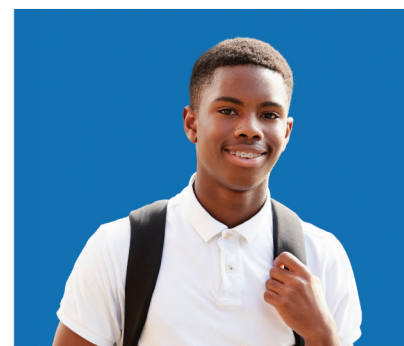




Equity and Inclusion in Education

FINDING STRENGTH THROUGH DIVERSITY

ABRIDGED VERSION



Equity and Inclusion in Education (Abridged version)

FINDING STRENGTH THROUGH DIVERSITY

This document, as well as any data and map included herein, are without prejudice to the status of or sovereignty over any territory, to the delimitation of international frontiers and boundaries and to the name of any territory, city or area.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Note by the Republic of Türkiye

The information in this document with reference to “Cyprus” relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Türkiye recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Türkiye shall preserve its position concerning the “Cyprus issue”.

Note by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Union

The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Türkiye. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

Please cite this publication as:

OECD (2023), *Equity and Inclusion in Education: Finding Strength through Diversity (Abridged version)*,
<https://www.oecd.org/education/strength-through-diversity/Equity-and-Inclusion-in-Education-abridged-version.pdf>.

Photo credits:

Cover

© Anna Kraynova/Shutterstock

© SALMONNEGRO-STOCK/Shutterstock

© Roman Chazov/Shutterstock

© Monkey Business Images/Shutterstock

© Sorapop Udomsri/Shutterstock

© Krakenimages.com/Shutterstock

Corrigenda to publications may be found on line at: www.oecd.org/about/publishing/corrigenda.htm.

© OECD 2023

The use of this work, whether digital or print, is governed by the Terms and Conditions to be found at <https://www.oecd.org/termsandconditions>.

Foreword

Governments and education policy makers are increasingly concerned with equity and inclusion in education due to several major global trends such as demographic shifts, migration and refugee crises, rising inequalities, and climate change. These developments have contributed to increasing diversity and warrant an examination of the impact of diversity on equity and inclusion in education.

Over the past four years, the OECD Strength through Diversity Project has developed a rich evidence-base to help countries identify and support the needs of diverse students and promote more equitable and inclusive education systems.

The OECD, with its Strength through Diversity Project, stands ready to support countries in developing and implementing policies for more equitable and inclusive education systems. This not only can benefit diverse students but support all individuals to engage constructively with others in increasingly diverse and complex societies.

The 2023 [Equity and inclusion in education: Finding strength through diversity](#) report synthesises the main findings of the OECD Strength through Diversity Project that have emerged through its analytical, country-specific and peer-learning work in Phase II (2019-22). It presents a holistic framework for studying diversity, equity and inclusion in education, examines five key policy areas (governance; resourcing; capacity building; school-level interventions; and monitoring and evaluation), provides examples of good policies and practices, and offers policy advice on promoting more equitable and inclusive education systems. This abridged version presents the key findings of the report.

The development of this report was guided by Andreas Schleicher and Paulo Santiago, and was overseen by the Education Policy Committee. The authors of this report are Lucie Cerna (co-ordinator), Cecilia Mezzanotte and Samo Varsik of the OECD Directorate for Education and Skills, and Sarah Jameson of TUAC (previously with the Directorate for Education and Skills).

Daiana Torres Lima was responsible for the production and layout of the report. Della Shin prepared the cover page of the report. Valuable comments on draft chapters were provided by members of the OECD Secretariat (in particular Paulo Santiago and Luka Boeskens) and members of the Education Policy Committee. The team of authors is grateful to individual experts who contributed to the country-specific reviews on equity and inclusion in education, whose expertise and analysis have fed into this report (including Mel Ainscow, Emmanuel Acquah, Xavier Bonal, Torberg Falch, Emmanuele Pavolini and Christian Morabito). The team would also like to thank national experts who completed the Strength through Diversity Policy Survey, which fed into this report. Furthermore, the report was enriched by the thoughtful contributions provided by the many individuals who participated in Phase II of the Strength through Diversity Project.

Thanks are due to the many people who worked on the project at different stages of its development, in addition to the current members: Francesca Borgonovi (Project Leader from January 2017 to July 2019); Ottavia Brussino (Intern and Consultant from June 2019 to March 2022); Francesca Gottschalk (Analyst from September 2021 to March 2022); Caitlyn Guthrie (Analyst from May 2018 to December 2019); Alexandre Rutigliano (Intern and Consultant from June 2019 to May 2022); Jody McBrien (July 2021 to

July 2022) on secondment from the University of South Florida and on fellowship from the Council of Foreign Relations. They provided substantial input into the report's knowledge base through their analytical work.

Claire Calvel, Leonard Frye, Julia Gorochevskij, Irmak Günal, Simona Mandile, Nikita Quarshie, Adam Sticca, Elisabeth Stummvoll and Crystal Weise provided research assistance summarising key areas of the literature on diversity, equity and inclusion during their internships at the OECD. Thank you also to Rowena Phair of the OECD Secretariat and her team, whose work on Indigenous students is integrated in this report.

Diana Tramontano (until March 2019), Matthew Gill (from April to June 2019), Claire Berthelier (from June 2019 until June 2020) and Carrie Richardson (from September until December 2020) provided administrative support for the Strength through Diversity Project Phase II. Rachel Linden (Directorate for Education and Skills) edited the report and provided advice on the production of the report and dissemination activities.

We are also grateful to the Council on Foreign Relations for sponsoring Jody McBrien's (July 2021-July 2022) secondment with the OECD Secretariat.

Table of contents

Foreword	3
Equity and inclusion in education: Finding strength through diversity	7
Contextual developments shaping diversity, equity and inclusion in school education	7
Developments in the area of equity and inclusion	12
Conceptualising diversity, equity and inclusion in education	15
Diversity	22
Holistic framework for diversity, equity and inclusion	26
Five key policy areas to promote equity and inclusion	27
The six key steps to equity and inclusion in education	48
References	51
Notes	66

FIGURES

Figure 1. Number of refugees and asylum seekers across the world	8
Figure 2. Number of education jurisdictions with and without a definition of equity and inclusion	16
Figure 3. Four types of educational model	19
Figure 4. Dimensions of diversity	23
Figure 5. Definitions of dimensions of diversity (2022)	24
Figure 6. Curriculum strategies (2022)	28
Figure 7. Learning settings (2022)	30
Figure 8. Groups of students accounted for in the funding formulas (ISCED 2)	32
Figure 9. Provision of additional resources to schools based on student groups' enrolment	33
Figure 10. Teachers' needs for training on diversity, equity and inclusion (PISA 2018)	36
Figure 11. Accommodations and modifications	42
Figure 12. Data collections on diversity (2022)	45
Figure 13. Data collections on academic and well-being outcomes (2022)	46

TABLES

Table 1. Differences in reading performance across groups of students	14
Table 2. Key elements mentioned by education systems' definitions of equity and inclusion	17
Table 3. Education systems with policies targeting intersections of student groups	29
Table 4. School leadership roles and responsibilities to promote equity and inclusion	39
Table 5. Advantages and disadvantages of one-to-one and small group tuition	41
Table 6. Universal Design for Learning Guidelines	43

Follow OECD Publications on:



<https://twitter.com/OECD>



<https://www.facebook.com/theOECD>



<https://www.linkedin.com/company/organisation-eco-cooperation-development-organisation-cooperation-developpement-eco/>



<https://www.youtube.com/user/OECDiLibrary>




<https://www.oecd.org/newsletters/>

This book has...

StatLinks 

A service that delivers Excel® files from the printed page!

Look for the **StatLink**  at the bottom of the tables or graphs in this book. To download the matching Excel® spreadsheet, just type the link into your Internet browser or click on the link from the digital version.

Equity and inclusion in education: Finding strength through diversity

Governments and education policy makers are increasingly concerned with equity and inclusion in education due to several major global developments such as demographic shifts, migration and refugee crises, rising inequalities, and climate change. These developments have contributed to increasing diversity and warrant a reflection on how to foster greater equity and inclusion of all students in education. The 2023 [Equity and inclusion in education: Finding strength through diversity](#) report synthesises the main findings of the OECD Strength through Diversity Project (hereinafter “Project”). It presents a holistic framework for studying diversity, equity and inclusion in education, structures the analysis in five key policy areas: governance, resourcing, capacity building, school-level interventions, and monitoring and evaluation. Moreover, it provides examples of good policies and practices, and offers policy advice on promoting more equitable and inclusive education systems.

Contextual developments shaping diversity, equity and inclusion in school education

Education policy does not happen in a vacuum. It requires openness and interactions between systems and their environments and is influenced by economic, political, social and technological trends (OECD, 2016^[1]; OECD, 2019^[2]). The major global developments of our time, such as demographic shifts, migration and refugee crises, rising inequalities, and climate change, have contributed to the increasing diversity found in our countries, communities and classrooms. These changes warrant reflection about the implications that diversity has on education systems and conversely, the potential role education systems play in shaping these trends and building more sustainable, cohesive and inclusive societies for tomorrow.

Ageing population and urbanisation

In 29 out of 36¹ OECD countries, natural population decline² is a reality across several regions, and ageing in cities and rural areas is significant. This demographic change will have considerable social and economic impacts (OECD, 2019^[3]). Declining total fertility rates³ will cause a decrease in the numbers of students and graduates over the next decade (Santa, 2018^[4]). Ageing populations, in turn, have different educational needs, compared to the traditional school population, particularly concerning their need to develop technological and digital literacy, which they would not have learnt as part of their initial education.

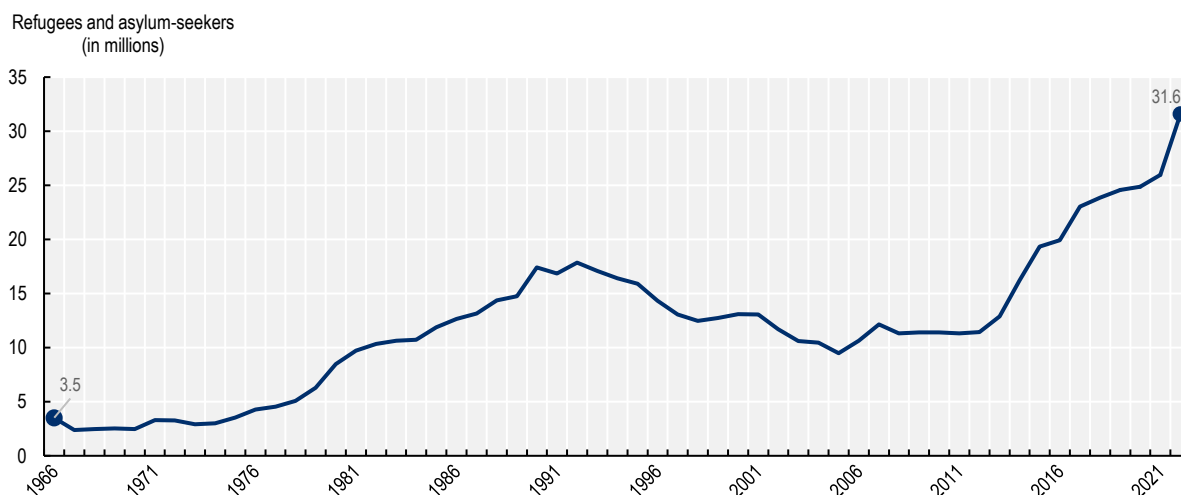
These trends have important implications for equity and inclusion within education systems. Quality and access to education show great variation between rural and urban areas, as cities offer more and better opportunities in education compared to rural areas (OECD/European Commission, 2020^[5]). In most countries, there are more socio-economically disadvantaged students in rural⁴ than in urban schools, and students in rural schools tend to underperform in secondary education and are less likely to complete a higher education degree in comparison to students in cities (OECD, 2014^[6]; OECD, 2019^[7]). In addition to the urban-rural gap in education systems, inequities within cities are also on the rise. Some of the urban

inequities that threaten equity and inclusion in education are unequal allocation of educational resources, lack of access to cultural institutions, residential segregation in major cities, higher concentration of single-parent families and more disparate income levels (OECD, 2014^[8]). Geographic inequalities within cities are highly interlinked with social and economic status, which further presents a risk of residential and social segregation in schools (OECD, 2017^[9]; OECD, 2019^[10]). Moreover, there are significant differences in educational outcomes between students from different socio-economic backgrounds, which suggests that education is both a predictor and the outcome of segregation (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]).

Increasing migration and refugee crises

Further demographic changes over the last decades have also been driven by migration flows, which are profoundly changing the composition of societies and, accordingly, of schools and classrooms (Cerna, Brussino and Mezzanotte, 2021^[12]). Immigrants are significantly more concentrated in specific types of regions than the native-born population. In the 22 OECD countries with available data, more than half of the foreign-born population (53%) lives in large metropolitan regions, compared to only 40% of the native-born population (OECD, 2022^[13]). Student populations and classrooms in urban areas are therefore more diverse and projected to become increasingly more so due to trends in migration (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). Refugee crises have also been occurring more often and on a larger scale in the last couple of decades. The rapid increase in the numbers of refugees can be seen in Figure 1. Moreover, the adverse effects of climate change and natural disasters, such as rising sea levels, desertification and extreme weather conditions, will further exacerbate existing refugee crises, leading to a higher number of displaced people, and worsening living conditions for many vulnerable groups (UNHCR, 2022^[14]).

Figure 1. Number of refugees and asylum seekers across the world



Source: UNHCR (2022^[15]), Refugee Data Finder, www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics/download/?url=d8zqXO (accessed 13 December 2022).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/utp1i8>

Rising inequalities

Global economic growth has increased in recent decades, lifting millions out of poverty. However, this growth is not benefiting everyone equally. Almost all OECD countries have experienced rises in income inequality in the last 30 years (OECD, 2011^[16]; OECD, 2015^[17]; OECD, 2016^[18]), social mobility has stalled

(OECD, 2018^[19]), and the middle class has been squeezed by rising costs, employment uncertainty and stagnating income (OECD, 2019^[20]; OECD, 2021^[21]). Moreover, technological progress can exacerbate inequality. In the face of automation, artificial intelligence and digitalisation, labour market demand for medium-level skills is shrinking while high- and low-level skills (for tasks that are difficult to automate) are in increasing demand (OECD, 2013^[22]; OECD, 2016^[23]). This led to a hollowing out of jobs involving mid-level skills (OECD, 2016^[23]). The result has been a pattern of job polarisation by skill level in many OECD countries (Autor, 2015^[24]; Berger and Frey, 2016^[25]). This means important job gains in some industries and regions and significant job losses in others. As job prospects shift, the transition can be especially difficult for individuals in rural areas where there is lower technological readiness and fewer opportunities to adapt.

Widening inequality also has significant implications for growth and macroeconomic stability, as it can lead to a suboptimal use of human resources and raise crisis risk (Dabla-Norris et al., 2015^[26]). Inequality perpetuates socio-economic disadvantage and intergenerational mobility by hindering the ability of disadvantaged people to invest in greater education and training for themselves and their children (Katharine Bradbury and Robert K. Triest, 2016^[27]). In fact, children whose parents did not complete secondary school are 4.5 times less likely to go to tertiary education than children who have at least one parent with a higher education degree, on average across countries participating in the Survey of Adult Skills, a product of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) (OECD, 2014^[28]). Education has an important role to play in breaking this cycle by ensuring that all students receive the opportunities and support needed to succeed in the global future.

Digitalisation

The way we work, consume and communicate with each other has changed rapidly over the past decades as nearly every area of people's lives and work has been reshaped by the digital transition (OECD, 2019^[29]). New digital technologies and information and communication technology generate both opportunities and challenges for inclusive education. On the one hand, there is potential to support and improve education processes of students with special education needs (SEN), minority groups and students living in areas that have more limited traditional educational offerings. Examples include personalised learning or Universal Design for Learning (UDL) to create more equitable and inclusive curricula (OECD, 2021^[30]) as well as computer aided learning on tablets and iPads (UNESCO, 2020^[31]). On the other hand, many countries face a real challenge regarding inequalities in access to digital technologies and the Internet in education. To overcome these inequalities, policies to encourage the participation of underrepresented groups in the digital economy have been put in place through online universities or digital learning workshops (van der Vlies, 2020^[32]).

Another aspect is gender-based digital exclusion due to a lack of access to skills and technological literacy for girls, who are less often exposed to technology, contributing to the digital gender divide in science, technology, engineering and mathematics education. To bridge inequalities of this nature, campaigns aimed at awareness-raising and policies providing enhanced, safer and more affordable access to digital tools are key (OECD, 2018^[33]).

Digitalisation can have implications also for students' well-being, which is a core aspect of inclusion. Indeed, while digital spaces offer vast opportunities for children to play, learn and explore, there are increasing digital risks. Some examples include cyberbullying, hate speech and revenge porn which may negatively affect children's well-being (Burns and Gottschalk, 2020^[34]). Children who are victims of cyberbullying, for instance, tend to show higher levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms, which may affect their education (Gottschalk, 2022^[35]). Some students are more exposed to the risk of being cyberbullied than others: students with SEN and those who identify as LGBTQI+⁵ generally incur in this risk. Girls are also more likely to be cyberbullied than boys are (ibid.), highlighting that this is a digital risk that may be disproportionately experienced by different student groups and can therefore affect equity and

inclusion in the school environment. Children with SEN, those facing mental health difficulties, and those with physical disabilities might also be disproportionately vulnerable to exposure to digital risks (El Asam and Katz, 2018^[36]).

Weakening trust and social cohesion

Education can help societies increase trust and social cohesion. Indeed, individuals' higher levels of education generally translate into greater civic participation, such as voting and volunteering, which help to build social cohesion (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]; OECD, 2010^[38]). All these facts combined can contribute to a successful and healthy democracy (ibid.). There are thus incentives for governments to invest in quality education for all citizens, including and particularly for diverse groups, to eliminate barriers to their inclusion in education and generate benefits for both individuals and the societies in which they live.

Moreover, the inclusion of minority groups in education has an impact on other groups' development (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). Indeed, there is mounting evidence that social interactions between groups have a positive impact on social cohesion and, particularly, trust. As children go through their early life experiences, they form their attitudes and beliefs about other groups, which may be harder to change as they grow older (ibid.). Young people must have opportunities to interact with members of other ethnic groups for meaningful cross-group bonds to develop - and diverse schools can offer more of these opportunities. Indeed, inclusive school environments are characterised by positive social experiences for all students (Nishina et al., 2019^[39]), such as decreased bullying, reduced loneliness and greater numbers of cross-group friendships. In addition, studies on students in inclusive environments show that those who learn in such schools report greater interest in living and working in ethnically diverse environments when they become adults and are more likely to do so as adults. By contrast, ethnically isolated schools may limit opportunities for young people to challenge skewed perceptions and assumptions about people from other racial groups (Tropp and Saxena, 2018^[40]).

Well-being and mental health

Across the OECD, up to one in five people are living with a mental health condition at any time, and around one in two people will experience mental ill-health in their lifetime (OECD, 2021^[41]). Children and adolescents' mental health can have an important impact on their education. The majority of mental disorders tends to begin during school years: half of all mental illnesses begin by the age of 14 and three-quarters by mid-20s (Kessler et al., 2007^[42]; OECD, 2018^[43]), with anxiety and personality disorders sometimes beginning around age 11 (OECD, 2012^[44]).

Mental health problems can affect many areas of students' lives, reducing their quality of life and academic achievement, including early dropout from school (Breslau et al., 2008^[45]). They can also affect a student's energy levels, concentration, dependability and optimism, hindering performance (Eisenberg et al., 2009^[46]; Suicide Prevention Resource Center, 2020^[47]). Beyond education, living with a mental health condition makes it more difficult to stay in school or employment, harder to study or work effectively, and more challenging to stay in good physical health (OECD, 2021^[41]). Mental health problems represent the largest burden of disease among young people, and mental ill-health is at least as prevalent among young people as among adults (OECD, 2015^[48]). The prevalence of mental disorders entails important challenges for education systems that have to support the mental health of students and ensure that their well-being needs are being met.

COVID-19

The COVID-19 pandemic has had, and is still having, a profound impact not only on people's health, but also on how they learn, work and live. At the peak of the crisis in 2020, more than 188 countries, encompassing around 91% of enrolled learners worldwide, closed their schools to try to contain the spread

of the virus (UNESCO, 2020^[49]). School closures carry high social and economic costs for people across various communities. Their impact, however, is particularly severe for the most vulnerable and marginalised students and their families. The disruptions to learning caused by school closures can exacerbate already existing disparities within education systems while also affecting other aspects of these students' lives, such as interrupted learning, poor nutrition, exposure to violence and exploitation, and increased dropout rates (UNESCO, 2020^[50]). School re-openings, too, entailed challenges for countries to respond to disadvantaged and vulnerable students' needs, as disadvantaged and vulnerable students have been on average significantly less engaged in remote learning (Lucas, Nelson and Sims, 2020^[51]).

The COVID-19 pandemic has demonstrated that the future is unpredictable, and that people require adaptability and resilience to cope in a world that is rapidly changing (OECD, 2021^[52]). Education is key in strengthening cognitive, social and emotional resilience⁶ among learners, helping them understand that living in the world means trying, failing, adapting, learning and evolving. Educational institutions and education systems, too, need to become more flexible and resilient to succeed amid unforeseeable disruptions. Resilient education systems plan for disruption, and withstand and recover from adverse events, are able to fulfil the human right to education, whatever the circumstances, and foster the level of human capital required by successful economies in the short and longer term (OECD, 2021^[52]; Schleicher, 2018^[53]). At the same time, resilient education systems develop resilient individuals who adjust to everyday challenges, play an active role in their communities, and respond to an increasingly volatile, uncertain and ambiguous global landscape (OECD, 2021^[52]).

