

OECD PROJECT
Overcoming School Failure. Policies that work.
Country Background Report



Greece

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REPUBLIC OF GREECE
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
LIFE LONG LEARNING AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS

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Executive Summary

This report is a response of Greece to the call by O.E.C.D. to participate in the Project ‘Overcoming School Failure. Policies that work’ and follows the general guidelines of the O.E.C.D. project team. The national advisory committee, appointed by the Minister of Education, has strived to depict, as objectively as possible, the features of a system which is rapidly changing due to external and internal forces and challenges. On the other hand, because of the global financial crisis that has seriously affected Greece, this is a time when many consider that what matters today in education is, above all, efficiency.

Yet while the present government is obliged to respond to efficiency demands, issues of equity are not outside of its concerns. However, in Greece, the general trend continues to be on improving the system as a whole, and it is the case that there hasn’t ever been an ample public space to debate education from the point of view of equity and justice.

We hope that this report and the resulting O.E.C.D. publication will contribute towards articulating values and practices of equity in education with concerns of improving the educational services provided. Moreover, we believe that due to its currently difficult condition, Greece has an increased responsibility to send the message that equity in education is not only a fundamental value of all democratic societies but also that investment of resources for purposes of equity in periods of crisis is prudent.

The Greek Education system is divided into four main levels: Pre-primary education and care provision, Compulsory education, Post-compulsory-Upper Secondary and Post-secondary level, and Higher Education. Public and private sectors operate at all levels of the system, except the university level, which consists exclusively of state institutions. The private sector is small while the majority of school age pupils attend schools in the public sector. Compulsory education covers the age from 5 to 15 year-old pupils. Apart from the central state, the local authorities (municipalities) provide child-care, including pre-primary classes for 4 year old children, which is free of charge though parents may have to pay some costs, mainly for meals.

Public education is free of charge at all levels of the system, including university education, and for all types of education. This means that central education authorities must provide financial resources, personnel and textbooks/learning materials. Regional authorities also have some share of responsibility for the infrastructure of schools in their region. In particular, the main expenses refer to the teaching (and auxiliary) personnel, textbooks, infrastructure and operational expenses. Textbooks are provided free of charge to all students within the formal (public) education system, including basic textbooks for students in H.E. Teaching personnel are allocated according to annual central education planning, in cooperation with the regional and local administrations. Personnel are drawn from the pool of teachers who besides their formal qualification from H.E. Institutions have passed the specialised examination administered by the Supreme Council for Civil Personnel Selection (ASEP). Personnel for H.E. though selected by the institutions themselves are subject to the authorisation by the central education authorities, responsible also for their salaries, as employees in the broader public sector.

The administrative control of the system is the responsibility of central educational authorities while measures have been taken in recent years to devolve powers and responsibilities to the regional and local levels. Thirteen Regional Educational Directories are responsible for the administration and supervision of the decentralised services in their areas, as well as the coordination of local school advisers, advising teachers on pedagogical aspects of their work. At the

next level of the administrative structure Education Directorates (in each prefecture) and District Offices provide administrative support, supervise operation of area schools and facilitate co-ordination between schools. The role of the school-heads has been redefined by a recent law, adapting to the emerging new model in governance, emphasising autonomy but also accountability on the basis of state specified goals and outcomes.

Though public education is free of charge at all levels of the system, some peculiarities in the system may turn out to be of vital importance when evaluating the system from the point of view of equity and justice in education. Among them, the following are important:

(a) The amounts of money from the family budget spent for students' preparation, especially for the national examination for entry to H.E. Institutions through out-of-school lessons. Out-of-school support becomes a means for parents from more privileged social groups to help their children face competition and ensure the reproduction of their social privileges. This long-standing and complex problem under the current financial crisis has undoubtedly become a more pressing equity issue.

(b) The fees paid by students attending the post-secondary, non-tertiary sector of public and private Institutes of Vocational Training (I.E.K.). This is a sector apparently providing more choices for young people, and a sector where, one suspects, the overwhelming majority of young students come from lower socio-economic backgrounds and working class and migrant families. Because of lack of data about I.E.K., the Ministry of Education has recently begun to commission relevant studies.

(c) Pre-primary education provision for children of the cohort 4-5 year of age, a large percentage of which remains outside the formal education system under the Ministry of Education. This raises questions regarding possible differential treatment of individual pupils from various social groups due to differences in quality of services offered by alternative providers, including municipal authorities.

(d) The delays in the reviewing of Remedial Teaching programmes (*Ενισχυτική Διδασκαλία* (E.D.)) and of Additional Teaching Support Programmes (*Πρόσθετη Διδακτική Στήριξη* (P.D.S.)), which were established previously, to combat inequalities in education for children of vulnerable groups attending pre-primary, primary and secondary schools, and which have gradually lost support. Some new experiments, initiated by the Ministry of Education, to offer teaching support to all students by taking advantage of developments in educational technology, while highly innovative, might be limited by assumptions that educational technology is socially neutral.

(e) The lack of research as well as effective policies to support students and their families at turning points in the system which are crucial for their educational career and future prospects. This is particularly the case for students moving from compulsory education to the two main strands of Lyceum (General and Technical-Vocational) and/or other paths available in the system as detailed in the main report. Causes for concern are the fact that any new action on counseling and vocational guidance depends on Operational Programmes (previously the EPEAEK and now the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF)), that is European funds which by their very nature are of short term duration; plus the fact that such services do not cover the totality of schools in the country, and there is lacking an up to date legislative framework to ensure the continuous functioning of the system.

Concerning recent efforts to combat inequalities in and through education, since 2007 a new generation of large scale Projects have been implemented, funded by the European Social Fund and National Resources, as part of the NSRF (2007-2013). These cover the following:

- (a) Cross-cultural schools and cross-cultural education in the mainstream schools.
- (b) The education of ROMA children, specifically.
- (c) The Muslim Minority children in the area of Thrace.

During the last year or so there has been an effort to subsume all three of the above programmes under the general umbrella of Zones of Educational Priorities (Z.E.P.), a programme aiming to direct resources to students and regions with the greatest needs. Its scope is national, and beneficiaries are students in pre-primary, primary and secondary education. The programme aims to confront the problem of social and regional inequalities in education by supporting and strengthening the regions and the social groups that are most in need. As described in the report, this is the first time that native Greeks facing socio-economic disadvantages will be included in the targeted populations (that is in addition to the three specific populations, the main targets of policy up until now: ROMA, immigrants, Muslim Minority).

Policies developed by the Greek educational authorities and practices crystallized within the school system during the last 20 years or so have been responses to European Educational Policies. The main drive for change has been the mechanism of European funding, according to priorities of the European Union for all member states of the Union. Membership to the E.U. accrued considerable benefits to the Greek education system. Special education for people with disabilities, cross-cultural education, The Muslim Minority education, the piloting and consolidating of all-day schools, structures and practices for supporting children from vulnerable groups in mainstream schools, counseling and vocational guidance services were policy areas directly related to European initiatives and funding.

Arguably, a shift in policy is gradually taking place, reflecting conceptions and trends in the E.U. This is from designated populations (Minority, Repatriated, Migrant, ROMA) to focusing *on disadvantaged schools within poor regions* and hopefully in the future on individual disadvantaged schools outside of such regions, based on use of elaborate indicators. We believe that this shift has the potential to address head-on the problem of identifying and supporting the disadvantaged, in the interest of children of vulnerable groups in the country and the Greek society as a whole.

August 2011

For the National Advisory Committee,

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SECTION I

POLICIES AND PRACTICES TO OVERCOME SCHOOL FAILURE

Chapter 1: Structure and governance

The Greek Education system is divided into four main levels: Pre-primary education and care provision, Compulsory education, Post-Compulsory-Upper Secondary and Post-Secondary level and Higher Education. Diagram 1.1, below, depicts this structure. Public and private sectors operate at all levels of the system, except the university level, which consists exclusively of state institutions. Under a recent Act (Act:3518/2006) compulsory education starts at the age of 5, with children attending pre-primary classes, before they go on to primary and lower secondary schools which are compulsory, covering therefore the age from 5 to 15 year-old pupils. Provision for vocational education normally starts after the compulsory age of schooling (but see further below, in the description of the different types of schools). In this chapter, we provide some basic information about the main features of each of these levels of the system and explain the different levels of its administrative structure.

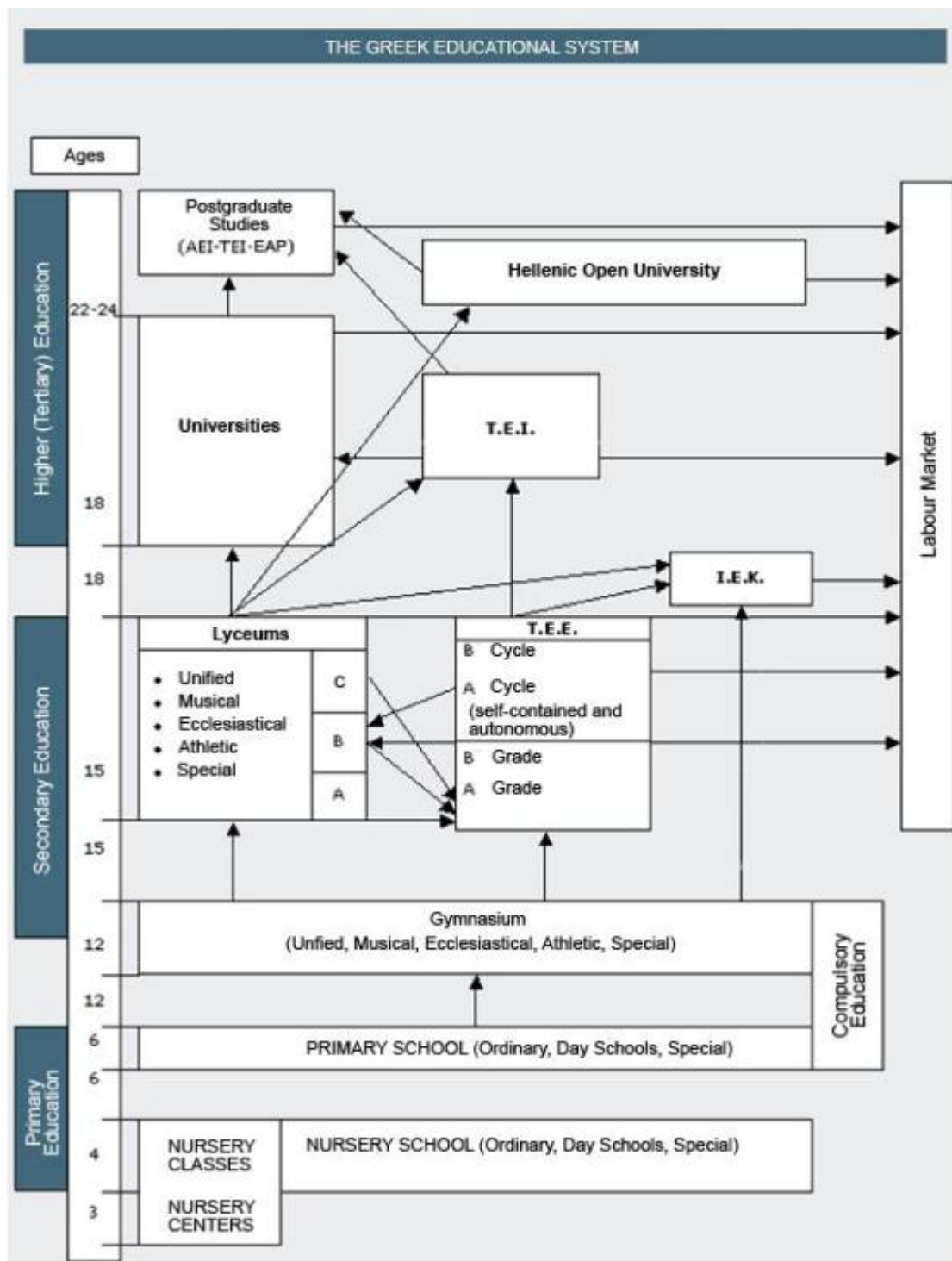


Diagram 1.1: *The Greek Educational System*

Pre-primary education and care provision in Greece may start very early. For children 4 years of age and under education and care is provided at child centres (*paidikoi stathmoi*) and at ‘infant’ centres (*vrefonipiakoi stathmoi*) – the latter from 6 months of age. These are either municipal (public) or they belong to the private sector. For this age group attendance is optional. Children aged 4 may attend public or private kindergartens (*nipiagogeia*). As already mentioned, kindergartens attendance remains optional for 4 year olds but has become compulsory for all 5 year olds.

Compulsory Education refers to the age cohort 5-15 years and is divided into three sub-levels: *Preprimary education (Nipiagogeio)*, for children of 5 and 6 years of age; *primary education (Dimotiko scholeio)* for children of 6-12 years of age; and *lower secondary general education (Gymnasio)* for pupils aged 12-15. The latter includes pre-vocational education offered by *Evening Schools (Esperino Gymnasio)*, in which attendance starts at the age of 14 years old. Concerning compulsory schooling, parents may choose to enroll their children in the public or the private sector. In addition, at the lower secondary level pupils (and their parents) have some degree of freedom as to the type of school they choose to enroll to (see further below in this chapter).

Post-compulsory education comprises three levels: the *upper secondary level*, the *post-secondary level prior to higher education* and the *higher education level*.

The upper secondary level provides for students aged 15-18 years old, and includes three types: *general upper secondary education (Geniko Lykeio)*, *vocational upper secondary education (Epangelmatiko Lykeio)* and the *vocational training schools (Epangelmatikes scholes)*, where students can enroll at the age of 16. The latter offer a two-year course organized according to occupational area, which may extend to three years if on-the-job training is provided. Parallel to General and Vocational Lyceums and the vocational training schools operate evening Lyceums, offering a 4 year course (15-19 years of age) thus allowing students to be in regular full time attendance and at the same time to acquire work experience.

Between secondary and higher education operates the post-secondary, non-tertiary education sector, providing for the 18+ age group. Here a diverse number of providers operate but we should distinguish between *vocational training institutions (Instituta Epangelmatikis Katartisis (I.E.K.))*, public and private, offering formal, initial and further vocational education and training, and lasting between 4-6 semesters; and *Post-secondary Education Centres* which are private and classified as belonging to the informal, post-secondary education and training realm. The study or other certificates provided by the latter are not academically equal to those granted within the framework of the Greek post-secondary systems of formal education (i.e., Universities and Technological Education Institutions (T.E.I.) comprising the higher education sector, as explained in the following paragraph, and the above mentioned I.E.K.). The provisions governing the establishment and operation of 'Post-Secondary Education Centres' are stipulated in Act 3696/2008 and Act 3848/2010. These Acts provide also ground for *Laboratories of Liberal Studies*, offering non-typical vocational studies of a shorter period¹.

Higher Education consists of two parallel sectors (Act: 2916/2001): The University sector (Universities, Polytechnics, Fine Arts Schools, the Open University, and the International University of Greece) and the Technological sector (Advanced Technological Education Institutions (A.T.E.I.), and the school of Pedagogic and Technological Education (A.S.P.E.TE.)), preparing teachers specializing in vocationally oriented subjects. Here we should also mention that there are other *State, non-university Tertiary Institutes* (e.g. The Higher Ecclesiastical School, the Merchant Marine Academies) offering vocationally oriented courses of shorter duration (2 to 3 years). The higher education sector operates in three cycles: First cycle programmes, leading to a degree award (*Ptychio*) equivalent to B.A., second cycle programmes, leading to a second degree

¹ The 'Post-Secondary Education Centres' are private institutions aspiring to become part of the higher education sector. The dispute over their status goes on for a long time and relates to the fact that according to the Greek Constitution higher education consists exclusively of state (public) institutions.

(*Metaptychiako Diploma Eidikefsis*), equivalent to the Master's degree, and the third cycle, leading to the Doctorate degree (*Didaktoriko Diploma*).

Next, we shall describe types and also, to contextualize the preceding general description, we shall provide data regarding the number of schools and education institutions in the country. Recognizing the systemic character of education we shall describe the different levels referred to above as functional subsystems and using some indicators when appropriate we shall attempt to reveal something about the dynamics of its development. Prior to this, we describe the principal features of the governance structure, in order to make visible, in particular, where the responsibility for quality of provision as well as equity may lie.

It is worth mentioning at the start that as a general rule, the majority of pupils enroll in the public education system. For example, in 2009-2010 school year, of all students enrolled in primary and secondary education, 93.64% attended public schools (Eurydice, 2009/2010). Private schools are not grant aided and they are fully self-financed. However, as with the public schools, private primary and secondary schools are under the supervision and inspection of the Ministry of Education Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs. The same holds for the public and private pre-school units that are part of the formal education system². The higher education sector is self-governed under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs, with Act 3549/2007 regulating issues concerning its governance along the lines of increased participation, transparency, accountability and increased autonomy.

The administrative control of the education system is the responsibility of central education authorities while measures have been taken in recent years, and some are under way, to devolve powers and responsibilities to the regional and local levels. For example, we can mention the large pilot project on school self-evaluation for primary and secondary education that started in September 2010 as a shift to decentralization and devolution of responsibilities to local (school) agents³.

Thirteen *Regional Education Directorates* are responsible for the administration and supervision of the decentralized services in their areas, as well as the co-ordination of local school advisers, the latter advising teachers on pedagogical aspects of their work⁴. At the next level of the

² That is to say, all pre-primary schools except those pre-primary classes which are under the responsibility of municipalities.

³ Information on this project can be found in the website of the Education Research Centre of Greece (http://www.kee.gr/html/newsfull_main.php?ID=2&topicID=96).

⁴ The institution of school advisers has been established by Act 1304/1982, replacing Act 309/1976 on general inspectors for primary and secondary education. Candidates for the position of school adviser are teachers (rank A') of the respective level of education (preprimary, primary and secondary, by subject specialization, and from special education) that have worked in education for a minimum of 16 years, of which 10 years in a teaching position at the level or type of education they are interested to apply for (e.g., special education school units, technical-vocational lyceum). Due to their important role, school advisers are selected on the basis of superior formal and substantive qualifications, by a committee appointed by the Minister of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs. They serve for a four-year term which is not automatically renewed; though, school advisers can be re-elected to their position. The selection criteria include (Act 3467/2006): Scientific and pedagogical training, certified by their postgraduate degree at the MA or Ph.D. level, further education and training certificates, a second degree, foreign language certificates, and published work and research; teaching experience and experience resulting from holding positions of special responsibility in education (e.g., previous experience as a school adviser); and the candidate's personality,

administrative structure, *Education Directorates* (in each prefecture) and *District Offices* provide administrative support, supervise operation of area schools and facilitate co-ordination between schools. School-heads serve as the administrative and educational leaders of their schools, coordinating and guiding teachers in their work and making provision for in-service training. It is worth mentioning that under a new Act (Act:3848/2010) the headship competencies, role and responsibilities, including selection criteria and procedures have been redefined, to adapt to the emerging new model in governance, emphasizing autonomy but also accountability on the basis of state specified goals and outcomes (Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs, 2011:14).

In the box below we describe in more detail the different levels of the administration and show the points of responsibility and decision-making in the Greek Education System.

The Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs oversees the administration of all schools in the country through the Central and Regional Services and their Consultative and Scientific Councils.

Within the Prefectures, administrative supervision and control for primary and secondary education schools lies with the Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education and their corresponding offices. On a regional level, in line with a decentralised policy of education (Act 2986/2002), administrative control is exercised by the respective Regional Educational Directorates, which in turn report directly to the Minister of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs. Each Regional Education Directorate consists of the following: (a) An

knowledge and ability to solve administrative, teaching and learning, organizational, operational and other problems, and to create the appropriate pedagogical environment. From an administrative point of view, school advisers fall directly under the Regional Directorates of Education. The Departments of Scientific and Pedagogical Guidance of the Regional Directorates of Education supervise, coordinate, monitor and evaluate the work of the competent school advisers.

School advisers are responsible for monitoring the quality control of education (Eurybase, 2009/2010). They are responsible for providing scientific and pedagogical guidance and supporting the teachers in a region defined by decision of the Minister of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs. They foster efforts to further scientific research in the field of education and participate in the evaluation of teaching and learning and the assessment of teachers working in the schools of their regions. Their main duties and powers are specified as follows: (a) They have the overall pedagogical responsibility for all the schools of their area of authority. They cooperate with the teaching staff and Principal of the schools and with the Director of the Educational Directorate or the Head of the Education Office for the effective operation of schools; (b) school advisers from the same prefecture hold joint meetings in order to coordinate, plan and evaluate the work carried out at schools; (c) they provide pedagogical guidance for remedial teaching or other innovative programmes; (d) they supervise the implementation of the national curriculum; (e) they organize seminars aiming at teachers' professional development, including training on the use of educational technology; and (f) they participate in the evaluation of teaching and learning and the assessment of teachers.

To give a sense of numbers, in the current selection procedure (Autumn, 2011), the call specified the positions as follows: 70 positions for preprimary education, 300 positions for primary education, 420 positions for all subject specializations in secondary education and 18 positions for special education. See, also, Eurodyce, 2009/2010, at:

http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/eurybase_full_reports/EL_EL.pdf (access: 5 November 2011).

Administration Department, (b) a Department of Pedagogical Guidance for Primary Education, and (c) a Department of Pedagogical Guidance for Secondary Education. Thus, the regional decentralised services of the Ministry of Education are:

- Regional Education Directorates headed by a Regional Education Director⁵
- Directorates of Primary and Secondary Education⁶.
- The Primary and Secondary Education Offices as well as the Technical Vocational Education Offices and the Physical Education Offices⁷.

