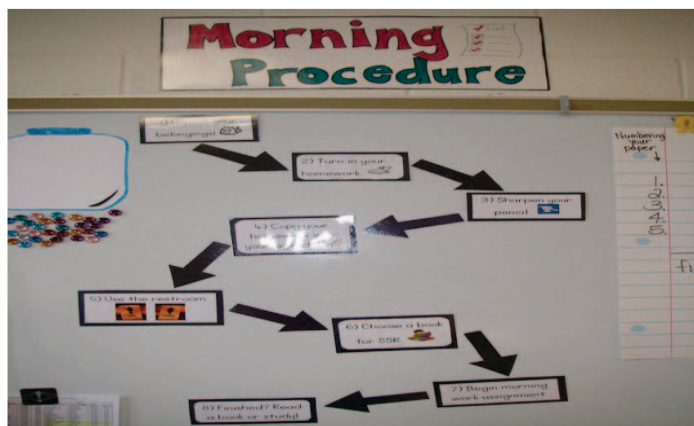


Figure 9.14. The use of flow charts in the classroom. This helps both the teachers and the students to know what the activities of a particular day are which allows for better preparation.

Source: Pinterest.

The teaching of learning strategies is another good practice that sought ways to encourage self-monitoring, self-teaching or ‘meta-cognition’ to foster achievement and independence in the student during his study periods in class. Skills are important, but the learner’s monitoring and management of his or her own learning have primacy. This approach transfers part of the

direct teaching functions of planning, allocating time and review to learners. Being aware of what goes on in one's mind during learning is a critical first step to effective independent learning. Some students have been found to lack this self-awareness and must be taught the skills necessary to monitor and regulate their own learning. Many studies have demonstrated that positive effects can accrue from developed skills. In the classroom, Students with a repertoire of learning strategies can measure their own progress towards explicit goals. When students use these strategies to strengthen their opportunities for learning, they simultaneously increase their skills of self-awareness, personal control, and positive self-evaluation. Three possible phases of teaching about learning strategies include modelling, in which the teacher exhibits the desired behavior, Guided practice, in which students perform with help from the teacher and Application, during which students act independently of the teacher.

Tutoring is another education practice that gears learning to student needs. It has yielded large learning effects in several dozen studies. It yields particularly large effects in mathematics, perhaps because of the subject's well-defined sequence and organization. If students fall behind in a fast-paced mathematics class, they may never catch up unless their particular problems are identified and remedied. Even slower-learning students and those with disabilities can be in the position of teaching to others if they are given the extra time and practice that may be required to master a skill. This can give them a positive experience and increase their feelings of self-esteem. The tutoring of classroom of students is a good practice that enhances student's performance. Some learners can today access the internet for further learning from the YouTube instructors. The technology advancement promotes learning of students by tutors using online platforms, which increases their performance in class.

As such, in order to ensure that there is success in the classroom and realize success, the educators need to realize the importance of implementing the various strategies that they have learnt through staff development. The process is considered harmless since it can be attested that student learning can be limited even If the teacher is talented (Davies et al., 2005). The educators are considered to be good as the methods that they are using in their teaching process. At most, instances, the knowledge that is introduced to the teachers tend to contribute to the level of strategy adoption. Rogers tried to explain the process of how individuals learn new knowledge, the implementation process and how it can be sustained into practice over time. To fully understand this, Rogers using the innovation-decision process,

which consists of five stages, explained it. The first stage is one in which knowledge occurs when an individual or other decision making unit tends to be exposed in an innovation existence and gains an understanding of how it functions. Once one is exposed to a particular innovation, it is important that they are able to grasp the content or rather the aspect of the innovation in order to ensure that there is success, especially when implementing the process.

The second step is the one in which persuasion can only occur when an individual or a particular decision making unit forms a rather favorable or an unfavorable attitude towards an innovation. When an innovation strikes, there are those individuals that will have a positive attitude towards it, and there are those that have a negative attitude towards the same. As such, it is the responsibility of the innovator to persuade all the individuals of the advantages that are attached to the process.

The third step is that decision can only take place when an individual or a decision-making unit engages in activities that lead to them having the choice of adopting a particular innovation. In an innovation, there are those activities that drive individual towards its adoption of the particular innovation. Those are the news that individuals should engage themselves in.

The fourth step is that the implementation takes place when an individual or the decision-making unit puts the new ideas into practice. As discussed earlier, one can only learn something much better when they do it. This is what is described as learning by doing (Chemerinsky, 2002).

The fifth and the final step is that confirmation of the success of the process can only be confirmed when the individual seeks reinforcement of an innovation-decision that has already been made. At this point, the individual may reverse the decision that he/she made previously once they are exposed to conflicting messages regarding the same innovation.

With the development of the staff to the instructional strategies, the application of the same in their daily practice can be very beneficial to the school and the nation at large.

Chapter 10

Education Policies in Europe

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10.1. INTRODUCTION

European countries are mostly governed by a body known as the European Union (EU), which sets up policies and regulations for European countries who are members on matters regarding education. All the countries are responsible for playing a supporting role. Under article 165 of the Treaty of the Functioning of the European Union, the member countries shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between member states, through actions such as promoting the mobility of citizens, designing joint study programs, establishing networks, exchanging information or teaching languages of the European Union. The Treaty also contains a commitment to promote life-long learning for all citizens of the Union (Brehony, 2004).

Funding is also done by the European Union. They fund sectors of education, vocational, and citizen building programs that enables citizens of member countries to take advantage of the vast opportunities being provided such as studying, living, and getting employment in other member states in Europe. The Erasmus program is the commonly known program that has enrolled over three million students who have been involved in inter University exchange and mobility. This has been happening for more than two decades. Since 2000, the European Union has a clear conscious on matters regarding the goals that are in line with the social and economic objectives of member states. There is a specific amount of money that the European Union is required to contribute in order to realize their education policy goals. This is known as the European regional development fund.