Climate change and environmental crises

Climatic changes may affect vulnerable children and exacerbate current education inequalities (UNICEF, 2019^[54]). Groups that are more susceptible to climate-related risks are individuals living under the poverty line in both urban and rural areas, those with physical impairments, young girls and boys, and minority and immigrant groups (Hijioka et al., 2014^[55]; UNICEF, 2015^[56]). Moreover, climate-related disasters can damage or even destroy schools and learning materials as well as important infrastructure such as bridges and roads needed to access schools. These events can disrupt children's learning for months leading to missed days of school, absenteeism and lower academic performance in comparison to students in other schools. Climate change also affects clean air, safe drinking water, and sufficient nutritious food and secure shelter, which has compounding effects on children's academic well-being. The risk in livelihood security and income results in parents being unable to afford school costs, and children often miss classes to help with household activities. In some cases, families are forced to migrate which frequently translates to dropouts or lower academic performance (UNICEF, 2019^[54]).

Air pollution also creates a burden on student's learning. As reported by the World Bank (2022^[57]), a study in Barcelona (Spain) shows that, adjusting for socio-economic status, students exposed to high pollution levels in school had less cognitive development growth than those in less polluted schools (Sunyer et al., 2015^[58]). Similarly, evidence from the United States demonstrates lower test scores and more absences for children attending schools downwind of a major highway (Heissel, Persico and Simon, 2019^[59]; UNESCO, 2020^[60]). Furthermore, at the end of secondary school, high levels of transitory pollution and extreme temperatures can reduce students' performance on high-stakes exams used to select students for tertiary level education. Consequently, students most affected by adverse environmental conditions may be less likely to gain entrance into tertiary educational institutions or fail to enter the most prestigious institutions (Ebenstein, Lavy and Roth, 2016^[61]; Graff Zivin et al., 2020^[62]; Graff Zivin et al., 2020^[63]; Park, 2020^[64]). The resulting suboptimal educational and labour market sorting may alter long-term skill acquisition and earnings (Horvath and Borgonovi, 2022^[65]; Kyndt et al., 2012^[66]).

Developments in the area of equity and inclusion

An overview of the state of equity and inclusion in education systems across the OECD can provide an important starting point for this analysis. Indeed, without relevant information on the current state of equity and inclusion and progress achieved over the years in these areas, any analysis would only provide a partial picture. Yet, efforts to provide a comprehensive analysis of equity and inclusion face several challenges, stemming from measurement difficulties, complexity of the field, limited data availability, and more.

Data from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2018 provides a first picture of the state of equity and inclusion of diverse student groups, namely in terms of socio-economic advantage and disadvantage, gender and immigration status. In terms of socio-economic status, PISA found that socio-economically advantaged students outperform disadvantaged ones across all OECD countries with available data. On average across OECD countries⁷ the score difference between students in the top and bottom quarters of the ESCS⁸ index was 89 points, with variations across countries. In terms of gender differences, the data shows a reading gap in favour of girls across all OECD countries in 2018, with an average difference of 29 points. The gap appears larger for students in the 10th (bottom) percentile, with an average of 41 points, compared to students that perform in the 90th percentile, who show a gap of 18 points. Lastly, in terms of immigration status, in almost all OECD countries there is a reading gap in favour of native students compared to students with an immigrant background. On average, immigrant students performed 40 points lower than their native peers. This difference is smaller, between the two groups after accounting for gender, and students' and schools' socio-economic profile.

While this overview provides a static picture of the gaps in 2018, considering the trends over the past decade can provide important information regarding the evolution of these gaps. As countries have long considered the importance of improving their results and fostering equity in education and the inclusion of all students.

Table 1 provides an overview of evolution of the differences in scores between different groups from 2009 to 2018. The data show that gender is the only dimension of diversity that has seen a widespread evolution over this time period: it is the only dimension for which a large number of countries shows a significant reduction in the gap between girls and boys. No country displays a statistically significant increase in gender gaps in reading scores. Nevertheless, a wide variation of developments can be observed. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Ireland, Poland, Slovenia and Sweden, the scores of boys and girls both increased, but it increased to a larger extent for boys, thus reducing the gender gap. In France, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal, Republic of Türkiye and on average across OECD countries, reading scores for boys increased, but decreased for girls. Finally, in Hungary, Japan, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland, the scores of both groups decreased, but girls' performance to a larger extent, thus effectively also reducing the gender gap.

For the other two dimensions no clear pattern appears, as most changes are not significant and they are going in both directions. Notably, the Czech Republic, Finland and the Slovak Republic are the only countries that show a significant change between 2009 and 2018 in terms of socio-economic status of their students. While in the Czech Republic the scores of both groups increased over time (however more so for advantaged students, thus exacerbating the gap), the scores in Finland and the Slovak Republic decreased, but more so for disadvantaged students.

The immigration status variable shows mixed results: among the few countries with significant results, Italy and Luxembourg show a decrease in the gap between the two years. In both countries, the score of students with an immigrant background increased and the score for students without an immigrant background decreased, thus reducing the gaps. On the contrary, in the Netherlands, the scores for both groups decreased, but for students with an immigrant to a larger extent, thus increasing the gap. In

Slovenia, the score of students with an immigrant background decreased while it increased for students without such background, thus also exacerbating the divide between the two groups.

Table 1. Differences in reading performance across groups of students

Changes from 2009 to 2018, by national quarter of socio-economic status, gender, and immigration status


 Reduction in the gap between 2009 and 2018 Increase in the gap between 2009 and 2018

Country	Socio-economic status (top-bottom quarter)	Gender differences (girls - boys)	Immigrant status (immigrant - non-immigrant)
Australia			
Austria	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	
Belgium			
Canada			
Chile			<i>m</i>
Colombia			
Costa Rica			
Czech Republic			
Denmark			
Estonia			
Finland			
France			
Germany			
Greece			
Hungary			
Iceland			
Ireland			
Israel			
Italy			
Japan			<i>m</i>

Country	Socio-economic status (top-bottom quarter)	Gender differences (girls - boys)	Immigrant status (immigrant - non-immigrant)
Korea			<i>m</i>
Latvia			
Lithuania			
Luxembourg			
Mexico			
Netherlands*			
New Zealand			
Norway			
Poland			<i>m</i>
Portugal*			
Slovak Republic			<i>m</i>
Slovenia			
Spain	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
Sweden	<i>m</i>		
Switzerland			
Türkiye			<i>m</i>
United Kingdom			
United States*			
OECD average			

Note: *The Netherlands, Portugal and the United States: Data did not meet the PISA technical standards but were accepted as largely comparable (see PISA 2018 Annexes A2 and A4). Differences that are statistically significant are indicated in darker colours.

Source: OECD (2019^[67]), PISA 2018 Results (Vol II), Annex B.1., <https://doi.org/10.1787/b5fd1b8f-en>.

Conceptualising diversity, equity and inclusion in education

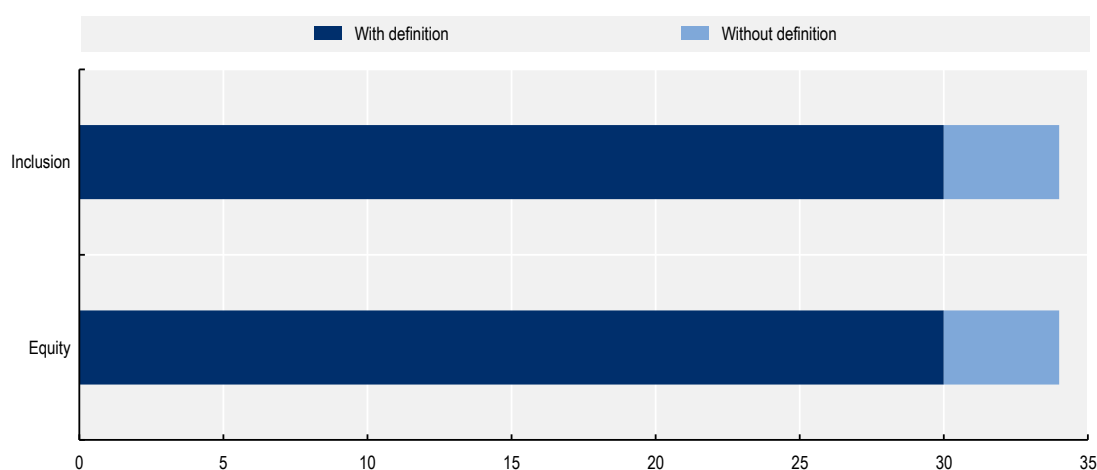
Defining the key concepts in the area of diversity, equity and inclusion in education is no easy undertaking. These concepts vary not only across literature, but also in the meaning that different education systems

attribute to them. Indeed, there is neither a universal definition of equity nor of inclusion in education. The Project has adopted some definitions to operationalise the concepts and provide some basis for its analysis, but these are not meant to be normative or prescriptive for countries. Most countries and education systems have developed their own definitions, which reflect their history, priorities and educational goals.

Most jurisdictions across the OECD have a definition of equity and inclusion

The majority of education systems have a definition of both equity and inclusion (Figure 2). Twenty-eight jurisdictions reported in the Strength through Diversity Survey 2022 that they had a definition of equity, either formal or operational, and 30 have a definition of inclusion. Only four jurisdictions did not have a definition of inclusion (Australia, Finland, the Netherlands and New Zealand) and four did not have a definition of equity (Denmark, Finland, Lithuania and New Zealand).

Figure 2. Number of education jurisdictions with and without a definition of equity and inclusion



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question “If available, please provide an English translation of the definition of inclusion in education. Such definition(s) can be embedded in your legislative framework or can be part of document(s) published by a national (or sub-national) authority.” and “If available, please provide an English translation of the definition of equity in education. Such definition(s) can be embedded in your legislative framework or can be part of document(s) published by a national (or sub-national) authority.”. Thirty-four education systems responded to these questions.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/a6md94>

An analysis of the definitions and explanations of concepts provided by education systems shows that commonalities exist across education systems in the adopted definitions of equity. Twenty-three of the 30 education systems that reported having a definition mentioned explicitly that education should be provided without prejudice to student characteristics, background or origins. These elements span across social status, nationality, ethnic origin, gender, special education need or disability, sexual orientation, religious and political affiliation, language, health condition, parent education and place of residence. In this regard, 12 systems highlighted that special efforts should be made to prevent discrimination in education. Fifteen education systems also underlined the importance of ensuring equality of opportunity between students. According to Slovenia’s comprehensive definition, the notion of equal opportunity presupposes that each individual is treated in accordance with the law of justice - meaning that equals must be treated the same and others must be treated in accordance with their differences - in situations in

which many people compete for limited resources (for example, acceptance into a quality school or university). Various systems, finally, underlined that access to education should be granted to all students (ten education systems), in order to avoid any gaps or differences between them (six), and allow them to achieve by removing barriers and obstacles (four). Additional points that were mentioned by a small minority of education systems are reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Key elements mentioned by education systems' definitions of equity and inclusion

Equity		Inclusion	
<i>Key elements mentioned by education systems' definitions</i>	<i>Number of education systems</i>	<i>Key elements mentioned by education systems' definitions</i>	<i>Number of education systems</i>
Groups	23	For all	20
Equality of opportunity	15	Access/Participation	12
Discrimination/exclusion	12	Students with SEN	11
For all	10	Learning	10
Access	9	Groups	9
Differences/Gaps	6	Diversity	8
Potential/Achievement	6	Discrimination/exclusion	7
Barriers/obstacles	4	Mainstream education	7
Free	2	Support/Accommodation	6
Segregation	1	Equality of opportunity	6
Belonging	2	Barriers	6
Diversity	1	Development	5
		Social	4
		Process	3
		Quality	3
		Differences/Gaps	2
		Identity	2
		Belonging	2
		Participation of parents/community	2

Note: Text-analysis based on education systems' definitions and descriptions of equity and inclusion in education.
Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

In relation to inclusion, out of the 30 countries that reported definitions in the Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022, 20 underlined that their understanding of inclusion concerns *all* students, without prejudice. Twelve countries also stressed the relevance of ensuring access and participation to the students to ensure their inclusion in education. In contrast to their approach to defining equity, several education systems (11) considered inclusion as concerning students with SEN – at times exclusively and at times as a core but not exclusive focus. For instance, the concept of inclusion in the Flemish Community of Belgium “has a specific usage in that it refers to the leading principle for schools' approach to pupils with SEN” (OECD, 2022^[68]). While Ireland does not have a general holistic definition on inclusion in education, it has a specific definition for the inclusion of students with SEN, which underlines that “a child with special educational needs shall be educated in an inclusive environment with children who do not have such needs unless the nature or degree of those needs of the child is such that to do so would be inconsistent” (ibid.). Seven countries highlighted the role of mainstream education in the inclusion of students with SEN.

Another common element, which is shared with the systems' definition of equity, was the focus on avoiding discrimination, with an explicit mention of various groups of students. However, it differs from equity as

eight countries' definitions of inclusion made explicit reference to the concept of diversity. Colombia, Mexico and Scotland (United Kingdom), for instance, stressed the importance of valuing and respecting students' diversity.

A further difference is that inclusion definitions (for six education systems) stated the relevance of providing support and accommodations to students who require them, along with ensuring appropriate learning for all (ten systems). Equality of opportunity was also mentioned by six education systems, as in the case of equity, as the removal of barriers (six systems). Finally, three education systems stressed the idea of inclusion being a process, which is a key aspect of the definition proposed by UNESCO and adopted by the Project (as discussed in the next section). Three systems also highlighted the importance of ensuring the quality of the education provided in regard to inclusion, as it is not enough for children to be allowed into education if not provided with high-quality learning. Additional points that were mentioned by a small minority of education systems are reported in Table 2.

Given that, as discussed, education systems' definitions vary widely, the Project has adopted specific definitions that allow for a shared understanding of the concepts when analysing policies and practices concerning equity and inclusion in education (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). These definitions are not meant to be prescriptive nor recommended for education systems to adopt but reflect the main understanding of these areas throughout the work of the Project. The following sections describe the key concepts in the areas of equity and inclusion in education, and highlight the developments and principles that have led the Project to select these specific understandings.

Equity

The Project defines **equitable education systems** as being those that ensure the achievement of educational potential is not the result of personal and social circumstances, including factors such as gender, ethnic origin, Indigenous background, immigrant status, sexual orientation and gender identity, special education needs, and giftedness (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]; OECD, 2017^[9]). In operationalising equity in education, the OECD makes a distinction between horizontal and vertical equity (OECD, 2017^[69]). While horizontal equity considers the overall fair provision of resources to each part of the school system (providing similar resources to the alike), vertical equity involves providing disadvantaged groups of students or schools with additional resources based on their needs (ibid.). Both approaches are complementary and play an important role in the process of inclusion of vulnerable groups of students (described below).

However, other organisations, projects and researchers adopt different definitions for the concept of equity and for that of equality (Mezzanotte and Calvel, forthcoming^[70]). For UNESCO, equity “considers the social justice ramifications of education in relation to the fairness, justness and impartiality of its distribution at all levels or educational sub-sectors” (UNESCO-UIS, 2018, p. 17^[71]). UNESCO also defines the concept of **equality**, as “the state of being equal in terms of quantity, rank, status, value or degree” (ibid.). **Equality of opportunity**, in particular, is understood to mean that everyone should have the same opportunity to thrive, “regardless of variations in the circumstances into which they are born” (ibid.). Having been granted such opportunities and considered their innate abilities, however, students' outcomes will still depend on how much effort they put in. This concept holds individuals accountable, as they are considered responsible for, and to have control over, their effort. This implies that the differences in outcomes that arise from differences in effort are fair, while those that derive from personal characteristics – such as socio-economic background or gender – are not fair. The definition adopted by the Project, as described above, is thus in line with the concept of equality of opportunity.

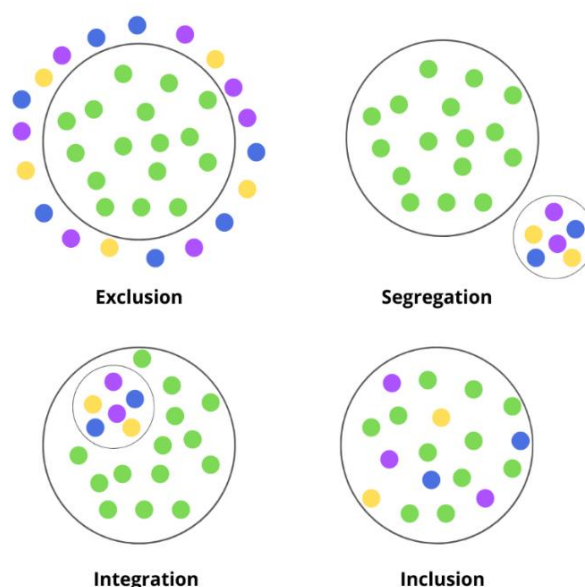
Inclusion

The Project adopts a broad definition of **inclusive education**, while recognising that there exist various definitions of this concept and disagreements about these definitions (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). For the

broader work of the Project, inclusive education is defined as “an on-going process aimed at offering quality education for all while respecting diversity and the different needs and abilities, characteristics and learning expectations of the students and communities, eliminating all forms of discrimination” (UNESCO, 2009, p. 126_[72]). More than a particular policy or practice related to a specific group of students or individuals, this definition identifies an ethos of inclusion and communities of learners, which does not only involve an individual dimension but also a communal one. The goal of inclusive education is to respond to all students’ needs, going beyond school attendance and achievement, while improving all students’ well-being and participation (Cerna et al., 2021_[11]).

Inclusion can also be conceptualised as a historical development of different models of education. Researchers generally categorise educational systems into four categories: exclusion, segregation, integration and inclusion (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Four types of educational model



Source: Mezzanotte (2022_[37]), The social and economic rationale of inclusive education: An overview of the outcomes in education for diverse groups of students, <https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/bff7a85d-en>, adapted from Abt Associates (2016_[73]), Summary of the evidence on inclusive education, https://www.abtassociates.com/sites/default/files/2019-03/A_Summary_of_the_evidence_on_inclusive_education.pdf (accessed 13 January 2022).

Firstly, **exclusion** occurs when students are directly or indirectly prevented from or denied access to education in any form. This may happen when students are not allowed to register or attend school, or conditions are placed on their attendance. Exclusion in education does not only mean “out-of-school children” but can have many expressions (International Bureau of Education, 2016_[74]; UNESCO, 2012_[75]). For instance, exclusion can be from entry into a school or an educational programme, due to inability to pay the fees or being outside the eligibility criteria. **Segregation** occurs when diverse groups of students are educated in separate environments (either classes or schools). This can happen, for instance, when students with a learning disability are forced to attend a school/class exclusively for students with disabilities, but also when schools teach either females or males only (i.e., same-sex or single-sex education). **Integration** is achieved by placing students with diverse needs in mainstream education settings with some adaptations and resources, on the condition that they fit into pre-existing structures, attitudes and an unaltered environment (UNESCO, 2017_[76]). For example, integration can consist in

placing a student with a physical impairment or a learning disability in a mainstream class but without any individualised support and with a teacher who is unwilling or unable to meet the child's learning, social or disability support needs. In literature and policy, integration and inclusion have been compared and sometimes confused, whereas the two concepts present significant differences.

Inclusion is a process that helps to overcome barriers limiting the presence, participation and achievement of all learners. It is about changing the system to fit the student, not changing the student to fit the system, because the “problem” of exclusion is firmly within the system, not the person or their characteristics (UNICEF, 2014^[77]). According to UNICEF (2014^[77]), inclusive education is defined as a dynamic process that is constantly evolving according to the local culture and context, as it seeks to enable communities, systems and structures to combat discrimination, celebrate diversity, promote participation and overcome barriers to learning and participation for all people. All personal differences (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, Indigenous status, language, health status, etc.) are acknowledged and respected.

UNESCO (2008^[78]) has also described the key factors of inclusive education for all students: i) the promotion of student participation and reduction of exclusion from and for education; and ii) the presence, participation and achievement of all students, but especially those who are excluded or at risk of marginalisation. The key message is that every learner matters and matters equally. Moreover, according to UNESCO (2005^[79]), inclusion highlights the groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalisation, exclusion or underachievement, including students belonging to ethnic groups, national minorities or immigrant students, among others. The UNESCO interpretation also implies a moral responsibility to ensure that groups that are more statistically at risk are carefully monitored and steps are taken to ensure their presence, participation and achievement in education (UNESCO, 2005^[79]).

Why it is relevant to differentiate between equity and inclusion

The concepts of equity and inclusion are strictly related and overlap, but they emphasise complementary elements that contribute to successful education systems. Equity stresses the role of providing the same opportunities to all students and equalising resources provided to support them. The goal of equity is to give the means to all students to achieve at the best of their capabilities.

A focus on educational equity may not be enough to fully address student diversity. Indeed, an exclusive focus on equity could lead to narrow assimilationist or isolationist policies and practices without fully addressing inclusion. For example, having all students achieving a minimum level of performance and meeting educational goals that are established without considering the diversity of their experiences (assimilation) can promote equity but not inclusion. Inclusion encompasses the principles of equity while broadening this focus through proposing a transformative approach to remove barriers for all students, stressing in particular the need to recognise and address different experiences, needs and challenges of diverse and vulnerable groups of students. While equity focuses on opportunities, inclusion is more strictly associated to who the individual is, i.e., their identity (e.g., cultural identity, gender identity), and whether the education system acknowledges individuals for who they are (i.e., the sense of belonging). Moreover, inclusion fosters students' well-being as a key element to ensure their full participation in education through the development of their self-worth and sense of belonging to schools and communities. Well-being is generally not as much of an explicit focus in relation to equity.

Improving equity does not necessarily result in the validation of an individual's sense of self and belonging within society. If that validation does not occur, it may hinder social cohesion on a larger scale and on a longer time frame. Educational research has brought about a better understanding of the necessity of responding to individual student needs by providing each learner with individualised feedback and providing inclusive and multicultural programmes (Nusche, 2009^[80]). In this context, education systems cannot only play an important role in boosting equity, but also in fostering just and inclusive societies.