In each school or school complex, there are School Committees comprising from 5 to 15 members, which are community legal entities covering one or more primary and secondary school, depending on local needs as evaluated by the respective local authorities' organisations. The Governor, a representative of the Parents' Association and a representative of the pupils hold a mandatory position on the Committee. The school Committees manage the budget for the operational costs of primary and secondary schools as well as supporting the administrative operation of schools.

Each pre-primary school unit is headed by a pre-primary education teacher regardless of teaching rank.

The administration of every primary and secondary school unit consists of the Head, the assistant Head, and the Teachers' Association. The Head and Assistant Head are teachers of Rank A'. The Teachers' Association is comprised of all teachers in the school. It is a collective body, responsible for the proper operation of the school.

Higher Education Institutions are autonomous legal entities under public law. The Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs monitors only the legality of administrative acts and is actively involved in their issuance. The Courts or the Public Administration Supervisors judge the legality of all other acts of University and Higher Technological Institutions, where necessary. The Ministry of Education may call meetings with university Rectors and TEI Presidents to discuss issues falling under their respective authority.

The academic structure of each University, traditionally had three distinct levels: (a) faculty

⁵ Various Centres such as the Centres of Differential Assessment, Diagnosis and support of Special Education Needs (KEDDY) and the Environmental Education Centres, and also Pre-primary, Primary, Special and Secondary Education Advisers come under the respective Regional Education Directorates. Also, At the headquarters of each Regional Education Directorate operate a Higher Regional Primary Education Service Council and a Higher Regional Secondary Education Service Council.

⁶ Their Offices are located in the Capital of each Prefecture. Services such as Advisory and Vocational Guidance Centres, School Vocational Guidance Offices, Youth Advisory Centres, Natural Sciences Workshop Centres come under the respective Directorates of Education Offices. At this level, there are Regional Service Councils for Primary and Secondary Education, which are responsible for matters related to the service status of teachers.

⁷ Their location in each Prefecture and their area of competence is determined by decision of the Minister of Education.

(Scholi), consisting of various departments of related disciplines. (b) Departments (Tmima). These were the main academic units covering the whole curriculum of a specific discipline, and awarding a single degree. The General Assembly of the Department was the primary administrative body, determining teaching and research policy. (c) Sectors (Tomeas), which corresponded to smaller and distinct parts of the curriculum. Act 4009/2011 on Higher Education has introduced substantial changes to this structure, and aims to restructure the whole Tertiary Education Sector (universities and TEs). This is in the process of its implementation.

For More information on the administrative aspects of the Greek education system, as well as details about various bodies involved in consultation concerning planning, decision making and making proposals for education policy and practice, such as The National Education Council, the Prefectural, Municipal/Community and School Committee's, Teachers' Associations, Parents Associations, Unions, Federations and Confederation, the School council, etc., see Eurybase 2009/2010.

The administration of the Greek Education System

Source: Eurybase, 2009/210

Starting, now, from Pre-primary Education and Care Provision we have distinguished between provision by municipalities, operating in a governance structure: local, regional, national, and being under the auspices of the Ministry of Interior, Decentralization and e-government, and those preschool units operating under the supervision and inspection of the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs. *Table 1.1.a (Appendix I)* depicts some relevant information.

There are several issues worth noting at this level. First, there is a great variety regarding the providers. As mentioned, childcare provision is the absolute responsibility of local government (under the Ministry of Interior, Decentralization and e-government), and Infant and Child Centres operate in local authorities. Child Centres usually include also preprimary classes for 4 year old children, while such classes are predominantly a feature of the formal education system (Pre-primary level) operating under the control of the Ministry of Education. Possible consequences for quality and equity might be of some concern here (see Section II, Step:7). More specifically, the fact that a large percentage of children of the cohort 4-5 year of age remain outside the formal education system raises questions regarding possible differential treatment of individual pupils from various social groups due to differences in quality of services offered by alternative providers, that is municipal authorities⁸.

Second, in the formal education system, in 2008, 97.6% of preschool units were public and 2.4% private. This was the second year of applying the compulsory education Act at the age of 5, and this has affected both, the public and the private sector. This represents an increase in the number of preprimary units, in the period between 2005-2008, of +1.00% for the former and +16.8 % for the latter (K.A.N.E.P., 2010:15). Also, in the same period there has been an increase of 2.9% in the number of preprimary units in the urban areas, and of + 1.0% in the rural areas.

⁸ According to official data from the Ministry of Education website for the school years 2007-2008 and 2008-2009 the percentage of infants remaining outside the pre-primary schools running under the Ministry of Education was approximately 40%. Also, though preprimary classes offered by municipalities are free of charge, parents may have to pay some extra money, mainly for meals. The amount varies: it can be up to 100 or 150 euros per month per child.

It is worth giving some more figures about this subsystem of formal education (K.AN.E.P., 2010: 15). In 2008, 150.079 children attended preprimary education (an increase of +5.4%, for the period 2005-2008). In public preprimary schools the percentage was 96.2% (decrease -0,6%) and in the private 3.8% (an increase of 16.7%). Regarding gender, 50.7% were girls (an increase of 3.5%). Finally, 592 children attended special needs classes (an increase in the period 2005-2008 of +67.1%).

We can say that making pre-primary schooling compulsory for the cohort 5-6 year of age was a very positive policy measure, an issue that had been in the agenda of demands of the National Federation of Primary (and Pre-primary) School Teachers (D.O.E.). Practical problems and side-effects related to its implementation have subsequently been pointed out, and persistently so, both by the Teachers' Federation and many Parents' Associations. But one of the most important problems associated with this policy can be inferred from the actions of an on-going intervention programme on the education of ROMA children, specifically, the main aim of which is to facilitate access of children of ROMA initially to pre-primary education and then to ensure their timely enrollment in the first year of primary and their familiarization with the culture of the school. That is to say, the compulsory nature of this level of education does not guarantee, automatically, universal enrollment and attendance.

We shall now look at the subsystems comprising the core of compulsory education, starting first with Primary Education.

In the school year 2007-2008, 93.3% of schools were public and 6.7% were private (*Table 1.1.b, Appendix I*). This represents a decrease of -4,1% and -2.1%, respectively, over a 4 year period (2004-2008) (K.AN.E.P., 2010: 20). Of this, a percentage of 39.8% is located in urban areas while 46.6% in rural areas. The percentage of school units in the urban areas remains constant over a four year period (2004-2008), while there is a decrease of -7.7% in the rural areas during the same period (K.AN.E.P., 2010, p. 20). Drawing on the same study, we see that in the school year 2008, the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools was 637309 (a decrease of -1.6% in the period 2004-2008). Of this, 92.7% were enrolled in the public schools and 7.3% in the private schools (percentages remaining constant in the former case and showing a decrease of -0.3% in the latter). 48.6% were girls. Furthermore the number of pupils attending special classes was 14651, a percentage of 2.3% on the total number of pupils in primary education. This represents an increase over the period 2004-2008 of +12.3% (K.AN.E.P., 2010). The percentage of pupils in the category 'foreigner and repatriated children' was 0.8% over the total number of primary school children (a decrease of -23.4% in the period 2004-2008), and of migrant pupils 6.3% (a decrease of -23.8% over the period 2004-2008).

The other subsystem comprising compulsory schooling is the lower secondary school, numbers of schools by type depicted in *Table 1.1.c (Appendix I)*. In 2008, 94.5% of lower secondary schools were in the public sector, of which 90.3% were day schools and 4.2% evening schools. This represents an increase of +1.8% and +7.8% respectively, in the period 2004-2008 (K.AN.E.P., 2010: 24). Also in 2008, a percentage of 5.5% were private schools of which 5.3% were private day schools and 0.2% were private evening schools (a decrease of -3.7% and -40.0%, respectively, in the period 2004-2008).

Concerning student population, in 2008 in lower secondary schools there were 341107 students, representing an increase of +4.1% in the period 2004-2008 (K.AN.E.P., 2010:24). Of this, 94.5% attended schools in the public sector, 92.2% in day schools and 2.3% in evening schools (an increase of +0.2% and a decrease of -23.1%, respectively, in the period 2004-2008). In the private

sector attended 5.5% of the student population, mainly in private day schools (an increase of +11.0% and a decrease of -45.0% for day and evening schools, respectively, in the period 2004-2008). Also, a percentage of 47.7% of the student population in lower secondary education were girls. The percentage of students in the category 'foreigner and repatriated children' was 1.8% in 2008 and of migrant students was 8.0% (a decrease of -39.4% and an increase of +10.5%, respectively for the period 2004-2008 (K.A.N.E.P., 2010: 25).

The preceding data indicate the following about compulsory education.

- The majority of pupils in compulsory education attend schools in the public sector. The number of pupils enrolled in private schools, in 2008, were 7.3% and 5.5% in primary and secondary education, respectively. In private secondary education student percentages seem to be on the increase.
- Percentages of migrant pupils were in 2008 6.3% and 8% for primary and secondary education, indicating the need for support and training of teachers to deal with changes in the pupil composition of Greek schools.

Upper secondary education is the first level of post-compulsory education. As already mentioned, this level includes three types: *general upper secondary education (Geniko Lykeio)*, *vocational upper secondary education (Epangelmatiko Lykeio)* and the *vocational training schools (Epangelmatikes scholes)*. We shall approach them as a subsystem with two main streams, general and vocational education and shall deal with each of them in turn.

As shown in *Table 1.1.d.1 (Appendix I)*, in 2008, 92.3% of upper secondary schools of the type: general were public. 87.0% were day schools and 5.3% evening schools (a decrease of -0.4% and an increase of +6.0%, respectively, in the period 2004-2008 (K.A.N.E.P., 2010: 29)). A percentage of 7.7% of the general lyceums were private, 7.4% day schools and 0.3% evening schools (an increase of +3.0% and a decrease of -36.1% in the period 2004-2008). In the same school year, 2007-2008, the number of students attending was 239.652 (an increase of +1.9% in the period 2004-2008). A percentage of 93.3% attended schools in the public sector, 90.3% in public day schools and 3.0% in public evening schools (an increase of +0.5% and a decrease of 10.7%, respectively in the period 2004-2008). 6.6% attended schools in the private sector, mainly in private day schools (an increase of +0.1% and a decrease of -31.8% in day and evening schools, respectively). Girls attending general lyceums represent 53.5% (remaining constant in the period 2004-2005 (K.A.N.E.P., 2010: 30)). The percentage of students in the category 'foreigner and repatriated children' was 2.0% of the total of students in the general lyceum type of school and of migrant students was 4.0% (a decrease of -11.7% and an increase of +69.0% in the period 2004-2008 (K.A.N.E.P., 2010: 30)).

The other strand of the subsystem of upper secondary education, technical and vocational education, is presented in *Table 1.1.d.2 (Appendix I)*. 95.9% of technical & vocational Lyceums are public, 85.0% of which are public day units (an increase of +6.2% in the period 2004-2008) and 10.9% public evening schools (an increase of +24.5% in the same period (K.A.N.E.P., 2010:35)). 4.1% are private, of which 3.5% are day schools and 0.6% evening schools (a decrease of -66.0% and -35.2%, respectively, in the period 2004-2008). The number of students attending technical and vocational lyceums in 2008 was 91383 which represent a decrease of -19.4% in the period 2004-2008. 99.1% of those students were attending public schools, with 84.0% in day schools and 15.1%

public evening schools (an increase of + 3.1% and an increase of +1.1% , respectively, in the period 2004-2008 (K.AN.E.P., 2010:35). In the private sector the percentage of students attending was 0.6%, mainly in private day schools (a decrease of -79.7% for day schools and of -44.4% for evening schools (K.AN.E.P., 2010:35-36). The percentage of girls attending technical and vocational education in 2008 was 34.9% (a decrease of -7.7% in the period 2004-2008). The percentage of students in the category ‘foreigner and repatriated children’ was 5.3% and of migrant students was 8.8% (a decrease of -3.6% and an increase of 21.2%, respectively, in the period 2004-2008) (K.AN.E.P., 2010: 36).

An alternative way of describing this level of education is to point to its continuities, on the one end, with some types of lower secondary education, and on the other end with various types of technical and vocational training that run parallel to upper secondary vocational Lyceums and vocational training schools. This, then, describes the technical and vocational educational and training structures as a distinct sector, which may lead to the post-secondary non-tertiary sector, such as the I.E.K.

To start with, school units operating within this sector are under the administrative control both of the Ministry of Education and of other Ministries. In 2008, (a) 82.3% of the total number of technical and vocational schools were under the administrative control of the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs, while (b) 8.3% under the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection, 0.5% under the Hellenic Ministry of Rural Development and Food, 1.3% under the Ministry of Tourism, and 7.5% under the Ministry of Health and Social Solidarity (K.AN.E.P., 2010: 31). Table 1.1.d.3. shows the number of school units according to type and the Ministry responsible while Table 1.1.d.4 (Appendix I) depicts in more detail the aforementioned continuities of technical and vocational education as a distinct sector.

A number of issues regarding this sector can be pointed out here. First, a comparison between student composition in technical and vocational education and the general lyceum provides the following picture:

- The number of students in the technical vocational lyceum in the school year 2007-2008 was 91.383, while the number of students in the general lyceum, for the same year, was 239.652
- From the student population attending the general lyceum, 93.3% attended schools in the public sector, while 6.6% attended schools in the private sector. The corresponding percentages for technical vocational education was 99.1% and 0.6%
- The percentage of migrant students in technical vocational education for the school year 2007-2008 was 8.8% while the percentage of migrant students in the general lyceum was 4.0%.

Second, the fact that institutions in the technical vocational sector are under the control of different Ministries has some obvious advantages, such as the relevance of educational titles to jobs in the labour market. However, this situation may indicate that quality of educational services may also vary.

Third, and related to the previous point, the most crucial problem of the technical and vocational education sector as a whole is the difficulty of following students in their educational trajectories

and creating appropriate structures to support them. More specifically, as the study by K.A.N.E.P. (2010: 32) shows, based on analyses of data in data series, the number of students who left technical and vocational education in the period 2002-2007 without completing it thus entering the labour market only with a title from lower secondary education was 53.654. This corresponds to 48.9% of the yearly student population in technical and vocational education (2007) or 23% of the yearly student population of upper secondary general lyceums (See also chapter 3, and *diagram 3.2*, in *Appendix II*).

We have already referred, though very briefly, to the post-secondary, non-tertiary educational sector. This refers mainly to the I.E.K. In the school year 2010-2011 there were in operation, after amalgamations due to the financial crisis in Greece, 93 Public I.E.K.. From July 2011 administratively I.E.K. will belong to Regional Authorities. There is no data on the socio-economic and cultural background of young people attending I.E.K.. In some specialisms students come overwhelmingly from the technical vocational Lyceum but students finishing the General Lyceum might also end up in I.E.K. The duration is four semesters for those originating from the General Lyceum and two semesters for those coming from Technical-vocational Lyceums or Upper Secondary Vocational Schools. Successful participation in state-administered exams leads to level 3 vocational qualifications. In contrast to the other sectors (including H.E., i.e., the University and T.E.I. sectors) students attending the post-secondary, non-tertiary sector pay tuition fees. Fees vary, being lower for E.U. citizens and higher for non E.U. citizens (e.g. Albanians, Egyptians).

Thus there are a number of problems within this sector which potentially raise equity issues. As with the (upper) secondary technical and vocational education, there is the difficulty of following students in their educational trajectories, for the additional reason that there is a variety of providers, public and private. In fact there is no research evidence either on the student composition, or on questions about their reasons for enrolling in these institutions, the ways they make choices, their successes and failures within the institutions and during their transition to the labour market, and their future ambitions and prospects. These questions are relevant because, although there is no reliable data, we hypothesize that the overwhelming majority of young students come from lower socio-economic backgrounds and working class and migrant families. This, in turn, suggests that there is an urgent need to develop systematic research on the transition of students to this education sector and from this sector to the labour market and/or further study. It is worth mentioning in this respect that, because of lack of data about I.E.K., the Ministry of Education has recently announced a Call to commission relevant studies.

To conclude this chapter, we would like to underline that higher education institutions are self-governed, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs, and they are funded by the state.

Chapter 2: Fair and inclusive education

The formal education system plays a major role in securing access to a wide range of material and symbolic goods, and this is the reason why access to the education system is important, when considering issues of equity. The compulsory levels of schooling are crucial in this respect as they are “the most pervasive and formative in the lives of children and young people” (Baker, *et al*, 2009:140). The Greek state, from its very beginning, in its constitution abides by the principle of equality of opportunity for all, and a reviewing of the legislation, past and recent, indicates that the Greek education system has made substantial progress regarding the extent to which this principle

organizes the structures of educational provision and the everyday practices of schools, at all levels of formal and non-formal education.

However research shows that schools around the world continue to operate according to mutually contradictory practices; as for example when, in the current global policy discourse, the overwhelming emphasis upon excellence forces schools to focus exclusively on the students that can help it demonstrate high levels of student attainment, thereby neglecting those that are not likely to be successful. At the same time, research, scientific debates, and discussions in the fields of policy formation converge in recognizing that education provision may differ on dimensions such as: the specific arrangements for access, the procedures of student selection, and crucially the points in time when selection takes place, the degree of choice allowed, and relatedly the structures of guidance and counseling that are put in place, to ensure that choice is a real possibility for all, and that it is not affected as much by factors that are external to the system.

Looking at the diagram 1.1 (chapter 1) and taking into account the description of the preschool level in chapter 1, several indicators of access to quality pre-school education *at the compulsory* level (5 year old children) can be used. The most significant indicator relates to the fact that public state-run kindergartens do not charge any fees. This, combined with the information that 96.2% of children attend public pre-schools (K.A.N.E.P., 2010), shows that access is ensured for all children independently of the socio-economic status of parents. Concerning input indicators, such as infrastructure, personnel and programs of study, first, the ratio between classes operating and classrooms was in 2008 slightly higher than one classroom per class. In the period 2004-2008 there has been an increase of +3.7% in the number of classrooms available⁹. There has been also an increase of +10.6% in the number of staff in pre-schools for the period 2004-2008. Of the staff, 22.4% is auxiliary, an increase of +1.3%. It is worth noting, however, that numbers of auxiliary staff are not sufficient, and for example while there is an increase of +13.1% in the private sector, there has been a decrease in the public sector (-1.1%) in the same period (K.A.N.E.P., 2010). Concerning the teaching staff in public, state-run kindergartens, an indicator of quality provision could be the percentage of staff with additional qualifications, which is 19.8%. This includes long-term in-service training of recognized status (13.7%), and also post-graduate and Ph.D. titles (an increase of +68.2% and +32.6%, respectively, during the period 2004-2008). Input indicators are also those related to: maximum class size, which is 25 pupils per class; the duration of the school year, which is 9 months (11 Sept. to 15 June); the duration of the daily program (lasting from 8:15 to 12:15); and the arrangements concerning the program of study, which are national curricula for the kindergarten level, developed by the Pedagogical Institute. Concerning the latter two indicators of quality, it should be noted that - as with the entire primary education sector - an important development during the last few years has been the gradual transformation of schools into *all day* schools. In those schools children may arrive as early as 7:00 and leave as late as 16:00. The duration has been also slightly extended (1st of September to 21st of June), and the contents have been enriched with creative activities of various kinds (see Section II, Step: 8).

⁹ However, in general the infrastructure at this level of the system is not wholly satisfactory as can be inferred from the complaints and demands raised periodically by parents' associations and teachers' unions. Even the Ministry of Education, not long ago, admitted that in highly dense urban areas, especially in the Capital, and also because of the extension of compulsory education to pre-primary level, there is large scope for improvement.

Thus significant features of state-run preprimary education, attesting to its quality, are:

- The high levels of initial and subsequent professional development of its teaching staff
- The optimum class size of 25 pupils per class
- The existence of national curricula to guide teachers in their work
- The gradual transformation of pre-primary schools into all day schools and the enrichment of the programme with creative activities
- However, as practices in the private sector also suggest, numbers of auxiliary staff need to be improved, especially because of the well recognized importance of this level for pupils' development and progression in education.

Another indicator of quality preschool education is the quality of provision for children with special education needs. It is a well-known fact that segregation has, historically, been a “common institutional response to the management of differences in education” (Baker et al, 2009:158), and this applied extensively to cases of children (and students and young people) with special educational needs. Besides full integration, encouraged today, practices such as special classes within schools are also considered acceptable, in cases where these are judged necessary. In 2008, 592 children at the pre-primary level attended such special classes, which represents an increase of +67.1% (K.AN.E.P., 2010). This increase may indicate a greater awareness on the part of parents with special needs children as to the importance of not keeping their children at home, and the importance of enrolling them to pre-primary schools as early as possible. It may also relate to the extension of compulsory education at this end of the system, combined with other factors, such as change of the criteria on the part of the school and related agencies as to who attends special classes (cf. O.E.C.D., 2010). As pointed out in the previous chapter, concerns also arise with reference to children and infants that fall outside the compulsory age group for pre-school education and care, about which research is lacking completely. Also, given that compulsory pre-primary school is a recent policy measure, what evidence is there that the measure has been effectively implemented to children belonging to different social groups? Furthermore, of children attending public kindergartens, 36.3% were 4 years of age, in the school year 2007-2008 (K.AN.E.P., 2010). To what extent do the remaining children of this age group have access to pre-primary schools offered at the municipal level (question of access), and is the education offered by the latter equivalent in terms of quality, given differences in resources, material and non-material? (see, also, Section II, Step:7).