EUROPEAN UNION

**EUROPEAN REGIONAL
DEVELOPMENT FUND**

A WAY TO MAKE EUROPE

Figure 10.1. The European regional development fund.

Source: https://ec.europa.eu/eip/ageing/funding/ERDF_en.html.

This has made all the member states to work together to achieve these goals by empowering their students with the required knowledge

and technical knowhow. This is being implemented by ensuring there is illustration of good educational policies, engaging in peer learning activities, setting up revenue point and a base that will be used as a benchmark and closely tracking progress against the main indicators set. The twenty-seven member states of the European Union are working closely to try to curb some challenges they are facing, which is common and at the same time not altering the sovereign nature of each member state education policies. This strategy is referred to as the Education and Training 2020 program (ET2020), which is an update of the Education and Training 2010 program.

The European Union are also part of some inter-governmental program such as the Bologna process. Its objective is to create a higher education platform through the harmonization of academic degree structures and realizing the necessary standards needed. Quality assurance across the different member states are also set up.



Figure 10.2. The Bologna process.

Source: https://ec.europa.eu/education/news/the-bologna-process-implementation-report-2018-an-update-on-the-european-higher-education-area_hr.

Education development policies has been on the rise throughout the whole world. The concept of education development is something that is being grown and introduced into the modern world as there is continuous invention of technology which has been infused with the current world to ensure there is sustainability not only in education, but also education. There are no criteria that indicates that an educator qualifies to be called a digital educator though, there are steps and strategies that have to be followed and taken to bring you closer to that. Digital transformation is starting to shape

currently. There are vital fundamentals that need to be adhered to in order to bring forth digital education implementation in European policies. These four core fundamentals include

- data and analytics;
- digital education strategy;
- innovative culture and lifestyle; and
- teacher and student engagement.

These are the values that the education sector in Europe needs to use as a reference point in order to steer the students forward into the education world and enable them to study at the highest standard possible to enable them to be quality professionals in the future which will enhance employability.

The policies designed in the Erasmus project has enabled higher learning for girls. About 61% of Erasmus students are girls, and this is a significant milestone in the European education sector. They are able to learn and become well versed with the fast growing digital economy enabling them to become important people in the world.

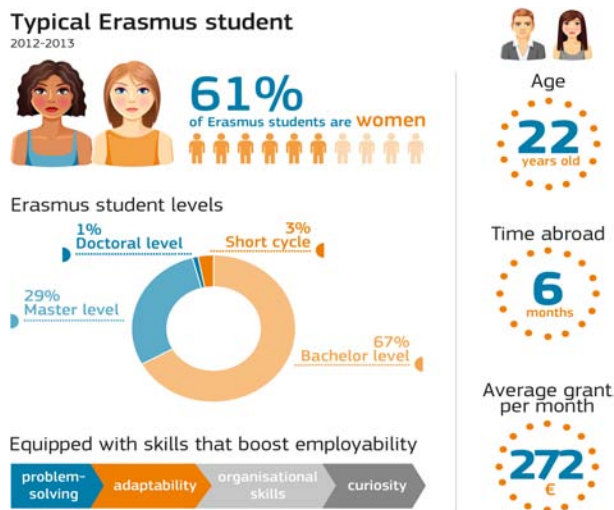


Figure 10.3. Typical Erasmus students being equipped with knowledge.

Source: <https://www.topuniversities.com/student-info/university-news/erasmus-sets-new-record-study-abroad-funding>.

10.2. DATA AND ANALYTICS WITH REFERENCE TO EUROPEAN UNION POLICIES

This is the procedure of collecting a specific, raw data and doing thorough scrutiny on it in order to come up with trends and solutions to problems. Many techniques are used in the analysis of data in order to achieve a certain goal. The process of data analytics has many components, and by combining the components, one will be able to identify where you have been, where you are, and the projection of where you will be.

This procedure begins with a description of the data that is descriptive analytics. This aims to describe the trends that were recorded in the past. The main objective of descriptive analytics is to show what happened. In the procedure, traditional indicators are normally measured. In business, an indicator such as return of investment (ROI). Descriptions will vary in different works of life. Descriptive analytics will not be able to foresee trends or give a conclusive finding (Altun, 2017).

The next core step in data analytics is advanced analytics. This step takes full advantage of high end technology in collecting data, making forecasts and establishing trends. Some of the advanced tools used involve probability and statistics and machine learning. In machine learning, there are techniques used such as neural networks, natural language processing and sentiment analysis. The introduction of quality machine learning techniques, affordable computer technology, and numerous data sets has made it accessible for these techniques to be utilized in many industries. Industries collect big data sets as it helps them in making conclusive results from complicated and varied data. Collection of big data has been made possible through the advancement of parallel processing.

10.2.1. Types of Data Analytics

When it comes to data analytics, there is a very broad spectrum. There are four core types of data analytics mainly descriptive, diagnostic, predictive and prescriptive. Each of these analytics have an objective, and they are utilized at different levels in the data entry process. The data above is applied in education in the following ways.

Descriptive analytics is used to solve queries regarding to what happened. Extensive data sets are given a summary which makes it comprehensible to the responsible parties. Through the designing of key performance indicators, educators are able to identify and keep track of success and failures. Metrics

such as return on investment is being used in education analysis. More specific metrics are also designed to help in other education operations. In this procedure, data is collected, processed, analyzed, and visualized. These helps in helping us understand historical data.