Why equity and inclusion in education matter

The importance of fostering equity and inclusion in educational settings has various rationales, spanning from human rights, to educational, individual and societal gains (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). More equitable and inclusive education has been shown to provide benefits for all students in improving the quality of education offered, as it is more child-centred and focused on achieving good learning outcomes for all students, including those with a diverse range of abilities (UNESCO, 2009^[81]). Greater equity in education can help students achieve their potential, which can have implications on their outcomes later in life. A carefully planned provision of inclusive education can not only improve students' academic achievement, but also foster their socio-emotional growth, self-esteem and peer acceptance (UNESCO, 2020^[60]). For instance, from a review by Ruijs and Peetsma (2009^[82]), it appears that students with SEN achieve academically better in inclusive settings than in non-inclusive settings. Research also shows that attending and receiving support within inclusive education settings can increase the likelihood of higher education enrolment for students with SEN (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2018^[83]). These settings are also beneficial for students that have no disability or impairment, since attending a class alongside a student with SEN can yield positive outcomes for their social attitudes and beliefs (Abt Associates, 2016^[73]). Similarly, with the inclusion in education of students from ethnic groups and national minorities, young people have the opportunity, through repeated exposure and practice, to engage with others who differ from them. This interaction can promote feelings of satisfaction and social efficacy within the current school setting, and inform future social interactions and social adaptability in college, communities and the workplace (Nishina et al., 2019^[39]). The inclusion of diverse students can thus help to fight stigma, stereotyping, discrimination and alienation in schools and societies more broadly (UNESCO, 2020^[60]). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action asserts that “regular schools with inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discrimination, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all” (UNESCO, 1994, p. ix^[84]). As predicted by Contact Hypothesis (Allport, 1954^[85]), increased inter-group contact can lead to a reduction of hostility, prejudice and discrimination between groups, which can refer to all types of diversity. Instead, a context that allows contact between diverse peers can build strong social skills, an important asset in today's diverse and international places of work.

Better academic and social outcomes for all students are correlated with improved labour outcomes later in life, as well as better health and well-being (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). Literature has shown the correlation between skills earned in schools and income levels from the labour market (Hanushek and Woessmann, 2008^[86]), and an even stronger correlation between the years of education achieved and the returns to education, through an increase in productivity or the signalling effect of education⁹ (Hanushek and Woessmann, 2020^[87]; Harmon, Oosterbeek and Walker, 2003^[88]). Considering how important education and skills have become in the labour market, a critical question is whether such learning opportunities can be accessible to all. Previous OECD work has found that countries have been advancing at different rates in providing quality education and skills development opportunities to disadvantaged individuals (OECD, 2017^[9]). In most countries, inequality in learning opportunities begins at birth and often widens as individuals grow older (*ibid.*). These inequalities result in very different life outcomes for adults. In some countries, access to learning opportunities differs considerably between certain population groups, which highlights the need for more equitable and inclusion education systems.

Better education also provides a range of indirect benefits, which are also likely to entail positive economic consequences (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). For instance, greater education is associated with better health status and increases in some aspects of social cohesion and political participation (OECD, 2006^[89]). In terms of health, research shows that more years of education and higher levels of qualification are associated with a lower incidence of physical and mental disorders. These relationships have been shown to hold across different countries, income ranges, age and ethnic groups (OECD, 2006^[89]).

These positive effects on individual outcomes also lead to broader societal benefits (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). Economic literature has studied the role of education in rising incomes at the country level, in particular in terms of higher Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita and its annual growth rate (Bassanini and Scarpetta, 2001^[90]; Hanushek and Woessmann, 2007^[91]). Providing more education, knowledge and skills to individuals, i.e., accumulating human capital, increases their productivity and employability, which in turn rises the country's overall income and development. Individual non-economic outcomes also affect society more generally: better education can contribute to reduced violence and crime rates, reductions in the cost of healthcare and welfare systems (e.g., unemployment benefits, etc.), and can foster innovation. Policies that support individuals in obtaining the highest qualifications of which they are capable have the potential to provide not only personal but also economic benefits. This includes both savings in national healthcare and socio-political costs, such as greater political engagement, higher levels of trust and more positive inter-group attitudes (Easterbrook, Kuppens and Manstead, 2015^[92]).

The World Bank also argues that equity and inclusion in education are essential for shared prosperity and sustainable development (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]; World Bank Group, 2016^[93]). Disparities in education are one of the major drivers of income inequality, both within and among countries. Without basic education, individuals in the bottom of a nation's income distribution are unlikely to be successful in a globalised economy. As the World Bank World Development Report 2012 notes, fair and inclusive education is one of the most powerful levers for a more equitable society (World Bank, 2011^[94]). While, as discussed, there are very important human, economic, social and political reasons for pursuing a policy and approach of more equitable and inclusive education, it is also a means of bringing about personal development and building relationships among individuals, groups and nations (UNESCO, 2005^[79]). Inclusive education can further offer all children a chance to learn about and accept each other's abilities, talents and needs (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). This process, through the fostering of meaningful relationships and friendships, can strengthen social competences while also building social cohesion (Council of Europe, 2015^[95]). In an increasingly globalised and complex world, inclusive education can strengthen the trust and sense of belonging of people and among people.

Some scholars have raised concerns regarding the potential negative effects of an inclusive education system and the challenges in its implementation (Forlin et al., 2011^[96]). For instance, a frequent argument against inclusive education is that it could have an adverse effect on the achievement of students without SEN (Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]). The arguments against inclusion propose that students with SEN occupy the teachers' attention, which might adversely affect other children (Dyson, Farrell and Cooke, 2004^[97]; Huber, Rosenfeld and Fiorello, 2001^[98]). In contrast, proponents of inclusive education sustain that in inclusive classes there is more adaptive education, which might have a beneficial effect on all students (Dyson, Farrell and Cooke, 2004^[97]). Overall, literature has identified mostly positive or neutral effects of inclusive education on the academic achievement of students without SEN, in particular at the lower education levels (Kart and Kart, 2021^[99]). Evidence indicates that it is possible for all learners to achieve at high levels in an inclusive school system (AuCoin, Porter and Baker-Korotkov, 2020^[100]; Mezzanotte, 2022^[37]).

Diversity

Another important concept that relates to both equity and inclusion is diversity. Diversity corresponds to people's differences which may relate to their race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, language, culture, religion, mental and physical ability, class, and immigration status (UNESCO, 2017^[76]). More specifically, it refers to the fact that many people perceive themselves or are perceived to be different and form a range of different groups cohabiting together. Diversity is multidimensional, might relate to physical aspects and/or immaterial ones such as cultural practices, and makes sense according to the boundaries defined by groups of individuals.

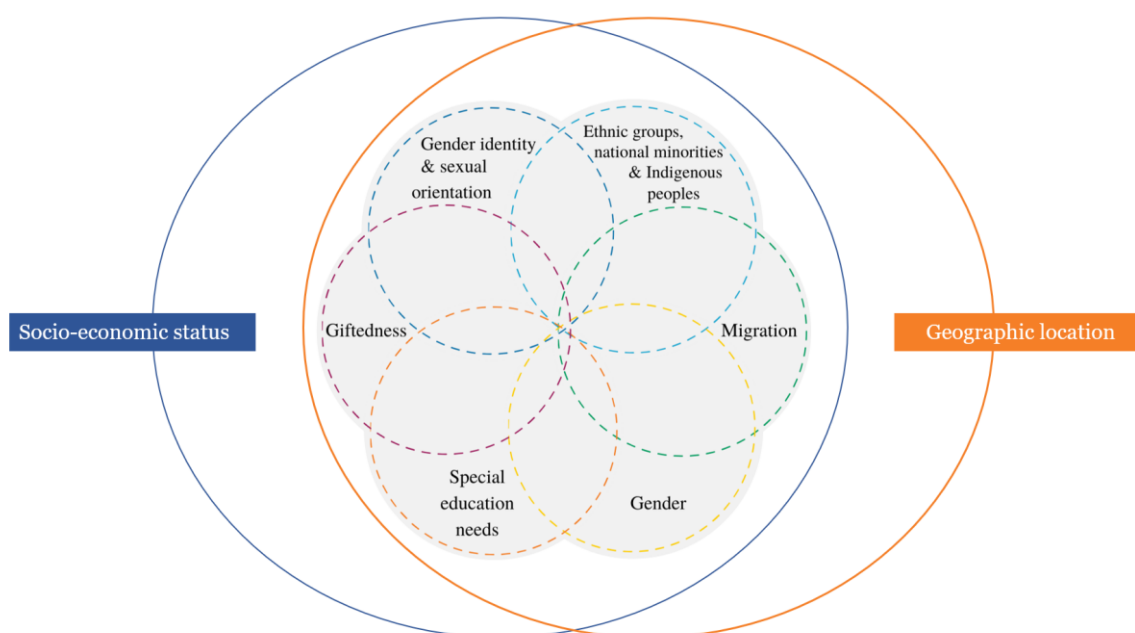
Students from diverse background are generally more disadvantaged in education and, for this reason, become the target of equitable and inclusive reforms, practices and policies (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). As mentioned above, various countries emphasise the importance of focusing on specific groups of students and valuing their diversity in their definitions of equity and inclusion in education.

While acknowledging that many dimensions of diversity exist, the Project has focused on the following dimensions (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]):

- Migration;
- Ethnic groups, national minorities and Indigenous peoples;
- Gender;
- Gender identity and sexual orientation;
- Special education needs;
- Giftedness.

Besides the six dimensions of diversity, the Project also considers the role of two overarching factors, namely students' socio-economic status and geographic location, as shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Dimensions of diversity



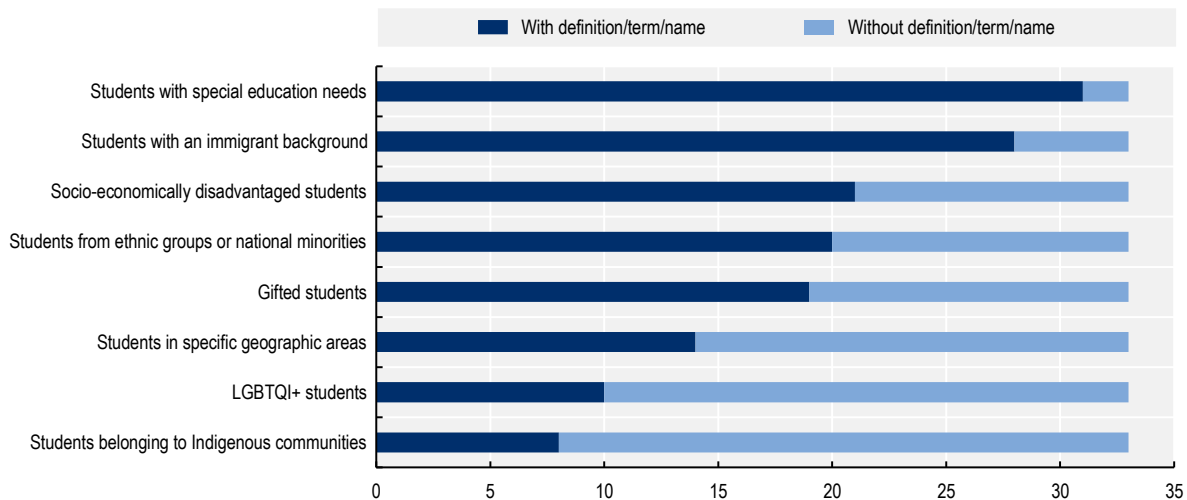
Source: Adapted from Cerna et al. (2021^[11]), Promoting inclusive education for diverse societies: A conceptual framework, <https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/94ab68c6-en>.

OECD education systems focus on different dimensions of diversity, depending on their national context

Education systems across the OECD attribute an official or administrative term/name to different groups depending on their context and priorities. While their terminology does not always overlap with that of the Project, groups have been proxied to match the eight groups discussed earlier. Figure 5 shows that the majority of education systems that responded to the Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022 attributed an official or administrative term/name to different diversity groups.

Figure 5. Definitions of dimensions of diversity (2022)

Number of education systems that indicated that they attribute an official or administrative term/name or have definitions of the following groups of students (ISCED 2)



Note: This figure is based on collated answers to the question “Please select all the student groups to which your education jurisdiction attributes an official or administrative term/name. This administrative term/name does not have to be embedded within the education jurisdiction, but can be part of other (e.g., social, health) jurisdictions.” and “If available, please provide English translations of formal definitions for the following groups at ISCED 2 level. Such definitions can be embedded in your legislative framework or can be part of documents published by a national (or sub-national) authority.”. Thirty-three and thirty-one education systems responded to these questions respectively. Response options were not mutually exclusive. Some education systems use terms that have been proxied for the categories considered by the Strength through Diversity Project, although their definitions do not overlap exactly.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/oa248z>

A large number of education systems (31) referred having a term for students with SEN. The understanding of this term varies quite significantly across systems. While some jurisdictions focused on disability or more medical understandings of SEN (e.g., the Flemish Community of Belgium or Sweden), others considered more generally the additional learning needs of the students. Portugal, for instance, abandoned the system of categorisation of students in 2018. While used as a proxy in Figure 5, the term “special education needs” is therefore no longer used, having been replaced by “students in need of educational support measures”. Similarly, Scotland (United Kingdom) adopts the term “students with Additional Support Needs” This definition is broad and applies to children or young people who, for whatever reason, require additional support, in the long or short term, in order to help them make the most of their school education and to be fully included.

Similarly, a large number of education systems, 28, adopted a term for students with an immigrant background. Many of these systems, however, identify these students through different proxies. Generally, systems identify students based on them holding a different nationality or speaking a different mother-tongue/have language learning needs. For instance, the Czech Republic considered students with an immigrant background as belonging to one of two groups: “foreigner pupils”, as determined by foreign citizenship; and “students with insufficient knowledge of the language of instruction”.

Other systems, instead, had more detailed classifications that cover several groups of students with and immigrant background. Slovenia, for instance, had a number of group classifications:

- Former migrants who hold Slovenian citizenship: persons born in the Republic of Slovenia and living in Slovenia since birth (second and third generation migrants whose mother tongue is not Slovenian), or persons not born in Slovenia who obtained Slovenian citizenship;
- Persons who do not hold Slovenian citizenship, namely persons who obtained a permit for permanent residence in the Republic of Slovenia and persons with permit for temporary stay in the Republic of Slovenia;
- Asylum-seekers and persons under international protection;
- Citizens of member states of the European Union;
- Children of Slovenian emigrants and workers abroad (with or without Slovenian citizenship) who returned to Slovenia.

According to the country's Basic School Act children who are foreign citizens or stateless persons and reside in the Republic of Slovenia have the right to compulsory basic school education under the same conditions as citizens of the Republic of Slovenia.

Twenty education systems also adopted terminology for ethnic groups and national minorities. In Europe, a large proportion of countries identify the Roma community, with different national declinations of the term and group, such as Travellers, Sinti, and more (an in-depth description of European classifications of Roma individuals is provided in Rutigliano (2020_[101])). Other systems also identified as minorities groups that are linked to different country origins. Finland, for instance, considered Kvens/Norwegian Finns (people of Finnish descent in northern Norway) and Forest Finns (Finnish people who settled in Norway). Japan also specifically identified Koreans living in Japan, and Slovenia the members of the native Italian and Hungarian national communities.

Twenty-one and 14 systems adopted specific terms for students from a socio-economically disadvantaged background and students in specific geographic areas respectively. Across different systems, socio-economic status was generally proxied on a threshold for family income levels, established based on whether families are eligible or receive social assistance benefits, proxied on parents' employment status/education level/standardised set of home possessions, or on a combination of these indicators (18 systems) (Varsik, 2022_[102]). Specific geographic areas were identified by systems in terms of: i) being remote areas (12 systems); the socio-economic level or development of the area (9 systems); and specific Regions/Provinces/States (9 systems) (ibid.). Several education systems considered more than one of these categories (ibid.).

Nineteen systems also identified gifted students, although the terminology adopted varies (Rutigliano and Quarshie, 2021_[103]; Varsik, 2022_[102]). Ireland, for example, defined "exceptionally able students", while Scotland (United Kingdom) defined them as "highly able". Instead, Türkiye and the United States respectively adopted the term "talented" and "gifted and talented" students.

LGBTQI+ students and Indigenous students were the two groups that are reportedly less often identified by OECD education systems. Respectively, ten and eight systems adopted a specific term for these two groups.

Intersectionality

There are many possible intersections between dimensions of diversity, but also with overarching factors such as socio-economic status and geographical location (Cerna et al., 2021_[111]). The term intersectionality is based on Crenshaw's (1989_[104]) work on gender and ethnicity and has been widely used in other areas in recent years (Davis, 2008_[105]; Lutz, Herrera Vivar and Supik, 2011_[106]). Identities overlap and intersect with new implications for educational policies. In the area of diversity and inclusion, the Project understands intersectionality to mean that a person can embody multiple dimensions of diversity and, as such, be exposed to the different types of discrimination and disadvantages that occur as a consequence of the

combination of identities (Lavizzari, 2015^[107]). It explores how the six dimensions intersect with one another and with the overarching factors of socio-economic status and geographic location (e.g., if student attends school in an urban or rural area).

Holistic framework for diversity, equity and inclusion

Diversity, equity and inclusion in education systems need to be approached holistically, building on their interdependencies in order to generate complementarities and prevent inconsistency of objectives. This section illustrates the synergies that can be generated between the different components in response to the overarching policy questions of the Project (Cerna et al., 2021^[111]):

- “How can education systems support the learning and well-being outcomes of diverse populations and make systems more inclusive?” and
- “How can education systems support all individuals so that they are able to engage with others in increasingly diverse and complex societies?”

Assessing the equity and inclusiveness of education systems is a complex process that involves a range of policy areas and requires a comprehensive analytical approach and great care in the use of concepts (Cerna et al., 2021^[111]). In particular, assessing the equity and inclusiveness of education systems requires the adoption of a holistic approach to diversity, equity and inclusion in education. This entails breaking out of policy silos and connecting them into a structured policy framework linking key areas for diversity, equity and inclusion in education (ibid.).

The Project examines comprehensively if and how education systems can ensure that societies are well-equipped to provide equitable and inclusive educational opportunities. As such, it considers the specific vulnerabilities and assets some students may experience because of their background and circumstances, and how best education systems can reduce the prevalence or the effects of risk factors for academic underachievement and low overall well-being. This comprehensive and innovative analytical framework can guide countries in developing education systems that are responsive to the needs of diverse populations. The holistic framework has been developed based on a thorough review of prior work conducted by the OECD on equity and fairness in education and has used the review to critically identify and examine points of departure and unanswered questions for the conceptualisation of inclusive education. In particular, the holistic framework extends the existing theoretical underpinnings of OECD work on equity in education.

The framework examines six dimensions of diversity (migration; ethnic groups, national minorities and Indigenous peoples; gender; gender identity and sexual orientation; special education needs; and giftedness) and their intersections. To ensure inclusive and equitable approaches in education systems, reflecting on the following elements is key:

- That an overall, systemic framework for governing diversity, equity and inclusion in education is designed (Governance);
- That resources are used effectively to support diversity, equity and inclusion in education (Resourcing);
- That the system is able to build capacity for all stakeholders to support diversity, equity and inclusion in education (Capacity-building);
- That schools provide effective interventions to support diversity, equity and inclusion in education (School-level interventions); and
- That processes and outcomes are monitored and evaluated to support diversity, equity and inclusion in education (Monitoring and evaluation).

Five key policy areas to promote equity and inclusion

Governing and designing education systems to promote equity and inclusion

Developing an equitable and inclusive education system requires a holistic approach. This implies the need for education systems to look beyond policy silos and connect them through a policy framework that links key areas for equity and inclusion, from the design of curricula, the conception of teaching practices, the capacity building of teaching staff, to the design of data collections and monitoring of student outcomes. A policy framework can also highlight the importance of fostering student well-being together with their achievement, and emphasise the role of schools in the development of inclusive environments.

It is also important that all relevant stakeholders for equitable and inclusive education are engaged meaningfully throughout the policy cycle. This entails involving them in the development of the policy framework to ensure a shared understanding of the goals, means and concepts adopted by the education system. It then translates into building partnerships to ensure the implementation of the framework across different government levels and to secure the collaboration with other government areas (e.g., health and social services), and non-state institutions (e.g., teacher unions and employers). Education systems differ in whether and how they pursue goals and in how they formulate targets for promoting equity and inclusion. These goals are expressed both at a generic level (e.g., overall educational goals) and in more specific ways (e.g., curricula) (OECD, 2013^[108]).

Education goals and curricula for equity and inclusion

Establishing clear and widely supported educational goals is crucial in developing education policies. These goals are typically formulated as standing objectives and can be embedded in international treaties, national legislation, policy documents and strategies. Educational goals are generally established to align processes and school agents' contributions (OECD, 2013^[108]). Several education systems consider equitable or inclusive education as a goal. For instance, Iceland's Education Policy 2030 focuses on equal opportunities for all, Japan's The Third Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education aims to achieve equal opportunity in education, and New Zealand's National Education Goals focus on attaining educational opportunity for all and advancing Māori education initiatives (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2018^[109]; Ministry of Education, 2021^[110]; OECD, 2021^[111]). Governments should devise statements about the ultimate goals of their education systems and establish priorities that guide them towards higher performance levels (Cerna et al., 2021^[111]). These priorities can focus on individual actions that can fulfil the goals. Governments can also establish education targets and indicators to assess progress towards these targets. Monitoring and evaluation frameworks are vital to ensure adequate measures are taken to achieve educational goals. Several education systems set indicators and targets specific to different dimensions of diversity. In 2022, equity and/or inclusion were identified as priorities in most education systems, albeit with variations in how the concepts were defined (OECD, 2022^[68]).