We shall now shift to the question of the age at which students are asked to choose between general and vocational tracks, policy arrangements that, among other purposes, may demonstrate adherence to the principle of individual freedom but may also disguise how education institutions, very often, are places where social selection takes place, in visible or less visible ways (e.g., Sianou-Kyrgiou, 1991). As a general rule, students are called to choose when entering the non-compulsory upper secondary education sector when they can choose between a general lyceum and a technical-vocational one. Of importance is also to mention that students who have successfully completed the entry year of either type of lyceum may, if they wish, enroll instead in the first year of vocational training schools (*epagelmatikes scholes*). This happens at the age of 16 years old. Students can transfer between general and technical vocational lyceums at the beginning of year two. Furthermore, while access to post-secondary technical and vocational training institutions (I.E.K.) as a rule is granted to graduates of any type of post-compulsory secondary school, including upper

secondary vocational and training schools (*epagelmatikes scholes*), adult graduates of compulsory education may also enroll in an I.E.K. but only for certain courses. This, then, maps the main pathways the system offers for students of this age group in Greece. However, we should note that in certain cases, students may follow a technical-vocational training course even without the completion of lower secondary education, i.e. compulsory education. From tables 1.1.d.3 & 1.1.d.4 (see chapter 1/*Appendix I*) we surmise that after the compulsory age of 15 years old, young people may opt for a course in lower technical vocational education, operating under the authority of the Ministry of Employment. Furthermore, data in the same tables show that upon completion of compulsory education, instead of enrolling in either type of lyceum, students may opt for various types of vocational training courses, directly linked to the labour market. Finally, within both the general and vocational types of lyceum, there is a kind of ‘streaming’, beginning at year two, with a diversification of the curriculum as a consequence. In the case of the general lyceum this includes general subjects and ‘electives’ and specialization subjects according to the stream students choose to follow (theoretical, scientific, technological) while in the technical vocational lyceum such electives and specialization courses comprise vocational subjects that vary according to the stream followed (technological, service and maritime).

- Regarding streaming in upper secondary education, it is the students that choose the study path that they are interested in. They are not assigned to it by the school.

However, as regards streaming, in practice the situation is more complex, as progress reports and achievement levels in preceding years may affect the ways students make their course choices. As the choice of paths is not a socially neutral process, such choices to a great extent influence decisions such as whether to go to the university or not, what field of study to aspire to in the transition to H.E, etc. Structures of guidance and counseling are important in this respect to consider and we shall come back to this further on in this chapter. Here we wish to mention only that there is lack of research on the effectiveness of existing structures aiming to support students (and their families) at turning points in the system, crucial for their educational careers and future prospects. If this is so for all paths and courses, it is more the case for those who opt for technical and vocational education, for reasons that we have explained in other parts of this report.

A related recent development of the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs has been the establishment of the National Qualifications Framework (N.Q.F.), as part of its new policy on lifelong learning, and in accordance with the European Qualifications Framework (Act: 3879/2010). The goal of establishing a N.Q.F. is the linking, recognition and accreditation of the different types and levels of formal, informal and non-formal learning on the basis of an agreement certifying quality and mutual trust between the state and social partners. It is expected that the N.Q.F. will enable transparency in vocational qualifications, will facilitate access and progress in lifelong learning processes and will link more efficiently the education/training and employment sectors.

Regarding now student responses to these structured pathways, besides the point made above and the indications provided in chapter 1, it is worth repeating that in the school year 2007-8 the number of students enrolled in the general lyceum and technical-vocational lyceum was 239.652 (72.4%) and 91.383 (27.6%), respectively. This suggests a preference for paths in the general lyceum, preference that relates to students’ (and parents’) ambitions for high status subjects in H.E, and the low status attributed to vocational education by the Greek society (and the education system itself).

Overall we wish to emphasize that the Greek education system has created a firm structure of educational pathways, supported by diversified programs of study; and, for example, vocational

training schools (I.E.K., part of post-compulsory, upper secondary education) that offer a two-year course organized according to occupational area, may extent to three years if on the job training is provided. However, there is no research available to provide evidence about the degree of flexibility that the pathways structure displays in actual practice. So, good examples of policy measures during the last decade or so to encourage and to facilitate continuation of studies or re-entry into the education system are the establishment of Post-secondary, non-tertiary institutions (I.E.K.), the *second chance* schools and the *Hellenic Open University*. However,

- while there are various options available in the education system for those who have dropped out from secondary education, and are under 18 years of age, there isn't any governmental or other initiative that targets such individuals or groups, encouraging young people to use the available options.

Second chance schools are institutions specifically designed for adults who had previously dropped out of school to return to education. More specifically, second chance schools is an innovative educational programme that was legislated (Act: 2525/97) by following principles formulated at the E.U. level. Its mandate was to help combat social exclusion by giving adults lacking basic qualifications the opportunity to reconnect with formal education, to develop positive attitudes towards learning and to acquire basic knowledge and skills that will facilitate access to the labour market¹⁰. It targets citizens from the age of 18+ who haven't completed compulsory education (lower secondary education). Educational services are free of charge, and besides the criterion of age, the only other requirement for enrollment is a school leaving certificate from the primary school. The duration of the programme is two school years. Teaching takes place in the afternoon, covering 25 hours per week. The program of study differs substantially from that of the regular school concerning content, teaching methods and assessment practices. The emphasis is on basic skills, social and cultural education, personal skills and preparation for the world of work. It uses the ICT, includes teaching of a foreign language and relies on innovative learning methods such as project work. An additional innovative, in the Greek context, feature of the programme is the provision of systematic and personalized counseling and career guidance that helps to enhance employment prospects. (I.D.EK.E.: www.ideke.edu.gr). (See Section II, Step:4).

The Hellenic Open University (HOU) was founded in 1992 (Article 27 of Act 2083/92). Like all other state universities in Greece, it is a Legal Entity of Public Act. It is an autonomous institution, and its operation today is determined by Act 2552/97 and Act 4009/2011. Its mission is to provide distance education, at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. It is the only university in the country that provides distance education. The promotion of scientific research as well as the development of the relevant technology and methodology in the area of distance learning fall within the scope of the HOU's objectives. Distance learning and a flexible form of modular courses are among its innovative features. Courses cover 5 levels, from postsecondary vocational training to doctoral degrees. Accordingly, students are granted titles as follows: Certificate of attendance of individual modules; certificate of undergraduate training; first degrees; certificate of postgraduate training, and MA and PhD titles. The minimum qualifications for enrolling in any of the undergraduate courses at the HOU is the certificate from the Lyceum. Graduates are granted all the professional rights enjoyed by graduates in a given field in other state universities. The HOU is extremely popular. Given that the places offered each year are fewer than the number of applications, a system of choosing by lottery has been applied. However, priority is given to

¹⁰ Access to further education, currently not an option, is an issue about which a number of solutions are being considered by policy makers.

applicants above the age of 23. This is an indication of the commitment of the institution to those individuals, who haven't followed a 'normal' path from secondary to tertiary education, to be given the opportunity to return to education and get a degree. Furthermore, 5% of places each year are allocated to people with special needs. However, commitment to the education of individuals from underprivileged social groups (e.g., working class youth, migrants) is not evident in the policy formulation or the working practices of this institution as far as access is concerned¹¹. Students are charged with full fees, though partial or full scholarships are offered each year, on the basis of economic, social and academic criteria¹². The popularity of the HOU, and its success as an innovative policy measure, is evident in the number of applications made each year (74.301 applications for the academic year 2009-2010 and 76.478 applications in 2010-1, for a capacity of 6.390 first year students in both undergraduate and postgraduate levels) and the number of undergraduate, postgraduates and Ph.D. students attending (in the academic year 2010-11, 15.430, 10.720, and 67 students, respectively) (www2.eap.gr).

Concerning, now, the qualification and certification systems, in general and technical-vocational lyceums students are assessed by teachers on the basis of their participation in daily classroom work, their performance on tests and on end of the year final examinations. To be promoted and to receive a Lyceum Diploma, an average general mark of 9.5 out of 20 is required. Besides the Lyceum Diploma a prerequisite for admission to tertiary education is achievement score on the 'Certificate' which includes grades in six general education and 'stream' subjects that are examined at the national level. The general achievement score on the Certificate takes into account the final year school grade, school level assessment, and grades on the six subjects of the national level examinations. Graduates of the technical-vocational lyceum acquire, in addition to the above, a level 3 vocational education certificate based on school level examinations. Furthermore, assessment for promotion and graduation from upper secondary technical-vocational schools (*epagelmatikes scholes*) is conducted at the school level, and upon successful completion of their course students receive a level 3 vocational education certificate, which in addition to employment outlets allows them to enroll in post-secondary I.E.K. (post-secondary non-Tertiary education)¹³. Finally, it is worth mentioning that trainees at I.E.K. are assessed by their instructors during and upon completion of their training. Students who successfully complete an I.E.K. course are awarded an Attestation of Training and then participate in external examinations conducted by the competent national or local committees to obtain a post-secondary level diploma of vocational training (see Section II, Step: 3).

Thus far we have described the structured education and training pathways and streaming arrangements that normally start at the beginning of post-compulsory education. However, other differentiations and distinctions among schools do exist in the public sector, both in primary and secondary education, though they are not in any, at least visible way, linked to practices of student

¹¹ It is worth mentioning, though, that in 1995 legislation was enacted which allowed a percentage (0.5 percent) of the pupils of the Muslim Minority that finished upper secondary education to enter tertiary education level institutions, without examination (Askouni, 2006).

¹² More precisely, the HOU grants scholarships on the basis of excellence and on socio-economic grounds to both undergraduates and postgraduate students (for 3 and 6 academic years, respectively). As an indication, in the academic year 2011-2012, the numbers of students that got a scholarship were 138 and 905, on excellence and socio-economic criteria, respectively.

¹³ Thus one important difference between the technical and vocational lyceum and the upper secondary technical-vocational schools is that the latter does not allow access to the technological sector (T.E.I.) of H.E.

differentiation and *grouping by ability*. There are two main categories of schools here, the *experimental* schools (preprimary, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary) and the *specialist* schools (primary and secondary). The legislation covering the experimental schools is complex, as it evolved overtime. Overall the Ministerial Degree 96/1995 attaches experimental preprimary and primary schools to University Departments of Education. Experimental Lower Secondary and Upper Secondary schools function under Act 1566/1985, and their relation to University Departments of Education is ambiguous. The experimental schools have been established – usually in a prefecture or where there are Departments of Education for the training of teachers- with the mission to function as ‘educational laboratories’. That is to say, they are places where new programs of study and teaching methods will be tried out before their generalization in the whole territory. Also experimental schools are the places where prospective teachers do their placements, and also where teachers entering the profession get some form of training. To be employed in this type of schools teachers must have extra-qualifications, and those who work in such schools do enjoy some benefits. Currently, pupils are selected by a lottery draw, on the basis of applications made by interested parents. Specialist schools, on the other hand, are of three kinds: Musical, Ecclesiastical and Arts schools (see Diagram 1.1, chapter 1). Musical schools, especially, seem to be the most popular. There are about 35 lower secondary and 35 upper secondary music schools, and they are spread around the country. They adapt their curricula so as to provide music-related courses as their main component. To be admitted, pupils go through a selection procedure at the end of primary education, and in addition to their expression of interest in music, they have to prove that they have musical knowledge and skills.

We may say that the experimental type of schools aim to contribute to the improvement of the system, while the specialized schools provide for students with special interests and abilities in very specialized domains. Questions such as the extent to which sets of differentiated schools are created in actual practice within the public education system, and the degree to which procedures of admission or other features of these schools may be seen to lead to injustices in education provision should not be excluded from consideration (see Section II, Step: 1)¹⁴. What seems to be certain, however, is that officially there is no intention or encouragement of practices of student differentiation or even room for interpretations that might be implied in the questions just raised, with reference to these two types of schools. In fact, in the existing legislation, ability grouping of students is not an option. Typically, classes within a year group are formed on the basis of alphabetical lists.

On the other hand, we may see these special categories of schools, in particular the specialist schools, as schools that provide parents with some degree of *school choice*, given that enrollment in ordinary public schools (primary, secondary and upper-secondary) is based solely on the pupil’s place of residence. Though this choice is very limited, and parent school choice tends to be de-emphasized in Greece, any review of the system to facilitate greater parent school choice should take into account the overwhelming evidence from international academic research on this topic; showing that increasing parent school choice may work in ways that tend to increase existing

¹⁴ Since the abolition of the system of inspectors in 1982, there has not been any formal (external or internal) evaluation of primary and secondary schools in the country, except for the ongoing large-scale project of schools’ self-evaluation and some earlier small-scale pilot projects in the late 1990s (Solomon, 1999). However, schools and teachers are naturally interested in building good reputations. While this cannot greatly affect enrolments in ordinary schools, because of the existing system of enrolment (based on geographical catchment areas), the reputation of specialist and especially experimental schools is an important factor in parents’ decisions to apply for admission of their children to such schools.

inequalities in education (indicatively, Ball, Maguire & Macrae, 2000; Ball, Reay & David, 2002; Ball, Davies, David & Reay, 2002; Forsey, Davies & Walford, 2008). More specifically, while the impact of school choice has been a matter of considerable debate among researchers and policy makers, it is difficult to ignore the argument that the dominant social groups in a society will seek to gain positional advantage by schooling their children in socially exclusive settings, with school choice processes usually facilitating this tendency. Furthermore, Greece is a country where the education market has not, at least as yet, had a direct impact on the formal education system. However, as already discussed in chapter 1, with reference to national entry exams to H.E., and as with some other societies (e.g., Dierkes, 2008), the education market has long been operating in the out-of-school educational activities of students, such as the afternoon and evening private tuition classes and the expensive individual tuition at home.

Still, the line separating the private and the public sector within the Greek formal education system remains in place, and, above all, is visible in financial matters. Despite intentions, expressed from time to time in brochures of some political parties, there are no vouchers or other such schemes to encourage parental choice; and therefore no crossing of borders. Schools in the private sector have no financial support from the state, and they charge full tuition fees, the amount of which may vary according to status, while increases in school tuition fees are negotiated with the General Secretariat for Commerce. In contrast, as is clear by now, the public education sector provides education free of charge to everyone, including at the university level. The only exception to this, as discussed in the previous chapter, is the post-secondary, non-tertiary sector (not only the private but also the public I.E.K.), where fees apply. This is a sector which apparently provides some choices to young people who are not interested or able to go on to H.E.; but also a sector in which, one suspects, the overwhelming majority of young students come from lower socio-economic backgrounds and working class and migrant families. Therefore, the fact that I.E.K. students pay tuition fees for their education can be seen as an aberration within the system of free public education and needs to be addressed as an equity issue.

Research and policy practice in many countries have shown that fairness and inclusion in the education system relates also to guidance and counseling policies and practices provided by the system. Concerning guidance and counseling services in Greece, first, we should refer to the National Centre for Vocational Guidance, which is the competent national coordination body¹⁵, (www.ekep.gr). This is also the national body representing Greece in the European Lifelong Guidance Policy Network (E.L.G.P.N.), established by the European Commission in 2007. Its mission is to coordinate actions taken by private and public counseling and guidance service providers, aiming at the improvement of existing services, and the development of counseling and vocational guidance in education, initial professional education and training, and employment. Second, an organized network, specializing exclusively in counseling and vocational orientation services, aimed at secondary school students and young people, has been progressively established. Its institutionalization has been greatly facilitated by the financial support that responsible educational agencies secured from the E.U. Today this system is in full operation. More specifically, within education, counseling and vocational services are offered (www.minedu.gov.gr): (a) in 79 Centres of counseling and guidance that provide services at the level of prefecture and provide for secondary school students and youth up to the age of 25. (b) 570 “offices” of school vocational orientation, located within schools around the country. These are

¹⁵ This is a legal entity under private Act, supervised by the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection, and the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs (Acts: 2224/1994, & 2525/1997, Presidential Decree 232/29-07-1998, modified by Presidential Decree 44/9-02-2004).

staffed by teachers who have specialized in counseling and guidance. (c) In 2002, 105 more “offices” were put in place, aiming to connect upper secondary, technical and vocational schools to the labour market. Third, as part of the school curriculum, vocational orientation courses are offered at three levels: the third year of compulsory education (lower secondary schools), the first year of the general lyceum and the first year of the technical and vocational lyceum. Finally, we note that outside formal education, the last few years Greece has witnessed an unprecedented activity concerning counseling and guidance, initiated, for example, by municipalities and many private agencies. This amounts to an increase in numbers as well as a widening of the spectrum of related activity that unexpectedly has led to an enormous expansion of this field (George Logiotis, Ph.D. student at the University of the Peloponnese, Gr. (personal communication)).

Concerning services of counseling and guidance within education, it is worth mentioning that currently the whole system has been put under review. At the same time we note the lack of sufficient research on how students and their families use these services at turning points in the system, which, as many studies have shown, are not only crucial for young people’s educational career and future prospects, but usually entail complex processes of decision-making (Reay, et al. 2010; Moniarou-Papaconstantinou, et al. 2010). This is particularly the case for students moving from compulsory education to the two main strands of Lyceum and/or other paths available in the system, as detailed in this chapter, and of course students’ transition to H.E.. A great impediment to the efficient functioning of counseling and vocational orientation services relates to the fact that it has relied heavily on the E.U. initiatives and associated funding. Causes for concern are the fact that any new action on counseling and vocational guidance depends on Operational Programmes (EPEAEK, now the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF)), the fact that such services do not cover the totality of schools in the country, and the lack of an up to date legislative framework that would help to ensure the continuous functioning of the system. Moreover, there is lack of coordination between counseling and guidance services and those agencies that are responsible for offering teaching support to students who lag behind in school.

Chapter 3: Fair and Inclusive Practices

This chapter provides information that would help to assess the extent to which practices within schools in Greece are fair and inclusive. Reference to student progression and assessment practices is also important, as these are processes which may either encourage and strengthen, especially the weaker students, or discourage and marginalize them. We shall limit our reference to compulsory schooling.

At the primary school level, pupils are assessed by their teachers throughout the school year. Periodical and annual assessments are descriptive and also include letter grades from the third year of primary school. Except in cases of insufficient attendance, pupils are generally promoted to the next grade, as progression, according to existing legislation, should be “unobstructed”. In the rare case where the teacher thinks that a pupil needs to repeat a year, a strict process of consultation follows. This includes the expression of opinion by the local School Adviser, responsible for advising teachers on pedagogical issues, and the agreement of parents. In lower secondary schools teachers assess pupils based on daily work, written tests, assignments and end-of-year written review examinations. Promotion is based on achievement. However, though repeating a year is one of the options teachers have in assessing the progress of students, as a practice, it is rarely used; though, as Diagram 3.1 (*Appendix II*) shows, repetition is much more used at the lower secondary education than any of the other levels. Many different reasons may account for this difference. For example, and we only speculate, some pupils need more time in the transition from primary to

secondary education, where the organizational structure, the pedagogical relationships, the intellectual demands of the curriculum and the assessment practices are different from what they were used to. Second, some students, especially those from lower socio-economic backgrounds and different cultural traditions, are, at this stage, ambivalent about education and the commitments that it entails. Third, teachers in secondary education are more committed to their specialism than to pedagogy, and the lack of specialized pedagogical training for teachers of the whole secondary education sector (see further below) may prove to be more crucial a factor at this stage, than, say, at the upper secondary education where students are more confident about their abilities and ambitions. It is certainly the case, though, that, as in many other countries, in Greece, too, universalization of lower secondary schooling has led to the adoption of less strict and less ‘elitist’ forms of assessment which favored the weaker students. In this respect, it is important to note that not only repetition but also school dropout rates are low. An exception to this is vocational education; see Diagram 3.2 (*Appendix II*), and Section II, Step: 3.

Historically, within what has been a strongly centralized system, Greek schools have evolved in uniform ways, with pedagogical practices typically characterized as “traditional”, that is to say, teacher-centred. Such visible (Bernstein, 1977) forms of pedagogy address an ideal average student, position students in a hierarchy on the basis of attainment and make visible pupils’ shortcomings and weaknesses. Though this model has not been substantially altered, the last decade or so there has been some progress, induced by measures such as the introduction of new curricula, production of new textbooks and teaching material, and teacher professional development courses. Within this context, weaker students perhaps have got more attention from teachers. Other policy measures, though not specifically designed for weaker pupils, have certainly created the space for schools to offer support to pupils with difficulties in learning and low attainment level. Distinguished among them is the gradual transformation of schools into all-day primary schools, referred to in chapter 1. This arrangement allows time of ‘study’ at the end of the regular school day, where pupils prepare their ‘homework’ with the help and support of a teacher. A flexible organization of time, whereby children may leave school at 14.00 (end of the regular teaching program), 15.30 or 16.15, and the employment of additional teaching staff for the extra working hours of the all-day school should work to the benefit of weaker pupils¹⁶.

This being said, we should not ignore what happens in actual classrooms, where teachers indeed have the responsibility to differentiate their pedagogical methods according to the individual and collective needs of pupils in their classrooms. As one can surmise from studies on the University Departments of Education, responsible for the initial education of pre-primary and primary teachers, especially studies analyzing changes in the curricula over time (Stamelos, 1999; Sarakinioti, Tsatsaroni & Stamelos, 2011), teachers of this sector are well-trained in formative assessment techniques, and the newer teachers have been well versed in child-centred pedagogies. Regrettably, teachers in secondary education still lack basic pedagogical training. Instead, university graduates of subject specialisms who successfully pass a competitive examination, set by the National Council of Personnel Selection in the public sector, are required to attend only an

¹⁶ All day schools, in the current, developed form address all pupils. It is a policy that is meant to improve the quality of education provision in the pre-primary and primary education sector. It is up to parents how to use this flexible structure. There is no reason to believe that the weaker students are the ones that stay for longer hours or indeed no evidence - save some small-scale studies - to suggest that in practice weaker students do benefit the most. See Section II: Step 8.

initial in-service course upon appointment¹⁷. The lack of sufficient initial professional education of secondary school teachers has been a matter of concern for over two decades now. Recent legislation (Act: 3848/2010) aims to change this condition. Universities are now taking on the responsibility of organizing and providing courses leading to a certification of pedagogical competence, for university students of subject specialisms interested in entering the teaching profession. It is worthwhile mentioning that local school advisers with appropriate procedures of selection, on the basis of extra-qualifications (see chapter 1, note 4), in principle provide support to teachers both on content and pedagogical approach. In practice, however, the ratio of school advisers to schools and teachers is such that real support is not guaranteed.