In diagnostic analysis, we ask ourselves why things happened. It is used to add supplements to basic forms of descriptive analysis. Intelligence gathered from descriptive analysis is picked and looked into deeper. Performance indicators are then analyzed to understand the reason why they improved or regressed. A three-step process is used:

- Identification of anomalies in the data set which may have been caused by changes in the metrics or a market.
- Any data that is connected to the identified anomalies is collected.
- Mathematical methods are applied to identify the relationships and trends which will help explain the anomalies.

Predictive analysis helps one to understand and answer questions of what might occur in the future. It takes advantage of historical data which will give an idea of what the future trend might be and the chances of recurrence. The tools used in predictive analysis provides vital insights on future trends, and they are mostly statistical and machine learning techniques like regression modelling.

Prescriptive analysis helps us know what needs to be done. Using the findings from this analysis, decisions can be driven from data. This enable organization to make sound decisions in the face of uncertainty. Machine learning skills are able to get needed information from large data sets, and thus it is used. By the analysis of historical data, unexpected outcomes can be estimated and approximated (Alam, 2016).

Combining these data analysis techniques enables educators to come up with effective and efficient decisions which will optimize the operations of the education. The importance of data analysis is that it can help optimize operations by analyzing large data sets enabling it to be viable in the current competitive market. The finances sector are among the markets that took advantage of this. They are able to predict market trends which enables them to make sound decisions in trade. Example is credit risk has been mitigated through the analysis of different data of clients and determining their creditworthiness. Fraud in financial institutions have also been reduced significantly through data analysis. Apart from profit maximization, data analysis has helped in other sectors. Vital information regarding health like the inflow of patients, proper record keeping and the development of new

drugs in the pharmaceutical industry, crime prevention, and environmental care have been analyzed and helped in these sectors. Data analysis on statistics has helped in research and development. The Internet of things (IoT) is a field that is used alongside machine learning. These devices provide a great opportunity for data analytics. IoT devices often contain many sensors that collect meaningful data points for their operation. Devices like the Nest thermostat track movement and temperature to regulate heating and cooling. Smart devices like this can use data to learn from and predict your behavior. This will provide advanced home automation that can adapt to the way you live



Figure 10.4. Types of data analytics in policy implementation.

Source: <https://datafloq.com/read/the-four-types-of-data-analytics/3903>.

10.3. DIGITAL EDUCATIONAL STRATEGY WITH THE CURRENT POLICIES BEING IMPLEMENTED

Digital education strategy is the process of integrating technology in the education framework in order to create a differential that will give education the competitive advantage it needs in the market. As stated, technology is the main focus, whether if it comes to creating a new product or re-imagining the current procedures being applied. The strategy aims in giving a specific

trajectory to which the education will take in order to create a competitive advantage. Also, the strategy outlines the tactics that will be employed in the transition process. Services that were not present in the old model will be added to make the strategy successful.

The combining of technology and education has infused the aspect of hardware and software. The way technology is being heavily involved in the education world, it will reach a point that education strategies will also be the same as digital strategy but also now we should focus on education strategy to focus on efforts being made in digital initiatives. Digital strategy is met halfway as a concept and an actual thing. This is because digital strategy should be modelled in a way that the end goal becomes something concrete and feasible in the current world. For instance, if you want to monetize a program you created. First of all, you need to strategize how the program will be vital be the end-user and sell it to them. You may find out that the program can be sold to other companies, and you make more money. From this, you have to change the strategy, but your end goal is still the same. To make money, the guiding idea can be changed to your interests, but the solid strategies should remain intact in order to achieve the end goal.

10.3.1. Digital Strategy in the Context of Digital Transformation

Usually people tend to confuse digital strategy and digital transformation. They are similar, but they have different meanings. When it comes to student experience, procedures regarding operations and education frameworks, digital transformation drives changes in these sectors. In order for education transformation to happen, the overall culture of the education needs to shift, and coordination among the departments should be paramount (Andrabi et al., 2011).

When we talk about education strategy, we focus on technology and less about culture. It is more relevant to shifts in organizational frameworks by adopting frameworks that give the company capabilities to become a digital education. Coming up with an education strategy is paramount to steer digital transformation as it helps to come up with proper implementation in a manner that is in synchronization with the education objective.

10.3.2. Digital Strategy versus It Strategy

According to different sources, digital strategy looks for ways of using technology to transform activities in organizations, whereas IT strategy

aims at transforming technology solely disregarding the education aspect. The latter mainly focuses on what is the best technology to invest in, with education being the point of reference. The former looks for services and activities that need to undergo transformation in order to benefit the students. This is done by combining technology and education strategies. Digital educators have gotten a competitive advantage by employing these strategies in their education.

10.3.3. How to Create a Digital Strategy?

There are five questions a digital educator should ask when formulating a digital strategy:

- Does digital technology change the education system you should be in?
- How could digital technology improve the way you add value to the education you are in?
- Could digital technology change your target student?
- Does digital technology affect the value proposition to your target student?
- How can digital technology enhance the enterprise capabilities that differentiate you from your competition?
- To some companies, such questions are pretty much obvious since they have already understood their market and the competition it entails.

10.3.4. Components Needed When Formulating a Digital Strategy

- Pick a digital educator: picking a suitable educator is the most vital step when creating a digital strategy. The culture, priorities and the structure of the education will determine the type of educator that will be picked. If the chief executive officer or any other employed worker will get the role, his ambitions should coincide with the digital strategy goals.
- Attack verses defend: it is important to outline the potential threats and opportunities in digital education. This is according to McKinsey and company. Once the threats and opportunities have been identified, they are then compared against their digital strategy purpose. This enables the organization to determine

whether to use a proactive or a defensive move.