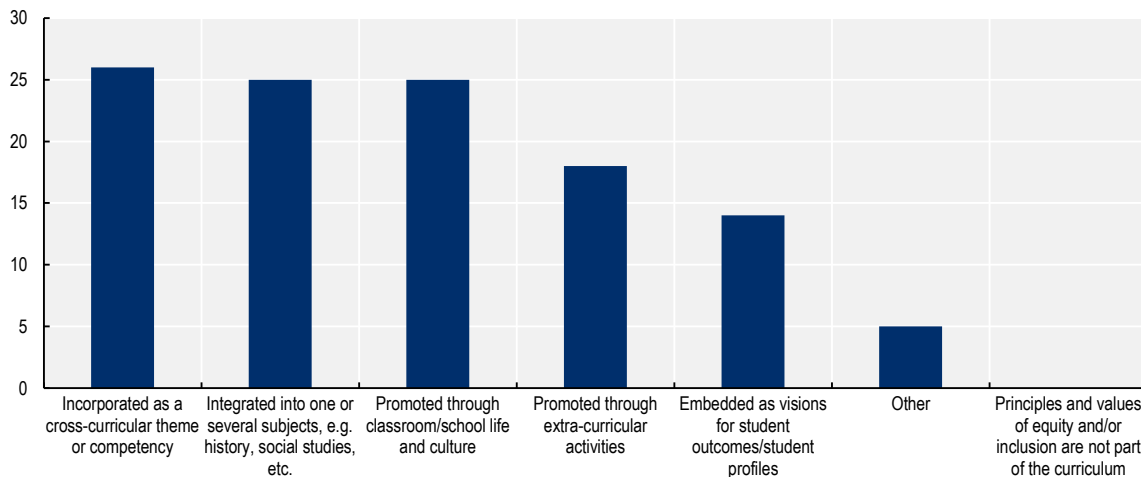
Curriculum is the central means for enacting the principles of inclusion and equity within an education system (UNESCO, 2017^[76]). Curriculum reflects what is meant to be taught (content) and learned (goals). It needs to be coherent with how it is to be taught (pedagogical methods) and learned (tasks), as well as with the materials to support learning (e.g., textbooks and computers) and the methods to assess learning (e.g., examinations and projects) (UNESCO, 2020^[60]). Curriculum matters also for equity and inclusion in education. Research on the learning outcomes of disadvantaged groups finds that curriculum can be effectively designed to respond to the unique needs of diverse learners (Darling-Hammond et al., 2019^[112]). Hence, countries are increasingly designing curricula that enable equity in education, adopting a whole-child and person-development approach through learning and assessment practices that support all learners to thrive. While some countries focus on equality, i.e., offering equal opportunities to all learners (e.g., minimum curriculum standards or a core curriculum), others take an equity-focused approach, providing differential support for learners based on their individual needs (e.g., remedial learning for

learners with difficulties). Some others embrace diversity and embed inclusion as the principle of curriculum design and implementation (e.g., recognising the cultural identity of individual learners) (OECD, 2021_[30]; OECD, 2022_[113]).

The Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022 showed that 26 education systems in the OECD both incorporate the principles and values of equity and/or inclusion as cross-curricular themes or competences and integrate them in one or more subjects (Figure 6). Twenty-five education systems also promote these equity and inclusion principles through classroom, school life and culture, and 18 education systems promote these principles through extra-curricular activities. However, only 14 education systems embed the principles of equity and inclusion as part of their vision for student outcomes and/or student profiles.

Figure 6. Curriculum strategies (2022)

Number of education systems that use the following curriculum strategies to encourage the principles and values of equity and/or inclusion (ISCED 2)



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question “Which curriculum strategies are used in your education jurisdiction to encourage the principles and values of equity and/or inclusion at ISCED 2 level?”. Thirty-two education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems.

Source: OECD (2022_[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/8isvxn>

Intersectionality of diversity in education

The term “intersectionality” was introduced by Kimberlé Crenshaw, a Black feminist legal scholar, to raise awareness of the challenges that arise from the combination of gender and ethnicity, especially for Black women (Crenshaw, 1989_[104]). The concept has since been applied in various academic fields, including education, where an intersectional approach has exposed disparities in outcomes that were not previously recognised (Bauer et al., 2021_[114]). An intersectionality framework emphasises that different aspects of individuals’ identities interact to create unique identities and experiences that cannot be understood by analysing each dimension separately (Christoffersen, 2021_[115]). Applying intersectional methodologies can help policy makers assess interventions and processes’ effectiveness in mitigating intersectional issues by focusing on individuals’ intersecting identities. However, most OECD education systems did not have policies to address the challenges associated with embodying more than one dimension of diversity

associated with disadvantage (Table 3). An intersectional approach to policy making is important to promote equity and inclusion in education, as research and policies addressing single dimensions of diversity may not reflect or address the needs of individuals with intersecting identities (Hancock, 2007^[116]). Furthermore, an intersectional approach requires that marginalised groups be included in policy discussions and can transform the policy-making process by making policy makers more conscious of lived experiences (Hankivsky and Cormier, 2011^[117]).

Table 3. Education systems with policies targeting intersections of student groups

Intersection	Education systems
Students with an immigrant background and special education needs	Colombia, Flemish Comm. (Belgium), French Comm. (Belgium), Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Sweden, Türkiye
Female students with an immigrant background	Flemish Comm. (Belgium), Korea, Türkiye
Male students with an immigrant background	Flemish Comm. (Belgium), Korea, Türkiye
Students from ethnic groups or national minorities with special education needs	Colombia, Ireland, Slovak Republic, Sweden
Male students from ethnic groups or national minorities	
Female students from ethnic groups or national minorities	Portugal
Students with special education needs and gifted students	Greece, Ireland, Italy, Korea, Slovak Republic, Türkiye
Male LGBTQI+ students	
Female LGBTQI+ students	
LGBTQI+ students with special education needs	Ireland
LGBTQI+ students with an immigrant background	
Students with an immigrant background from a disadvantaged socio-economic background	Denmark, Flemish Comm. (Belgium), French Comm. (Belgium), Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Northern Ireland (UK), Sweden, Türkiye
Students with an immigrant background in rural areas/disadvantaged geographical areas	Denmark, Northern Ireland (UK), Sweden, Türkiye
Indigenous students with special education needs	Ireland, Northern Ireland (UK)
Indigenous students from a disadvantaged socio-economic background	Ireland, Northern Ireland (UK)
Students with special education needs in rural areas/disadvantaged geographical areas	Korea, Northern Ireland (UK)

Note: Based on answers to the question: “Are there specific policies that target the intersection of any of the following groups of students at ISCED 2 level?”

In the Flemish Community of Belgium, the responses relate to research projects commissioned by the Ministry of Education and Training, not formal education policies or legislation.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]) Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

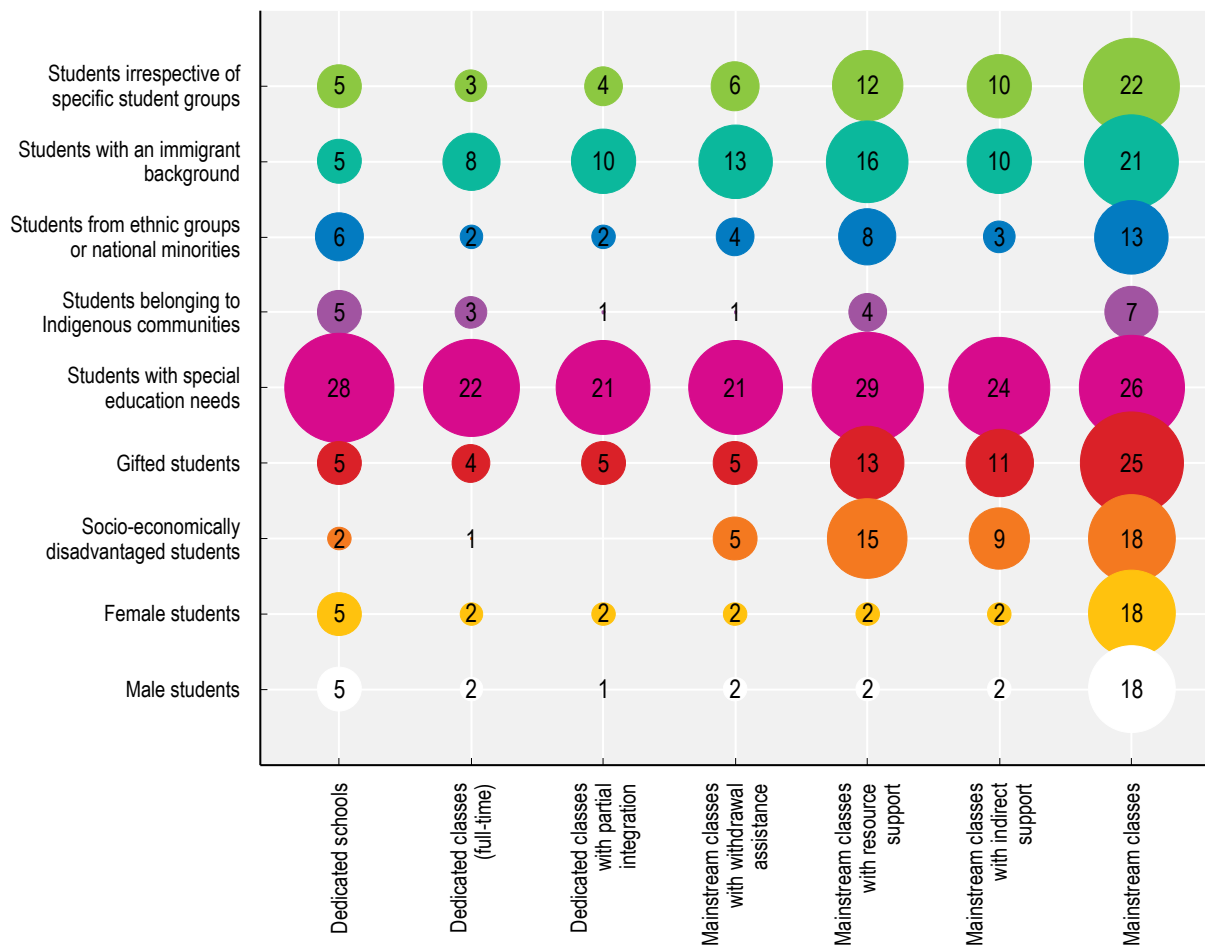
Specialisation of learning environments

Although equity and inclusion might be the desired outcome, achieving this goal may, in some cases, require the provision of specialised learning environments for certain students. Providing specialised learning settings can be an effective strategy for responding to the needs of given students. Figure 7 shows that learning environments are most often tailored to meet the needs of students with SEN, students with an immigrant background and socio-economically disadvantaged students. For all student groups, except for students with SEN and, to some extent, students belonging to Indigenous communities, learning settings are skewed towards mainstreaming students. Most education systems provided full-time mainstream classes for all student groups, except for students with SEN, followed by mainstream classes with resource or indirect support. In regard to students with SEN, most education systems provide a range of support options, including specialised schools exclusively dedicated to serving students with SEN, specialised classes within mainstream schools and the integration in mainstream classes within

mainstream schools. Finally, several education systems indicated they provided various learning settings to students irrespective of specific student groups. This is understandable given that several education systems have “needs-based” approaches in evaluating student placements based on their needs rather than particular labels. Special education settings have advantages and disadvantages, such as potentially better meeting individual needs and promoting inclusion in the classroom, but lowering academic expectations and increasing the risk of stigma and lack of social inclusion in school and later in life, as well as being more costly and posing academic and socio-emotional challenges for some students when transitioning to mainstream schools (Brussino, 2020^[118]).

Figure 7. Learning settings (2022)

Number of education systems that provide the following settings (ISCED 2)



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question "Which education settings does the policy framework in your education jurisdiction provide for diverse groups of students at ISCED 2 level?". Thirty-three education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive. The numbers inside the bubbles indicate the sum of education systems that responded positively to the question above for that specific student group. Sizes of the bubbles are proportional to these sums.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/48gmj9>

Pointers for policy development in governance

- Develop policy frameworks that promote equity and inclusion in education.
- Designate clear responsibilities for equity and inclusion and promote stronger horizontal and vertical co-ordination.
- Engage meaningfully all relevant stakeholders from the start and throughout the policy cycle.
- Design equitable and inclusive curricula and offer curricular flexibility to enable all learners achieve their potential.
- Coordinate diversified education offerings and create flexible study pathways.
- Ensure that learning environments are engaging and responsive to the needs of a diverse student population.
- Regulate carefully school choice to counter potential segregation.

Resourcing education systems to foster equity and inclusion

While a minimum level of investment in education is important, what matters most for the equity and quality of education provision is how the funding is allocated to schools that are most in need of additional resources (OECD, 2017_[69]). Socio-economically disadvantaged schools, and schools that host large populations of students with specific needs (e.g., students with an immigrant background), may need more resources than others in order to be able to effectively support their student population. For this reason, for instance, most European countries' central authorities allocate additional resources to schools that have additional funding needs (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2016_[119]). However, it is not only the central level that can be in charge of equity funding: other educational authorities, which can be regional or local, can equally be responsible for allocating additional resources to support disadvantaged students (OECD, 2017_[69]). Different levels of governance thus contribute to the state of equity of educational resourcing, and need to find means to respond to the specific needs of their target populations.

Having recognised varying needs across schools, governments can generally undertake two broad approaches for designing funding mechanisms: i) the inclusion of additional funding in the main allocation mechanisms for particular education providers or schools; and ii) the provision of targeted funding in one or a series of different grants external to the main allocation mechanism (OECD, 2017_[69]). Typically, a mix of these funding mechanisms is found in many systems. Finland, for instance, adopts both these mechanisms: the central authority accounts for certain population characteristics when computing main allocations to municipalities, while also providing additional grants to said local authorities (OECD, 2022_[120]).

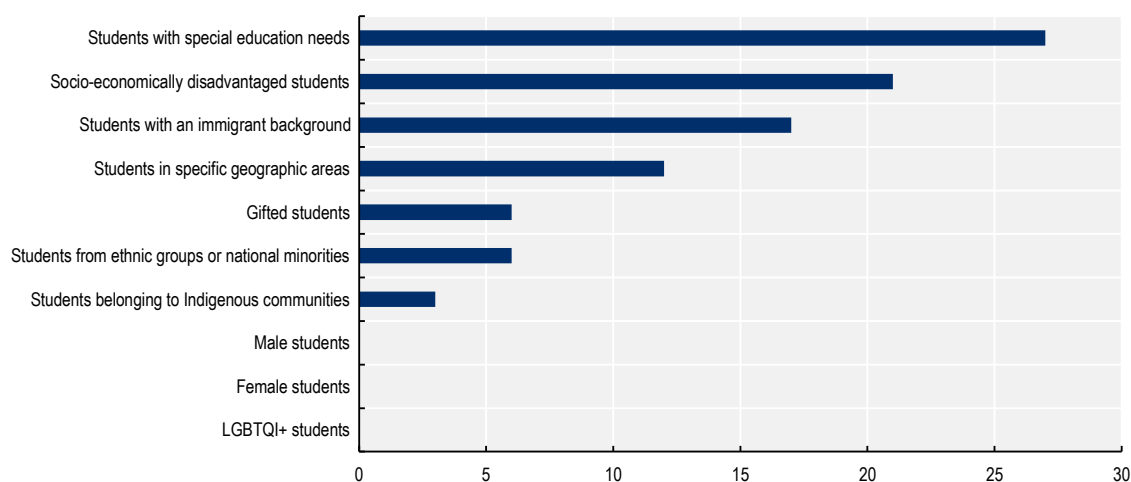
Main allocation mechanisms

To take into consideration equity concerns, main allocation mechanisms (or regular funding) can be based on funding formulas that account for the needs of specific students, schools or areas when establishing the amount of funding to be received by local educational authorities or schools. This can be done by countries regardless of the allocation mechanisms of their choosing, meaning that it can be implemented via lump sum grants, earmarked funds, block grants or other mechanisms. In Denmark and Norway, for instance, the initial transfer of a lump sum grant from the central government takes into consideration certain demographic characteristics. In Denmark, this refers to characteristics of the municipalities, including their socio-economic structure (Nusche et al., 2016_[121]; Ministry of the Interior and Housing, n.d._[122]). In Norway, the general grant accounts for the number of students with an immigrant background

in each municipality to equalise expenditures across them (Eurydice, 2021^[123]). In Chile, the main block grant for general education is allocated with a funding formula that incorporates different weightings for students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, for schools in rural or highly isolated areas and for special educational provision (OECD, 2017^[69]).

The Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022 assessed how education systems incorporate student characteristics into their funding methodologies (Figure 8). It showed that most education systems accounted for students with SEN, socio-economically disadvantaged students, students with an immigrant background and students from specific geographic areas. There is no universal rule that countries can adopt to design their funding formula and select the relative weights to ensure equitable results in their education systems. Every country needs to evaluate the variation in its education costs and choose where or on whom they want to concentrate the funding. The categories to be included in a given formula should be based on a formalised process of stakeholder engagement and data analysis to determine students' particular learning needs in the country.


Figure 8. Groups of students accounted for in the funding formulas (ISCED 2)



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question "Are any of the following groups of students accounted for in the funding formulas in your education jurisdiction at ISCED 2 level?". Thirty-two education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/zyd2ct>

Targeted distribution of resources: targeted programmes and resources to support students

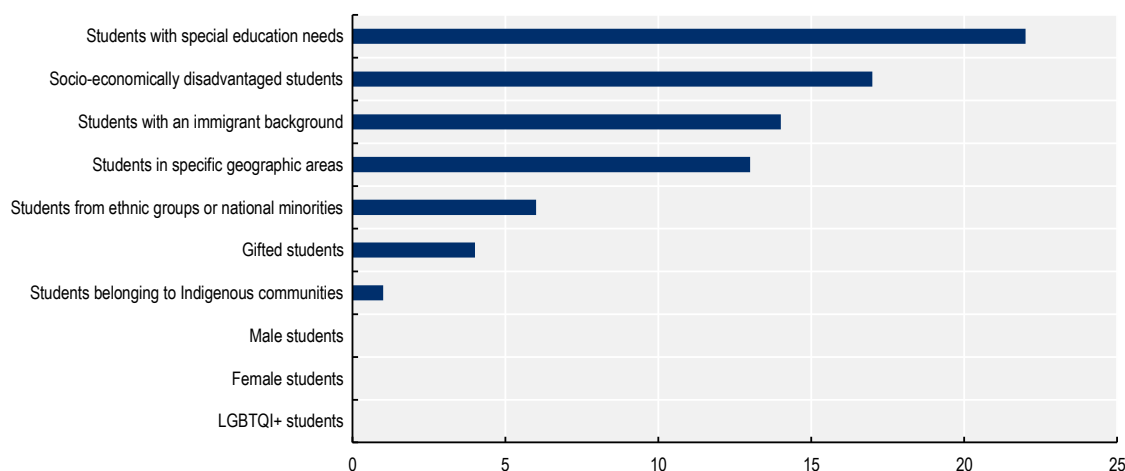
Targeted funding provides resources to be used by local authorities (e.g., municipalities) or schools for specific purposes, with the goal of ensuring responsiveness to emerging priorities and the identified needs of particular groups. Indeed, the use of targeted programmes can allow for better steering and monitoring of the use of public resources for equity purposes at the school level (OECD, 2017^[69]). Targeted funding can thus be a useful tool for central authorities to address concerns over the equity in the distribution of funding.

The Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022 asked education systems whether they provided additional resources to schools based on the enrolment of students with specific characteristics. Most education systems that responded to the survey reported providing resources based on the enrolment of

students with SEN (22 education systems) and from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds (17) (Figure 9). Fourteen education systems also reported providing funding in relation to students with an immigrant background and 13 in relation to specific geographic areas. No education systems reported providing additional resources based on the enrolment of LGBTQI+, male and female students.

Figure 9. Provision of additional resources to schools based on student groups' enrolment

Number of education systems where schools received additional resources based on the enrolment of students from the following groups in the previous school year (ISCED 2)



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question "In the previous school year, did schools receive additional resources based on the enrolment of students from any of the following groups at ISCED 2 level?". Thirty-one education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/bdjxnw>

Main allocation mechanisms and targeted distribution of resources can serve the objective of fostering equity and inclusion through different means and entail different risks (OECD, 2017^[69]). On the one hand, targeted funding allows education systems to better steer and monitor the use of public resources to foster equity and inclusion, but may entail risks such as the multiplication of programmes, a lack of coordination, and inefficiencies. On the other hand, leveraging main allocation mechanisms can reduce transaction costs and streamline the resourcing system. In countries that afford greater discretion to schools regarding the use of funding, the provision of equity funding through main allocations can give school professionals more flexibility in allocating funds to address particular local challenges. However, if not accompanied by strong accountability measures, main allocation mechanisms may only offer governments limited oversight and control regarding how, and to what extent, funds are actually allocated towards equity and inclusion. Education systems should therefore carefully leverage both funding systems to foster equity and inclusion, taking into account and weighing up the challenges they entail.

Financing private education: impacts on equity

When evaluating an education system, it's not enough to simply consider how funding is provided and whether disadvantaged or diverse students are supported in mainstream or specialised settings. Other factors, such as the financing of private schools, can also impact equity in education. Research has shown

that in countries with a larger share of private funding, the family-background effect on equity is larger. This can be due to several reasons, such as more students attending private schools, more private schools existing, private schools being on average more expensive or parents investing more in other forms of private education (Eurydice, 2020^[124]). However, a higher share of private funding is likely to negatively correlate with equity in education, given that the ability to invest in private education is unequally distributed in society (ibid.).

The conditions that private schools must meet in order to receive public funding are also crucial for the equity and effectiveness of an education system. In particular, their role in school choice must be considered (OECD, 2017^[69]). Private schools' ability to select students and charge additional tuition fees can lead to concerns about both equity and educational quality (ibid.). Selective admission permits private schools to select high-ability students from the public sector, which can exacerbate student segregation and widen existing achievement gaps. This process can also harm public schools, as high-ability students may leave for private schools, depriving the public school system of vital resources (Boeskens, 2016^[125]).

School choice systems that allow private schools to demand significant parental contributions risk exacerbating socio-economic segregation across schools. Therefore, many countries that subsidise private providers place restrictions on their ability to charge add-on tuition fees (OECD, 2017^[69]). To mitigate risks to equity, education systems should establish common regulations on tuition and admission policies for all publicly funded providers and then monitor compliance.

Publicly funded private schools charging tuition fees, if not covered by vouchers, can also create barriers to exercising school choice and contribute to socio-economic segregation. To increase accessibility to private schooling options, some countries implement regulations to prevent subsidised private schools from charging fees that could constitute a barrier to entry (OECD, 2017^[69]). Finally, monitoring the effect of parental contributions to private providers on equity is necessary, especially when such contributions are meant to make up for discrepancies between funding of public and private providers. Any negative effect should trigger a careful consideration of the measure and an evaluation of how to address it through the modification of public subsidies.