Concerning provision for children with special needs, teachers of primary education have the opportunity to acquire specialization, following a teacher in-service course of two-year duration, after passing competitive entry examinations. These teachers work in schools around the country, providing teaching that is appropriate for this category of children. As an indication, from 2000 to 2010, 1666 primary school teachers and 392 pre-primary school teachers have been qualified in special needs (data from the National Federation of Primary School Teachers, D.O.E. (personal communication). Furthermore, specialization in teaching children with special education needs is provided at a degree level (Pre-primary and primary level) at the Department of Special Education, University of Thessaly. Within pre-primary and primary schools, there operate special classes, providing for these children. An effort is made for pupils with special needs to attend regular classes, to the extent that this is possible. In such cases, the class- teacher is expected to cooperate with the teacher of the special class, including in the decision of which children will attend the special class. In 2008, from the 150.079 children in total attending pre-primary (public and private schools, under the authority of the Ministry of Education), 592 were in special classes (0.4%). Also, from 647.543 children attending (public and private) primary schools, 14.651 (2.3%) were in special classes (K.AN.E.P., 2010). Moreover, for migrant and Roma pupils, and for children with learning difficulties, regular schools provide reception classes and supplementary education support services. We shall come back to this later on in this chapter.

Detailed information on Special Education in the Greek Education System is available in the Eurydice database (Eurydice, 2009/2010). We summarize some of its institutional aspects.

Special Education, like general education, is compulsory and constitutes an integral part of free, public education. Special Education is based on the inclusion model. Special educational support services exist also for pupils coming from vulnerable social groups with particular educational needs, such as minorities, foreigners and repatriates. These programmes are developed within the framework of cross-cultural education and emphasize issues of effective integration. Furthermore, Greek schools provide supplementary educational support services (Remedial Teaching, Additional Teaching Support) for pupils with learning difficulties¹⁸. We shall refer to each of these in turn.

¹⁷ Professional development courses are offered to teachers of primary and secondary education by both public and private providers. In fact, during the last decade or so this field has seen a huge expansion. The reasons for this are complex. Relatedly, see Section II, step: 5.

¹⁸ Here we are describing how, progressively, the notion of special education has been broadened to include all kinds of services aiming to provide for those who need special attention and support within the education system. This does not mean that in the implementation of this notion of special education, as crystallised in legislation, there occurred also integration of the agencies responsible for the various, distinctive, categories of special education.

Acts 1143/1981, 2817/2000 and 3699/2008, exclusively on Special Education, constituted milestones in the development of the institution in Greece, reflecting the prevailing views with respect to Special Education and persons with Special Educational Needs.

Act 3699 on ‘Special Education for Persons with Disabilities or with Special Educational Needs’ was enacted in 2008. This Act updated, codified and supplemented prior legislation. It was the first time that the compulsory nature of Special Education was enshrined in Act. Act 3699 stipulated that Special Education is an integral part of compulsory and free public education and specified the minimum duration thereof, promoting meaningful and functional support for inclusive education. Measures for ‘early intervention’ have been introduced for children of pre-school age. The right of academically gifted and talented pupils for special education services was recognized for the first time by Act 3194/2003 (Article 2, par.7), stating that persons with outstanding mental skills and talents could enjoy ‘special educational treatment’. Moreover, the Act established differential diagnosis, laid down the respective procedures and bodies for the diagnosis of special educational needs - Centres of Differential Diagnosis, Diagnosis and Support of Special Educational Needs (*KE.D.D.Y.*) – and outlined their staffing, operation and responsibilities.

According to Article 3 of Act 3699/2008, pupils with disabilities and special educational needs are those who throughout their school life or for a certain period thereof experience significant learning difficulties due to sensory, mental, developmental, neurological or psychiatric problems and disorders that, based on an interdisciplinary evaluation, affect the process of school adaptation and school learning. This encompasses pupils with special learning difficulties such as dyslexia, dysgraphia and attention deficit disorder etc., as well as pupils with complex cognitive, emotional and social difficulties, and deviant behaviour due to abuse, parental neglect or abandonment or domestic violence. Article 7 of the same Act makes special reference to schooling issues related to deaf, blind and autistic pupils.

The pupils’ special educational needs are investigated and verified by the interdisciplinary Special Diagnostic Evaluation Committee from the local Centres of Differential Diagnosis, Diagnosis and Support of Special Educational Needs (*KE.D.D.Y.*) as well as by the Medical-Pedagogical Centres under the purview of other Ministries, which are accredited by the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs. Depending on the type and degree of the pupil's identified special educational needs, the *KE.D.D.Y.* recommends the most appropriate educational setting for them, and also specifies the time for re-evaluation. Based on their recommendation, the pupil may attend either a mainstream school or a Special Education School Unit (*S.M.E.A.E.*). Blind or visually impaired pupils, as well as autistic pupils with a high level of functioning, may attend mainstream school classes supported by the class teacher and, as the case may be, by Special Educational Staff.

Attendance at Primary and Secondary Education (General and Vocational) is free of charge for all pupils with disabilities or/and special educational needs. Given that public education provision is free of charge for everyone at all levels of formal education, free of charge provision here refers to transport services, special educational materials, as well as concurrent intervention programmes and services, such as speech or occupational therapy, physiotherapy and any other services that support the equal treatment of persons with disabilities and special educational needs.

On the basis of the individual recommendation of the multidisciplinary Special Diagnostic Evaluation Committee of the local *KE.D.D.Y.*, the education of persons with disabilities and special educational needs may be realized within the framework of general education according to one of the following alternatives:

Pupils may attend:

- Mainstream classes, if they experience mild learning difficulties. The class teacher will support such pupils, and to this end will work together with KE.D.D.Y., mainstream and special education School Advisers and Special Education Staff Advisors
- Mainstream classes, with concurrent additional support – inclusive instruction provision by special education teachers. Concurrent additional support may take place on a permanent and scheduled basis when deemed necessary by the local KE.D.D.Y.. Recommendations for such provisions can only be made by the respective KE.D.D.Y.. Applications for concurrent additional support are submitted to the school and then forwarded to the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs.
- Concurrent support is provided to pupils with more serious special educational needs when there is no other special education setting available in their area (special school or induction class).
- Integration Classes operating in general and vocational education schools. These are appropriately organized and staffed regarding special educational needs. Two types of programmes are offered: a) a combined mainstream and specialized programme (up to 15 teaching hours per week) as determined by the respective KE.D.D.Y. for pupils with milder special educational needs; b) a specialized programme on a group or on a one-to-one basis, as determined by the respective KE.D.D.Y. for pupils with more severe special educational needs.

When the attendance of persons with Disabilities and Special Educational Needs at mainstream schools of the common educational system is rendered especially difficult due to the type and severity of the disability or disorder, the following options exist for special education provision to pupils:

- Self-contained Special Education School Units (SMEAE).
- Schools or classes operating either as self-contained or as units attached to other schools in institutions such as hospitals, rehabilitation centres, institutions for persons with chronic conditions, or educational services for the education and rehabilitation of Mental Health establishments. These educational structures are supervised by the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs and may provide education, training and counselling equivalent to those offered by the Ministry run SMEAE to persons over the age of 15 suffering from severe mental retardation and accompanying disabilities.
- Home schooling, when judged necessary, due to serious short term or chronic health problems that do not permit the pupil's transportation and attendance at school.

There exist the following Special Education School Units at each level of education:

Primary Education:

- Special Education Pre-schools and 'early intervention classes' operating within Special Education Pre-schools

- Special Education primary schools with a preparatory year and 6 grades (1st– 6th) corresponding to those of the mainstream primary school. The above primary schools may also operate as *all day* schools.

Secondary Education:

- Special Education Lower Secondary Schools with a preparatory year (optional) and three subsequent grades 1st, 2nd and 3rd.
- Special Education Upper Secondary Schools (Lyceums) with a preparatory year (optional) and three subsequent grades 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

Secondary vocational education:

- Special Vocational Lower Secondary Schools with a five-year programme. These Gymnasia implement a curriculum corresponding to the completion of the nine-year compulsory education and also provide vocational education.
- Special Vocational Upper Secondary Schools with a four-year programme.
- Special Vocational Schools with a four-year programme.
- Special Vocational Education and Training Workshops, of five (5) to eight (8) years duration. Attendance at these workshops may cover the requirement of compulsory secondary education.

Tables 3.1 & 3. 2 (see Appendix I) provide some related data.

Concerning special education programmes for pupils coming from vulnerable groups, these have been developed within the framework of cross-cultural education. Cross-cultural schools are established in regions with a high population density of foreign, repatriated or Roma pupils. The general curricula of state schools are reinforced by reception classes and tutorials, by special educational activities and by additional learning materials and staff in order to achieve the smooth and balanced social and educational integration of pupils. Importance is attached to the effective learning of Greek language. Some data on the distribution of foreigner and repatriated pupils per educational level at public schools, and in self-contained cross-cultural school units are provided in *Tables 3.3 & 3.4 (Appendix I)*, respectively. There are about twenty-five self-contained Cross-cultural Education schools (Primary and Secondary) operating in six prefectures of Greece, and the numbers are decreasing, as the general policy is towards integration. As an indication, during the school year 2010-2011, the number of self-contained school units in primary education was 14 out of a total of 5.523 primary school units in the country. The number of pupils attending these schools was very small: 521 Foreign/Migrant and 162 Repatriated, out of 73.996 and 6.781 pupils of these categories (0.70% and 2.30%) respectively. It should be underlined that native students can also attend these schools, if they wish (See Section II, Step: 2).

Cross-cultural Schools aim at:

- providing equal educational opportunities;
- taking corrective measures that contribute to creating a climate of equity;
- recognizing students' particularities and diversity and cultivating mutual acceptance;
- encouraging a positive attitude toward learning by:
- utilizing the cultural and language wealth that pupils bring, and

- promoting cross-cultural education in the framework of the local society.

As already mentioned, the general curricula of state schools apply to cross-cultural schools as well; however, the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs may issue a decision – upon securing the agreement of the Institute for the Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies (I.P.O.D.E.) – adapting the curricula to the particular educational, social, or cultural needs of the schools' pupils. Thus, it is possible for specialized curricula to be implemented in cross-cultural education schools with additional or alternative subjects, with reduced working hours for teachers and a smaller number of pupils per class (Eurydice, 2009/2010).

A distinctive category of provision in special education aims at enhancing the education of Muslim Minority children in the region of Thrace; offering them equal educational opportunities for their integration into the Greek society as citizens of Greece and the European Union. This concerns the Minority Schools operating in the geographic region of Thrace, in areas where residents belong to the Muslim Minority (of Pomak, Roma and Turkish origin) and the mainstream schools attended by children of the Muslim Minority, as well as the Centres of Support developed in such communities¹⁹.

The number of the Minority Schools operating in the school year 2010-2011 was 188, with 6389 pupils, and 1100 teachers (data provided by the Ministry of Education). In the Minority Schools the languages of instruction are both Greek and Turkish. Of the total number of teachers, 471 work on the programme delivered in Turkish, and 629 for the programme delivered in Greek (teacher/pupil ratio: 5,8). Minority schools operate according to legislation applied to private general education, with the state having increased but discrete powers of control on these schools. More specifically, these schools operate on the basis of the Treaty of Lausanne (1923) and pursuant to legislative measures and regulatory decisions issued within the framework of international cultural agreements. They provide education exclusively to the Muslim Minority in Thrace.

It is worth mentioning that a huge improvement in the quality of provision in this area came with a major project of 'Reform in the Education of Muslim Children' which began in 1997; a product of a new strategy of the Greek State for the Minority of Thrace. The Project, which continues to operate since then, has the following basic goals: Integrating Minority children smoothly into the Greek society through the education system; improving and enhancing the education they receive, with emphasis on their achieving fluency in Greek, which would help their future integration into the workforce under better conditions; making sure that the ethnic identity of the Minority children is respected equally by the educational personnel and the majority population; providing the educators both with special knowledge and with appropriate and up-to-date teaching materials; supporting the families so that they could help children improve their performance at school. The Project is financed by the European Social Fund and National Resources (see, www.museduc.gr; see, also, Eurydice, 2009/2010; and, e.g., Dragonas & Frangoudaki, 2008, Askouni, 2006, Androussou, et al., 2011).

¹⁹ Support Centres offer classes, pedagogical activities and creative workshops to help the Minority population break its isolation that in turn results in children's inability to integrate into the mainstream society. Breaking children's isolation will have a positive multiplier effect. The Support Centres offer activities parallel to the school intended for pupils and parents of the Minority though they pursue active cooperation with members of the Majority. In particular they provide Greek language, mathematics and computer classes to children during the school year and in the summer, Greek language classes to parents of Minority children, information and counseling to parents, Turkish language classes to primary and secondary school teachers, etc.

Low achievers are not considered pupils with special educational needs. But at this point it is important to provide some relevant information. Low achievers, that is to say children that the teaching staff of a school identifies as lagging behind, as a result of external factors, such as language barriers or cultural particularities, are provided with special learning support services. Special learning support services to low achievers are provided at the levels of lower secondary school and primary school through the *Remedial Teaching programmes (Ενισχυτική Διδασκαλία (E.D.))* and at the level of upper secondary school (*Lykeio*) through the *Additional Teaching Support Programmes (Πρόσθετη Διδακτική Στήριξη (P.D.S.))*. At the primary school level, pupils who require additional teaching assistance, as identified by teachers, attend the remedial teaching programme (E.D.), whereas priority is given to 1st and 2nd grade pupils (primary) who have not mastered basic reading, writing and calculation skills. At the level of secondary education, the E.D. programme addresses the needs of pupils, who experience learning difficulties in a subject or who simply seek to improve their school performance. The P.D.S. programme is for pupils attending all grades and all types of upper secondary school (*Lykeio*), as well as individuals attending classes run at Rehabilitation and Social Reintegration Units. The objectives of remedial and additional teaching support programmes are to re-include pupils in the learning process, so as to enable them to fully and effectively participate in the classroom, to improve their academic achievement, and, more generally, to reduce drop-out rates. In Upper Secondary Schools (*Lykeio*), remedial and additional teaching aims at tackling academic failure, in order to avoid early school leaving with low qualifications, which could result in exclusion from the labour market. Another key aim, especially pursued through the P.D.S. programme, is to enhance pupils' chances of accessing higher education. Special attention is given to additional teaching provision at evening schools (*Esperina Scholeia*), as well as schools in remote areas – where high rates of academic failure are observed – in order to put in place conditions which will prevent social exclusion and upgrade the quality of schooling (Eurydice, 2009/2010). *Table 3.5 (Appendix I)* provides some relevant data.

Progressively and certainly during the last couple of years, remedial teaching programmes and additional teaching support programmes have been reduced to a minimum or are no longer provided in many schools.

Concerning remedial teaching programmes (E.D.), reductions are evident in the data provided in *Table 3.6 (Appendix I)*, which refer to mainstream primary schools.

In this respect, it is worth mentioning that in Primary Education during the school year 2010-2011, the total number of Foreigner, Repatriated and ROMA pupils were: 58.052 (11,23%), 4.225 (0,82%), and 10.850 (2,1%) respectively. These are pupils who are likely to need special support.

Concerning secondary education, the situation is similar as shown in *Table 3.7 (Appendix I)*.

Besides the fact that there have been considerable cuts in teaching personnel as a consequence of the financial crisis in Greece, the P.D.S. programme in particular was not very popular among students. In addition, reports by educational administrators have showed that it has been badly run and inefficient. For this reason, it is currently under review. Instead, the Ministry of Education is experimenting with new ways of offering support to all students, initially those of general education, by taking advantage of developments in educational technology. More concretely, a digital platform has been used which is continuously enriched with interactive teaching materials for all subjects of primary and lower secondary education, thereby aiming to help students with their homework (<http://digitalschool.minedu.gov.gr>). However, while this experiment is highly

innovative, the assumption that educational technology is socially neutral might limit its possibilities to contribute towards equity in education.

We note that *Remedial Teaching programmes* (*Ενισχυτική Διδασκαλία* (E.D.)) and *Additional Teaching Support Programmes* (*Πρόσθετη Διδακτική Στήριξη* (P.D.S.)) were established in previous decades, precisely to combat inequalities in education for children of vulnerable groups attending pre-primary, primary and secondary schools. The current financial crisis in Greece has certainly made such programmes necessary for children of more social groups; therefore, matters that require the immediate attention of the educational authorities.

On the other hand, since September 2010, two large educational intervention programmes, 'Education of Foreign and Repatriated Students' and 'Education of ROMA Children', are in operation. These are part of the operational programme of Life Long Learning of the Ministry of Education, they are funded by the European Social Fund and National Resources and aim to develop a series of actions and interventions in schools, families and local communities in order to integrate pupils to mainstream schools and to combat school failure of children of these social groups.

This shows that, like in the whole of the European Union, the general trend in Greece, too, is towards educational integration. The education authorities and the individual schools make great efforts so that pupils with 'special educational needs' can attend regular classes in regular schools. In addition, for repatriates, migrant and Roma pupils, for children with learning difficulties as well as disabilities regular schools provide reception classes and educational support services in the form of E.D., as described above. Programmes are adapted according to the needs in each particular school, with the responsibility of local educational authorities, the teaching personnel and heads of schools. However, special education provision still exists and in this chapter we have identified three main categories of schools: *Self-contained Special Education school units* caring for persons whose attendance in mainstream schools is rendered difficult due to the type and severity of the disability or disorder; *Cross-Cultural* schools for pupils of vulnerable groups, established in regions with a high population density of foreign, repatriated or Roma pupils; and the *Minority* schools aiming to provide education to Muslim minority children in the region of Thrace.

School-parents communication, and the support provided to pupils at home (and at school) to carry out what is designated by teachers as 'homework' are also important factors in explaining pupils' success and failure at school. Research abounds on how both these issues are affected by the cultural, social and economic capital available to parents (e.g., Bourdieu, 1998, Lareau, 1998). We shall conclude this chapter by making a brief reference to these issues which potentially lead to inequity and unfair treatment.

The enduring character of rigidity of Greek schools has been traditionally evident in the strong boundary maintained between home and school. Strong boundaries restrict communicative interactions between the insiders and the outsiders of the school, formalise their relations, and keep strong control over the flow of interaction. Moreover, the hidden bias of all visible forms of pedagogy can be traced in the pacing rules structuring the teaching process and the consequent requirement that the school reproduces itself at home. That is to say, home functions as a second pedagogical space for knowledge acquisition (Bernstein, 1977). This tends to create uniformity in schools and heterogeneous classes.

Successive legislation, initial education of primary school teachers and in-service teacher training are gradually changing the culture of Greek schools. However, there are lots of indications that

teachers are not always welcoming parents ‘intrusion’ and ‘interference’ with school matters, and also that homework is seen not as a means for formative assessment, feedback and pupil improvement but as evidence of attainment, to be recorded in a numerical scale. On the other hand, there is some evidence that the situation is changing. First, the operation of all day schools, as already mentioned, creates spaces for helping students during school working hours with their homework, especially those from vulnerable backgrounds. Second within the Life Long Learning Programme initiatives have been developed, aiming to sensitize and help parents, especially of migrant and minority pupils, to co-operate with schools. In particular, we can mention two on-going major projects that work towards this direction. First, the programme ‘Foreigner/Migrant and Repatriated Students’, in the realization of which there are involved two universities (The National and Kapodestrian University of Athens and the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki), targets schools, pupils and parents using as their main criterion the percentage of foreigner/migrant and repatriated pupils attending a given school. Second, the programme for ‘The Social Integration of ROMA People through the Educational System’, with the involvement of four Universities (The National and Kapodestrian University of Athens, the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, the University of Thessaly and the University of Patras), aims to cover schools and their neighborhoods in the entire country. The action includes the developing of appropriate strategies to help parents support their children to avoid school failure (see also chapter 4)²⁰. Third, indications that the Greek school is changing both internally and in relation to its outside environment we can see in the topics and the approach of recent teacher development courses; as well as the programmes of study of the university departments of education. Primary school teachers, at least, appear to receive adequate preparation for social inclusion (Antigoni Sarakinioti, Ph.D. student at the University of the Peloponnese (personal communication)). However, a comprehensive policy on the above issues and especially implementation of good practices on e.g. how to use peer effects to combat school failure are still lacking in the system.

Chapter 4: Fair and inclusive resourcing

The Greek education system traditionally has been highly centralised with a top-down decision-making structure. Several attempts at devolution of powers and responsibilities have failed to materialize (e.g., Ifanti & Vozaitis, 2005), so there has been widespread suspicion concerning the possibility of developing a more democratic governance structure. The division of labour in the field of decision-making is still conceived to be between those who make the decisions and those who are called to implement them at the regional and local level. Responsibility for allocating resources reflects the existing power and administrative structure in education, and therefore lies heavily with the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs. Public education is free of charge at all levels of the system, and for all types of education, as described in this report, including university education. This means that central education authorities must provide financial resources, personnel and textbooks/learning materials. Responsibility for school buildings and equipment is granted to the Organisation of School Buildings (O.S.K.), which operates under the authority of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Infrastructure, Transportation and Networks. Regional authorities also have some share of responsibility for the infrastructure of schools in their region.

²⁰ The most important initiative in this respect is the institution of ‘Schools for Parents’. This was launched in the school year 2003-2004, and presently there are 54 such schools, one in each prefecture. Schools for Parents is part of the Education and Lifelong Learning Programme of the Ministry of Education and is co-funded by the European Social Fund and national resources. The aim is to support parents – as well as any interested citizen - so as to be able to play their parental roles successfully, in today’s complex societies. Schools for parents use all means available to advertise their programmes, and to make sure that citizens benefit from them. See Section II, Step: 6.