- Employ a measured approach: an educator needs to assess whether an employed strategy will complement the education or will develop the ongoing operations. Organizations tend to panic when they realize they are behind schedule when it comes to implementing technology in their operations, making them to initiate projects that are not in the same trajectory as the digital strategy objectives. Therefore, accessing the situation will come in handy in order to help save on using resources and initiating projects that don't suit the education strategy.
- Future proof: the aim of digital transformation is to create a solid foundation in educational operations. This implies that the strategy should be designed in a way that will allow reinvention when necessary in order to enable the education to be at par with the fast evolving digital world.

10.4. INNOVATIVE CULTURE AND LIFESTYLE

The European world follow rules in extreme measures. In order for education to stay relevant in this fast moving world, they need to develop the culture of being innovative. Innovation can be motivated by monitoring the trends in the market and adjusting your digital strategy accordingly. Many organizations claim they want to be innovative in their operations, but most don't know what it entails (Zajda, 2020).

Innovation is critical, but every organization applies different forms of innovation depending on the nature of its education. Because of this, innovations are the marginal, incremental improvement, enhancement and changes of an education strategy. When the marginal changes are done daily, weekly, monthly and yearly, they build up to a significant change and brings about the needed adaptation to the education. When we discuss about innovation in the education sector, adaptation of technology will definitely play a significant part. When you mix technology and the marginal changes in the operations of education gradually, the culture and lifestyle of innovation will be achieved. Once you find a digital educator who is aware of these and is passionate to implement this in the organization, sooner or later you will experience significant transformation in the education.

10.4.1. Characteristics of An Innovative Culture

- Active opportunity management: new opportunities should always be actively pursued by identifying them, prioritizing/not prioritizing and allocating the necessary resources to them. Opportunity management should be an ongoing procedure through conversations, conventions and strategic meetings.
- Enough funding of ideas: new ideas cost money to be funded and therefore, enough money should be set aside to help steer the idea to reality or else it will die at its PowerPoint. At the beginning of the year, the funding should be already allocated and protected. This implies that the funds set aside doesn't have any sure idea to fund and therefore, a leap of faith is required.
- Education role modelling: Digital educators should inspire possibility and need to have the required energy. They should be present at every meeting and should be the last one to leave the meeting. He or she should be active and contribute ideas and perspectives. They should be receptive to new and fresh ideas and be wise enough to know how to incorporate a worthy idea into the digital strategy.
- Stretch goals and a higher purpose: the digital strategy team have a task of brainstorming and thinking outside the box in order to think differently and bring about innovation. The ideas should be attainable but should have a certain level of difficulty, which leads to a challenge. The idea should be visionary as it should be long term. Emotional attachment is also vital as it will give us motivation to achieve it and satisfaction once achieved.
- External stimulus: through partnership, new and fresh ideas can be obtained. This is called diversification. The knowledge gained is used to inspire and fuel new ideas.
- Controlled madness: anything is possible with the right high powered creativity, smart analysis and advanced technology. One should push their boundaries (Young, 2008).
- Up-down-left-right collaboration: working in small groups with different people fuels up the level of creativity. Hierarchy is set aside and everyone involved is welcomed to air in their opinion. Diversity becomes an advantage in this situation.
- Stories everywhere: during your social life or professional life, you might decide to ask someone their activity they have

recently partaken that was innovative. When such stories are told and retold, they end up being legends, and this gives others the motivation to do something that will make them be a part of the narrative. Stories end up being recognition.

- **Humility:** people should be willing to see loopholes in their innovation and be able to rectify them. Wins should be shared and not grabbed. One needs to be humble enough to enable for collaboration and togetherness. Humility also enhances the spark of innovation.
- **Room for crazies:** one needs to be courageous enough to stand out of the crowd and be honest regarding to what he feels. Team members should not judge fast and should be able to critic the ideas brought forward meticulously. In order for you to stretch the boundaries of ideas, one should be able to stretch the level of their talent, and in such an environment, empathy becomes vital.

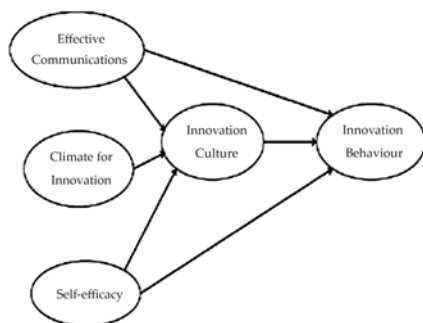


Figure 10.5. Sample model for innovation culture and innovative behavior.

Source: https://www.researchgate.net/figure/The-model-for-innovation-culture-and-innovative-behavior_fig2_321665081.

10.5. TEACHER AND STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

Student and teacher management is used to measure how teachers value their company and their stakeholders, which involves student. It shows how the stakeholders value the company and how they play a part in ensuring that it is successful. In order to enhance student satisfaction, teacher engagement needs to be evaluated and analyzed. This is a metric that is vital in analyzing student satisfaction. This is because if teachers are satisfied and happy with their duties, it shows that student satisfaction can be achieved as they will

get proper services from the teachers. If there is a high engagement of your teachers to your education, they will show a higher commitment to the education leading to its overall success. Below are some of the benefits of teacher engagement.