Pointers for policy development in resourcing

- Leverage both main allocation mechanisms and targeted funding to foster equity and inclusion.
- Employ different types of resources and parameters to allocate them, to provide resources for diverse student groups, and to support policy priorities related to equity and inclusion.
- Strengthen the capacity of different administrative levels to support education and inclusion goals.

Building capacity to foster equity and inclusion

Supporting the learning and well-being of all students requires teachers to have strong theoretical knowledge of differentiated instruction and the skills to put this into practice. Without adequate learning opportunities throughout the teaching life-course, teachers often feel unprepared to address the diverse needs of students. That is why it is important to incorporate diversity, equity and inclusion within initial teacher education and continuous professional learning.

Preparing and supporting teachers to respond to increasing diversity and create equitable and inclusive learning environments

Efforts to promote equity and inclusion in education depend upon high-quality teachers who are adequately prepared and supported to respond to increasing diversity and create learning environments where all

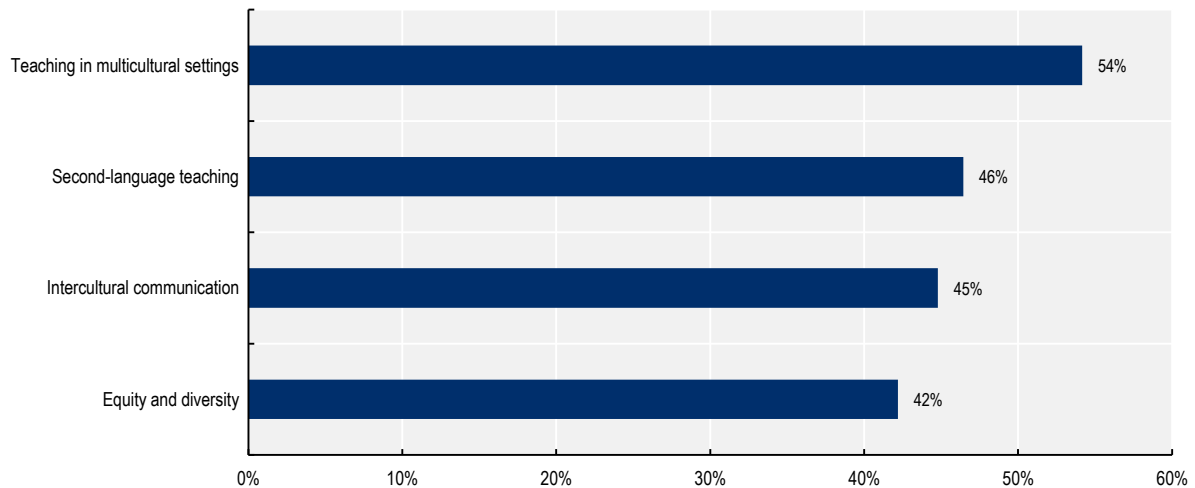
students can thrive (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). Teachers, as the predominant actors in setting the nature of the classroom environment, play a pivotal role in multiple dimensions of student well-being. While teacher quality has frequently and long been acknowledged as having a powerful impact on students' learning outcomes (OECD, 2022^[126]), teachers can also raise students' social and emotional skills (Blazar and Kraft, 2017^[127]; Jackson, 2018^[128]; OECD, 2022^[126]), and their dispositions and competences can influence students' engagement, drive and self-beliefs (Rutigliano and Quarshie, 2021^[103]). Teachers' practices have, for instance, been recognised as playing a role in reducing cognitive and socio-emotional gaps related to socio-economic status (OECD, 2018^[129]). Research further shows that teachers, and in particular their attitudes, will and training, have a profound influence on the educational development and psychological well-being of gifted students, playing a central role in their identification, support and monitoring (De Boer, Minnaert and Kamphof, 2013^[130]; Lassig, 2015^[131]; Plunkett and Kronborg, 2019^[132]; Polyzopoulou et al., 2014^[133]; Rutigliano and Quarshie, 2021^[103]). Similarly, teachers often play an important role in the recognition or identification and referral of various special education needs, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Brussino, 2020^[118]; Mezzanotte, 2020^[134]; Moldavsky et al., 2012^[135]). There is also evidence to indicate that teachers' perceptions, specifically their expectations regarding educational potential and attainment, can impact the learning outcomes of refugee students (Koehler, Palaiologou and Brussino, 2022^[136]).

In light of this, developing teachers' capacity to manage diversity and respond to all students' needs has been recognised as a key policy lever in advancing equity in education (OECD, 2018^[129]). Beyond being a central aspect in supporting all learners to achieve their educational potential, it is also crucial in fostering students' self-worth and sense of belonging to schools and communities (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]).

Despite increasing attention to equity and inclusion in education, there is still a significant need for more emphasis on diversity, equity and inclusion in teacher training across OECD countries. The most recent OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) revealed that only a minority of lower secondary teachers reported being trained in teaching in multicultural and multilingual settings as part of their initial teacher education or in professional learning activities in the previous 12 months. Additionally, data from TALIS 2018 showed that most lower secondary teachers did not feel well-prepared for teaching in multicultural or multilingual classrooms, which is concerning given that a significant percentage of teachers worked in culturally or linguistically diverse schools. These findings were reflected in the OECD PISA 2018 survey, which showed that over half of the students attended schools where teachers expressed a need for training in teaching in multicultural or multilingual settings (Figure 10). However, research indicates that teacher training and professional learning focused on diversity and inclusion can help teachers feel more confident in teaching effectively in diverse classrooms and improve their teaching practices (OECD, 2022^[137]). Evidence also shows that gifted education programmes, from identification and assessment of students to differentiation and other pedagogical strategies, are more effectively implemented by teachers who have undertaken specialist studies in gifted education (Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation, 2019^[138]; Rutigliano and Quarshie, 2021^[103]). Dedicated training courses have also been positively associated with improved teacher understanding of, and greater confidence in teaching content related to, LGBTQI+ issues (Greytak, Kosciw and Boesen, 2013^[139]; Greytak and Kosciw, 2010^[140]; Kearns, Mitton-Kukner and Tompkins, 2014^[141]; McBrien, Rutigliano and Sticca, 2022^[142]).

Figure 10. Teachers' needs for training on diversity, equity and inclusion (PISA 2018)

Percentage of 15-year-old students attending a school where their teachers report a need for training on the following (on average across OECD countries)



Source: OECD (2020^[143]), PISA 2018 Results (Volume VI): Are Students Ready to Thrive in an Interconnected World?, Table VI.B1.7.15, <https://doi.org/10.1787/d5f68679-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/ka1gcd>

Strengthening the incorporation of topics related to diversity and inclusion in initial teacher education

Many education systems across the OECD have integrated equity, inclusion and diversity content into their Initial Teacher Education (ITE) curricula. For instance, ad hoc courses on diversity, equity and inclusion, such as multicultural education and urban education, have been increasingly integrated into ITE curricula in various states in the United States, alongside community-based activities in diverse school settings (Brussino, 2021^[144]; Mule, 2010^[145]; Yuan, 2017^[146]). In some European countries, standalone courses related to diversity, equity and inclusion can also be found in the curricula of ITE programmes (Brussino, 2021^[144]; European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture, 2017^[147]). Additionally, training on teaching in diverse settings has been incorporated into ITE curricula through specific practical activities and programmes that encourage prospective teachers to reflect on their worldviews or biases critically.

Incorporating hands-on classroom experience in ITE is crucial in preparing prospective teachers for classroom diversity, as it allows practical experience with classroom dynamics, connects pedagogical theories to classroom practices and helps anticipate challenges they might face in schools (Brussino, 2021^[144]; Musset, 2010^[148]; OECD, 2019^[149]; European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture, 2017^[147]). Practical experiences in diverse environments can positively impact student teachers, supporting the acquisition of knowledge and competencies relating to diversity, equity and inclusion in education (European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture, 2017^[147]). Structured field experiences have been recognised as helping to foster prospective teachers' cultural awareness, especially when combined with opportunities for meaningful reflection (Acquah and Commins, 2017^[150]). Some ITE programmes have integrated cultural immersion programmes that allow pre-service teachers to develop their skills in teaching students from different ethnic and cultural

backgrounds. These programmes have highlighted positive impacts in terms of shifts in pre-service teachers' consciousness and perspectives, their appreciation for other cultures, and their awareness of global and domestic diversity (Cerna et al., 2019^[151]).

Competence frameworks and teacher standards can influence the content taught in ITE, and incorporating diversity and inclusion into them can equip prospective teachers with the necessary competencies to respond to the needs of diverse learners before entering the classroom. The Teachers' Standards in England (United Kingdom) and the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers are examples of such frameworks that require prospective teachers to have a solid understanding of diversity and inclusion in the classroom and to be prepared to address diverse students' needs and learning styles through differentiated instruction (AITSL, 2011^[152]; Department for Education, 2021^[153]; OECD, 2017^[154]; OECD, 2022^[155]; Révai, 2018^[156]).

Fostering equitable and inclusive teaching through continuous professional learning

Formal continuous professional learning opportunities to promote diversity, equity and inclusion for teachers and school staff can be found in various forms, including seminars, courses, workshops, conferences and online training (Brussino, 2021^[144]). These programmes are delivered by various actors, including government institutions, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and external private providers. In Italy, teachers attend in-service training on teaching students with SEN, while in New Zealand, the *Te Ahu o te Reo Māori* programme is available to develop teachers' competencies in Indigenous language and culture (Brussino, 2021^[144]; European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2021^[157]; Kral et al., 2021^[158]). Several OECD education systems offer online training courses, such as the English (United Kingdom) government's online portal that provides access to professional learning material for teaching students with SEN (Brussino, 2020^[118]; United Kingdom Department for Education, 2014^[159]). NGOs also play a key role in delivering continuous professional learning to support diverse groups' needs, such as gifted learners, LGBTQI+ individuals and refugee students.

To ensure equitable and inclusive teaching, it is crucial to remove barriers that hinder teachers from engaging in continuous professional learning (OECD, 2022^[155]). Providing dedicated time and financial support are two essential aspects of promoting participation (OECD, 2022^[155]; OECD, 2022^[137]). For instance, teachers in the French Community of Belgium are entitled to six half-days per year for continuous professional learning, while teachers in Victoria, Australia, get four dedicated days (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2021^[160]; OECD, 2022^[155]). Various OECD education systems have also implemented school-wide professional learning days (OECD, 2022^[155]).

Collaborative continuous professional learning initiatives are being implemented in some OECD education systems to prepare and support teachers in fostering equitable and inclusive learning environments (Brussino, 2021^[144]). Alberta and Ontario in Canada are two examples of education systems where in-school collaboration is promoted and implemented through various activities (OECD, 2023^[161]). Professional learning communities can support the development of teachers' knowledge and competencies to address and support all students' needs by providing informal environments for mutual learning and reflection (Alhanachi, de Meijer and Severiens, 2021^[162]; Brussino, 2021^[144]; Lardner, 2003^[163]).

Collaborative teaching is another professional learning strategy that can help teachers address and serve diverse students' needs. It can involve general education teachers working in tandem with special education teachers to plan lessons and teach or evaluate student progress while holding all students to the same educational standards (Morin, n.d.^[164]; Varsik and Gorochovskij, Forthcoming^[165]). Dedicated advisory or support workers can provide valuable support and guidance to teachers and school leaders in supporting the learning and well-being of students with diverse needs (Mezzanotte, 2020^[134]).

Designing and implementing teacher evaluation for equitable and inclusive teaching

Effective teacher evaluation processes can play a critical role in preparing and supporting teachers to address the needs of diverse learners and promote equity and inclusion in education. However, there is currently a lack of frameworks for teacher evaluation in relation to diversity, equity and inclusion in many education systems across the OECD (Brussino, 2021^[144]). To improve teacher evaluation processes, clear and well-structured teaching standards can serve as a powerful mechanism to define good teaching, and align the various elements in developing teachers' knowledge and skills (OECD, 2005^[166]). Incorporating competencies and knowledge related to diversity, equity and inclusion into teaching standards is crucial to ensure that teacher evaluations are more effective in preparing and supporting teachers for inclusive teaching.

Peer observation and post-observation feedback can be effective in improving teachers' teaching practices, especially in supporting the development of equitable and inclusive teaching strategies among teachers (Brussino, 2021^[144]; Hendry, Bell and Thomson, 2014^[167]). Despite growing interest in peer observation, it is not yet a mainstream practice across OECD countries (Brussino, 2021^[144]). However, some education systems, such as Australia and Canada, have policies and practices in place to promote peer observation, which can help facilitate further development and implementation of peer observation processes among teachers (OECD, 2023^[161]).

One significant issue that needs addressing in teacher evaluation is the bias against diverse teacher groups and those working in disadvantaged schools. Research indicates that such groups tend to score disproportionately lower in teacher evaluations, suggesting that rater or evaluator bias plays a role (Bailey et al., 2016^[168]). Evaluator bias can be influenced by stereotypes, preconceptions and socio-economic factors that impact students' academic performance (Milanowski, 2017^[169]). Tying teacher performance ratings to student performance can also discriminate against teachers working in disadvantaged schools, resulting in a further lack of diversity and inclusivity in the teacher workforce (Brussino, 2021^[144]; Newton et al., 2010^[170]). To address this issue, teacher evaluators need to be trained to recognise and address conscious and unconscious bias in the classroom. The National System for Performance Evaluation in Chile, for instance, takes into account the characteristics of the school in determining financial rewards for teachers, ensuring greater fairness (Brussino, 2021^[144]; Santiago et al., 2017^[171]). Overall, the evaluation process needs to be adjusted to ensure that it is fair and equitable for all teachers, regardless of their background and the students they teach.

Recruiting and retaining teachers from diverse backgrounds

Having a diverse teaching staff is a crucial way to promote equity and inclusion, particularly in schools with increasingly diverse student populations (Brussino, 2020^[118]; Brussino, 2021^[144]). Research has shown that teacher diversity has positive impacts on various dimensions of student well-being, including academic performance and socio-emotional outcomes, for both diverse students and the student body as a whole (Brussino, 2021^[144]). For instance, Black teacher-student congruence has been shown to have a positive impact on reading and math performance, especially for lower-performing students, while having teachers with an immigrant background can improve academic outcomes and boost the overall performance of immigrant students (Carver-Thomas, 2018^[172]; Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond, 2017^[173]; Clotfelter, Ladd and Vigdor, 2007^[174]; Egalite, Kisida and Winters, 2015^[175]; Gershenson et al., 2022^[176]; OECD, 2022^[137]). Teachers from diverse backgrounds can also serve as role models and help students feel a sense of belonging. For example, teachers with disabilities can be important role models for students with SEN, while Indigenous school staff can help create a sense of belonging among Indigenous students (Brussino, 2020^[118]; Ferri, Keefe and Gregg, 2001^[177]; OECD, 2017^[154]). LGBTQ+ teachers can support and create a more accepting school climate for LGBTQ+ students (Kosciw et al., 2018^[178]). Teacher diversity can also help identify the needs of diverse students and reduce referral rates of ethnic minority students to gifted programmes.

Building capacity among school leaders to promote equity and inclusion

School leaders are key actors in shaping the ethos of schools and in ensuring that policies and legislation for equity and inclusion in education are carried into effect through practices tailored to the local context of the school and community (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]; European Agency for Special Education Needs and Inclusive Education, 2021^[179]; OECD, 2017^[154]). From an equity perspective, school leadership has been recognised as an important factor in influencing student learning outcomes (OECD, 2022^[126]), and the starting point for improving student achievement in disadvantaged schools (OECD, 2012^[180]). School leadership also plays a crucial role in the development and implementation of inclusive instructional programme, as well as in creating collaborative school environments that promote inclusive teaching practices and serve the needs of all students (Brussino, 2021^[144]; European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2020^[181]; UNESCO, 2020^[182]; OECD, 2022^[155]). Indeed, an international literature review found that schools with inclusive cultures tended to have leaders who were “committed to inclusive values and to a leadership style that encourages a range of individuals to participate in leadership functions” (Ainscow and Sandill, 2010, p. 405^[183]).

Particular forms of leadership have been recognised as being effective in promoting equity and inclusion in schools through facilitating “more powerful forms of teaching and learning, creating strong communities of students, teachers and parents, and nurturing educational cultures among families” (Ainscow and Sandill, 2010, p. 406^[183]). The Supporting Inclusive School Leadership project developed by the European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education identified three core functions of “inclusive school leadership” (setting direction, organisational development and human development) (European Agency for Special Education Needs and Inclusive Education, 2021^[179]; European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2018^[184]). These core functions translate into a number of specific roles and responsibilities at the individual, school, community and system levels. These are set out in Table 4.

Table 4. School leadership roles and responsibilities to promote equity and inclusion

Individual level	School level	Community level	System level
Support innovative and evidence-based pedagogies and practices in the classroom	Guide and influence the organisation of school resources in ways that promote equity	Build partnerships with support agencies and other schools in the community	Influence the development of system-level policies on equity and inclusion in education through consultation and communication
Monitor classroom practices	Engage the school community in self-review processes and reflect on data to inform on-going school improvement	Build school capacity to respond to diversity through research engagement and collaborative professional development activities (for example, with universities)	Translate and implement policies in ways appropriate to the particular school context, and manage school-level change relating to curriculum and assessment frameworks, professional development, funding and resource allocation, and quality analysis and accountability
Develop a culture of collaboration through promoting positive and trusting relationships	Provide and facilitate professional learning opportunities for school staff	Foster a sense of commitment to a shared vision of inclusion	
Use data to inform teachers' on-going professional learning	Ensure the curriculum and student assessment processes meet the needs of all learners	Manage financial resources to meet the needs of the whole school community	
Promote learner-centred teaching practices	Ensure that both staff and learners feel supported		
	Actively engage all families		

Source: Adapted from European Agency for Special Education Needs and Inclusive Education (2021^[179]), Supporting Inclusive School Leadership: Policy Messages, <https://www.european-agency.org/sites/default/files/SISL%20Policy%20Messages-EN.pdf> (accessed 16 December 2022).

Raising awareness of diversity in education among stakeholders

Teachers and school leaders are crucial in shaping the classroom environment, but other stakeholders' attitudes and perceptions also contribute to the learning and well-being of all students. Students' beliefs and worldviews are influenced by what they are exposed to in their homes and communities, making it essential to raise awareness of diversity among parents, guardians and community members. Discriminatory attitudes and stereotypical beliefs can negatively impact diverse students and hinder efforts for equity and inclusion in education. Awareness-raising is key to addressing negative attitudes and stereotypes that marginalise persons with disabilities, refugees, LGBTQI+ students and others. Parents, guardians and community members can play a vital role in supporting inclusive education policies and practices (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation; Global Education Monitoring Report; IGLYO, 2021^[185]). Building awareness of diversity in society is foundational in advancing equity and inclusion in education, complementing continuous professional learning and promoting teachers' receptivity to equitable and inclusive approaches (Brussino, 2020^[118]). Similarly, awareness-raising among school leaders is key to fostering an inclusive and collaborative school environment (Neca, Borges and Pinto, 2020^[186]).

Pointers for policy development in capacity-building

- Embed equity and inclusion as cross-cutting themes into ITE curricula.
- Provide opportunities for teachers to continue developing knowledge and competences for equitable and inclusive teaching throughout their career.
- Promote greater diversity in the teaching workforce by considering targeted measures to attract more diverse candidates into ITE.
- Support the retention of diverse teachers through teacher mentoring and professional support networks.
- Promote values of respect and understanding among students to create an inclusive environment.
- Raise awareness of diversity among different stakeholders to build support for equitable and inclusive education policies and practices.

Promoting equity and inclusion through school-level interventions

Education systems' policies can create an equitable and inclusive framework for education settings, but their implementation at the school level is what determines students' daily experiences in classrooms. It is in schools that policies take the form of specific resources, teaching practices, and instructional and non-instructional support mechanisms. Numerous interventions and adaptations at the school level (including matching resources within schools to individual student learning needs; providing learning strategies to address diversity; offering non-instructional support and services; and engaging with parents and communities) are needed to promote equity among and the inclusion of all students.

Adapting teaching formats

There are a variety of ways in which teaching formats can be adapted to provide targeted support to learners. Two main approaches to providing teaching and support assistance are one-to-one tuition and small group interventions, which are often employed to support the learning of students with SEN (Brussino, 2020^[118]). One-to-one instruction involves intensive individual education provision supported by a specialised teacher or a teaching assistant inside or outside of mainstream classes. In this format, students are encouraged to learn at their own pace with fewer time constraints and less pressure than may

exist in group environments (Grasha, 2002^[187]). In addition, one-to-one tuition does not stimulate competition with other students; this, for many, represents a positive aspect of such an approach. There are several advantages and disadvantages to be considered when designing and implementing teaching formats for students with SEN, as summarised in Table 5.