In particular, the main expenses refer to the teaching (and auxiliary) personnel, textbooks, infrastructure and operational expenses. Textbooks are provided free of charge to all students within the formal (public) education system, including basic textbooks for students in Higher Education. Teaching personnel is allocated according to annual planning by the central education authorities, in cooperation with the regional and local leaders of education administration. Personnel is drawn from the pool of teachers who besides their formal qualification from Higher Education institutions have passed the specialised examination administered by the Supreme Council for Civil Personnel Selection (ASEP).

Personnel for Higher education though selected by the institutions themselves are subject to the authorisation by the central education authorities, responsible also for their salaries, as employees in the broader public sector. The allocation of funds for operational expenses in universities is done through the application of an algorithm, resulting from the following criteria: The number of students enrolled in the last three years prior to the academic year concerned; the number of regular teaching staff during the previous year plus the number of extra teaching staff hired for the academic year in question; and the number of Departments that are in operation in each institution.

Schools belonging to Special Education are differentiated vis-à-vis the mainstream schools in that they need additional, specialised staff, e.g., speech therapy specialists, psychologists, auxiliary staff, including accompanied persons, etc.. Regional Educational Directorates are responsible for provision of fixed expenses (e.g., audio-visual equipment). Some of the expenses of this category of schools are covered by E.U. Operational Programmes (EPEAEK and now NSRF).

The study by K.A.N.E.P. (2010:417) has attempted to assess the functioning of the system as a 'structured system of assured quality', using a methodology that allowed the recording of the inputs and outputs of the system and its sub-systems. This helped to reveal the distinctive possibilities as well as the shortcomings of the education system which need to be taken seriously into consideration in formulating national education policy. It is worthwhile mentioning some of its findings that relate to resources. Lower secondary schools appear to be strong in all indicators of efficiency of infrastructure as well as numbers of teaching personnel needed; general lyceums appear to be strong in 3 out of 4 indicators for infrastructure (classrooms and laboratories), and strong in the indicator for numbers of teaching personnel needed; the technical-vocational schools appear to be strong in the indicator for numbers of teaching staff needed, but not in the other indicators used; and primary schools appear strong only in 1 out of 4 indicators for infrastructure ('other infrastructure') while all other indicators of infrastructure and the indicator for efficiency in numbers of teaching staff needed take low values. From these findings one can infer that the system needs better co-ordination of its actions so as to achieve efficiency, and more so for quality, in all of its sub-systems.

While several indicators for school outputs can be used, such as grades of student population in a school, school dropout rates, students repeating a class, etc., assessing the performance of schools is a complex issue, that in the past has caused a lot of controversy in many countries of the world, and internationally, due to its inherently political nature and its multiple social consequences. In the case of Greece, though legislation for evaluation of educational institutions is in place for all levels of the system, its implementation is slow. From the PISA results we get a rough picture of the performance of the Greek education system. The average grade of Greek students in PISA 2009 reading ability test is 483, below OECD's reading average of 493. Based on that, Greece is ranked 25th out of 34 OECD member countries. Similarly in mathematics, Greece's average performance is 466 below OECD's average of 493, placing Greece 30th out of 34 OECD countries. Finally, in science the average grade of Greek students lags more than 30 points compared to OECD average

(470 to 501) leaving Greece again in the 30th position. Regarding the socio-economic status, we note that in Greece, only 12% of the student grade in reading is explained by the socio-economic status, below OECD's average of 14%. (For an attempt to put these results in context, see Hatzinikita, Dimopoulos & Christidou, 2008). Besides this information, there is no systematic mechanism for identifying low performing schools; though data about student attainment are regularly collected (see further below in this chapter). However, educational authorities do possess the kind of information that helps them make judgments, as one can infer from the fact that a new major policy initiative aiming to support persistently low performing schools is currently under way.

More specifically, at present, one of the main aims of the Greek Ministry of Education Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs is to produce 'energetic' policies that would help reduce educational inequalities. The rationale behind it is that educational inequality is a form of social inequality and is expressed in various ways within the educational system. For instance, statistical data shows that social and educational inequalities are a bigger problem in certain Prefectures and Districts, and are expressed in the form of considerable differences in school dropout rates, school attainment levels, percentages of students entering higher education, etc..

For some time now the problem of reducing social and educational inequalities in Greece has been addressed, mainly, through major educational programs, co-funded by the E.U. and national resources, and targeting three specific populations: Roma, immigrants and the Muslim minority. In particular, since 2007, a new generation of large scale projects has been implemented, funded by the European Social Fund and National Resources, as part of the NSRF (2007-2013). These cover the following:

- (a) Cross-cultural schools and cross-cultural education in the mainstream schools;
- (b) The education of ROMA children, specifically
- (c) The Muslim Minority children in the area of Thrace.

The main aims of these programs had been to reduce school dropout, to boost school attendance and attainment for the children of these social groups and to reduce educational inequality overall. Within this context, as already mentioned in the previous chapter, reception classes and tutorial/remedial classes have been helping pupils, lagging behind because of learning difficulties and language problems, to be integrated and to progress within the system.

During the last year or so there has been an effort to subsume all three of the above programmes under the general umbrella of Zones of Educational Priorities (Z.E.P.), a programme aiming to direct resources to students and regions with the greatest needs (see Diagram 4.1, Appendix II). Its scope is national, and beneficiaries are students in pre-primary, primary and secondary education. The programme aims to confront the problem of social and regional inequalities in education by supporting and strengthening the regions and the social groups that are most in need.

Z.E.P. is the first programme where native Greeks facing socio-economic disadvantages will be included in the targeted populations (that is in addition to the three specific populations, the main targets of policy up until now: ROMA, immigrants, Muslim Minority).

Table 4.1 (Appendix I) shows the indicators for identifying both the regions in need and the individual disadvantaged schools.

Therefore, in this program, the Z.E.P. refers to geographical areas where social and educational indicators show that an additional intervention by the state is needed. The Ministry includes all the schools in such an area in the program of Z.E.P., and implements social and educational measures in order to help the student population to improve their educational performance, including support for their parents. Moreover, social programs, through cooperation with other ministries, in particular the Ministry of Labor, the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of the Protection of the Citizen, will also be implemented in order to improve the living conditions of the families and communities. Thus ZEP aims to create a horizontal network of educational and social policies, and to use its own tools, along with the tools of the Lifelong Learning Program, and tools developed within social policy programs to achieve a more efficient implementation of its program. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education is setting up an evaluation system comprising individual indicators that will help to reshape targets and the tools used to accomplish them.

The characterization of an area as a Z.E.P. requires the existence of objective data and assessments, and the formulation of clear and reliable educational indicators that would reflect the actual situation in a region. This involves the operation of a formal and scientifically valid system for recording information on an annual basis (e.g. educational indicators on school dropout rates, rates of student access to Higher Education, levels of language and mathematics knowledge and skills acquisition, etc.). In this way, it is expected that ZEP will put schools facing problems at the centre of attention and - developing targeted and systematic educational interventions - will be able to transform long standing practices of bureaucratic application of a general educational policy and undifferentiated educational measures for solving problems within the education system. This hopefully will help to enhance the capacity of each individual school unit, neighborhood, local community and region in the national map. Thus this program aims to confront the problem of social and regional inequalities in education by supporting and strengthening the regions and the social groups that suffer the most, and are mostly in need. Concerning education, in particular, the interventions are designed to address the shortcomings that exist at the level of the school (its infrastructure, the teaching staff, the availability of specialized teachers and other professionals, etc.), and to enhance student integration, adaptation and progress in education. Social problems facing young people in such regions, such as adolescents' violence, drug abuse, etc., will also be targeted.

The preceding description indicates that this major program is potentially very significant. This is not only because of the expectation that it will confront more effectively enduring problems in education but also because it has the potential gradually to develop and to elaborate an appropriate methodology for identifying low performing schools in different areas affecting regions and communities.

Indications that the Z.E.P. programme has the potential to address head-on the problem of identifying and supporting the disadvantaged schools in the country could be found in the current actions of the aforementioned programmes on the Education of Foreigner/Migrant and Repatriated Students, and on the Social Integration of ROMA People through the Education System, which have been subsumed under it. The former, as mentioned earlier, involves two universities (The National and Kapodestrian University of Athens and the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki) and shows an impressive range of proposals for systematic actions. These include reception classes, strengthening knowledge of the Greek language, cultivation of a climate of intercultural

communication at the level of the (mainstream) school, training of teachers and other members of the educational community, strengthening students' mother tongue, programmes of psychological support, linking of school to its surrounding community, networking of schools facing similar problems, and internal and external evaluation of all actions. Also, one of its concerns is to define criteria for identifying schools falling under this category. In particular, apart from those schools that the Ministry of Education has included in the Z.E.P., and the existing self-contained schools of cross-cultural education, schools from across the country have been included in the programme using as the main criterion the percentage of foreigner/migrant and repatriated pupils attending a given school. In this way, schools have been grouped together, so that, say, schools in the A' group (with 70% of foreigners/migrant and repatriated students) are provided with different actions than those belonging to the fourth category (school units with percentages of the said population below 30%). Similarly, the programme for the social integration of ROMA People through the Educational System, running from 2010 to 2013, has a budget of a total amount of 11.287.500 euros (7.897.864 from the European Social Fund and 3.389.636 euros from National Resources). Four Universities (The National and Kapodestrian University of Athens, the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, the University of Thessaly and the University of Patras) are involved in the actions covering schools and their neighborhoods in the entire country. The aim of this programme is to facilitate access of children of ROMA initially to pre-primary education and then ensuring their timely enrollment in the first year of primary; to help them familiarize themselves with the culture of the school and to ensure that they are retained for the duration at least of compulsory education. The actions include support to children of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education; the training of teachers; and evaluation and dissemination of the programme (see also Section II, Steps: 9, 10)

The Z.E.P. programme, therefore, is a complex and challenging initiative. It refers first and foremost to geographical areas where social and educational indicators show that an additional intervention by the state educational authorities is needed. In this, it follows practices of policy-making that have been developed in previous decades in many other countries in Europe, the research literature on which would suggest caution (e.g., Dickson & Power, 2001, Power, et al., 2002, Jones & Bird, 2000, Hatcher & Leblond, 2001, Gewirtz, et al., 2005). But it attempts to adapt this programme to current conditions in the Greek society, to do with existing structures of inequality and sources of social differentiation and exclusion, as well as to take into account recent experiences in Greece concerning ways of handling difference, such as the Muslim minority children education, referred to in the previous chapter. Furthermore, as this programme develops it is expected to lead to the formulation of more elaborate criteria for identifying individual disadvantaged schools, not only within but also outside the regions designated as in need. This requires a dependable system of recording information on an annual basis (e.g. educational indicators on school dropout rates, rates of student access to Higher Education, levels of language and mathematics knowledge and skills acquisition, etc.). That is to say, ZEP has the potential to put schools facing problems at the centre of attention and - developing targeted and systematic educational interventions- to replace long standing practices of bureaucratic application of a general educational policy and undifferentiated educational measures for solving problems within the education system. This hopefully will help to enhance the capacity of each individual school unit, neighborhood, local community and region in the national map. This is a challenging programme and it will require very specialized bodies of information and data, which though available at the Hellenic Statistical Authority, will certainly require further analysis and specific programmes of research.

As mentioned earlier, the budget for allocating extra resources to regions comes from the E.U. and national resources. Especially, since the year 2000, the financial resources for supporting

educational programs related to the socio-economic intake of schools, ethnic origin or mother tongue were allocated mainly through the mechanism of the *Operational Programme for Education and Initial Vocational Training (EPEAEK)*. EPEAEK was one of the Third Community Support Framework's 24 operational programmes in Greece, and it was co-funded by the European Social Fund and The European Regional Development Fund (75%), and National Resources (25%) (Act: 2860/2000). So, as shown in Table 4.2 (Appendix I), in the period 2000-2006, out of a budget of 2.484.599.224 euros, 13.29% was allocated to Action Line 1: Promotion and Improvement of Education and Vocational Training in the Framework of Life Long Learning. Of this, 7.70% was for measures of action for combating failure and school dropout with alternative forms of learning, and 5.59% was for improvement of conditions for entry into the education system for special categories of people. Furthermore, a way of allocating resources according to the socio-economic intake of students, ethnic origin or mother tongue is through the establishment and operation of Special Education and Evening Schools. As mentioned in the previous chapter, Special Education includes separate school units or classes within ordinary schools for pupils/students with special educational needs, children of the Muslim minority in the region of Thrace, those who attend the self-contained cross-cultural education schools (a requirement for the establishment of which is that at least 45% of the student population comes from migrant and repatriated families), pupils who need remedial teaching programmes in primary and lower secondary education, and students who need additional support programmes in upper secondary education. Evening schools (lower secondary and upper secondary) can also be taken to be a way of allocating resources according to socio-economic background, or family status, since the student population in this category of schools originate predominantly from lower socio-economic strata, minorities, migrant and repatriated families. Evening schools accept students over the age of 14 and so provide them with the opportunity (after the age of 15 years old) to work and at the same time to continue their study, avoiding social exclusion and developing intellectually, socially and in terms of work prospects. Second chance schools also fall in this category.

The budget spent on education, training and research in Greece is considered low. According to a recent scientific publication (Zwiech, 2008), referring to expenditure on education in the E.U. member states in comparison with the USA, Norway and Japan for the year 2004, the annual tuition expenditure for Greece is as follows (see also *Table 4.3, Appendix I*):

- annual tuition expenditure per student overall 4116,5 euros
- annual tuition expenditure per student primary level 3157,7 euros
- annual tuition expenditure per student secondary level 4371 euros
- annual tuition expenditure per student tertiary level 4669,1 euros

According to OECD (2008) data (Table B.1.1.a: www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008), referring to the annual expenditure on educational institutions per student for all services for the year 2005, by level of education, based on full-time equivalents (in equivalent USD, converted using PPPs for GDP), Greece has spent on education as follows:

Primary: 5146 dollars

All secondary: 8423 dollars

Post-secondary non-tertiary education: 7266 dollars

Tertiary-type B education: 3417 dollars

Tertiary-type A & advanced research programmes: 7661 dollars

All tertiary: 6130 dollars

Data about public expenditure on education can also be used from the information released every year by the Ministry of Education (Directorate of Finance). *Table 4.4 (Appendix I)* is indicative of types and levels of expenses for the years 2009 and 2010 for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education.

It is worth mentioning at this point that to appreciate the information provided above on public expenditure on education, one should take into account the amounts of money from the family budget spent for students' preparation, especially for the national examination for entry to H.E. Institutions through out-of-school supportive lessons. The social class dimensions of the problem, that is to say, the relations between different forms of out-of-school support that families from different socio-economic and cultural backgrounds are able to provide and students' performance in schools and the national university entry exams are rather obvious. The nuances of this problem have been well argued by Sianou-Kyrgiou (2008, p.173) when she writes that her findings,

“give evidence that there is a close relationship between parents' socio-economic state and the form of out-of-school support as well as the students' performance in the national exams. High social class parents increase the possibilities of their children's turn to the out-of-school support and especially to the most expensive and effective forms of it, as it can ensure high performance and access to high status academic departments. It has become a means for high social class parents to help their children face competition and ensure the reproduction of their social privileges”.

Notwithstanding these social differentials, this is a big expenditure and a large burden for all families. In 2008, the total expenditure of Greek households for purchasing educational goods and services from the educational market has been estimated to be 5.173 billion euros, representing 5% of total expenditure of households. *Table 4.5 (Appendix I)* shows their distribution per type of expenditure.

In Greece, students and (first degree) graduates can get scholarships and grants from several sources. These are: International bodies and European programs, the state, and Public Benefit Foundations and other private bodies. Eligible for scholarships are undergraduates and mainly post-graduate and Ph.D. students and they can study in Greece or – more often – go to universities abroad. From the first category, we should mention scholarships to Greek students to study in another country with which Greece has made a long term agreement on cultural exchanges, under the auspices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Also, the Socrates-Erasmus Program for student mobility provides scholarships to university students (undergraduate, postgraduate and Ph.D. students) to spend a semester in a university of another E.U. member state, provided that there is a bilateral agreement between the sending and the receiving institution. At the national level, the most significant source is the Greek State Scholarship Foundation, which provides a number of scholarships each year for postgraduate and Ph.D. candidates to study in Greece or abroad, after successful participation in competitive examinations, set up for this purpose and organized around different fields of study. This procedure has recently been modernized, and for the academic year 2011-2012 it will use ‘individualized evaluations’ on the basis of candidates’ portfolios, including a research proposal in the case of those interested in doctoral studies. Public Benefit Foundations is a second significant source for scholarships to study abroad for postgraduate and Ph.D. degrees. The criteria for selection vary, grants predominantly being given on grounds of academic achievement. Grants provided by various private bodies and professional associations might also impose the condition of area of residence (geographical background) and type of profession, respectively. *Table 4.6 (Appendix I)* shows a list of Bodies providing scholarships and grants for Greek citizens. Besides these sources, we should mention that state expenditure for covering meals or

accommodation for eligible undergraduate students, i.e., those with low family income, should also count as a kind of grant, as it aims to support those who face difficulties with covering the high cost of studying at the university level, often in a city different from the family residence. Furthermore, most universities have a policy of exempting post-graduate students from paying fees on the criterion of academic excellence, but also on social grounds (i.e., low family income, unemployment). It is worth mentioning that it is very rare to find cases where grants are provided to students and pupils at the other levels of the education system. An exception is the institutions of I.E.K. where students normally pay fees of 367 euros per term²¹. Since 2009 a new regulation applies, providing scholarships of 750 euros in total, on the basis of 'social criteria' (unemployed parents, disabled students, etc.), while requiring also a good level of school attainment. According to a recent evaluation of this new scholarships regulation (Stathopoulou, 2011), the number of scholarships has been decreased, now being only 77% of scholarships given out with the pre-existing regulation. The latter had two types of scholarships, one on the basis of excellence and the other on social criteria. This decrease means that previously 13% of the student population in I.E.K. were studying with scholarships, but now this is only about 10%.

The Greek sociologist of education Anna Frangoudaki (1985) has made the point that though education has often been the subject of hot political debate and controversy, for decades reforms had been induced by liberal-instrumental thinking, geared towards modernizing the system, and very rarely had they in their conception a concern to facilitate access to education to children of the popular classes. Although this strong view is debatable, it is not an exaggeration to say that the idea of monitoring progress in achieving equity in education has been consolidated and became a basic element of the political and policy discourse and practice with the beginning of those action programmes that were funded by E.U. sources, such as those mentioned earlier. So, at present there exist several structures designed to promote fairness and inclusion in education, though not always as their exclusive mission. Here we shall mention, first, the General Secretariat for Gender Equality (G.S.G.E). This is a governmental agency, competent to plan, implement and monitor the implementation of policies on equality between women and men in all sectors of society (Website: www.isotita.gr). Gender mainstreaming was introduced to the Greek political agenda in 1999 through the E.U.'s 3rd Community Support Framework. The actions developed thereafter aimed, among other things, to 'reinforce women's participation in technical, vocational and higher education through career counseling and teacher-training programmes' (www.epeak.gr). In its 7th (years 2005-2008) national regular report to the United Nations Committee for the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (G.S.G.E., 2010), this agency refers specifically to the measures and actions taken for combating gender stereotypes via educational awareness-raising programs tailored to the education community.

²¹ In the case of students originating from countries outside the E.U. fees are of 768 euros per term. Also some categories of students, such as orphans or those from families with many children and/or low family income, pay 190 euros per term; while for example, after a recent decision of the managing director of the Institute of Continuous Adult Education, students of I.E.K., who are following programmes of drug addiction treatment, are exempt from paying fees for the year 2011-2012. Relevant here is to say that the duration of study in I.E.K. ranges from two to four terms, depending on the type of upper secondary education students have completed. In addition, there are one or two terms of student placements. It is also worth noting that the number of I.E.K. students also varies over time: for example the total number of students in I.E.K. in the spring term of 2010-2011 was 6535, while during the Autumn term the number of students was 12.469 (Stathopoulou, 2011).

The Institute for the Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies (IPODE) is another structure for monitoring progress on issues of diversity and equity. It was established by Act 2413/1996 and organized by subsequent Ministerial Decisions, and operates under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs. This institution expresses the will of the Greek state to ensure equal opportunities for students of repatriated, migrant families, minority groups, and all those that come from socio-cultural groups, vulnerable to social exclusion. Its mission includes the monitoring and evaluation of intervention programmes, as well as advising the government in the area of intercultural education (Website: www.ipode.gr). As pointed out by Spinthourakis, Karatzia-Stavlioti, Lempesi & Papadimitriou (2008), the terms intercultural and cross-cultural are often used interchangeably in Greece to refer to diversity-related educational intervention approaches. Such interventions target (ibid: 8): (a) the education of the Muslim minority in Western Thrace, the only officially recognized minority in Greece; (b) the education of repatriated Greeks, mostly from former Soviet Union countries and Germany; (c) the education of pupils of migrant families who entered Greece in the 1990s, and include Albanians, Poles, Filipinos, Greek-Russians and others; and (d) the education of Roma minority. A recent study by Gropas and Triandafyllidou (2007) concludes that in the past decade the institutional and legislative system has incorporated an inter-cultural dimension in Greek education. However, these researchers argue that ‘until recently the provisions mainly consisted of measures relevant for the immigrant school population only, and these measures were part of an implicit assimilationist approach’ (ibid: 25). Still they indicate that under persistent pressure from academics and educators this narrow conceptualization of inter-cultural education is being changing. This is also to show how research in Greece, as elsewhere, has contributed to deepening the conceptualizations of issues politicians and policy makers have been concerned with, and how formal monitoring structures have been aided by such research.