- **Enhanced corporate alignment:** a company's success is highly contributed with the level of engagement your teachers are showing. The group did a study that proved that the more the teachers are engaged with each other, the more they give insightful ideas that will lead to the success of the company (Wright, 2001). Even if they might not pitch in ideas, engaged students are more likely to sit late and work on a project if need be. Such dedication will make companies meet their success as they are able to beat deadlines and finish projects in time.
- **Delightful student experience:** as earlier discussed, teacher engagement can significantly improve student satisfaction. This is because they are more dedicated to the products being made and the services being rendered to the student. A study showed that 79% of companies that had advanced student engagement had a better student satisfaction rate than companies that did not. Teacher engagement makes teachers happier, thus rendering the required services to student.
- **Enhanced student relations:** a student experience that is consistent and delightful will gradually build rapport with students, thus increasing loyalty. This is because students see that the teachers are trustworthy to the objectives and mission of the education be it short term or long term. students in turn will advocate to other potential clients about your education which eventually leads to its success. They provide testimonials through social media, which will reach a great crowd making your education marketable. The stories and experiences of students are more trusted than the advertisements.
- **Smooth internal partnership:** not only does teacher and student engagement lead to student satisfaction but also better internal interactions. If teachers from different departments have goals and objectives that have the same trajectory, they will easily and swiftly be achieved with the required effectiveness. Data silos significantly reduce and barriers experienced during task execution also decline. An example of this can be demonstrated

when a sales department want to partner with marketing department. If both the departments have a proper teacher engagement, the student engagement will also be proper, leading to an increase in sales, thus increasing the success of the education. This is achievable because the sales department will be able to understand the problems faced by the advertising department in regard to the sales department and be able to work on it, thus eliminating barriers.

- Some of the strategies a digital educator can use to improve their strategy in student and teacher engagement are:
- Teacher feedback program: In order for teachers to feel special and engaged, they have to feel like they are a part of the organization. The top department that is the management should be able to show their teachers that they are highly valued in the input they give the company. A teacher feedback program should be formulated in order to collect and value the opinions of teachers. Surveys such as eNPS is able to collect intelligence regarding the qualitative and quantitative opinions of what the teachers think about the education. The procedure will enable to sort out feedback and give the appropriate response to the teachers (Wagner, 2004).
- Peer recognition: some teachers in a company usually value the opinions of their peers rather than the opinions of their digital educators, and because of this, a peer recognition program can be created in order for teachers to reward each other for deeds accomplished. In some institutions, bonuses are given to teachers who have achieved something remarkable. This program gives the company two merits by enhancing collaboration among teachers and creating the culture of working hard and proper.
- Brainstorming sessions: teachers usually have a lot of insightful ideas that can help propel the education into greater heights. But most times you find that teachers are shy to give put their opinions to the digital educators. Because of this, creating a brainstorming session can help bring put these ideas that can help improve the company's operations. Brainstorming sessions need not be complicated. They can be help quarterly where teachers are given an opportunity to air out their ideas and opinions. This enables teachers to give out ideas that they are passionate about and lead to collaboration.

- Company teams and team awards: it does not matter the type of industry you are in; every company has teachers who would love to get awards every time they have accomplished something great. This creates competition. Friendly competition enables teachers to be more meticulous and quick in their operations in order to meet their deadlines quicker. This is due to the motivation created when they know there is a reward waiting for them when something is accomplished. Equity is also vital when dishing out awards. This is because teachers have different strengths and weaknesses, and it is important to figure them out. Un-biasness should be practiced in order to give teachers equal opportunities at their level of expertise.
- Team contests and competition: another great technique of making teachers engaged is setting up competitions which are achievable. Set objectives that need to be achieved and give rewards to winners. There are organizations where digital educators set up competitions whereby they check who has the highest NPS weekly. Once the results have been tallied, the winner is given rewards like free tickets to their favorite game or a free vacation. These help organizations to achieve their education goals and at the same time motivate their teachers to put in work.
- Volunteer training: there was an interview held where a CEO was emphasizing on the importance of skills play in career development. Rather than earning money, developing skills is more important. This is because of the level of expertise and experience they would have gotten overtime which in turn makes them happier as they are able to achieve their aspirations. Volunteer training sessions is a good initiative to help teachers to be empowered. One hour sessions can be organized so that teachers are trained on matters that do not necessarily touch on their roles in the company but general issues such as professionalism, communication skills, and education.
- Guest speakers: in some situations, teachers can get motivation and morale from external sources; therefore, you need to bring someone who is emulated and adored by the teachers to give them a word of advice. As a digital educator, you give out a topic that you want the teachers to be advised on so that they can get an in-depth understanding to it. This provides a pathway that teachers should follow in order to achieve their professional success.

- Corporate culture Committee: the programs mentioned above will help enhance teacher engagement, but in order to create a long-term engagement, one need to heavily invest in their corporate culture. Passion and hardworking should be the greatest motivating factor and new teachers need to also be told on the goals. A corporate culture Committee is a great starting point to enable such. In the Committee, the digital educator needs to appoint his or her best teachers in order they can be able to identify any hindrances they are facing. This will make them liaisons between the top department and the rest of the teachers in the event that internal changes are in action.

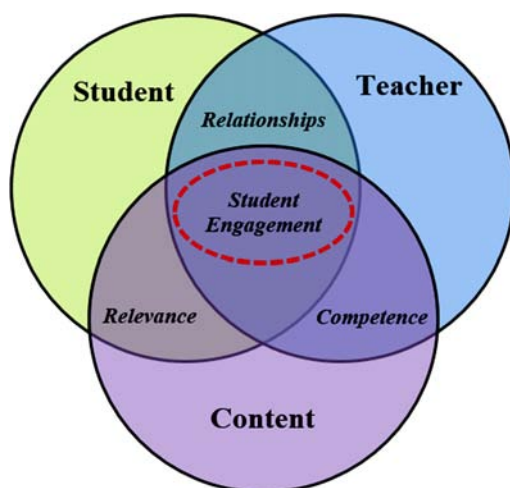


Figure 10.6. A proper educator and student engagement model.