Table 5. Advantages and disadvantages of one-to-one and small group tuition

	Advantages	Disadvantages
One-to-one tuition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual support by specialised teachers • Fewer time constraints, pressure and anxiety • Lack of competition with other students can be perceived as a positive aspect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risks of marginalisation and exhaustion, lack of encouragement • Risks of not ensuring enough individual and independent learning time to the student without support by teacher • Lack of peer learning • Can be relatively expensive
Small-group approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased communication between teacher and students compared to standard learning in mainstream classes • Easier tailoring of learning and activities to individual students' learning pace than in mainstream learning • Promotes more active learning, peer learning and socialisation among students compared to one-to-one approach • Allows students to check and clarify notions learnt and promotes deep rather than surface learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Might create pressure and anxiety for students who are not prone to be active participants in small-group interactions • Challenges if teachers are used to teacher-centred strategies as small-group tuition entails student-centred strategies • Often requires additional investments and resources to provide adequate staff and teaching rooms

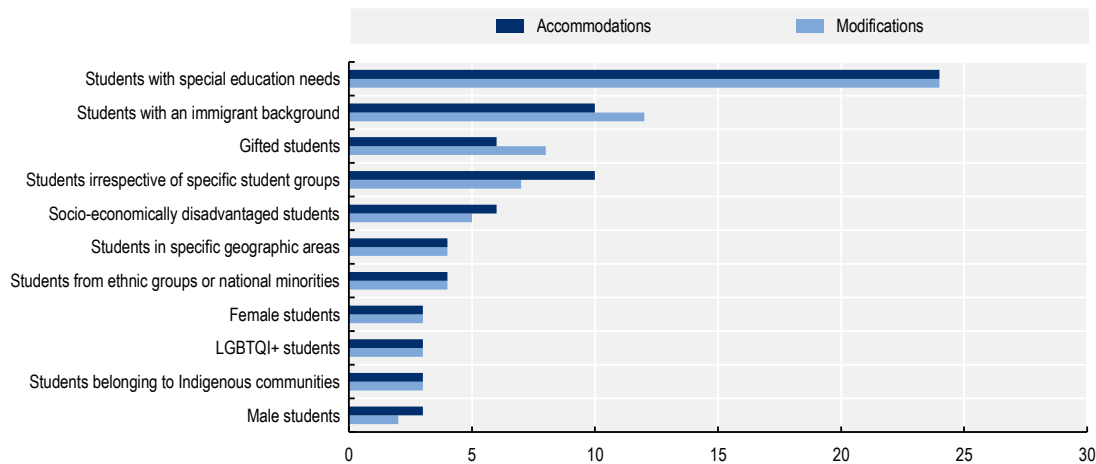
Source: Adapted from Brussino (2020^[118]), Mapping policy approaches and practices for the inclusion of students with special education needs, OECD Education Working Papers, No. 227, <https://doi.org/10.1787/600fbad5-en>.

Adapting the curriculum

A key tool in adapting the curriculum is the development of individualised plans. Individual Education Plans generally provide for or facilitate two main types of adjustments: accommodations and modifications. **Accommodations** refer to changes that facilitate how students learn, while **modifications** relate to changes in what students learn. Accommodations can include adjustments to teaching strategies, changes to the physical environment of the classroom or school, and modifications to assessment methods. Accommodations are most effective when tailored to the specific needs of the student. Modifications involve actual changes to the curriculum or assignments to make it easier for students to stay on track. According to the Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022, 24 education systems reported providing accommodations and modifications for students with SEN (Figure 11). While some systems offer accommodations and modifications exclusively to students with SEN, others provide them to other groups, such as students with an immigrant background, gifted students and socio-economically disadvantaged students.

Figure 11. Accommodations and modifications

Number of education systems reporting they require teachers at ISCED 2 level to provide accommodations and modifications to different student groups



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question "Does the education policy framework in your jurisdiction require teachers at ISCED 2 level to provide diverse students with any of the following?". Thirty-two education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems that require the provision of modifications.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/aqi265>

Frameworks for inclusive learning

Advancing inclusion and equity requires learning and teaching to be adapted to students, rather than expecting students to adapt to traditional learning and teaching practices. The Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is a tool that can be used to support teachers and education stakeholders in designing and implementing inclusive teaching through pedagogies, curricula and assessments. The UDL aims to dismantle barriers to participation and learning for all learning by centring learner variability in curriculum development (Waitoller and King Thorius, 2016^[188]; Rose and Meyer, 2002^[189]).

The UDL is particularly helpful in increasingly diverse classrooms, as it provides for the flexibility necessary to support diverse learning needs and styles (Brussino, 2021^[144]). Through its focus on providing students with different means to interact with learning material and adapting information to students (rather than asking students to adapt to the information), the UDL can help schools better accommodate students' needs and learning in diverse classrooms (CAST, 2018^[190]).

Universal Design for Learning Guidelines have been developed for teachers and other education stakeholders to implement the UDL framework. These guidelines provide practical suggestions to develop inclusive teaching and learning strategies that can promote the well-being of all students (Table 6).

Table 6. Universal Design for Learning Guidelines

Provide multiple means of engagement	Provide multiple means of representation	Provide multiple means of action and expression
Provide options for recruiting interest: Optimise individual choice and autonomy Optimise relevance, value and authenticity Minimise threats and distractions	Provide options for perception: Offer ways of customising the display of information Offer alternatives for auditory information Offer alternatives for visual information	Provide options for physical action: Vary the methods for response and navigation Optimise access to tools and assistive technologies
Provide options for sustaining effort and persistence: Heighten salience of goals and objectives Vary demands and resources to optimise challenge Foster collaboration and community Increase mastery-oriented feedback	Provide options for language and symbols: Clarify vocabulary and symbols Clarify syntax and structure Support decoding of text, mathematical notation and symbols Promote understanding across languages Illustrate through multiple media	Provide options for expression and communication: Use multiple media for communication Use multiple tools for construction and composition Build fluencies with graduated levels of support for practice and performance
Provide options for self-regulation: Promote expectations and beliefs that optimise motivation Facilitate personal coping skills and strategies Develop self-assessment and reflection	Provide options for comprehension: Activate or supply background knowledge Highlight patterns, critical features, big ideas and relationships Guide information processing and visualisation Maximise transfer and generalisation	Provide options for executive functions: Guide appropriate goal-setting Supporting planning and strategy development Facilitate managing information and resources Enhance capacity for monitoring progress

Source: Brussino (2021_[144]), adapted from CAST (2018_[190]), Universal Design for Learning Guidelines, <http://udlguidelines.cast.org> (accessed 15 October 2020).

Ensuring equitable and inclusive assessment practices

There is a large body of research showing that the type of assessment can have a strong impact on student learning outcomes (OECD, 2013_[108]). Evidence on different approaches indicates that assessment may support or diminish student motivation and performance depending on the way it is designed, implemented and used. Assessments that are not well designed and implemented can contribute to alienating students (and teachers) from the education system and exacerbate inequity in education. By contrast, carefully planned assessment interventions that are well aligned with learning goals and that place students at the centre of the process can raise achievement and reduce disparities (ibid.).

Assessments should allow all students to show what they have learned and understood, without being disadvantaged by individual characteristics that are irrelevant to what is being assessed (Binkley et al., 2010_[191]; Abd Razak and Lamola, 2019_[192]). Assessment therefore needs to be appropriate for students at different developmental levels, and sensitive to the needs of particular groups, such as ethnic minorities, non-native speakers and students with SEN (OECD, 2013_[108]). To ensure fairness in assessment for all students, it is important to develop frameworks for equitable assessment for the wide range of different student groups without privileging one group over another (ibid.). The development of a broad framework for equity in assessment for all students requires central guidelines for orientation and coherence across educational settings, but it should at the same time allow for flexibility and adaptability of practices at the local and school level (ibid.).

Non-instructional support and services

Supporting all learners to achieve their educational potential and in fostering a sense of belonging depends not only on teachers and school leaders, but also on the availability of non-instructional support and services at the school (Cerna et al., 2019_[151]). School counsellors and psychologists can, for instance, play an important role in supporting and promoting the well-being of students from diverse backgrounds. In addition, social and emotional learning programmes and trauma-informed teaching strategies can help

address the needs of students who may have experienced trauma or who may otherwise need particular social and emotional support (Cerna, 2019^[193]; McBrien, 2022^[194]; Sullivan and Simonson, 2016^[195]). Other therapeutic services, such as physiotherapy and mental health support, may also be beneficial for certain students, in particular those with physical impairments.

In addition, career and educational guidance can help ensure all students have equal opportunities to succeed and contribute to improved educational and employment outcomes (Cerna et al., 2021^[111]). Tutoring and/or mentoring programmes can further serve as a means of supporting diverse or marginalised students to achieve their educational potential and feel a sense of belonging in schools.

Engagement with parents or guardians and communities

Promoting an inclusive school climate that supports all learners in achieving their educational potential involves all members of the school community, including school staff, students, parents and family members, agencies that engage with the school, and members of the broader community (Cerna et al., 2019^[151]). Research has shown that the involvement of parents or guardians and communities in the learning of their children plays a pivotal role in students' educational achievement and broader well-being (OECD, 2019^[196]; Rutigliano and Quarshie, 2021^[103]). Engaging local communities, parents or guardians and families is therefore important for schools who seek to create inclusive and equitable school environments (Cerna et al., 2021^[111]). The participation and involvement of parents or guardians and the broader community can be promoted through school governance structures and initiatives, and mechanisms that relate to fostering a positive school climate. This is key in ensuring horizontal accountability in assessing the extent to which schools are equitable and inclusive, greater responsiveness to the diverse needs and priorities of communities served by the school, and the development of joint strategies to create a school environment that supports all learners in achieving their educational potential and fosters a sense of belonging (Cerna et al., 2021^[111]).

Pointers for policy development in school-level interventions

- Ensure that teachers adopt a variety of teaching formats and delivery methods to address the learning needs of all students.
- Provide appropriate support measures and tools to accommodate diverse student needs.
- Ensure student assessments are designed and implemented equitably and inclusively.
- Leverage the provision of non-instructional services to foster students' well-being.
- Implement strategies to engage parents and communities.

Monitoring and evaluating equity and inclusion in education

Monitoring and evaluation can play a fundamental role in ensuring that an education system is not only introducing policies to improve equity and inclusion but also implementing them and achieving its objectives. As such, it is important that education systems monitor progress in improving equity and inclusion in education, and evaluate policies, programmes and processes to promote equity and inclusion in education.

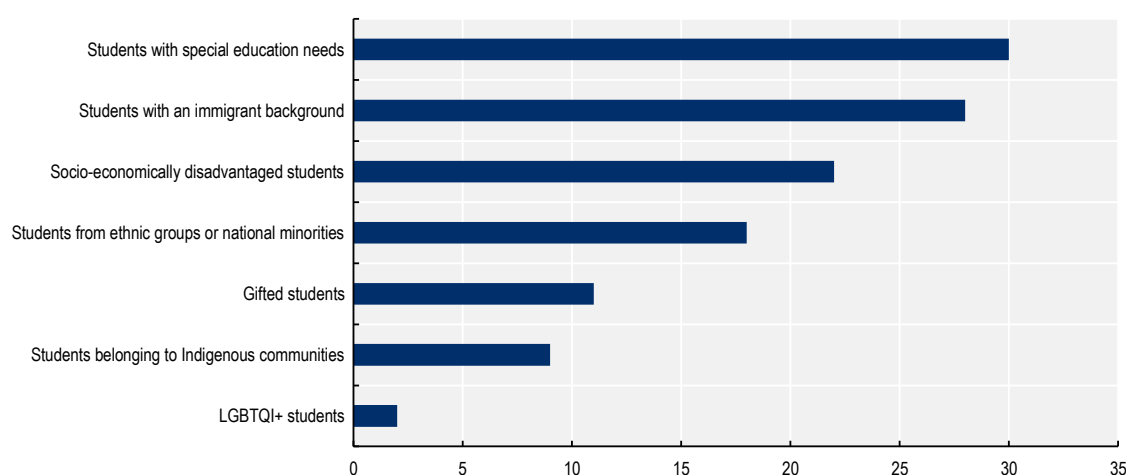
Monitoring progress in improving equity and inclusion in education

The evaluation of the progress towards reaching inclusion and equity goals cannot happen without robust data collections that monitor the access, participation and achievement of all learners. This can include monitoring across specific groups as well as various student outcomes. The Strength through Diversity

Policy Survey 2022 indicates that a range of student groups are included in the national data collections of education systems across the OECD. Thirty education systems reported collecting data on students with SEN, 28 systems on students with an immigrant background, 22 on socio-economically disadvantaged students, 18 on students from certain ethnic groups or national minorities, 11 on gifted students and nine on students belonging to Indigenous communities. Only Canada and Chile collected data on LGBTQI+ students (Figure 12).

Figure 12. Data collections on diversity (2022)


Number of education systems that collect data on the following groups (ISCED 2)



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question "Does a national (or sub-national) authority collect data on these groups of students at ISCED 2 level?". Thirty-one education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems.

Source: OECD (2022^[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/4le65c>

Some dimensions of diversity (namely, giftedness, sexual orientation and gender identity) are underrepresented in data collections, as is acknowledged in international research (McBrien, Rutigliano and Sticca, 2022^[142]; Rutigliano and Quarshie, 2021^[103]). There are a range of reasons why data for particular dimensions of diversity may not be collected at the national (or sub-national) level. Legislative frameworks in some countries may not allow for the collection of some characteristics (e.g., sexual orientation) due to the private and sensitive nature of such data. Some education systems, such as Portugal, do not categorise students based on their characteristics but instead focus on the support measures they require. Other education systems adopt colour-blind policies whereby data on certain characteristics, such as ethnic background, are prohibited to be collected by law.

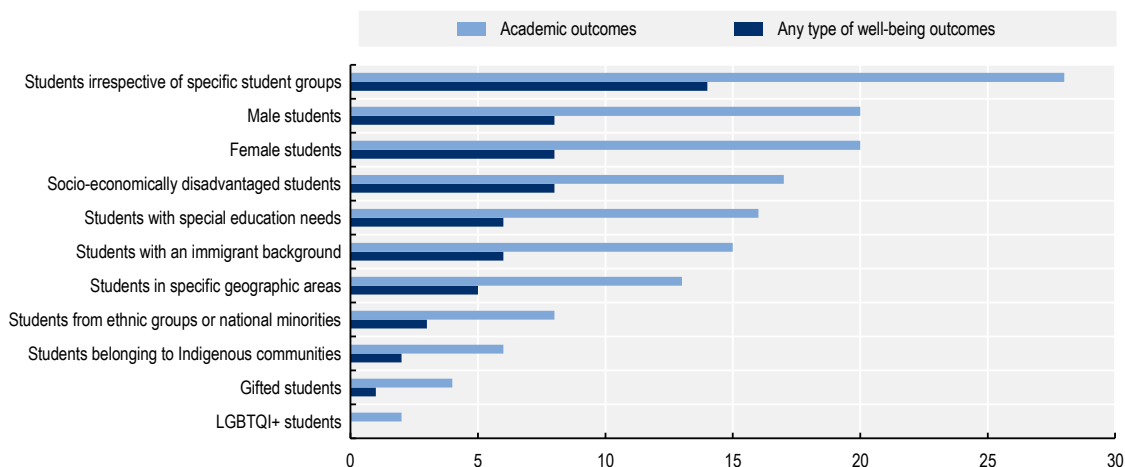
The lives and experiences of students are shaped by a range of factors. Apart from learning, students also spend a considerable time at school socialising with their peers and interacting with school staff. Academic outcomes are only one aspect of the overall school experience, and it is important to understand how happy and satisfied students are with different aspects of their life, how connected they are to others and whether they enjoy good physical and mental health (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). This understanding can be developed through collecting data on a range of student well-being outcomes, including academic, psychological, physical, social and material (ibid.). These dimensions are key ingredients of the concurrent

well-being of individuals and contribute to their personal development in the short-, medium- and long-term (ibid.).

Data collections on students' academic and well-being outcomes can be highly informative. Education systems most commonly reported collecting data on students' academic and well-being outcomes irrespective of specific groups (Figure 13). The diversity dimensions most common in group-focused data collections were gender, socio-economic and immigrant background, SEN, and location in specific geographic areas. Only eight and three education systems collected academic and well-being data respectively, for students from ethnic groups or national minorities. Six and two systems collected academic and well-being data respectively on students belonging to Indigenous communities, and data collections on gifted and LGBTQI+ students were even rarer. For all student groups, data on any type of well-being outcomes were collected considerably less often than data on academic outcomes.

Figure 13. Data collections on academic and well-being outcomes (2022)


Number of education systems that collect data at least once during ISCED 2 on the following groups



Note: This figure is based on answers to the question "Which dimensions of student outcomes are nationally (or sub-nationally) collected at least once during ISCED 2 level?". Thirty-one education systems responded to this question. Response options were not mutually exclusive. Any type of well-being outcomes can include one or more of the following: psychological well-being outcomes, social well-being outcomes, material well-being outcomes, physical well-being outcomes, well-being outcomes in general.

Options selected have been ranked in descending order of the number of education systems that selected any type of well-being outcomes.

Source: OECD (2022_[68]), Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/zuyf6h>

Use of monitoring results

Education systems use several approaches to utilise and publish the results of their data collections. These can include the production of an annual statistical report, a governmental report on the state of education, reports by specific evaluation agencies, summary reports on results from national assessments, national audit reports on the education sector or part of it, and various reports by sub-national educational jurisdictions (OECD, 2013_[108]). Countries often use a combination of the formats that vary in design and content significantly (ibid.).

Apart from products delivered in written formats, education systems heighten the accessibility and use of education evaluation results by publishing them in the form of databases and dashboards for a wide range of stakeholders, including the general public. In the United States, for instance, data from the National

Assessment of Educational Progress are summarised in dashboards that disaggregate data, including student learning outcomes, by geographic location, gender, ethnic background and socio-economic background (e.g., parental education level and National School Lunch programme eligibility) (The Nation's Report Card, 2022^[197]). The Czech School Inspectorate designed a dashboard that portrays various indicators in a map, such as the number of students by various typologies of SEN (Czech School Inspectorate, 2022^[198]). Data can also be visualised by non-public organisations. Prokop Analysis and Quantitative Research (PAQ Research) in the Czech Republic, for example, uses mapping tools to illustrate a wide range of indicators that can cause educational inequities at the regional level, including the number of children in housing needs, the number of children in inadequate or overcrowded dwellings, resourcing per student, early school leaving indicators, grade repetition and many others (PAQ Research, 2022^[199]). Data can also be downloaded in user-editable formats for further analyses.

Evaluating policies, programmes and processes to improve equity and inclusion in education

Evaluation can inform policy development, curriculum, planning, reporting, resource allocation decisions and performance management and, in the context of limited resources, can be crucial in ensuring the highest value for money (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). Evaluation frameworks of policies and programmes in the area of equity and inclusion are shaped by the broader context of education policies as well as existing traditions, values and cultures. While the need for evaluation in the education sector is widely acknowledged, traditions and cultures in education shape the nature and significance of evaluation and assessment activities (OECD, 2013^[108]; OECD, 2022^[200]). As such, there are no common definitions and concepts of policy evaluation and practices across OECD countries vary (Golden, 2020^[201]).

Despite the fact that the evaluation of policies was among the identified priority areas of many education systems between 2008 and 2019, OECD reviews have continued to identify a possible absence or underdevelopment of system evaluation components, insufficient clarity in evaluation processes, possible gaps in data collections that could inform improvement and issues with quality (OECD, 2019^[196]). Across OECD countries, only about one in ten education reforms is followed by any attempt to evaluate its impact (OECD, 2015^[202]). Evaluations in the area of equity and inclusion are also rare. Researchers have identified a lack of programme evaluations for LGBTQI+ students, gifted students, and ethnic minorities and Indigenous populations (McBrien, Rutigliano and Sticca, 2022^[142]; OECD, 2017^[154]; Rutigliano, 2020^[101]).

Supporting schools in improving equity and inclusion practices through evaluation processes

Interventions to support equity and the inclusion of students are not only managed at the national level, but also at a local and school level. Individual school evaluations can be an important tool that assists with decision making, resource allocation and school improvement. The effective monitoring and evaluation of schools, including the aspects of equity and inclusion, are central to their improvement. Schools need feedback on their practices to identify areas for improvement.

The way in which school evaluations are designed and implemented can have important impacts on efforts to improve equity and inclusion (Cerna et al., 2021^[11]). On the one hand, effective systems need to be in place to ensure that local actions are being taken and that they are in line with national requirements (OECD, 2022^[137]). On the other hand, disproportionate blame for systemic educational problems on any actor can have serious negative side effects, widening inequality and damaging learning (UNESCO, 2017^[203]).

The evaluation at the school level can happen externally (e.g., by school inspectorates) and internally (self-evaluations). In 2018, internal as well as external evaluations were common across OECD countries. More than 94% and 76% of 15-year-old students attended schools whose leaders reported the existence of internal and external evaluations respectively in their schools (OECD, 2020^[204]). Individual country

practices, however, vary and there is no “one-size-fits-all” approach that would be applicable to all education systems.

The nature of feedback delivered by the evaluation bodies differs across education systems. In some education systems, development processes are encouraged through indirect feedback. In other systems, the evaluation focuses more on whether schools have met pre-defined criteria (Ehren, Perryman and Shackleton, 2014^[205]). Education systems can also focus specifically on the topics of equity and inclusion in their policy frameworks for school evaluations. In 2022, 11 out of 34 OECD education systems provided criteria for an assessment of equity and inclusion in their policy frameworks for school evaluation (the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain and Türkiye) (OECD, 2022^[68]).

Whether school evaluation leads to improved progress towards equity and inclusion depends on numerous factors. It is important to consider that school evaluation impacts each school differently and various conditions determine whether and to what extent schools accept and act on the results from the analyses (OECD, 2013^[108]).

Pointers for policy development in monitoring and evaluation

- Design monitoring systems that assess progress towards equity and inclusion.
- Consider monitoring equity and inclusion in education in a comprehensive strategy.
- Leverage evaluations to identify policies, programmes and processes that best address the needs of students.
- Ensure school evaluations can be used for improvements in equity and inclusion.

The six key steps to equity and inclusion in education

There is not a single pathway that all education systems should follow towards equity and inclusion. The journey and challenges for each education system will be different, shaped by their unique histories, cultures and population demographics. While the appropriate policy interventions for advancing equity and inclusion will depend on the individual context, some general lessons and core elements to be incorporated in the development of education reforms can be highlighted. This section discusses the key steps that are universally relevant for education systems striving towards equity and inclusion. These steps should be undertaken in parallel, reflecting the fact that advancing equity and inclusion in education requires a holistic approach involving different policy areas.

Develop a policy framework on equity and inclusion and embed it in all areas of education policy

A comprehensive policy framework is needed to develop an equitable and inclusive education system. This framework should connect key areas for equity and inclusion, including the design of curricula, teaching practices, capacity building of teaching staff and monitoring of student outcomes. In addition to assessing and understanding the needs of students and school staff, policy frameworks should also consider intersectionality, and highlight how student characteristics and experiences are shaped by their environment and social contexts. Policy frameworks can ensure that progress towards equity and inclusion is continuously monitored and evaluated by embedding monitoring and evaluation systems with clearly stated goals and priorities.