Targets for overcoming school failure and achieving improvement in equity are for E.U. member states agreed upon at the E.U. level. Greece strives to achieve such targets as much as possible, as data in the Eurostat website and documentation in official reports show. Though there are no officially published, comparable, data concerning the achievement levels of students in Greece, statistical data concerning issues of school failure are being collected systematically, mainly by two legal entities:

1. The Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs
2. The Hellenic Statistical Authority

Both authorities collect the same data which are provided by every school unit in Greece, but the Ministry is able to storage and to analyze these data on the base of each school unit. The Hellenic Statistical Authority store, analyze and publish data according to various issues of interest (student population, teacher population, buildings and their capacities). See *Table 4.7 (Appendix I)*.

There are no official indicators –in terms of mathematical equations- measuring school failure. Research institutes and researchers usually measure school failure according to the following factors:

- Student attainment level
- Repeating a class
- School dropout
- Admission to Tertiary/University Education

Relevant, here, is also to mention an initiative by the Pedagogic Institute in the last decade or so, which contributed to gradually bringing to Greece ideas related to European discussions on the importance of ‘transitional’ phases, such as from one level of education to another, and from school to the world of work. Thus a project funded by European sources, to set up a ‘Transition Observatory’, following the experiences of other countries in Europe and elsewhere, has paved the way for setting up structures for monitoring progress. Indeed, several studies were conducted and a number of publications in international journals were produced, some of which addressed, specifically, the issue of dropout of secondary school students. In particular, from the mid-1990s onwards a research team at the Pedagogic Institute conducted four dropout surveys (the first starting with the cohort 1987-88, 1989-90 & 1991-92, and the fourth with the cohort 2003-2004). Quantitative findings from all types of Greek secondary schools are presented and compared with corresponding findings of previous dropout surveys and with relevant findings from other European countries (see, Transition Observatory: pi-schools.gr/programs/par/p2_en.html; see also, e.g., Paleocrassas, Rouseas & Vretakou, 1997). It is worth noting, also, that the Centre for Developing Education Policy of the General Confederation of Greek Workers (*Κέντρο Ανάπτυξης Εκπαιδευτικής Πολιτικής (Κ.ΑΝ.Ε.Π.)/ΓΣΕΕ*), founded in 2004, as part of its mission, conducts research on the basic characteristics of the Greek education system. Its principal aim is to reveal existing educational inequalities, and to strengthen the demands of the Confederation towards the government for developing policies to combat inequalities and to create a more fair education system.

Chapter 5: Challenges in overcoming school failure

Specialists in the field of education, such as Pierre Bourdieu and J.-Cl. Passeron (1990), have long concluded that the institution of education, rather than ameliorating inequalities originating in the social structures of modern societies, tends to augment and reproduce them. Educational failure is an expression of this ambiguous role of education in late modern and postmodern societies, affected as they are by globalizing forces. Educational failure is a persistent phenomenon showing that even when school offers all students the ‘same’ opportunities, students very rarely produce similar attainment or display progress analogous to the expectations school and teachers set for them.

The Greek educational system, traditionally, has been democratic and opened to everyone. Since 1829 when the free Greek state was established no one was excluded from accessing the educational system, which amazingly had established, though separate, still schools for girls, too – though see Ziogou-Karastergiou, (1986). So, everyone has the right, and parents have the obligation to enroll their children and to make sure that they attend and progress at school; so do the schools for all eligible children in their area. From this point of view, undoubtedly, the Greek state and the Greek educational system provide all the means to every person who lives in the country to attend not only compulsory schooling but any level of the education system. This is the meaning of the ‘free of charge’ character of education, required by the Greek Constitution, idea which remains strong in Greece, as can be seen from the fact that the (in principle) ‘free of charge’ character applies even to the university level education, and in some institutions, also, to postgraduate studies.

The problem with this view of education in Greece, as elsewhere, is that not all students achieve, in practice, equally satisfactory results. From a political and a social point of view, this perhaps wouldn’t have been a major problem if the students who fail in school didn’t have, in big percentages, some common social characteristics, related to poverty, cultural differentiation, and culturally poor family environment. Moreover, one does not need masses of evidence to prove that

these social characteristics co-relate with students that leave school early, dropout rates, low achievement results and school failure.

Thus school failure is an educational phenomenon that cannot easily be disentangled from socio-economic and cultural inequalities in a given society. It is an integral part of modern societies and national school systems. School, being a social institution, displays a social pattern. From this point of view if students fail, school fails, and the social system fails as well. School failure is therefore a social phenomenon because school is a social construction and students are members of a specific society.

At this point it is worth revisiting what, in previous decades, has been a plausible thesis in Greece, namely that the Greek Education system has not been as unequal as it was in other countries in the western world (Lampiri-Dimaki, 1974, Tsoukalas, 1977).

Indeed, after World War II, with Greek society in transformation up to the end of 1970s, the education system played a significant role in the transformation of society as well as in giving people good employment prospects. During this period (1950-1980), as Thanos (2009:20) remarks, 'educational mobility translated directly into social mobility', though the social function of education was realized in different ways for the different social fractions within the Greek society: the upper middle and the middle social fractions preserved their social positions, while for the lower middle class fractions and the working class and people from rural families the lyceum certificate functioned as a ticket to social mobility and employment, within an expanding, at the time, sector of public services (Thanos, 2009). In the 1980s, educational mobility continues to translate into social mobility but in much differentiated ways. Crucially, the lyceum certificate was no longer sufficient to ensure a job in the public sector, and so one needed a university degree (Thanos, 2007). From the 1990s onwards the capacity of the public sector to employ graduates has been radically decreased, condition that has affected mainly young people from lower socio-economic backgrounds. This is because it was this group that was predominantly orientated towards fields of study that in the previous decades had led to public sector jobs (Kyridis, 1997, Thanos, 2009). Moreover, we can argue that the current financial crisis in Greece, with its social and political repercussions, has revealed something that was going on throughout the 1990s and 2000s, namely that the lack of capacity of the public sector, as well as the private, to employ graduates has meant that young people from all strata of the middle class have been seriously affected. This has led to fierce competition for educational qualifications, as well as to very high percentages of youth unemployment.

It is within this context that social class related educational inequalities have currently become a significant issue, at least among sociologists specializing in this area (e.g., Sianou-Kyrgiou, 2006, 2010). As Thanos (2009) notes, young people from low socio-economic backgrounds, for some time now, for lack of appropriate forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1998), find it difficult to deal with the change occurred concerning the devaluation of their university qualification, and they find it difficult to look for new ways of utilizing their educational titles. This change in the value of the university title is evident in the expansion of postgraduate courses on offer and the numbers of students who enroll in postgraduate courses in the Greek universities, hoping to improve their chances of finding a job; often without taking into consideration that the value of the title depends a lot on the field of study, the social status of the University/Department which grants it and other such factors. A corollary of this has, also, been the expansion of a market of 'education and training'. That is to say, many private as well as public agencies in the cultural and economic fields, relying on young people's fear of remaining unemployed, and on the overwhelming emphasis on the importance for young people of demonstrating that they possess 'new skills for a new economy'

(such as communication skills, ICT skills, etc.) are offering various courses. These training programmes, being expensive but often of questionable value, might exploit young people and their families, which carry the burden of extra costs for education in the hope of preparing for a non-existent market.

On the other hand, educational inequalities related to socio-economic and cultural differences at all levels of education have become more visible only very recently. Greek society was believed to be, and in many respects was, a homogenous society but in the 1990s it was transformed ‘from an emigration to a reception country’; crucially, with no previous experience in dealing with such social phenomena (Kiprianos et al., 2003). Thus the Greek society, being rapidly transformed into a multicultural society, has posed acute problems to Greek authorities and all those concerned with education. These developments, along with influences resulting from Greece’s membership to the E.U., explain why Greece in the last two decades has focused on the educationally disadvantaged groups (Spinthourakis et al., 2008), evident in the political discourse and public debates, the priorities of policy makers regarding educational interventions, and the empirical studies produced by specialist researchers (e.g. Frangoudaki & Dragonas, 1997, Dragonas & Frangoudaki, 2008, Askouni, 2006).

To sum up thus far, in Greece, there is a growing awareness, as well as sufficient theoretical analysis and documentation, of the view that though ‘education cannot compensate for society’ (Bernstein, 1971), the educational arrangements must be regularly reflected upon, and some aspects of schools and the education system should be subject to continuous monitoring and - if need be – be changed, in the interest, especially, of pupils/students from low socio-economic backgrounds and socially and culturally disadvantaged groups. These include areas such as policy formation and legislation, school organization, curricula and textbook production, extra-curriculum activities, teachers’ practices, especially practices of pupil assessment, aligning curricular content and pedagogical methods with assessment practices (Lingard et al., 2006) and relations between teachers, parents and pupils.

To record the prevailing perceptions about the most important challenges in overcoming school failure in Greece, at present and in the immediate future, we asked representatives of the present government as well as some significant stakeholders to express their views and priorities in written or oral form. We also used official announcements such as press releases from stakeholders.

The National Federation of Primary School Teachers (*D.O.E.*) responded to our question, mentioning in particular the need for:

- Improving the education of children of vulnerable groups
- Strengthening of compensatory education measures
- Enrichment of teacher development training courses.

For the views of The National Federation of Secondary School Teachers (*O.L.M.E.*) we used recent press releases and other written sources. *O.L.M.E.* appears to agree with the present government on the *Z.E.P.* initiative, which it considers as significant compensatory policy action. As part of this initiative, *O.L.M.E.* holds that emphasis must be given to the integration of children with special education needs, which is still a problem for secondary education, as well as the integration of those students that come from vulnerable ethnic or socio-economic backgrounds. Provision of good initial education and in-service training of secondary school teachers has been an ever present demand of *O.L.M.E.* and the ongoing major programme of teacher development has been therefore welcomed. Appropriate education and in-service training for secondary school teachers is, according to *O.L.M.E.*, a priority in policy because it will help teachers deal with students at risk of leaving school early, dropout and repeating classes, and will provide ‘equal opportunities’ for students from

ethnic or low socio-economic backgrounds. In a written response, O.I.E.L.E., the Federation of Teachers working in private schools, expressed similar views. Furthermore, the General Confederation of Greek Workers (G.S.E.E.), that over the years has talked a great deal about policies and practices in education serving to perpetuate social inequalities, has underlined the importance of formulating policies capable of helping children from the working class and other vulnerable groups.

In its response to our question about policies aiming to combat existing educational and social inequalities, given the deep economic depression that the country is suffering, the government has expressed its priorities in very clear terms:

- Quality education for all students
- Monitoring school failure, and remedial action.
- Enhancing education for disadvantaged groups.
- Better use of available resources and better management of teaching personnel.
- New and relevant programmes of study
- Use of digital technology to support learning and teaching inside and outside school hours.

These priorities relate to the present government's vision of the 'New School', which involves transforming regular schools and classrooms to encourage students and teachers to actively engage in education and to ensure appropriate levels of learning for each and every student. The current Minister's agenda, with the slogan 'the student first', contains a framework for improving quality in education as well as combating educational inequalities. The new curricula, currently in a pilot phase, and the new ICT-based learning materials aim to support learning for pupils/students of different ability and working rhythm. Moreover, remedial classes and classes for the teaching of English after ordinary school hours are expected to help predominantly the less privileged pupils. Furthermore, targeted and efficient use of resources, teacher development programmes and the improvement of school infrastructure are also measures seen as creating conditions enhancing quality for all pupils.

A recent initiative of the Ministry of Education has aimed to merge schools at primary and secondary level, not only in order to cut expenses and rationalize the system but also to achieve enhancement of quality in education services and fairer provision. The government's rationale behind amalgamation of schools was that larger – though not exceedingly big – school units will be to the benefit of all, especially many underprivileged students and students attending very small schools in rural areas of the country. This is because larger schools - with more material and other resources, including teacher specialisms of various kinds - will be better equipped to realize the vision of the 'New School' and to bring out the potential inherent in its design. In its announcement, this policy was immediately associated with the current financial crisis and was interpreted as reflecting pressures to make unacceptable cuts in education. The policy caused political and public debate and there was lots of controversy and resistance from teachers and teachers' unions, parents and students and local authorities and communities. Thus in its implementation the policy was framed by stakeholders' arguments that cutting expenses, including teachers' salaries, rather than pedagogical concerns, is what drives schools' amalgamation and that it will have negative effects on thousands of students while it will badly affect teachers' employment conditions and employment prospects for new teachers.

Policy example combining efficiency and equity objectives in conditions of deep economic depression.

The merging of schools policy is based on existing and new legislation (specifically Act 3852/2010 on the 'New Architecture of Local Government and Decentralized Administration'). This is not an one-off policy since the government's intention is to control the system continuously and, using the appropriate information, to apply the rules for merging or abolishing a school at the end of every school year.

The criteria used for merging (or abolishing) a school are: (a) the number of the school's 'organic' (permanent) teaching staff positions in relation to the number of students - following the standard

ratio of 25 pupils per teacher in primary education and 25 plus 10% for secondary education; (b) the 'functionality' of the school, defined in terms of a school's distance from pupils' homes, taking also into consideration travelling difficulties (e.g., schools in very rural areas, on the islands, etc.) and its accessibility to pupils.; and (c) the discretionary power of the central authority to exempt a school from merging in localities with social particularities (e.g., schools in the area of Thrace where there is a large Muslim Minority population or areas with large numbers of ROMA people).

The policy was implemented from the beginning of the school year 2011-2012, and about 800 schools of preprimary, primary and secondary level were abolished, merged with another school, or jointly with other small schools formed a new school unit. In terms of economic efficiency this school amalgamation policy brought substantial gains, as for example, it resulted in 2000 fewer organic teaching staff positions. The consequences for equity are going to be long term and therefore difficult to assess at this stage. The government's rationale, mentioned earlier, contains claims which are grounded and convincing, such as better utilization of infrastructure and resources, not only financial but also in terms of teaching personnel in subjects like physical education, foreign languages and cultural and extra-curriculum activities that small schools could not offer to students at satisfactory levels. Inequities that might be caused by this policy can be identified with reference to (Chronis Sifakakis, teacher seconded to the Ministry of Education, personal communication):

- The longer transport time required for only some of the students of the school resulting from merging, when their classmates live near the area where the school is located.
- Feelings of unequal and unfair treatment in cases where the rules and criteria for merging or abolishing schools were transgressed because of the existence of strong pressure groups in certain localities or regions.
- Students who, because of the decision not to merge a very small school, as a result of the action of pressure groups in the locality, are condemned to a lower quality education than what is standard in public schools in the country.
- Students of schools that merged who, because the existing infrastructure cannot accommodate them all, are experiencing worse conditions than what they were used to.

Merging (and abolishing) schools is a ministerial decision and it is based on formal proposals submitted by the local authority councils and the local school administrators. Discrepancies in the proposals between these two agencies has been a serious problem in the implementation of the policy as it created conditions where differential negotiating power may well have resulted in some injustices.

Greece is in the midst of an unprecedented financial crisis and the deepening economic recession is greatly affecting all spheres of public and private life, with employment levels rising exponentially, reductions in welfare expenditure, experienced not only as unbearable for the lower socio-economic strata of the population but also as unjust, and poverty levels rising at a worrying rate. In these conditions education must become more important than ever before in the country. Section II of this report selects and describes policies and practices that, despite the adverse conditions, send the message that the belief in the power of education to transform societies and to improve the life chances and the well-being of its citizens has not been abandoned. The examples provided as a response to the 'Ten Steps Implementation Questionnaire', prepared for the present Project, indicate that steps to modernize and rationalize the system and to create a more inclusive and fair education system are moves in the right direction; however, more specific strategies have to be devised with reference to most of the initiatives taken thus far, to ensure that such initiatives are successful in their implementation and their consolidation within the system and the national school network.

SECTION II

TEN STEPS IMPLEMENTATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Step 1: Limit early tracking and streaming and postpone academic selection

A: Title <i>Changes in the status of experimental schools</i> <i>Αλλαγή στο καθεστώς των πειραματικών σχολείων</i>
B: Description Experimental schools are a special category of schools, described in chapter 2 (Section I) of this report. The new legislation in preparation will introduce changes in the procedures for student selection, which up until now was based on lottery.
C: Status (i) Planned/under consideration
D: Scope and level 1. Scope – (i) national 2. Level – Primary, lower secondary and upper secondary, of the status: experimental schools
E: Outcome and impacts 1. Intended outcome- Establishing schools of excellence 2. Impacts – Provide examples of good practice to schools in the regions in which such schools are located 3. Formal evaluation of impact – none as yet
F: Policy conditions – According to existing legislation, teachers employed in such schools have additional qualifications and invested interests to keep the status as it currently is. Teacher Unions might also oppose the change of status on the argument that this will introduce schools of two gears, therefore create unequal conditions for different groups of pupils.
G: Research: Not so far
H: Comments: There is some concern that changing the procedures for selection of pupils for this category of schools, and introducing academic criteria, e.g., through entry exams, would lead to the formation of new elitist schools.

Step 2: Manage school choice so as to contain the risks to equity

A: Title <i>Inter-cultural schools as schools allowing choice to parents</i> <i>Διαπολιτισμικά Σχολεία, ως γονεϊκή επιλογή</i>
B: Description <p>There are several schools in the country which, under existing legislation, are designated as ‘Inter-cultural Schools’ (see chapter 3, Section I). Though more recent policy measures, such as reception and remedial classes, aim at the integration of children of different socio-cultural and ethnic backgrounds into ordinary schools, the policy of intercultural schools not only allows the continuation of this kind of schools, but actively encourages the creation out of them of models of intercultural education, attracting parents living in the area and guaranteeing the social mix in these schools.</p>
C: Status: Under development
D: Scope and level <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope: National2. Level: Pupils of primary and secondary education and their parents, in areas where inter-cultural schools are in operation.
E: Outcome and impacts <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome: enhance inter-cultural education, avoid segregation, allow choice of school for parents interested in early exposure of their children to culturally diverse environments.2. Impacts: Evidence is not available (or not found), but our impression is that Greek parents will be reluctant to send their children to intercultural schools out of the prejudice that the academic demands will not be as high as in the ordinary schools.3. Formal evaluation of impact: There is no mechanism in place for evaluating impact
F: Policy conditions: The existing legislation creates favourable conditions but it seems that it is through the activity of individual schools and their teaching staff that parents are attracted or not to these kinds of schools. More media attention and more active promotion on the part of the Ministry would have helped to produce satisfactory results.
G: Research: Not from this particular angle
H: Comments: Policy measures that would allow school choice to parents of primary and secondary school pupils (given the current situation of allocation according to area of residence) haven’t been really discussed much in Greece. Promotion of Intercultural Schools, as schools working for quality, equity and cultural diversity would serve good social and educational purposes, especially in countries like Greece that has been rapidly turned into a multicultural society.

Step 3: In upper-secondary education, provide attractive alternatives, remove dead ends and prevent dropout

<p>A: Title</p> <p><i>Upgrading technical and vocational education and training, linking it to the world of work and offering real employment possibilities</i></p> <p><i>Αναβάθμιση της τεχνικής και επαγγελματικής Εκπαίδευσης, σύνδεσή της με την αγορά εργασίας και δημιουργία δυνατοτήτων για ταχύτερη και καλύτερη απασχόληση</i></p>
<p>B: Description</p> <p>Technical and Vocational Education and Training (Act: 3475/2006) is an alternative education and training path of upper secondary education (see chapter 2, Section 1), which combines general education with specialized technical and vocational knowledge and aims at the smooth transition of qualified individuals to the labour market, or further studies. In particular, graduates of the technical lyceum can take the national examination for entry into institutions of Higher Education. Graduates of technical and vocational schools can continue in I.E.K., that is the post-secondary, non-tertiary vocational institutions. Making Technical and Vocational Education and Training attractive to young people has been a challenge. A major programme, comprising a variety of actions, under the umbrella of LLL of the Ministry of Education, and with funds from the European Social Fund and national resources, aims to improve this subsystem. It is expected that changes such as curricula reforms, developing of appropriate placements through cooperation with business, creation of supportive structures (e.g. career guidance services), and linking this education and training system with the National Framework of Qualifications, currently under development, will Technical Education and Training structures, allowing real possibilities for work and further studies to young people following this path.</p>
<p>C: Status: under development</p>
<p>D: Scope and level</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope: (i) National2. Level: Upper secondary education, technical and vocational track
<p>E: Outcome and impacts</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome: Improvement of this subsystem, linking it to the employment structure and allowing possibilities for studying in H.E. and/or post-secondary education and training2. Impacts: None as yet3. Formal evaluation of impact: A number of calls for specific research or intervention projects have been publicised, including the mapping of the employment levels of persons with technical-vocational qualifications. Evaluation of impact is integrated in the Action.

F: Policy conditions: The socially maintained hierarchy between general and vocational education, evident in all societies but especially strong in Greece, inhibits attempts to make the technical-vocational track attractive to young people and their families, independently of their socio-economic status.

G: Research: see E.3, above.

H: Comments: Though there is no explicit intention to combat educational inequalities through this programme, upgrading a system that almost by definition serves students from lower socio-economic or diverse socio-cultural backgrounds makes it an action contributing to more fair education provision.