Source: https://www.researchgate.net/figure/The-Student-Engagement-Core-Model-Note-Adapted-from-Where-student-teacher-and_fig1_313835696.

10.6. CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM POLICY

In order to create a proper digital environment for education, digital educators should also transform themselves. They more often than not tend to create a digital strategy that will bring about digital transformation and hastening in terms of the outcome of education, technology, procedural shifts and their impact on people. With such transformation, usually there is a great disruption in the education structure which is often not realized by many of

them. This can either affect the education positively or negatively, leading to its success or demise.

Digital educators who have had a successful run portrays certain traits. Kasey Panetta, who is a senior content marketing manager at Gartner, has a sit down with other professionals to discuss digital educators and noticeable characteristics they possess that steers their organizations to success. They discussed about seven key characteristics that digital educators have. They also discussed why it is vital for digital educators to be extremely curious and inquisitive about new ideas, comprehend the difference between creativity and innovation, and not to consider digital to be the end result. Below are the eight characteristics that they discussed.

- Digital educators face the trait of being trend-setters – a trend-setter is a person who has a personality trait of having an affinity to wanting to know and realize new things. The person has a strong attraction to novelty. Trend-setters have the following characteristics:
- They have the strength to adapt and strategize quickly to extreme shifts in situations.
- They hate activities that involve a routine.
- They have a strong urge to experience novelty.
- They have a strong urge to create their own novelty.

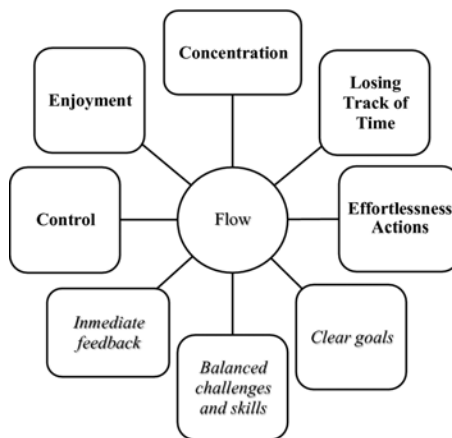


Figure 10.7. Characteristics of good educators.

Source: https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-030-13761-8_13.

Their intellectual abhorrence of tradition and repetition usually bemoans a deeper emotional need for constant novelty and change. trend-setters are ever ready to know and look into new ventures. They are more susceptible to exploring and embracing new opportunities in the market. Trend-setters are also very curious about fresh ideas when presented to them. These trait is very vital in the current world because technology is rapidly growing and changing and this means obsolescence is inevitable in the market. The rate at which the information technology changes needs a digital educator who is a trend-setter so that he or she can be at par with the rapidly changing trends.

In our current world, COVID-19 has brought about massive changes in companies' education operations. Organizations are now shifting from the recovery phase to the renewal phase, and organizations are now looking for how they will be able to capitalize from the changes that were obviously inevitable. A survey conducted by the Gartner board of directors show that seven out of ten Companies have initiated ideas that touch on digital education initiatives. All these has been brought about by the wrath brought by the coronavirus, which is a risk that educators all over the world had not anticipated. A frequently asked question that companies have to answer is why is the digitization strategy different after the pandemic than it was before, and the best answer to this is the pace of adoption (Urban et al., 2019). Coronavirus has a high volatility in that new strains are coming up and that means cases of resurgence is inevitable. The strategy of being digital is still underway, but the issue at hand is the rate at which organizations will adapt to the new environment. Data needs to be analyzed so as to get future trends, matters regarding psychology need to also be looked into like how are teachers and students are going to get through this, the organization itself needs to know if their teachers are well equipped with the required skills and the governance of the organization.

Digital educators have the responsibility of being able to adopt the digital strategy with the current situation at hand(COVID-19). Analyzed and informed decisions need to be made as they focus on automation, real time risk management, mitigation of any lingering risks, a value delivery that needs to be continuous, and finally and agile making of strategy. Digital educators need to bring up disruption in the normal education framework. The acceleration of the digitization process Is in the search of new solutions in the face of broken assumptions. Digital educators not only invent but also replicate- with such a characteristic, digital educators need to tap in their innovative nature, but also at the same time they need to copy other ideas from well-developed strategies that have a good success rate. Most times

digital educators are very careful of in adapting to new ideas and strategies. This is motivated by wanting to be better than any other digital educator. Despite that, digital educators are also ready to copy ideas because it is not always about invention. Digital educators have a clear outline of what they need to invent and what they need to copy. Take, for example, apple were both the inventors of music player, but instead, they combined music player, a product with other ideas that captured the attention of students with the assistance of other services which led to the rise of the iPod. A brilliant digital educator should be able to know his strengths and use it to invent something amazing and when to replicate and good idea plus combining it with other strategies to create something feasible and of greater value. It is high time for educators to embrace the digitization of companies by combining digital strategy and education strategy.

Digital educators eschew the boundaries of industries- A digital educator should be able to put the education on a pedestal and invest in markets that seem more of a threat. Who would have thought that Google might offer an automobile? Or that Alibaba's Ant Financial would become a banking heavyweight? A potentially overlooked threat could be an organization in another industry, or a smaller company that might cannibalize your education subtly and slowly (Suárez-Orozco, 2005).

Digital educators are different in their ability to see the non-obvious threats. Practice "white space thinking," the ability to see what's missing, especially the spaces between industries.