Ensure that the education system is flexible and responsive to the needs of students

Increased classroom diversity due to demographic trends and social changes requires education systems to be responsive and flexible, adopting equity and inclusion strategies as their guiding principles. Flexibility should be present in different education policy areas such as study pathways, school choice, curriculum and teaching strategies. Offering students a variety of educational pathways and parallel programmes can help ensure an educational provision that matches each student's needs, interests and potential. The practices that teachers adopt in the classroom also play an essential role in their student's learning. Different pedagogies can support teachers in adapting to diverse needs and supporting all students. Overall, an education system that promotes equity and fosters inclusion among its students should be responsive and flexible.

Include equity and inclusion as principles of both main resource allocation mechanisms and targeted funding of the education system

How funding is allocated to schools and students can impact equity and inclusiveness of an education system. Both targeted funding and main allocation mechanisms can be used to achieve these goals, but each has different risks and benefits. Targeted funding can be useful in directing resources towards specific groups or issues but may result in a lack of coordination and inefficiencies. Main allocation mechanisms can streamline the resourcing system but may lack accountability measures. Education systems should carefully leverage both funding systems to foster equity and inclusion, considering the challenges they entail.

Engage all relevant stakeholders and strengthen coordination across the education system

Stakeholder engagement is essential for promoting equity and inclusion in education, and should involve a range of actors, including teacher unions, local authorities, parents and organisations representing specific groups. Stakeholders should be involved in the policy cycle from policy development to implementation and evaluation, and their feedback should be taken into account to identify and address challenges. Engaging stakeholders at the school level is also important in creating a positive school climate that supports all learners. Finally, raising awareness of diversity is crucial to promote acceptance and inclusion and mitigate stereotypical or discriminatory beliefs that may impact diverse students.

Prepare and train teachers and school leaders in the area of equity and inclusion

Teaching in diverse classrooms requires teachers to possess various competencies, knowledge and attitudes to create equitable and inclusive learning environments. Teachers should have theoretical knowledge of differentiated instruction and skills to practice it. Education systems must prepare and support teachers to promote equity and inclusion through initial teacher education and continuous professional learning. Diversity among teachers can promote more equitable and inclusive classroom environments. School leaders also play a crucial role in facilitating equitable and inclusive teaching and creating a positive school climate.

Identify students' needs, support them and monitor their progress

Identifying the specific needs of students is essential to promote equity and inclusion. Diagnostic assessments are typically used to identify students who are at risk of failure and evaluate their learning needs, which are then addressed by providing tools such as Individual Education Plans, accommodations and modifications. Additionally, schools can provide psychological services and social and emotional learning programmes to support the well-being of diverse learners. The assessment of student progress

should also be designed to avoid bias and allow all students to show what they have learned using multiple assessment forms and techniques. The Universal Design for Learning is a useful tool that supports teachers in designing and implementing inclusive teaching.

References

- Abd Razak, N. and K. Lamola (2019), *Gender equity, equality and learning assessments: NEQMAP thematic review*, UNESCO Office Bangkok and Regional Bureau for Education in Asia and the Pacific; Network on Education Quality Monitoring in the Asia-Pacific, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000372300> (accessed on 15 August 2022). [192]
- Abt Associates (2016), *A Summary of the Evidence on Inclusive Education*, Abt Associates, <https://www.abtassociates.com/insights/publications/report/summary-of-the-evidence-on-inclusive-education#:~:text=After%20reviewing%20evidence%20from%20more,social%20development%20of%20those%20children.> (accessed on 30 May 2022). [73]
- Acquah, E. and N. Commins (2017), “Methods that matter in addressing cultural diversity with teacher candidates”, *Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol. 22/5, pp. 501-518, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2016.1273217>. [150]
- Ainscow, M. and A. Sandill (2010), “Developing inclusive education systems: the role of organisational cultures and leadership”, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, Vol. 14/4, pp. 401-416, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603110802504903>. [183]
- AITSL (2011), *Australian Professional Standards for Teachers*, <https://www.aitsl.edu.au/teach/standards> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [152]
- Alhanachi, S., L. de Meijer and S. Severiens (2021), “Improving culturally responsive teaching through professional learning communities: A qualitative study in Dutch pre-vocational schools”, *International Journal of Education Research*, Vol. 105, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2020.101698>. [162]
- Allport, G. (1954), *The nature of prejudice*, Addison-Wesley Publishing. [85]
- AuCoin, A., G. Porter and K. Baker-Korotkov (2020), “New Brunswick’s journey to inclusive education”, *PROSPECTS*, Vol. 49/3-4, pp. 313-328, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-020-09508-8>. [100]
- Autor, D. (2015), “Why Are There Still So Many Jobs? The History and Future of Workplace Automation”, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol. 29/3, pp. 3-30, <https://doi.org/10.1257/jep.29.3.3>. [24]

- Bailey, J. et al. (2016), *Teacher demographics and evaluation: A descriptive study in a large urban district*, U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Northeast & Islands, https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs/regions/northeast/pdf/REL_2017189.pdf (accessed on 9 June 2022). [168]
- Barros, V. et al. (eds.) (2014), *Asia*, Cambridge University Press. [55]
- Bassanini, A. and S. Scarpetta (2001), "Does Human Capital Matter for Growth in OECD Countries? Evidence from Pooled Mean-Group Estimates", *SSRN Electronic Journal*, <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.265364>. [90]
- Bauer, G. et al. (2021), "Intersectionality in quantitative research: A systematic review of its emergence and applications of theory and methods", *SSM - Population Health*, Vol. 14, p. 100798, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100798>. [114]
- Berger, T. and C. Frey (2016), "Structural Transformation in the OECD: Digitalisation, Deindustrialisation and the Future of Work", *OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers*, No. 193, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/5jlr068802f7-en>. [25]
- Binkley, M. et al. (2010), *Draft White Paper 1: Defining 21st century skills*, The University of Melbourne, https://oei.org.ar/ibertic/evaluacion/sites/default/files/biblioteca/24_defining-21st-century-skills.pdf (accessed on 11 August 2022). [191]
- Blazar, D. and M. Kraft (2017), "Teacher and teaching effects on students' attitudes and behaviors", *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, Vol. 39/1, pp. 146-170, <https://doi.org/10.3102/0162373716670260>. [127]
- Boeskens, L. (2016), "Regulating Publicly Funded Private Schools: A Literature Review on Equity and Effectiveness", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 147, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/5jln6jcg80r4-en>. [125]
- Breslau, J. et al. (2008), "Mental disorders and subsequent educational attainment in a US national sample", *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, Vol. 42/9, pp. 708-716, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2008.01.016>. [45]
- Brussino, O. (2021), *Building capacity for inclusive teaching*, OECD Publishing, <https://doi.org/10.1787/57fe6a38-en>. [144]
- Brussino, O. (2020), "Mapping policy approaches and practices for the inclusion of students with special education needs", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 227, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/600fbad5-en>. [118]
- Burns, T. and F. Gottschalk (eds.) (2020), *Education in the Digital Age: Healthy and Happy Children*, Educational Research and Innovation, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/1209166a-en>. [34]
- Carver-Thomas, D. (2018), *Diversifying the teaching profession: How to recruit and retain teachers of color*, Learning Policy Institute, <https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/product/diversifying-teaching-profession-report> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [172]

- Carver-Thomas, D. and L. Darling-Hammond (2017), *Teacher turnover: Why it matters and what we can do about it*, Learning Policy Institute, <https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/product/teacher-turnover-report> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [173]
- CAST (2018), *Universal Design for Learning Guidelines*, <http://udlguidelines.cast.org> (accessed on 15 October 2020). [190]
- Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation (2019), *Revisiting Gifted Education*, NSW Department of Education, <https://education.nsw.gov.au/about-us/educational-data/cese/publications/literature-reviews/revisiting-gifted-education> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [138]
- Cerna, L. (2019), "Refugee education: Integration models and practices in OECD countries", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 203, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/a3251a00-en>. [193]
- Cerna, L. et al. (2019), "Strength through diversity's Spotlight Report for Sweden", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 194, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/059ce467-en>. [151]
- Cerna, L., O. Brussino and C. Mezzanotte (2021), "The resilience of students with an immigrant background: An update with PISA 2018", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 261, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/e119e91a-en>. [12]
- Cerna, L. et al. (2021), "Promoting inclusive education for diverse societies: A conceptual framework", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 260, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/94ab68c6-en>. [11]
- Christoffersen, A. (2021), "The politics of intersectional practice: competing concepts of intersectionality", *Policy & Politics*, Vol. 49/4, pp. 573-593, <https://doi.org/10.1332/030557321x16194316141034>. [115]
- Clotfelter, C., H. Ladd and J. Vigdor (2007), "How and Why Do Teacher Credentials Matter for Student Achievement?", *NBER Working Papers*, No. 12828, National Bureau of Economic Research, <https://doi.org/10.3386/w12828>. [174]
- Council of Europe (2015), *Inclusive education vital for social cohesion in diverse societies*, <https://www.coe.int/en/web/commissioner/-/inclusive-education-vital-for-social-cohesion-in-diverse-societies?desktop=true> (accessed on 4 February 2020). [95]
- Crenshaw, K. (1989), "Demarginalizing the Intersection of Race and Sex: A Black Feminist Critique of Antidiscrimination Doctrine, Feminist Theory, and Antiracist Politics [1989]", in *Feminist Legal Theory*, Routledge, <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429500480-5>. [104]
- Czech School Inspectorate (2022), *České školství v datech [Czech Education in Data]*, <https://www.vzdelavanivdatech.cz/> (accessed on 8 November 2022). [198]
- Dabla-Norris, E. et al. (2015), *Causes and Consequences of Income Inequality: A Global Perspective*, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/sdn/2015/sdn1513.pdf> (accessed on 26 July 2022). [26]

- Darling-Hammond, L. et al. (2019), "Implications for educational practice of the science of learning and development", *Applied Developmental Science*, Vol. 24/2, pp. 97-140, <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888691.2018.1537791>. [112]
- Davis, K. (2008), "Intersectionality as buzzword: A sociology of science perspective on what makes a feminist theory successful", *Feminist Theory*, Vol. 9/1, pp. 67-85, <https://doi.org/10.1177/1464700108086364>. [105]
- De Boer, G., A. Minnaert and G. Kamphof (2013), "Gifted Education in the Netherlands", *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, Vol. 36/1, pp. 133-150, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0162353212471622>. [130]
- Department for Education (2021), *Teachers' Standards*, <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ839497.pdf> (accessed on 1 July 2022). [153]
- Dyson, A., P. Farrell and T. Cooke (2004), "Inclusion and Pupil Achievement", *DECP Debate*, Vol. 1/109, pp. 6-6, <https://doi.org/10.53841/bpsdeb.2004.1.109.6>. [97]
- Easterbrook, M., T. Kuppens and A. Manstead (2015), "The Education Effect: Higher Educational Qualifications are Robustly Associated with Beneficial Personal and Socio-political Outcomes", *Social Indicators Research*, Vol. 126/3, pp. 1261-1298, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-015-0946-1>. [92]
- Ebenstein, A., V. Lavy and S. Roth (2016), "The Long-Run Economic Consequences of High-Stakes Examinations: Evidence from Transitory Variation in Pollution", *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, Vol. 8/4, pp. 36-65, <https://doi.org/10.1257/app.20150213>. [61]
- Egalite, A., B. Kisida and M. Winters (2015), "Representation in the classroom: The effect of own-race teachers on student achievement", *Economics of Education Review*, Vol. 45, pp. 44-52, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2015.01.007>. [175]
- Ehren, M., J. Perryman and N. Shackleton (2014), "Setting expectations for good education: how Dutch school inspections drive improvement", *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, Vol. 26/2, pp. 296-327, <https://doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2014.936472>. [205]
- Eisenberg, D. et al. (2009), "Stigma and Help Seeking for Mental Health Among College Students", *Medical Care Research and Review*, Vol. 66/5, pp. 522-541, <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077558709335173>. [46]
- El Asam, A. and A. Katz (2018), "Vulnerable Young People and Their Experience of Online Risks", *Human-Computer Interaction*, Vol. 33/4, pp. 281-304, <https://doi.org/10.1080/07370024.2018.1437544>. [36]
- European Agency for Special Education Needs and Inclusive Education (2021), *Supporting Inclusive School Leadership: Policy Messages*, <https://www.european-agency.org/sites/default/files/SISL%20Policy%20Messages-EN.pdf> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [179]
- European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (2021), *Country information for Italy - Teacher education for inclusive education*, <https://www.european-agency.org/country-information/italy/teacher-education-for-inclusive-education> (accessed on 28 June 2022). [157]

- European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (2020), *Inclusive School Leadership: Exploring Policies Across Europe*, European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, https://www.european-agency.org/sites/default/files/sisl_synthesis_report.pdf (accessed on 16 December 2022). [181]
- European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (2018), *Evidence of the Link Between Inclusive Education and Social Inclusion: A Review of the Literature*, European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education. [83]
- European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (2018), *Supporting Inclusive School Leadership: Literature Review*, European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, https://www.european-agency.org/sites/default/files/SISL_Literature_Review.pdf (accessed on 16 December 2022). [184]
- European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture (2017), *Preparing teachers for diversity: the role of initial teacher education: final report*, Publications Office, <https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2766/637002> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [147]
- European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice (2021), *Teachers in Europe: Careers, Development and Well-being*, Publications Office of the European Union, <https://doi.org/10.2797/997402>. [160]
- European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice (2016), *Structural indicators on achievement in basic skills in Europe - 2016*, Publications Office of the European Union, <https://doi.org/10.2797/092314>. [119]
- Eurydice (2021), *Norway: Early Childhood and School Education Funding*, https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/early-childhood-and-school-education-funding-54_en#:~:text=In%20Norway%2C%20kindergartens%20and%20schools,earmarked%20grants%2C%20charges%20and%20fees (accessed on 22 June 2022). [123]
- Eurydice (2020), *Equity in school education in Europe*, Publications Office of the European Union, https://eurydice.org/pl/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/equity_2020_0.pdf (accessed on 2 August 2022). [124]
- Ferri, B., C. Keefe and N. Gregg (2001), “Teachers with Learning Disabilities: A View from Both Sides of the Desk”, *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, Vol. 34/1, pp. 22-32, <https://doi.org/10.1177/002221940103400103>. [177]
- Forlin, C. et al. (2011), “The Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised (SACIE-R) Scale for Measuring Pre-Service Teachers’ Perceptions about Inclusion”, *Exceptionality Education International*, Vol. 21/3, <https://doi.org/10.5206/eei.v21i3.7682>. [96]
- Gershenson, S. et al. (2022), “The long-run impacts of same-race teachers”, *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy*, Vol. 14/4, pp. 300-342, <https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.20190573>. [176]
- Golden, G. (2020), “Education policy evaluation: Surveying the OECD landscape”, *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 236, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9f127490-en>. [201]
- Gottschalk, F. (2022), “Cyberbullying: An overview of research and policy in OECD countries”, *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 270, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/f60b492b-en>. [35]

- Graff Zivin, J. et al. (2020), “The unintended impacts of agricultural fires: Human capital in China”, *Journal of Development Economics*, Vol. 147, p. 102560, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2020.102560>. [62]
- Graff Zivin, J. et al. (2020), “Temperature and high-stakes cognitive performance: Evidence from the national college entrance examination in China”, *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, Vol. 104, p. 102365, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeem.2020.102365>. [63]
- Grasha, A. (2002), “The Dynamics of One-on-One Teaching”, *College Teaching*, Vol. 50/4, pp. 139-146, <https://doi.org/10.2307/27559110>. [187]
- Greytak, E. and J. Kosciw (2010), *Year one evaluation of the New York City Department of Education Respect for All training program*, GLSEN, <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED512335> (accessed on 3 February 2022). [140]
- Greytak, E., J. Kosciw and M. Boesen (2013), “Educating the educator: Creating supportive school personnel through professional development”, *Journal of School Violence*, Vol. 12, pp. 80-97, <https://doi.org/10.1080/15388220.2012.731586> (accessed on 3 February 2022). [139]
- Hancock, A. (2007), “When Multiplication Doesn’t Equal Quick Addition: Examining Intersectionality as a Research Paradigm”, *Perspectives on Politics*, Vol. 5/01, <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1537592707070065>. [116]
- Hankivsky, O. and R. Cormier (2011), “Intersectionality and Public Policy: Some Lessons from Existing Models”, *Political Research Quarterly*, Vol. 64/1, pp. 217-229, <https://doi.org/10.1177/1065912910376385>. [117]
- Hanushek, E. and L. Woessmann (2020), “The economic impacts of learning losses”, *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 225, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/21908d74-en>. [87]
- Hanushek, E. and L. Woessmann (2008), “The Role of Cognitive Skills in Economic Development”, *Journal of Economic Literature*, Vol. 46/3, pp. 607-668, <https://doi.org/10.1257/jel.46.3.607>. [86]
- Hanushek, E. and L. Woessmann (2007), *The Role Of Education Quality For Economic Growth*, The World Bank, <https://doi.org/10.1596/1813-9450-4122>. [91]
- Harmon, C., H. Oosterbeek and I. Walker (2003), “The Returns to Education: Microeconomics”, *Journal of Economic Surveys*, Vol. 17/2, pp. 115-156, <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6419.00191>. [88]
- Heissel, J., C. Persico and D. Simon (2019), *Does Pollution Drive Achievement? The Effect of Traffic Pollution on Academic Performance*, National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, MA, <https://doi.org/10.3386/w25489>. [59]
- Hendry, G., A. Bell and K. Thomson (2014), “Learning by observing a peer’s teaching situation”, *International Journal for Academic Development*, Vol. 19/4, pp. 318-329, <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2013.848806>. [167]
- Horvath, D. and F. Borgonovi (2022), “Global warming, pollution and cognitive developments: The effects of high pollution and temperature levels on cognitive ability throughout the life course”, *OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers*, No. 269, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/319b9a1f-en>. [65]

- Huber, K., J. Rosenfeld and C. Fiorello (2001), "The differential impact of inclusion and inclusive practices on high, average, and low achieving general education students", *Psychology in the Schools*, Vol. 38/6, pp. 497-504, <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.1038>. [98]
- International Bureau of Education (2016), *Exclusion in education system*, <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/en/geqaf/annexes/technical-notes/exclusion-education-system> (accessed on 3 February 2020). [74]
- Jackson, C. (2018), "What Do Test Scores Miss? The Importance of Teacher Effects on Non-Test Score Outcomes", *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 126/5, pp. 2072-2107, <https://doi.org/10.1086/699018>. [128]
- Kart, A. and M. Kart (2021), "Academic and Social Effects of Inclusion on Students without Disabilities: A Review of the Literature", *Education Sciences*, Vol. 11/1, p. 16, <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11010016>. [99]
- Katharine Bradbury and Robert K. Triest (2016), "Introduction: Inequality of Economic Opportunity", *RSF: The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences*, Vol. 2/2, p. 1, <https://doi.org/10.7758/rsf.2016.2.2.01>. [27]
- Kearns, L., J. Mitton-Kukner and J. Tompkins (2014), "Building LGBTQ awareness and allies in our teacher education community and beyond", *Collected Essays on Learning and Teaching*, Vol. 7/1, pp. 62-67, <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1060226> (accessed on 4 March 2022). [141]
- Kessler, R. et al. (2007), "Age of onset of mental disorders: a review of recent literature", *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*, Vol. 20/4, pp. 359-364, <https://doi.org/10.1097/yco.0b013e32816ebc8c>. [42]
- Koehler, C., N. Palaiologou and O. Brussino (2022), *Holistic refugee and newcomer education in Europe*, OECD Publishing, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9ea58c54-en>. [136]
- Kosciw, J. et al. (2018), *The 2017 National School Climate Survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth in our nation's schools*, https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-12/Full_NSCS_Report_English_2017.pdf (accessed on 16 December 2022). [178]
- Kral, I. et al. (2021), *A strong start for every Indigenous child*, OECD Publishing, <https://doi.org/10.1787/ebcc34a6-en>. [158]
- Kyndt, E. et al. (2012), "The Learning Intentions of Low-Qualified Employees", *Adult Education Quarterly*, Vol. 63/2, pp. 165-189, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741713612454324>. [66]
- Lanphear, B. (ed.) (2015), "Association between Traffic-Related Air Pollution in Schools and Cognitive Development in Primary School Children: A Prospective Cohort Study", *PLOS Medicine*, Vol. 12/3, p. e1001792, <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001792>. [58]
- Lardner, E. (2003), "Approaching Diversity Through Learning Communities", *Washington Center for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Education 2*, <https://wacenter.evergreen.edu/sites/default/files/Approach%20Diversity%20through%20LCs.pdf> (accessed on 16 December 2022). [163]
- Lassig, C. (2015), "Teachers' attitudes towards the gifted: The importance of professional development and school culture", *Australasian Journal of Gifted Education*, Vol. 24/2, <https://doi.org/10.21505/ajge.2015.0012>. [131]