Step 4: Offer second chances to gain from education

<p>A: Title</p> <p><i>Second Chance Schools</i></p> <p><i>Σχολεία Δεύτερης Ευκαιρίας (Σ.Δ.Ε.)</i></p>
<p>B: Description: The Institution of Second Chance Schools has been developed as an effort to combat the social exclusion of adults who do not have the necessary qualifications to adapt to modern employment requirements. It gives adults lacking basic qualifications the opportunity to reconnect with formal education. It targets citizens from the age of 18+ who haven't completed compulsory education (see description in chapter 2, Section I).</p>
<p>C: Status (iii) completed</p>
<p>D: Scope and level</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope: (i) national2. Level: Second chance schools correspond to lower secondary education, but it is a structure of LLL. It functions as a link between formal and non-formal learning.
<p>E: Outcome and impacts</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome: Second chance schools provide the opportunity to adults to acquire the qualifications of compulsory schooling and to enhance their employment prospects.2. Impacts: Second chance schools have been very popular. Evidence include: the number of schools established around the country the last few years (Now, 57 schools, and 7 schools in prisons, the latter with 893 students in total).3. Formal evaluation of impact: A study entitled 'The trajectory of second chance schools' students after the completion of their study', funded by the Operational Programme 'Education and Life Long Learning Programme' of the Ministry of Education, is expected to be completed in June 2011.
<p>F: Policy conditions: Unconditional support from all main stakeholders</p>
<p>G: Research: Only small studies, usually by researchers who are interested in developing and maintaining this institution.</p>
<p>H: Comments: The establishment of second chance schools followed principles developed at the E.U. level and used European resources to develop the national network of schools. It has been adapted to the conditions of the Greek system and the Greek society, and there is widespread consensus as to its success. The Institute of Continuing Adult Education (I.D.E.K.E) in collaboration with the competent local government authorities ensure that proper conditions for running such schools are held.</p>

Step 5: Identify and provide systematic help to those who fall behind at school and reduce high rates of school year repetition

<p>A: Title</p> <p><i>‘Major’ Programme of in-service training for pre-primary, primary and secondary school teachers, Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs</i></p> <p><i>‘Μείζον’ επιμορφωτικό πρόγραμμα του Υπουργείου Παιδείας, Διαβίου Μάθησης και Θρησκευμάτων</i></p>
<p>B: Description</p> <p>This is a new, large programme for the in-service training of teachers, aiming to contribute to the National Policy Framework of In-service Teacher Training. It is linked to the present government’s vision of the ‘New School’, and is part of the Operational Programme ‘Education and Life Long Learning’, funded by the European Social Fund and national resources.</p>
<p>C: Status: (i) under development</p>
<p>D: Scope and level</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Scope: (i) national 2. Level: Pre-primary, Primary and (Lower and Upper) Secondary Education
<p>E: Outcome and impacts</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intended outcome: The explicit aim of the programme is the enhancement of the quality of education provision and the transformation of the role of the teacher in the ‘New School’ 2. Impacts: Teachers have showed interest in this form of in-service teacher training. For example, more than 500 teachers responded to the call to submit examples of ‘good practice’. These will be used as part of the educational materials in the courses that will take place in the framework of this programme. 3. Formal evaluation of impact: Evaluation is a built-in structure of the programme and consists of both internal and external forms of evaluation.
<p>F: Policy conditions: Favourable, as teachers are very interested in new forms of in-service training.</p>
<p>G: Research: A study, conducted by the Pedagogic Institute, explored the training needs of teachers (May-July, 2010). Descriptive results of the study are available (www.epimorfosi.edu.gr); see also www.doe.gr/11/epi7.pdf. Full results are expected to be available in May 2011.</p>
<p>H: Comments: Though the explicit aim is the development of the teacher to be able to change the school and teachers’ role within it, reference is made to the social role of teachers, their ability to understand the psychological, social and intellectual needs of students, and their skills in the early diagnosis and intervention, so as to be able to help students who fall behind because of special learning difficulties and/or their social situation.</p>

Step 6: Strengthen the links between school and home to help disadvantaged parents help their children to learn

<p>A: Title</p> <p><i>Schools for Parents</i></p> <p><i>Σχολές Γονέων</i></p>
<p>B: Description</p> <p>This programme aims to support parents to play successfully their complex parental role, in the socio-economic and socio-cultural conditions characteristic of modern societies. In the period 2005-2008, 749 courses were offered specifically on the topic: school-family relations. Currently, under the Operational Programme of Life Long Learning, funded by the European Social Fund and national resources, there operate seven (7) educational programmes, one of which on: ‘Cooperation between teachers and families’ (of 25 hours duration).</p>
<p>C: Status (ii) under development</p>
<p>D: Scope and level</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Scope: (i) national 2. Level (ii) Greek families and schools at pre-primary, primary and secondary level
<p>E: Outcome and impacts</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intended outcome: Improvement of parents-teachers communication, and encouragement of parents to actively participate in the life of the school. Emphasis is given to parents with children with special needs and to parents that belong to vulnerable social groups. 2. Impacts: Since 2009, 168 courses have been offered, and 3123 individuals participated. It is expected that by the end of the programme another 100 courses will be offered, with about 1800 participants. Courses for parents have also started in some prisons. Though there is no exact data on the number of parents from vulnerable groups attending the specific topics on family-school relations, the number of individuals attending ‘Schools for Parents’ programmes since 2009, is 800 (immigrants, ROMA, Muslims). 3. Formal evaluation of impact: Mainly internal evaluation procedures, which are integrated in the structure of the programmes.
<p>F: Policy conditions: Information not available</p>
<p>G: Research: Not available</p>
<p>H: Comments: Responsible for running and monitoring the ‘School for Parents’ Programme is I.D.E.K.E., The Institute of Continuing Adult Education.</p>

Step 7a: Respond to diversity and provide for the successful inclusion of migrants and minorities within mainstream education

<p>A: Title</p> <p><i>Downwards extension of compulsory education to include pre-primary education of children age 5-6</i></p> <p><i>Υποχρεωτική Φοίτηση στο Νηπιαγωγείο</i></p>
<p>B: Description</p> <p>Kindergarten attendance has become compulsory for all 5 year olds in Greece (Act: 3518/2006). This legislative measure is supported by research showing that early childhood education and care is vital for children's later progress in education, particularly for disadvantaged children. Attendance for 4 year-old children remains optional.</p>
<p>C: Status: (iii) completed</p>
<p>D: Scope and level</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope: (i) national2. Level: pre-primary education
<p>E: Outcome and impacts</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome: Ensuring universal provision of education for children of pre-school age (age: 5-6 year-old)2. Impacts: During the 2009-2010 school year, there were 146250 children enrolled in public kindergartens and 11658 in private ones. Of children attending public kindergartens, 36.3% were 4 year-olds, while in private kindergartens 21.7% of the children were 4 year-olds. The other option available to 4 year-old children is the nursery classes in childhood care centres, run by municipalities.3. Formal evaluation of impact: not available
<p>F: Policy conditions: Extending downwards compulsory education had been a long standing demand of D.O.E., the National Federation of Primary School Teachers. However the lack of spaces in public kindergartens for children of the age group 4-5 year-olds, caused by this policy measure, has led to many complaints being made by parents' associations, D.O.E. and the media. Though there is the option of the municipal nurseries, there are still issues related to both quality and equity of education provision for this age group.</p>
<p>G: Research: Mainly newspaper articles pointing to the problem created by this legislation. Research exploring the extent to which this situation has affected families, especially those belonging to the most vulnerable social groups is totally lacking.</p>
<p>H: Comments: A side effect of this legislation is that many children of the cohort 4-5 years of age, i.e., a pedagogically formative period, may remain outside the formal education system running under the Ministry of education. Parents have the options of sending their children either to private schools or to pre-primary classes running with the responsibility of municipalities. Lack of spaces in municipal nurseries would then mean that parents have no other option except keeping their 4-5 year old children at home.</p>

Step 7b: Respond to diversity and provide for the successful inclusion of migrants and minorities within mainstream education

<p>A: Title</p> <p><i>Education of Roma children</i></p> <p><i>Εκπαίδευση των παιδιών Ρομά</i></p>
<p>B: Description</p> <p>This is a medium-term strategy of the Ministry of Education to facilitate access of Roma children to the national education structures. It is included in the Operational Program ‘Education and LLL’, funded by European and national resources.</p>
<p>C: Status: (ii) under development</p>
<p>D: Scope and level</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Scope: (i) national 2. Level: Compulsory education levels
<p>E: Outcome and impacts</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intended outcome: it is expected that about four schools in each municipality (in at least 84 municipalities in the country, where there is concentration of Roma people) will benefit from the program 2. Impacts: Emphasis is on preschool, the timely enrolment in the first year of primary education, the familiarisation with the school environment, and the improvement of the education provision for this particular group. 3. Formal evaluation of impact: Not yet (the program runs from 2009-2013)
<p>F: Policy conditions: The Ministry of Education has linked this programme to the E.U. Campaign ‘Dosta’, aiming to fight stereotypes and racism against Roma and to improve relationships between non-Roma and Roma citizens.</p>
<p>G: Research: Two universities (Aristoteleion U of Thessaloniki and Kapodestrian U of Athens) are involved in this action. It is expected that the programme will have a strong research component.</p>
<p>H: Comments: The program aims to fight social inequality and school dropout of Roma children, by facilitating access and attendance to preschool, making school-focused interventions at the primary school level to improve regular attendance, and intervening to help parents of this particular group access Centres of Adult Education and Second Chance Schools. It also aims to support teachers, to develop strategies for linking school, family and community, and to form school networks.</p>

Step 8: Provide strong education for all, giving priority to early childhood provision and basic schooling

A: Title <i>All day schools</i> <i>Ολοήμερα σχολεία</i>
B: Description Gradually all preprimary and primary education schools are becoming all-day schools. Pupils in these schools attend foreign language classes leading to certification, they do sports and they become familiar with the arts or other creative activities. Study (individual and in groups) during the first grades takes place within the working hours of the school.
C: Status: (ii) under development
D: Scope and level <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope: (i) national2. Level: pre-primary and primary education levels
E: Outcome and impacts <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome: First piloting of all day pre-primary and primary schools started in 1997, aiming to serve working parents. While this continues to be an important aim, currently the predominant purpose of all day schools is the creation of conditions for providing strong education for all.2. Impacts: Very positive results have been reported since the first piloting of the all day schools initiative. No results are available of the new policy initiative aiming to improve quality of education provision in basic education.3. Formal evaluation of impact: not able to find relevant information
F: Policy conditions: Supported by all main stakeholders
G: Research: Numerous studies have been published over the years, assessing aspects of all day schools. Overall very positive. E.g., Pyrgiotakis, 2001; Kyridis, Tsakiridou & Arvaniti (2006)
H: Comments: During the school year 2010-11, a new pilot programme of all day schools has started. The aim is to try a new and integrated school programme and curriculum. It emphasises reduction of the educational contents and extension of the compulsory working hours. It focuses on Greek language and on mathematics, the teaching of foreign languages, ICT in teaching and learning, and an increase in the time spent on culture, art and literature.

Step 9: Direct resources to students and regions with the greatest needs

A: Title <i>Zones of Educational Priorities (Z.E.P.)</i> <i>Ζώνες Εκπαιδευτικής Προτεραιότητας</i>
B: Description The aim is to place previous programmes targeting vulnerable groups under the umbrella of the program of Z.E.P. It is based on the evidence that certain geographical areas in Greece suffer from high levels of social and educational inequalities (see chapter 4, Section I).
C: Status: (ii) under development
D: Scope and level <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope: (i) national2. Level: Pre-primary, primary and secondary education
E: Outcome and impacts <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome: The Z.E.P. program aims to use specific social and educational indicators to identify and describe the Z.E.P. areas more systematically, as well as to intervene and improve conditions and outcomes.2. Impacts: Not as yet3. Formal evaluation of impact: This programme has a build-in procedure of evaluation.
F: Policy conditions: research-based evidence of the need to develop such a policy, wide coverage from the media, and unconditional support from all stakeholders such as the General Confederation of Greek Workers.
G: Research: e.g. K.A.N.E.P., 2010
H: Comments: This program aims to confront the problem of social and regional inequalities in education by supporting and strengthening the regions and the social groups that suffer the most, and are mostly in need.

Step 10: Set concrete targets for more equity – particularly related to low school attainment and dropout

A: Title <i>Zones of Educational Priorities (Z.E.P.)</i> <i>Ζώνες Εκπαιδευτικής Προτεραιότητας</i>
B: Description See STEP: 9
C: Status
D: Scope and level <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Scope2. Level
E: Outcome and impacts <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intended outcome:2. Impacts3. Formal evaluation of impact
F: Policy conditions
G: Research
H: Comments <p>A small number of numerical targets for equity have been adopted in Greece, following the standards developed at the E.U. level. But these apply to the whole education system. The Z.E.P. program has the potential gradually to develop and to elaborate an appropriate methodology for identifying low performing schools, leading to the adoption of numerical targets for equity applicable to each individual school unit.</p>

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“Development of Lifelong Learning and other provisions”

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“Unified Lyceum, access of graduates to higher education, evaluation of work in education and other provisions”

A 2083/1992(G.G.G.159/1992) “Εκσυγχρονισμός της Ανώτατης Εκπαίδευσης”/

“Modernisation of Higher Education”

A 2552/1997 (G.G.G. 266/1997) «Ελληνικό Ανοικτό Πανεπιστήμιο και άλλες διατάξεις» /

“Hellenic Open University and other provisions”

A 1566/1985 (G.G.G. 167/1985) “Δομή και λειτουργία της πρωτοβάθμιας και δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης και άλλες διατάξεις” /

“Structure and function of primary and secondary education and other provisions”

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“Organization, operation and affiliation of Experimental schools of former Pedagogical Academies with University Departments of Primary and Early Childhood Education”

A2224/1994(G.G.G.112/1994)“Ρύθμιση θεμάτων εργασίας, συνδικαλιστικών δικαιωμάτων, υγιεινής και ασφάλειας των εργαζομένων και οργάνωσης Υπουργείου Εργασίας και των εποπτευόμενων από αυτό νομικών προσώπων και άλλες διατάξεις” /

“Regulation of issues of labor, union rights, health and safety of workers, and the organization of the Ministry of Labour and the supervised by it legal entities and other provisions”

PD 232/1998 (G.G.G. 179/1998) “Σκοποί, συγκρότηση, σύνθεση, θητεία, αρμοδιότητες του Διοικητικού Συμβουλίου καθώς επίσης πόροι και θέσεις προσωπικού του «Εθνικού Κέντρου Επαγγελματικού Προσανατολισμού» (Ε.Κ.Ε.Π.)” /

“Aims, constitution, composition, mandate, powers of the Board as well as resources and staff positions of the "National Centre for Vocational Guidance" (ECEP)”

PD 44/2004 (G.G.G. 37/2004) “Τροποποίηση του Π.Δ. 232/1998 “ Σκοποί, συγκρότηση, σύνθεση, θητεία, αρμοδιότητες του Διοικητικού Συμβουλίου καθώς επίσης πόροι και θέσεις προσωπικού του «Εθνικού Κέντρου Επαγγελματικού Προσανατολισμού» (Ε.Κ.Ε.Π.)” /

“Amendment of the PD 232/1998 “Aims, constitution, composition, mandate, powers of the Board as well as resources and staff positions of the "National Centre for Vocational Guidance" (ECEP)”

A1143/1981(G.G.G.80/1981) “Περί Ειδικής Αγωγής, Ειδικής Επαγγελματικής Εκπαιδύσεως, Απασχολήσεως και Κοινωνικής Μερίμνης των αποκλινόντων εκ του φυσιολογικού ατόμων και άλλων τινών εκπαιδευτικών διατάξεων” /

“About Special Education, Special Training, Employment and Social Care for the diverging from the normal individuals and certain other educational provisions”

A 2817/2000 (G.G.G.78/2000) “Εκπαίδευση των ατόμων με ειδικές εκπαιδευτικές ανάγκες και άλλες διατάξεις” /

“ Education of people with special educational needs and other provisions”

A 3699/2008 (G.G.G. 199/2008) “Ειδική Αγωγή και Εκπαίδευση ατόμων με αναπηρία ή με ειδικές εκπαιδευτικές ανάγκες.” /

“Special education and training of disabled persons or of persons with special educational needs.”

A 3194/2003 (G.G.G. 267/2003) “Ρύθμιση εκπαιδευτικών θεμάτων και άλλες διατάξεις” /

“Setting of educational issues and other provisions”

A 2860/2000 (G.G.G. 251/2000) “Διαχείριση, παρακολούθηση και έλεγχος του Κοινωνικού Πλαισίου Στήριξης και άλλες διατάξεις” /

“Management, monitoring and control of CSF and other provisions”

A 2413/1996 (G.G.G. 124/1996) “Η ελληνική παιδεία στο εξωτερικό, η διαπολιτισμική εκπαίδευση και άλλες διατάξεις” /

“The Greek education abroad, intercultural education and other provisions”

A 3475/2006 (G.G.G. 146/2006) “Οργάνωση και λειτουργία της δευτεροβάθμιας επαγγελματικής εκπαίδευσης και άλλες διατάξεις.” /

“Organization and functioning of secondary vocational education and other provisions.”

A 4009/2011 (G.G.G. 195/2011) “Δομή, λειτουργία, διασφάλιση της ποιότητας των σπουδών και διεθνοποίηση των ανωτάτων εκπαιδευτικών ιδρυμάτων.” /

“Structure, function, quality assurance of studies and internationalization of higher education institutions”

Act 3852/2010 (G.G.G. 87/2010) «Νέα Αρχιτεκτονική της Αυτοδιοίκησης και της αποκεντρωμένης Διοίκησης – Πρόγραμμα Καλλικράτης»./

“New Architecture of local government and decentralized Administration - Program Kallikrates ”

Abbreviation

A: Act // **G.G.G.:** Greek Government Gazette // **PD:** Presidential Degree//**MD:** Ministerial Degree

Websites

www.minedu.gov.gr	Ministry of Education Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs
www.kee.gr	Education Research Centre
www2.eap.gr	Greek Open University
www.ideke.edu.gr	Institute of Continuing Education for Adults
www.ekep.gr	National Center for Vocational Orientation
www.oecd.org	Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development
www.isotita.gr	General Secretariat for Gender Equality
www.museduc.gr	Programme for the Education of the Muslim Minority Children in Thrace
www.epeaek.gr	Operational Programme for Education and Initial Training (O.P.”Education”)
www.ipode.gr	Institute for the Education of Greeks abroad and Intercultural Education
www.epimorfosi.edu.gr	In Service-Training of Teachers
www.doe.gr	The National Federation of Primary School Teachers
www.kanep-gsee.gr	Educational Policy Development Centre of General Confederation of Greek Workers

www.pi-schools.gr/programs/par/p2_en.html Transition Observatory, Pedagogic Institute of Greece

www.eurydice.org Information on Education Systems and Policies in Europe

www.statistics.gr Hellenic Statistical Authority

APPENDIX I

Tables

Under the Ministry Of Education	Number of School Units Year 2007-2008	Number of School Units Year 2009-2010
Pre-primary Education	<i>f (%)</i>	<i>F (%)</i>
<i>Public</i>	5.629 (97.6)	5.700 (93.4)
<i>Private</i>	139 (2.4)	403 (6.6)
<i>Total</i>	5.768 (100)	6.103 (100)
Areas		
Urban	2.492 (43.2)	
Semi-urban	913 (15.8)	
Rural	2.363 (41.0)	

Table 1.1.a: *Number of Pre – primary school units under the authority of the Ministry of Education, according to the two categorizations offered.*

Sources: K.A.N.E.P. (2010) & Hellenic Statistical Authority (2010)

Under the Ministry Of Education	Number of Units Year 2007-2008	Number of School Units Year 2009-2010
Primary Education	<i>f (%)</i>	<i>F (%)</i>
<i>Public</i>	5.174 (93.3)	5.098 (93.4)
<i>Private</i>	372 (6.7)	362 (6.6)
<i>Total</i>	5.546 (100)	5.460 (100)
Areas		
Urban	2.206 (39.8)	
Semi-urban	754 (13.6)	
Rural	2.583 (46.6)	

Table 1.1.b: *Number of Primary Education school units under the authority of the Ministry of Education.*

Source: K.A.N.E.P. (2010) & Hellenic Statistical Authority (2010)

Under the Ministry Of Education	Number of school Units Year 2007-2008	Number of School Units Year 2009-2010
Lower Secondary School	<i>f (%)</i>	<i>F (%)</i>
Public day schools	1.768 (90.3)	1.788 (90.3)
Private day schools	103 (5.3)	105 (5.3)
Public evening schools	83 (4.2)	85 (4.3)
Private evening schools	3 (0.2)	2 (0.1)
Total	1.957 (100)	1.980 (100)

Table 1.1.c: *Number of Lower Secondary school units under the authority of the Ministry of Education.*

Source: K.A.N.E.P. (2010) & Hellenic Statistical Authority (2010)

Under the Ministry Of Education	Number of school Units Year 2007- 2008	Number of School Units Year 2009- 2010
Upper Secondary schools: General (Lyceum)	f (%)	F (%)
Public day schools	1.191 (87.0)	1.193 (87.2)
Private day schools	101 (7.4)	100 (7.3)
Public evening schools	73 (5.3)	72(5.3)
Private evening schools	4 (0.3)	3 (0.2)
Total	1.369 (100)	1.368 (100)

Table 1.1.d.1: Number of Upper Secondary school units under the authority of the Ministry of Education

Source: K.A.N.E.P. (2010) & Hellenic Statistical Authority (2010)

Under the Ministry Of Education	School Year 2007-2008
Upper Secondary Vocational Lyceums and Vocational Training Schools	f (%)
Public day schools	413 (85.0)
Private Day schools	17 (3.5)
Public Evening Schools	53 (10.9)
Private Evening Schools	3 (0.6)
Total	486 (100)

Table 1.1.d.2: Number of Upper Secondary Vocational Lyceums and vocational training school units under the authority of the Ministry of Education

Source: K.A.N.E.P. (2010)