A digital educational educator should appreciate that the process of innovation on more than just creativity- conventional educators most times tend to assume that creativity and innovation are one and the same thing, but that is not the case. Creativity in education is a way of thinking that has the strength to be able to influence, stretch and motivate teachers to think outside the box and come up with innovations and create opportunities from problems that have been analyzed. You often see companies coming up with very astonishing inventions that blows up your mind. The invention came from just an idea of a digital educator or his colleagues. Creativity is the main source of coming up with inventions and it fires up inspiration. Innovation is defined as the process of implementing ideas into creating a product of a service. The management is the focal point for determining the trajectory of the innovations and its realization. It can also be defined as a fresh or changed entity that creates and redistribute value of a good or service. When thinking about innovation, you have to think about newness, improvement

and spread. Not all innovation requires a new invention. Digital educators should select a team with a high adversity quotient- during to recent extreme obstacles and challenges, adversity quotient has proved to be more worthy than emotional quotient (EQ) and intelligence quotient (IQ). Adversity is a measure of how people are able to deal and handle extreme challenges in his or her life. According to studies, adversity quotient help enhances understandability of mathematics. It is also commonly known as the science of resilience. Emotional quotient or emotional intelligence is the ability of people to comprehend, unlike, and manage their own emotions in a real life setting. They positively use their emotions to positively manage and control stress, communicate effectively, and conflict resolution. A person with emotional intelligence is self-aware, empathetic, motivational, has social skills and has self-regulation. A proper digital educator will measure the adversity quotient of their people. There are tools used to measure that, and they include WOOP that is Wish, Outcome, Obstacles and plan. This tool was created by a scientist known as Gabrielle Oettingen. Wishing is having a strong desire for something or something to happen, which is probably hard to achieve. An outcome is the way something turned out, let us say after a project has been completed. Obstacles are factors that hinder the progress of operations. A plan is a well elaborated proposal on how something should be done and achieved. This tool enables teachers to reach their goals and objectives by including both positive and negative visualization. In order to build and nature resilience, one should avoid focusing solely on the positive, but they should also focus on the negative. For instance, think about the best-case scenario outcomes, but at the same time, you think about the obstacles you can face in the way to your success.

Digital educational educators never consider digital to be the outcome- a well-established digital educators in organizations always even if all of their products and services have been digitized, they still know that their outcome is not digitized. This is because digital is a means and not an end. This kind of thing will transform operations as it changes how people work like in remote work technology or by changing the goods and services an organization deals with. Come up with a vision that focuses on outcomes which is way beyond digital. This is done by designing an environment where there is a common understanding of what function digital has (Shahriari et al., 2017). There is a rule of thumb that in the event someone talks about digital should add an adjective after the noun, making it “digital what?”

Digital educators should need out on technology and so should their people-in the world of technology and digital transformation, technical skills

translates into education results. Some of the big technological geniuses are highly technical. For instance, the chief executive officer of Instagram, Kevin Systrom, is a programmer who is self-taught. The chief executive officer of Dropbox, Drew Houston, programmed a code when he was at a train station for his company. A proper education should be able to fully about the technology that was used in building the model of the education. Being a geek always seemed to be for less popular people who had passion for other interests. But now educators in the technological world are embracing geekiest as they bring up a strategic advantage to the education.

Networking proficiency- a proper digital educator needs to know the power help in having a good network. This is because they need to spend time forging relationships, creating partnerships, and collecting important intelligence. Digital educators always think outside the box, and rather than attending the same conventional meetings, you will find them attending the less popular meetings such as startup meetings, Internet summits, and education fairs. A company's ecosystem should be developed by building bonds on educators and sharing information.

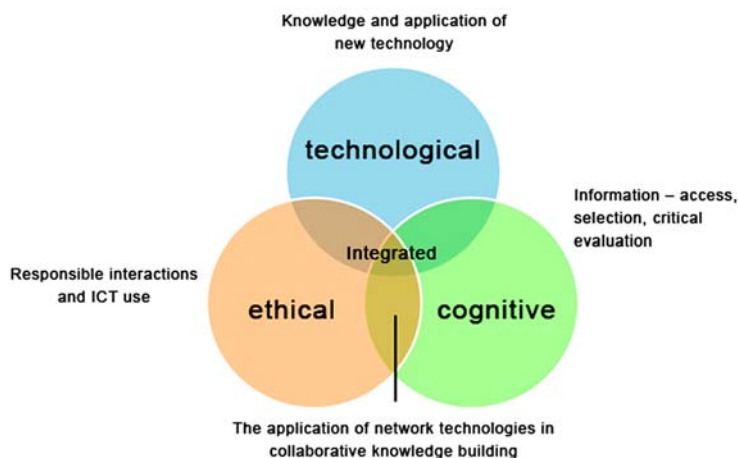


Figure 10.8. Research and practice in technology-enhanced.

Source: https://weblab.deusto.es/olarex/cd/europamedia/English/science_pedagogy_and_digital_competence.html.

These are vital things a digital educator needs to do in the current world of the digital landscape. Studies show that about 85% of education build bonds in-person education, meetings and conferences. You want to enhance your digital education skills, adopt two or three of the above

characteristics and let them be your starting point. Don't just adopt all of them. With the implementation of the first two, you will be able to have adaptive capabilities and gradually you will have been able to adapt all the required characteristics. As a digital educator, you will need to embrace and face risks that can bring up very brilliant innovations. No idea is too bad to be thought through, and no idea is too big not to be achieved. Create a culture that inspires your teachers to embrace continuous innovation and creating new and disruptive ideas. Digital educators always think outside the box and rather than attending the same conventional techniques.