- Lavizzari, A. (2015), *Intersectionality Research*, IGLYO, https://www.iglyo.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/Education_Report_April_2018-4.pdf (accessed on 24 July 2022). [107]
- Lucas, M., J. Nelson and D. Sims (2020), *Schools' responses to Covid-19: Pupil engagement in remote learning*, https://www.nfer.ac.uk/media/4073/schools_responses_to_covid_19_pupil_engagement_in_remote_learning.pdf (accessed on 26 July 2022). [51]
- Lutz, H., M. Herrera Vivar and L. Supik (2011), *Framing Intersectionality: Debates on a multi-faceted concept in gender studies*, Routledge. [106]
- McBrien, J. (2022), *Social and emotional learning (SEL) of newcomer and refugee students*, OECD, <https://doi.org/10.1787/a4a0f635-en>. [194]
- McBrien, J., A. Rutigliano and A. Sticca (2022), "The Inclusion of LGBTQI+ students across education systems: An overview", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 273, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/91775206-en>. [142]
- Mezzanotte, C. (2022), "The social and economic rationale of inclusive education : An overview of the outcomes in education for diverse groups of students", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 263, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/bff7a85d-en>. [37]
- Mezzanotte, C. (2020), "Policy approaches and practices for the inclusion of students with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 238, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/49af95e0-en>. [134]
- Mezzanotte, C. and C. Calvel (forthcoming), *Indicators of inclusion in education: a framework for analysis*, OECD. [70]
- Milanowski, A. (2017), "Lower Performance Evaluation Practice Ratings for Teachers of Disadvantaged Students: Bias or Reflection of Reality?", *AERA Open*, <https://doi.org/10.1177/2332858416685550>. [169]
- Ministry of Education (2021), *National Education Goals*, <https://www.education.govt.nz/our-work/legislation/negs/> (accessed on 8 July 2022). [110]
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2018), *The Third Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education (Provisional Translation)*, <https://www.mext.go.jp/en/policy/education/lawandplan/title01/detail01/1373799.html> (accessed on 5 July 2022). [109]
- Ministry of the Interior and Housing (n.d.), *Tilskud og udligning [Grants and equalization]*, <https://im.dk/arbejdsomraader/kommunal-og-regionaloekonomi/tilskud-og-udligning> (accessed on 22 June 2022). [122]
- Moldavsky, M. et al. (2012), "Teachers' recognition of children with ADHD: role of subtype and gender", *Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, Vol. 18/1, pp. 18-23, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-3588.2012.00653.x>. [135]
- Morin, A. (n.d.), *What Is Co-Teaching?*, <https://www.understood.org/articles/en/collaborative-team-teaching-what-you-need-to-know> (accessed on 22 February 2022). [164]
- Mule, L. (2010), *Teacher Education, Diversity, and Community Engagement in Liberal Arts Colleges*, Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Lanham, Maryland. [145]

- Musset, P. (2010), "Initial Teacher Education and Continuing Training Policies in a Comparative Perspective: Current Practices in OECD Countries and a Literature Review on Potential Effects", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 48, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/5kmbpjh7s47h-en>. [148]
- Neca, P., M. Borges and P. Pinto (2020), "Teachers with disabilities: a literature review", *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, Vol. 26/12, pp. 1192-1210, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2020.1776779>. [186]
- Newton, X. et al. (2010), "Value-added modeling of teacher effectiveness: an exploration of stability across models and contexts", *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, <https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.v18n23.2010>. [170]
- Nishina, A. et al. (2019), "Ethnic Diversity and Inclusive School Environments", *Educational Psychologist*, Vol. 54/4, pp. 306-321, <https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2019.1633923>. [39]
- Nusche, D. (2009), "What Works in Migrant Education?: A Review of Evidence and Policy Options", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 22, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/227131784531>. [80]
- Nusche, D. et al. (2016), *OECD Reviews of School Resources: Denmark 2016*, OECD Reviews of School Resources, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264262430-en>. [121]
- OECD (2023), *Equity and Inclusion in Education: Finding Strength through Diversity*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/e9072e21-en>. [161]
- OECD (2022), *Education Policy Committee Meeting at Ministerial Level: Revised Draft Key Issues Paper*, <https://issuu.com/oecd.publishing/docs/key-issues-paper> (accessed on 17 January 2023). [113]
- OECD (2022), "Finland's Right to Learn Programme: Achieving equity and quality in education", *OECD Education Policy Perspectives*, No. 61, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/65eff23e-en>. [120]
- OECD (2022), *Mending the Education Divide: Getting Strong Teachers to the Schools That Need Them Most*, TALIS, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/92b75874-en>. [126]
- OECD (2022), *Quality and Equity of Schooling in the German-speaking Community of Belgium*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9a6b6f3a-en>. [155]
- OECD (2022), *Review of Inclusive Education in Portugal*, Reviews of National Policies for Education, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/a9c95902-en>. [137]
- OECD (2022), *Strength through Diversity Policy Survey 2022*, OECD. [68]
- OECD (2022), *The Contribution of Migration to Regional Development*, OECD Regional Development Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/57046df4-en>. [13]
- OECD (2022), *Who Cares about Using Education Research in Policy and Practice?: Strengthening Research Engagement*, Educational Research and Innovation, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/d7ff793d-en>. [200]

- OECD (2021), *A New Benchmark for Mental Health Systems: Tackling the Social and Economic Costs of Mental Ill-Health*, OECD Health Policy Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/4ed890f6-en>. [41]
- OECD (2021), *Adapting Curriculum to Bridge Equity Gaps: Towards an Inclusive Curriculum*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/6b49e118-en>. [30]
- OECD (2021), *Does Inequality Matter? : How People Perceive Economic Disparities and Social Mobility*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/3023ed40-en>. [21]
- OECD (2021), *Education Policy Outlook 2021: Shaping Responsive and Resilient Education in a Changing World*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/75e40a16-en>. [52]
- OECD (2021), "Iceland Education Policy 2030 and its implementation", *OECD Education Policy Perspectives*, No. 32, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/6e9d2811-en>. [111]
- OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume V): Effective Policies, Successful Schools*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/ca768d40-en>. [204]
- OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume VI): Are Students Ready to Thrive in an Interconnected World?*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/d5f68679-en>. [143]
- OECD (2019), *A Flying Start: Improving Initial Teacher Preparation Systems*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/cf74e549-en>. [149]
- OECD (2019), *Balancing School Choice and Equity: An International Perspective Based on Pisa*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/2592c974-en>. [10]
- OECD (2019), *Education Policy Outlook 2019: Working Together to Help Students Achieve their Potential*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/2b8ad56e-en>. [196]
- OECD (2019), *How's Life in the Digital Age?: Opportunities and Risks of the Digital Transformation for People's Well-being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264311800-en>. [29]
- OECD (2019), *OECD Regional Outlook 2019: Leveraging Megatrends for Cities and Rural Areas*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264312838-en>. [3]
- OECD (2019), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume II): Where All Students Can Succeed*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/b5fd1b8f-en>. [67]
- OECD (2019), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume III): What School Life Means for Students' Lives*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/acd78851-en>. [7]
- OECD (2019), *Trends Shaping Education 2019*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/trends_edu-2019-en. [2]
- OECD (2019), *Under Pressure: The Squeezed Middle Class*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/689afed1-en>. [20]
- OECD (2018), *A Broken Social Elevator? How to Promote Social Mobility*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264301085-en>. [19]
- OECD (2018), *Bridging the Digital Gender Divide*, <https://www.oecd.org/digital/bridging-the-digital-gender-divide.pdf> (accessed on 31 May 2022). [33]

- OECD (2018), *Children & Young People's Mental Health in the Digital Age*, [43]
<https://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/Children-and-Young-People-Mental-Health-in-the-Digital-Age.pdf> (accessed on 25 July 2022).
- OECD (2018), *Equity in Education: Breaking Down Barriers to Social Mobility*, PISA, OECD [129]
 Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264073234-en>.
- OECD (2017), *Educational Opportunity for All: Overcoming Inequality throughout the Life Course*, Educational Research and Innovation, OECD Publishing, Paris, [9]
<https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264287457-en>.
- OECD (2017), *PISA 2015 Results (Volume III): Students' Well-Being*, PISA, OECD Publishing, [206]
 Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264273856-en>.
- OECD (2017), *Promising Practices in Supporting Success for Indigenous Students*, OECD [154]
 Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264279421-en>.
- OECD (2017), *The Funding of School Education: Connecting Resources and Learning*, OECD [69]
 Reviews of School Resources, OECD Publishing, Paris,
<https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264276147-en>.
- OECD (2016), *Automation and Independent Work in a Digital Economy*, OECD Publishing, [23]
<https://www.oecd.org/els/emp/Policy%20brief%20-%20Automation%20and%20Independent%20Work%20in%20a%20Digital%20Economy.pdf>
 (accessed on 26 July 2022).
- OECD (2016), *Inequality*, <http://www.oecd.org/fr/social/inequality.htm> (accessed on [18]
 13 December 2022).
- OECD (2016), *Innovating Education and Educating for Innovation: The Power of Digital [1]
 Technologies and Skills*, Educational Research and Innovation, OECD Publishing, Paris,
<https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264265097-en>.
- OECD (2015), *Education Policy Outlook 2015: Making Reforms Happen*, OECD Publishing, [202]
 Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264225442-en>.
- OECD (2015), *Fit Mind, Fit Job: From Evidence to Practice in Mental Health and Work*, Mental [48]
 Health and Work, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264228283-en>.
- OECD (2015), *In It Together: Why Less Inequality Benefits All*, OECD Publishing, Paris, [17]
<https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264235120-en>.
- OECD (2014), *Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, [28]
<https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2014-en>.
- OECD (2014), *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*, [6]
 TALIS, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264196261-en>.
- OECD (2014), *Trends Shaping Education 2014 Spotlight 3*, OECD Publishing, [8]
<https://www.oecd.org/education/ceri/Spotlight%20No3%20Urban.pdf> (accessed on
 13 December 2022).
- OECD (2013), *OECD Skills Outlook 2013: First Results from the Survey of Adult Skills*, OECD [22]
 Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264204256-en>.

- OECD (2013), *Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, OECD Reviews of Evaluation and Assessment in Education, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en>. [108]
- OECD (2012), *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264130852-en>. [180]
- OECD (2012), *Sick on the Job?: Myths and Realities about Mental Health and Work*, Mental Health and Work, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264124523-en>. [44]
- OECD (2011), *Divided We Stand: Why Inequality Keeps Rising*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264119536-en>. [16]
- OECD (2010), *Improving Health and Social Cohesion through Education*, Educational Research and Innovation, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264086319-en>. [38]
- OECD (2006), “The Returns to Education: Links between Education, Economic Growth and Social Outcomes”, in *Education at a Glance 2006: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2006-11-en>. [89]
- OECD (2005), *Education and Training Policy*, OECD Publishing, <https://doi.org/10.1787/19901496>. [166]
- OECD/European Commission (2020), *Cities in the World: A New Perspective on Urbanisation*, OECD Urban Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/d0efcbda-en>. [5]
- PAQ Research (2022), *Mapa vzdělávacího neúspěchu*, <https://www.mapavzdelavani.cz/> (accessed on 8 November 2022). [199]
- Park, R. (2020), “Hot Temperature and High-Stakes Performance”, *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 57/2, pp. 400-434, <https://doi.org/10.3368/jhr.57.2.0618-9535r3>. [64]
- Plunkett, M. and L. Kronborg (2019), “Teaching Gifted Education to Pre-service Teachers: Lessons Learned”, in *Handbook of Giftedness and Talent Development in the Asia-Pacific*, Springer International Handbooks of Education, Springer Singapore, Singapore, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-3021-6_67-1. [132]
- Polyzopoulou, K. et al. (2014), “Teachers’ perceptions toward education of gifted children in Greek educational settings”, *Journal of Physical Education and Sport*, Vol. 14/2, pp. 211-221, <https://doi.org/10.7752/jpes.2014.02033>. [133]
- Révai, N. (2018), “What difference do standards make to educating teachers?: A review with case studies on Australia, Estonia and Singapore”, *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 174, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/f1cb24d5-en>. [156]
- Riley, J. (2001), “Silver Signals: Twenty-Five Years of Screening and Signaling”, *Journal of Economic Literature*, Vol. 39/2, pp. 432-478, <https://doi.org/10.1257/jel.39.2.432>. [207]
- Rose, D. and A. Meyer (2002), *Teaching every student in the digital age: Universal design for learning*, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED466086> (accessed on 13 July 2022). [189]

- Ruijs, N. and T. Peetsma (2009), "Effects of inclusion on students with and without special educational needs reviewed", *Educational Research Review*, Vol. 4/2, pp. 67-79, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2009.02.002>. [82]
- Rutigliano, A. (2020), "Inclusion of Roma students in Europe: A literature review and examples of policy initiatives", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 228, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/8ce7d6eb-en>. [101]
- Rutigliano, A. and N. Quarshie (2021), "Policy approaches and initiatives for the inclusion of gifted students in OECD countries", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 262, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/c3f9ed87-en>. [103]
- Santa, R. (2018), "The Future of European Higher Education in an Age of Demographic Headwinds: The Impact of Demographic Decline on Higher Education System Structures Funding in Romania Poland Russia", in *European Higher Education Area: The Impact of Past and Future Policies*, Springer International Publishing, Cham, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-77407-7_23. [4]
- Santiago, P. et al. (2017), *OECD Reviews of School Resources: Chile 2017*, OECD Publishing, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264285637-en>. [171]
- Schleicher, A. (2018), *World Class: How to Build a 21st-Century School System*, Strong Performers and Successful Reformers in Education, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264300002-en>. [53]
- Spence, M. (1973), "Job Market Signaling", *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 87/3, p. 355, <https://doi.org/10.2307/1882010>. [208]
- Suicide Prevention Resource Center (2020), *Consequences of Student Mental Health Issues*, <https://www.sprc.org/colleges-universities/consequences#:~:text=Mental%20health%20problems%20can%20affect%20a%20student's%20energy%20level%2C%20concentration,%2C%20and%20optimism%2C%20hindering%20performance.&text=Research%20suggests%20that%20depression%2> (accessed on 26 July 2022). [47]
- Sullivan, A. and G. Simonson (2016), "A Systematic Review of School-Based Social-Emotional Interventions for Refugee and War-Traumatized Youth", *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 86/2, pp. 503-530, <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654315609419>. [195]
- The Nation's Report Card (2022), *Data Tools*, https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/data_tools.aspx (accessed on 8 November 2022). [197]
- Tropp, L. and S. Saxena (2018), *Re-Weaving the Social Fabric through Integrated Schools: How Intergroup Contact Prepares Youth to Thrive in a Multiracial Society*, <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED603699.pdf> (accessed on 26 July 2022). [40]
- UNESCO (2020), *Adverse consequences of school closures*, <https://en.unesco.org/covid19/educationresponse/consequences> (accessed on 23 March 2021). [50]
- UNESCO (2020), *Education: from disruption to recovery*, <https://en.unesco.org/covid19/educationresponse> (accessed on 23 March 2021). [49]

- UNESCO (2020), *Global Education Monitoring Report 2020: Inclusion and Education - All Means All*, United Nations, New York, <https://doi.org/10.18356/2ddb782c-en>. [60]
- UNESCO (2020), “Inclusive Teaching: Preparing all teachers to teach all students”, *Inclusive Teaching: Preparing all teachers to teach all students*, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000374447> (accessed on 10 June 2022). [182]
- UNESCO (2020), *Technology for Inclusion (Paper commissioned for the 2020 Global Education Monitoring Report, Inclusion and education)*, UNESCO, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000373655#:~:text=The%20term%20e%2Dinclusion%20relates,presented%20in%20the%20following%20section.> (accessed on 13 December 2022). [31]
- UNESCO (2017), *A Guide for Ensuring Inclusion and Equity in Education*, UNESCO, Paris, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000248254> (accessed on 20 October 2020). [76]
- UNESCO (2017), *Global Education Monitoring Report 2017/8: Accountability in education*, UNESCO, <https://en.unesco.org/gem-report/report/2017/accountability-education> (accessed on 8 November 2022). [203]
- UNESCO (2012), *Addressing Exclusion in Education: A Guide to Assessing Education Systems Towards More Inclusive and Just Societies*, https://unesdoc.unesco.org/in/documentViewer.xhtml?v=2.1.196&id=p::usmarcdef_0000217073&file=/in/rest/annotationSVC/DownloadWatermarkedAttachment/attach_import_eed4b49e-5d34-4258-899e-85d773b97cb2%3F_%3D217073eng.pdf&locale=en&multi=true&ark=/ark:/48223/p (accessed on 13 December 2022). [75]
- UNESCO (2009), *Defining an Inclusive Education Agenda: Reflections around the 48th session of the International Conference on Education*, UNESCO, http://www.ibe.unesco.org/sites/default/files/resources/defining_inclusive_education_agenda_2009.pdf (accessed on 23 October 2022). [72]
- UNESCO (2009), *Towards Inclusive Education for Children with Disabilities: A Guideline*, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000192480> (accessed on 13 December 2022). [81]
- UNESCO (2008), “*Inclusive education: the way of the future*”, http://www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Policy_Dialogue/48th_ICE/CONFINTED_48-3_English.pdf (accessed on 20 November 2020). [78]
- UNESCO (2005), *Guidelines for inclusion: ensuring access to education for all*, UNESCO, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000140224> (accessed on 26 July 2022). [79]
- UNESCO (1994), *The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education*, <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000098427> (accessed on 24 July 2022). [84]
- UNESCO-UIS (2018), *Handbook on measuring equity in education*, UNESCO Institute for Statistics, <http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/handbook-measuring-equity-education-2018-en.pdf> (accessed on 23 December 2021). [71]
- UNHCR (2022), *Climate change and disaster displacement*, <https://www.unhcr.org/climate-change-and-disasters.html> (accessed on 26 July 2022). [14]

- UNHCR (2022), *Refugee Data Finder*, <http://www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics/download/?url=d8zqXO> (accessed on 13 December 2022). [15]
- UNICEF (2019), *It is Getting Hot Call for Education Systems to Respond to the Climate Crisis*, UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office, <https://www.unicef.org/eap/media/4596/file/It%20is%20getting%20hot:%20Call%20for%20education%20systems%20to%20respond%20to%20the%20climate%20crisis.pdf> (accessed on 27 July 2022). [54]
- UNICEF (2015), *Unless we act now: The impact of climate change on children*, UNICEF. [56]
- UNICEF (2014), *Conceptualizing Inclusive Education and Contextualizing it within the UNICEF Mission*, https://www.unicef.org/eca/sites/unicef.org.eca/files/IE_Webinar_Booklet_1_0.pdf (accessed on 12 June 2020). [77]
- United Kingdom Department for Education (2014), *Training modules and resources for teaching SEND pupils*, <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teaching-pupils-with-special-educational-needs-and-disabilities-send/training-modules-and-resources-for-teaching-send-pupils> (accessed on 28 June 2022). [159]
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation; Global Education Monitoring Report; IGLYO (2021), *Don't look away: No place for exclusion of LGBTI students*, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation; Global Education Monitoring Report; IGLYO, http://C:/Users/jameson_s/Downloads/377361eng.pdf (accessed on 15 June 2022). [185]
- van der Vlies, R. (2020), "Digital strategies in education across OECD countries: Exploring education policies on digital technologies", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 226, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/33dd4c26-en>. [32]
- Varsik, S. (2022), "A snapshot of equity and inclusion in OECD education systems: Findings from the Strength through Diversity Policy Survey", *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 284, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/801dd29b-en>. [102]
- Varsik, S. and J. Gorochovskij (Forthcoming), *Intersectionality in education*, OECD Publishing. [165]
- Waitoller, F. and K. King Thorius (2016), "Cross-Pollinating Culturally Sustaining Pedagogy and Universal Design for Learning: Toward an Inclusive Pedagogy That Accounts for Dis/Ability", *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 86/3, pp. 366-389, <https://doi.org/10.17763/1943-5045-86.3.366>. [188]
- World Bank (2022), *Temperatures and air pollution affect learning*, <https://world-education-blog.org/2022/06/20/temperatures-and-air-pollution-affect-learning/> (accessed on 27 July 2022). [57]
- World Bank (2011), *World Development Report 2012*, The World Bank, <https://doi.org/10.1596/978-0-8213-8810-5>. [94]
- World Bank Group (2016), *Equity and Inclusion*, <http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/496511496307244599/pdf/115381-REVISED-PUBLIC-SABER-Equity-and-Inclusion-Brief.pdf> (accessed on 13 September 2020). [93]

Yuan, H. (2017), “Preparing Teachers for Diversity: A Literature Review and Implications from Community-Based Teacher Education”, *Higher Education Studies*, Vol. 8/1, p. 9, <https://doi.org/10.5539/hes.v8n1p9>. [146]

Notes

¹ The data reported did not include the most recent OECD member countries, Colombia and Costa Rica, which joined in 2020 and 2021 respectively.

² Natural population decline is meant to occur due to low birth rates and ageing.

³ The total fertility rate in a specific year is defined as the total number of children that would be born to each woman if she were to live to the end of her child-bearing years and gave birth to children in alignment with the prevailing age-specific fertility rates.

⁴ In line with OECD PISA conventions, “rural schools” are defined as those in communities with fewer than 3 000 people and “urban schools” as those located in any city with more than 100 000 people, unless otherwise noted (OECD, 2017_[206]).

⁵ Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, intersex and other non-cisgender gender identities and non-heterosexual sexual orientations.

⁶ Resilient learners can adapt to various tasks and environments, taking advantage of opportunities to reach their individual potential. Such learners have the capacity and agency to identify and capitalise on opportunities given to them by the system and to create their own. They are also able to move between learning tasks and environments, engaging pro-actively in efforts to enhance them (OECD, 2021_[52]).

⁷ The data excludes Spain for a lack of available information, and includes Costa Rica (which is not included in the OECD PISA reports published in 2019).

⁸ ESCS refers to the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status.

⁹ Economic literature is divided into two streams that correlate the returns to education to two different phenomena. On the one hand, human capital theory sustains that earning premiums are associated with productivity increases that occur as people acquire additional qualifications. On the other hand, an important concern is that education may have a value in the labour market not because of any effect on productivity but for “spurious” reasons. In particular, education may act as a signal of ability or other characteristics that employers value because it contributes to productivity but which they cannot easily observe, which is defined as a signalling effect of education (Riley, 2001_[207]; Spence, 1973_[208]).

Equity and Inclusion in Education

FINDING STRENGTH THROUGH DIVERSITY

(ABRIDGED VERSION)

Governments and education policy makers are increasingly concerned with equity and inclusion in education due to several major global trends such as demographic shifts, migration and refugee crises, rising inequalities, and climate change. These developments have contributed to increasing diversity within national populations and flagged some concerns around the ability of education systems to be equitable and inclusive of all students.

This report by the Strength through Diversity project examines how education systems can respond to increasing diversity and foster greater equity and inclusion in education. Based on a holistic framework for studying diversity, equity and inclusion in education, the report examines five key policy areas (i.e., governance; resourcing; capacity building; school-level interventions, and monitoring and evaluation), provides examples of policies and practices, and offers policy advice on promoting more equitable and inclusive education systems.