Technical Vocational Education (type of school and Ministry responsible)	School Year 2007-2008 School Units
Technical Vocational Lyceums and Vocational Training schools – Ministry of Education	513
Vocational Training Schools – Min. of Employment	52
Vocational Training Schools – Min. of Agriculture	3
Vocational Training Schools – Min. of Tourism	8
Vocational Training Schools –Min of Health	47
Total	623

Table 1.1.d.3: Distribution of Upper Secondary Vocational Lyceums and vocational training school units according to type of school and Ministry responsible

Source: Compiled from table 1.6. K.A.N.E.P. 2010, p. 31

All (Lower and Upper) secondary technical and vocational education /according to type and Ministry responsible	School Year 2009-2010 Day Schools	Evening Schools	Total
Vocational Lyceum/Min of Education	328	61	389
Vocational Training Schools/Min of Education	114	0	114
Lower Technical Vocational Ed/Min of Employment	53	0	53
Vocational Training school/Min of Tourism	8	0	8
Vocational Training school/Min of Health	46	1	47
Vocational Training school/Min of Agriculture	3	0	3
Lower secondary-ecclesiastical	10	0	10
Upper secondary ecclesiastical Lyceum	17	0	17
Total	579	62	641

Table 1.1.d.4: *Technical and vocational education as a distinct sector*
Source: *Hellenic Statistical Authority (2010)*

Special Education - 2008 Academic Year: Number of School Units or Type of Special Education. Education Staff and Pupils				
Type of Special Education Schools	Number of			
	SMEAE (School Units or Classes)	Teachers (Permanent or Temporary)	Special Educational Personnel	Pupils
Special Pre-schools (Nipiagogeia)	106	138		402
Special Primary School (Dimotika)	178	892		2.998
Integration classes in general Preschools	265	265	545	602
Integration classes in general Primary schools	1.526	1.526		14.349
Special Lower Secondary Schools (Gymnasia)	10	123		325
Special Upper Secondary Schools (Lykeia)	6	64		119
Special Education TEE	20	252	492	594
Integration Classes in Secondary Education	302	432		1.694
EEEEK (Special Vocational Education and Training Workshops)	72	691		2.263
Instruction in mainstream classes with additional support				253
Total	2.485	4.383	1.037	23.599

Table 3.1: *Number of School Units or Type of Special Education. Education Staff and Pupils*
Source: *Ministry of Education. Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (Eurydice. "Organisation of the Education system in Greece", 2009/2010)*

Special Education - 2008 Academic Year: Distribution of Pupils per Type of Education. Ratio of Pupils per Teacher and Distribution of Types of Education			
<i>SMEA or Type of Programme</i>	<i>% of Pupils attending</i>	<i>Pupils per Teacher</i>	<i>% SMEA – Type of Education</i>
Special Pre-schools (Nipiagogeia)	1.70	2.90	4.26
Special Primary School (Dimotika)	12.70	3.36	7.16
Integration classes in general Preschools	1.37	2.64	0.40
Integration classes in general Primary schools	0.50	1.85	0.24
Special Lower Secondary Schools (Gymnasia)	2.51	2.35	0.80
Special Upper Secondary Schools (Lykeia)	9.58	3.27	2.89
Special Education TEE	2.55	2.27	10.66
Integration Classes in Secondary Education	60.80	9.40	61.40
EEEEK (Special Vocational Education and Training Workshops)	7.17	3.92	12.15
Instruction in mainstream classes with additional support	1.07		
Total Number	23.599		2.485.00
Total %	100	29.06	100

Table 3.2: *Distribution of Pupils per Type of Education. Ratio of Pupils per Teacher and Distribution of Types of Education*

Source: Ministry of Education. *Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs* (Eurydice. “*Organisation of the Education system in Greece*”, 2009/2010”)

Distribution of foreign and repatriated pupils per educational level at Public Schools - 2008 Academic Year			
Level	Number of		
	<i>Foreign pupils</i>	<i>Repatriated pupils</i>	<i>Pupils in Minority Schools</i>
Pre-schools (Nipiagogeia)	15.447	1.122	<i>Do not operate</i>
Primary School (Dimotika)	58.332	5.212	6.386
Lower Secondary Schools (Gymnasio)	28.713	4.327	991
Upper Secondary Schools (Lykeio)	17.323	4.086	437
Total	119.815	14.747	7.814

Table 3.3: *Distribution of foreign and repatriated pupils per educational level at Public Schools (2008)*

Source: Ministry of Education. *Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs*

Cross-cultural Education. Distribution of foreign and repatriated pupils in Crosscultural Schools - 2008 Academic Year			
Level	Number of		
	Foreign pupils	Repatriated pupils	Pupils in Minority Schools
Primary School (Dimotiko)	523	83	2.438
Lower Secondary School (Gymnasio)	511	189	1.588
Upper Secondary School (Lykeio)	227	92	755
Total	1.261	364	4.781

Table: 3.4: *Distribution of foreign and repatriated pupils in Crosscultural Schools*
Source: Ministry of Education. Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs

Remedial Teaching in Primary Education – 2008 Academic Year		
Number of Remedial Teaching Classes in Primary Schools	Number of Pupils participating in Remedial Teaching Programmes	Number of Teachers applying Remedial Teaching Programmes
3.908	15.383	3.615

Table 3.5: *Remedial Teaching in Primary Education*
Source: Ministry of Education. Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs

School Year	No of Classes	Migrant/ Foreigners	Repatriated	Roma
2009-2010				
Reception Classes/No of Students	289	2.737	423	1376
Remedial (teaching support) Classes/No of Students	255	2479	304	291

School Year	No of classes	Migrant/ Foreigners	Repatriated	Roma
2010-2011				
Reception Classes/No of Students	325	2345	368	1944
Remedial (teaching support) Classes/No of Students	50	241	19	12

Table 3.6: *Remedial Teaching in Primary Education*
Source: Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs

School Year	Foreigners/Migrant	Repatriated	ROMA	
			Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
2009-2010	49.479	8.028		
2010-2011	53.081	6.628	1677	99

No of Reception Classes	No of Students in Reception Classes	Remedial/Teaching Support Classes	No of Students in Teaching Support Classes
51	650	19	101

Table 3.7: Remedial Teaching in Primary Education

Source: Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs

Social indicators	Educational indicators
<i>Composition of population</i>	<i>School dropout</i>
<i>Rate of unemployment</i>	<i>Students performance (in terms of school grades)</i>
<i>G.D.P.</i>	<i>Composition of student population</i>
<i>Decelerated income</i>	<i>University attainment</i>
<i>Bank deposits</i>	<i>School facilities</i>
<i>Educational level (23-.. years old)</i>	
<i>Housing Conditions</i>	

Table: 4.1: Social and educational indicators in identifying Z.E.P.

Resource Allocation

For the period 2000 - 2006 the Programme's co-financed budget amounts to 2,484.6 million euro (846.6 billion drachma) with 75% of the funding coming from the European Social Fund (ESF) and the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and 25% from national resources. The ESF co-finances the actions included in the Measures of Priority Action Lines 1. 2. 3. 4 and 6 "Technical Assistance". while the ERDF co-finances the actions of Measures 5.1 and 5.2 which fall under Priority Action Line 5. The following table shows more specific financial information broken down by Priority Action Line and Measure.

Priority Action Line / Measure	Allocated Budget (in Euro)	% OP "Education" participation	Fund Co- Financing and %
A.L 1: "Promotion of equality in accessing the labour market for all and especially for those in danger of social exclusion"	330.248.228	13.29%	CSF (75%)
M.1.1: "Improvement of conditions for entry into the educational system for special categories of people"	138.853.493	5.59%	CSF (75%)
M.1.2: "Combating failure at school and dropping out with alternative forms of learning"	191.394.735	7.70%	CSF (75%)
A.L.2: "Promotion and improvement of education and vocational training in the framework of lifelong learning"	1.532.434.568	61.68%	CSF (75%)
M.2.2: "Reformation of Studies Programmes – Expansion of Higher Education"	355.569.000	14.31%	CSF (75%)
M.2.3: "Initial Vocational Training and Education"	565.465.290	22.76%	CSF (75%)
M.2.4: "Occupational Guidance and Connection to Labour Market"	117.672.357	4.74%	CSF (75%)
M.2.5: "Lifelong Learning"	85.702.336	3.45%	CSF (75%)
M.2.6: "Programmes on Environmental Protection and Environmental Training"	106.756.000	4.30%	CSF (75%)
A.L.3: "Development and promotion of entrepreneurship and the adaptability of youth"	19.848.352	0.80%	CSF (75%)
M.3.1: "Encouragement of entrepreneurial activity and innovative applications"	19.848.352	0.80%	CSF (75%)
A.L.4: "Improvement of women's access to the labour market"	69.469.233	2.80%	CSF (75%)
M.4.1: "Programmes supporting the Initial Vocational Training and Education of Woman"	58.127.446	2.34%	CSF (75%)
M.4.2: "Programmes supporting women in Undergraduate and Postgraduate studies. Studies and Research Programmes for Women"	11.341.787	0.46%	CSF (75%)
A.L.5: "Development and amelioration of infrastructure for the implementation of ESF measures"	509.915.012	20.52%	ERDF (75%)
M.5.1: "Improvement of Infrastructure and Equipment for the promotion of equal opportunities in accessing the labour market"	29.744.999	1.20%	ERDF (75%)
M.5.2: "Improvement of Infrastructure and Equipment for the improvement of the quality of education"	480.170.013	19.33%	ERDF (75%)
A.L.6: "TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE"	22.683.831	0.91%	CSF (75%)
M.6.1: "Technical Assistance"	22.683.831	0.91%	CSF (75%)
OP "Education"	2.484.599.224	100%	

Table 4.2: Educational Programs Co-financed by Greece and E.U.

Source: EPEAEK website: www.epeaek.gr

Country	Annual expenditure per pupil/student - all levels of education	Annual expenditure per pupil - primary level of education	Annual expenditure per pupil - secondary level of education	Annual expenditure per student - tertiary level of education
Belgium	6420.7	5536.5	6467.4	9880.2
Bulgaria	1796.5	1336.7	1407.3	3582.4
Czech Republic	3696.7	2314.6	3888.1	5628.4
Denmark	7577.8	6742.3	7383.2	12703.1
Germany	6145.7	4130.8	6047.2	10057.5
Ireland	5735.3	4527.4	5911.2	8526.0
Greece	4116.5	3157.7	4371.0	4669.1
Spain	5229.4	4143.6	5592.9	7826.8
France	6145.6	4237.8	7254.2	8895.9
Italy	5949.3	5869.2	6397.8	6449.9
Cyprus	6031.5	4636.8	7532.2	7409.5
Latvia	2383.5	2093.0	2275.0	2907.0
Lithuania	2379.4	1589.9	2164.8	3722.8
Hungary	3671.4	3160.3	3184.0	5578.7
Malta	4027.5	2504.0	3435.8	5730.3
Netherlands	6499.6	5190.6	6293.7	11597.1
Austria	7787.4	6291.6	8023.5	11862.8
Poland	2719.5	2574.1	2289.3	3698.2
Portugal	4250.7	3598.5	4784.5	4669.8
Slovenia	5495.4	6086.6	4140.4	6204.6
Slovakia	2577.2	1729.0	2288.0	5449.0
Finland	6195.0	4660.6	6214.4	10443.3
Sweden	7013.4	6238.5	6662.8	13545.7
United Kingdom	6027.6	4896.0	5780.5	9346.2

Comment: lack of data for Estonia, Romania and Luxemburg

Table 4.3: *Expenditure on Education in the European Union Member States in Comparison with the USA, Norway and Japan*

Source: *Patrycja Zwiech, 2008, p. 28., table 7: Annual expenditure on public and private educational institutions per pupil/student by level of education (in Euro – PPS) in EU countries in 2004*

Level of Education	Type of expenditure	Year 2009 (€)	Year 2010 (€)	Remarks
Primary & Secondary	Transport to School	156.033.500.00	271.000.000.00	
Primary & Secondary	Foreign language books	4.900.000.00	6.449.000.00	
University Sector	Academic textbooks (free of charge for students)	46.250.000.00	-----	

Table 4.4: *Public Expenditure on Education.*

Source: *Ministry of Education (Directorate of Finance/ Διεύθυνση Οικονομικών Υποθέσεων)*

Type of expenditure	Percentage of total family expenditure on education
GENERAL EDUCATIONAL GOODS AND SERVICES	8,1
PRESCHOOL EDUCATION	7,7
PRIMARY EDUCATION	10,7
SECONDARY EDUCATION	30,8
POST SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION	3,0
TERTIARY EDUCATION	2,2
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES THAT CAN NOT BE CLASSIFIED	37,5%

Table 4.5 *Additional Expenditure of Greek Households on Education (in addition to taxation)*
Source: K.A.N.E.P., 2010, pp. 207-210

**LIST OF BODIES PROVIDING SCHOLARSHIPS
AND GRANTS FOR GREEK CITIZENS**

[Aegean Center for the Fine Arts Scholarships](#)
 [ALBA Scholarships--Bodossaki Foundation](#)
 [Apalodemos Scholarship at American College of Greece](#)
 [Bodossaki Foundation Scholarships & Grants](#)
 [Bodossaki Foundation Postgraduate Scholarship for Greek Students to Study Abroad](#)
 [Bodossaki Foundation Postgraduate Scholarship for Historical and Political Research](#)
 [Bodossaki Foundation Postgraduate Scholarship for Medical Research](#)
 [Bodossaki Foundation Postgraduate Scholarship for Scientific Research in Greece](#)
 [British Council in Greece Scholarships](#)
 [Cambridge University Scholarship--Bodossaki Foundation](#)
 [Chryssis Scholarship Fund--Northeastern University](#)
 [Chryssis Scholarship Fund--Wentworth Institute of Technology](#)
 [Costopoulos Foundation Grants](#)
 [Costopoulos Foundation Scholarship in Byzantine Studies at the University of Oxford](#)
 [Costopoulos Foundation Scholarship in History of Art at the University of Crete](#)
 [Cyprus Children's Fund Scholarship Endowment](#)
 [Demos Foundation Scholarships at American College of Greece](#)
 [Demos Foundation Scholarship for Communications Studies at American College of Greece](#)
 [Fulbright Foundation of Greece Grants and Fellowships](#)
 [Gatzoyiannis Scholarship--Boston University](#)
 [Gould Memorial Scholarship at American College of Greece](#)
 [Greek State Scholarship Foundation Scholarships](#)
 [Institut Francais d'Athenes Scholarships](#)
 [Kaparos Scholarship--Aegean Center for Fine Art](#)
 [Karamanlis Chair Scholarship at Tufts University--Bodossaki Foundation](#)
 [Kokkalis Program on Southeastern and East-Central Europe](#)
 [Kolendrianos Scholarship for Academic Excellence at American College of Greece](#)
 [Korologos Memorial Scholarship at American College of Greece](#)
 [Livanos Scholarship--Kardamylians \(Chios\) Society](#)
 [Nichoplas Fellowship--Columbia University School of Engineering and Applied Science](#)
 [Olivetti Scholarship--Aegean Center for Fine Art](#)
 [Oxford University, St. Peter's College Scholarship--Bodossaki Foundation](#)
 [Raises Fund at University of California, San Francisco, School of Nursing](#)
 [Polyzoides Scholarship--Aegean Center for Fine Art](#)
 [Propeller Club Scholarship at American College of Greece](#)
 [Skironio Foundation and Museum](#)
 [Stephenson Scholarship--Aegean Center for Fine Art](#)
 [Student Life Scholarship at American College of Greece](#)
 [Taylor Scholarship--Aegean Center for Fine Art](#)
 [Tuition Grant--Aegean Center for Art](#)
 [Van Buren Endowment Scholarship--Aegean Center for Fine Arts](#)
 [Venizelos Chair Scholarship at London School of Economics--Bodossaki Foundation](#)
 [Venizelos Scholarship for Research--Bodossaki Foundation](#)
Onassis Foundation
Latsis Foundation

Table 4.6: *List of Bodies Providing Scholarships and Grants in Greece*

Main type of data (1)	Categories of data (2)	According to an issue of interest
Population of the students	<u>Gender</u> <u>Age</u> <u>Parents' education</u> <u>Parents' occupation</u> <u>School attainment</u> <u>Country of students' birth</u> <u>Country of parents birth</u> <u>Prefecture and District where school is located</u> <u>Class repetition</u> <u>School grades</u> <u>Admission to Higher Education</u> <u>Public and Private education</u> <u>Types of schools</u>	All the data presented in column (2) are used by the two authorities in order to create cross tables according to various issues of interest.
Population of the teachers	<u>Gender</u> <u>Age</u> <u>Specialization</u> <u>Levels of university degrees</u> <u>Type of schools</u> <u>Prefecture and District where school is located</u> <u>Public and Private education</u>	All the data presented in column (2) are used by the two authorities in order to create cross tables according to various issues of interest.
Buildings and capacities of school units	<u>Number of students</u> <u>Number of teachers</u> <u>Number of auxiliary personnel</u> <u>Number of classes</u> <u>Number and types of laboratories and other facilities as school libraries. gyms. ITC rooms. e.t.c.</u> <u>Extent of school classrooms in sq.m.</u> <u>Extent of school yard in sq.m.</u>	All the data presented in column (2) are used by the two authorities in order to create cross tables according to various issues of interest.

Table 4.7: *Statistical data on schools, teachers and pupils, and buildings collected by the Ministry of Education. Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs and the Hellenic Statistical Authority Greece*

APPENDIX II

Diagrams

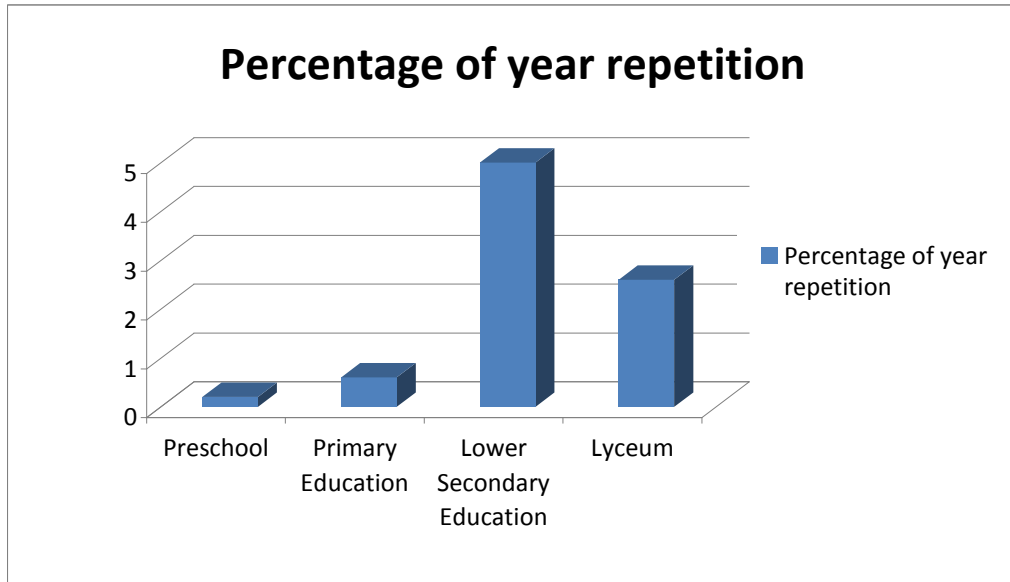


Diagram 3.1: *Percentage of students who fail and must repeat the class (Year: 2008)*
Source: *Analysis of Data Collected by the Hellenic Statistical Authority*

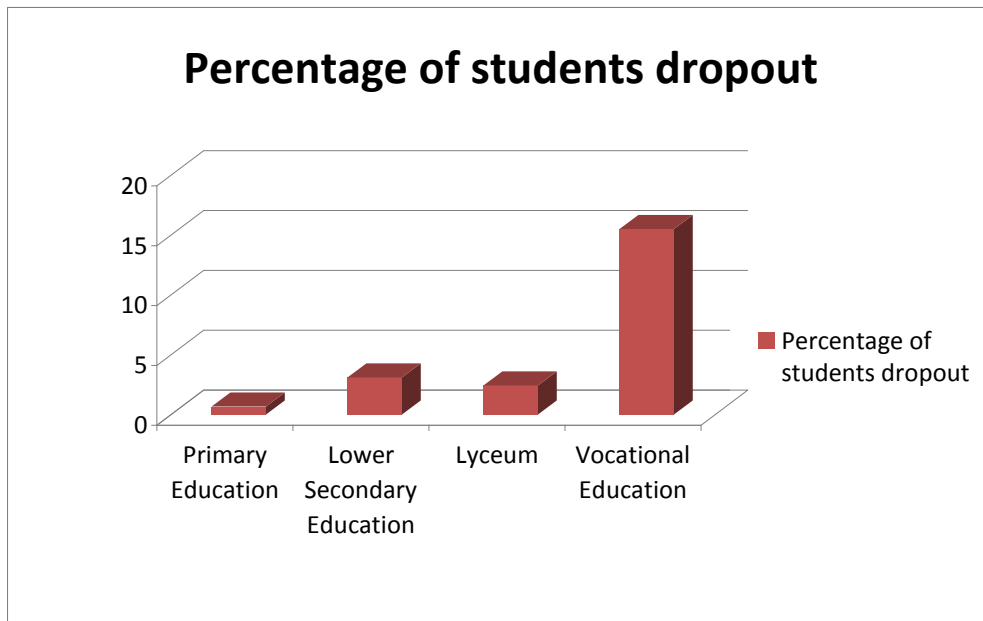


Diagram 3.2: *Percentage of student's dropout (Year: 2008)*
Source: *Analysis of Data Collected by the Hellenic Statistical Authority*

Diagram: 4.1: *Zones of Educational Priority*