10.7. THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

The European Union came up with occasional ministerial meetings, and each member state is represented with the relevant authorities. The aim of the meeting is to make sure that there is equal comparison when it comes to the standard and quality of higher education when students need a qualification process. The European Higher Education Area came about after this, and it is found under the Lisbon Recognition Convention. From the name, it is clear that this process was named after the University of Bologna. In the year 1999, the twenty-nine European union member states' education departments signed the Bologna Declaration, which bore fruit to its success. Below is a pictorial representation showing the zones confound within the Bologna declaration.



Figure 10.9. Bologna zone.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bologna_Process.

The Bologna process is looking for a more coherent system in higher education. The process has come up with policies to aid in the facilitation of student and staff mobility across the twenty-eight European Union member states. This has increased inclusivity and accessibility, which has in turn brought about heightened competition all over the world. As included in the European Higher Education Area, all the countries in the zone agreed to do the following:

- They initiated a three-cycle higher education system which consists of bachelor's, master's and doctoral studies.
- Ensure that the required duration and qualification of individual universities is taken into account and respected.
- A quality assurance system is to be initiated and followed in all the member states in order to make sure the quality and relevance of teaching and learning has been strengthened.

TIMELINE OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

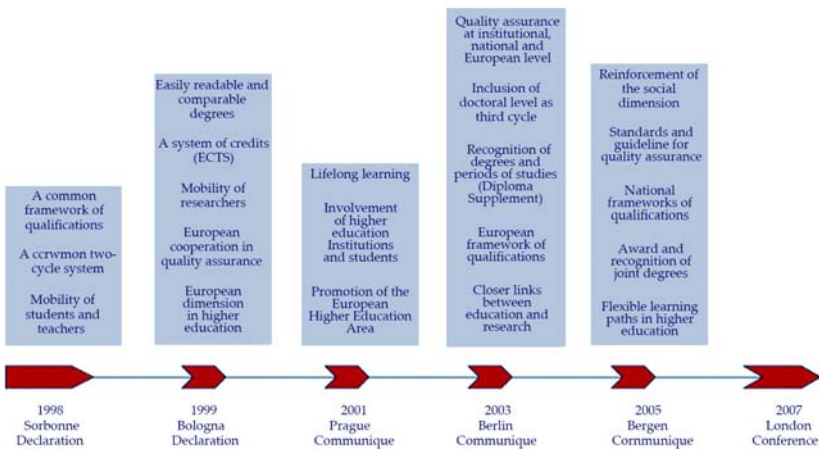


Figure 10.10. Bologna timeline highlights.

Source: <https://eoienglishclass.weebly.com/av2-uni9-bologna-process.html>.

The Bologna Process is very vital since it has enabled to tackle the obstacles that have been hindering higher education by coming up with the European Higher Education Area. The trust needed in aiding mobility in the 28 states has been enhanced through the program. The quality and relevance of studies has been improved through the introduction of a technological based approach of learning which has increased employability. There is some degree of unevenness in the participating countries, but this is still a

work in progress. The involved countries have had forums which there are dialogues on matters related to higher education reforms and queries that involve shared academic principles. This has enabled soft diplomacy among states in Western Balance excluding Kosovo, Eastern partnership countries, Russia, Turkey to mention but a few countries.

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Handbook of Education Systems in Europe

Nowadays, the operation and management level of the school system is more decentralized than before, especially the management and financing have been transferred from the central state to schools and local authorities. However, in most countries, schools are still operating under certain restrictions or are excluded from the scope of operation. For example, in England, the central government has played an important role in managing action plans and sanctions against underperforming schools. Brazil and Argentina have consistently seen the restoration of traditional centralized programs and have imposed stricter definitions of educational goals. In principle, this volume mentions that there is a gap between the central state, which defines broad goals and monitors results, and the local governance and control of school processes. Although this is the direction of successful education system reform, the dichotomy is not always clear, and there are many gray areas.

Self-evaluation and a sense of responsibility for the results of public external evaluations strengthen the school's sense of self-responsibility for performance. In most states, performance standards are developed or expanded within the scale of reform efforts. These standards are usually part of a compulsory or core curriculum. Not only do they define national standards for students, but also define them for teachers. The volume also talks about the significance of external evaluation instruments, which include testing procedures, inspection/supervision, to generate reports from relevant institutions, and final exams. The information collected is used not only for accountability, but also for supporting targeted development of school activities. An important aspect of such response measures is to increase the flexibility of the school system, allowing the principal to seek appropriate response measures for specific schools.

The chapters discussed in this volume include Chapter 1: Education Systems in Europe, Chapter 2: Access to Education in Europe, Chapter 3: Educational Choices, Transitions, and Aspirations in Europe, Chapter 4: Globalization and Europeanization of Education, Chapter 5: Parental Involvement Across European Education System, Chapter 6: Reforming the Curricula Used in European Schools, Chapter 7: Fabricating Quality in Education: Data and Governance in Europe, Chapter 8: European Perspectives on Professional Development in Teacher Education, Chapter 9: Knowledge Transfer and Technology Diffusion Education, and Chapter 10: Education Policies in Europe. In different countries, from the elementary school level, special attention has been paid to measures aimed at achieving comprehensive improvements in teaching and learning, including acquiring native language (reading and writing), mathematics, and natural science information to innovate and reform the school system. Other measures are aimed at improving pre-school education by providing more pre-school education for all children between three and five years old worldwide, or by establishing conditions for pre-school students in disadvantaged communities to thrive.

As of the early 1980s, countries have been increasing the independence of schools in the operation of education systems, aiming to improve performance by delegating responsibilities to the front line and encouraging responses to local needs. In most countries/regions that performed well in student evaluations, local authorities and schools had full freedom to adjust and implement educational content and/or allocate and manage resources. The volume also shows that in all countries, most schools are responsible for student admissions and how money is spent, including for student discipline and evaluation.



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