

Values and Aims in Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks

Joanna Le Métails

March 1997

Introduction

The basic philosophy underlying the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks project is that context is crucial to an understanding of policy and practice. Among the most important contextual factors are the national values and educational aims that underpin education policy, and the ways in which they are carried forward through structure into curriculum and assessment frameworks. The information in the Archive, although valuable, does not adequately address the following issues:

- are government statements of values and aims shared by the people?
- are explicit values and aims carried through into practice?
- are values and aims stable over time?

It was felt that these issues could best be explored by means of focused discussions with educators from the countries concerned and an invitational seminar was therefore organised in February 1997. This paper summarises relevant information from the Archive together with the outcomes of the presentations and discussions of the seminar.

Values

Values are concerns about what ought to be. A value is a belief which need not rely upon facts or evidence, although a value position can be supported or challenged by knowledge propositions. Ryle (1949) talks of values as 'dispositions' which incline us towards specific structures, tasks and patterns of behaviour.

Basic values are those which seek to monitor and maintain values within the system as a whole. These may include freedom, equity, the value of the unique individual, community, family and defence of society and social justice. An example of a values statement in education is found in the German Constitution which, in addition to general freedoms, safeguards specific freedoms in art and science, research and teaching. The Dutch Constitution safeguards the individual's or group's right to transmit its religious or moral values through education, by granting them access to funding (subject to meeting certain operational criteria) to establish schools on an equal footing with public sector establishments. The Constitutions in Spain and the USA define the individual's rights and freedoms and specifically devolve responsibility for education to the Autonomous Communities and individual States.

Basic values may be supported, or contradicted, by operational values or principles, relating to the way in which tasks are executed at different levels. Examples of these are public burden (cost to the taxpayer), selectivity (for self-determination, élitism or equality), universality, participation, democracy, social control and residualism. Operational values may 'harden' or be promoted to basic values; for instance democracy may become an end worth pursuing in its own right instead of simply a means to achieve, say, equitable provision.

Operational values may be divided according to whether their primary focus is the individual or the system or society. The former category includes democracy, participative governance, differentiated provision, professional autonomy or discretion, and a rights-based approach which treats users of public services as consumers (Henkel 1991). In the latter category, societies or systems seek a balance between universal and residual provision, between the public cost and meeting individual needs, between effectiveness and economy and so forth. The individual may be confronted with a range of values, some of which are personal and some of which are adopted on his/her behalf by the family, community, nation or the cross-national body to which his/her country belongs (e.g. the European Union, United Nations).

Tensions may arise between values, or between their interpretation at various levels. For example, in introducing its educational reforms in England and Wales during the 1980s, government documentation identified a number of values, including: educational standards and excellence, parental choice and participation, professional accountability, market forces and consumer satisfaction, economy, efficiency and effectiveness.¹ There are inherent tensions between pairs of these values, for example, choice and market forces on the one hand, and economy and rational planning on the other. Moreover, the expression of a single value position can give rise to numerous difficulties in practice. For example, the implementation of parental choice gives rise to the following tensions:

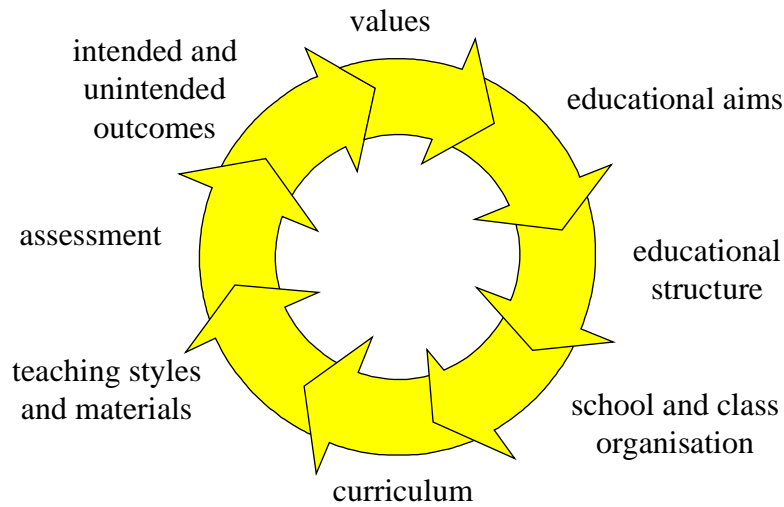
diversity of provision	↔	parity of esteem
free market	↔	rational planning and use of resources
vouchers and privatisation	↔	social justice
competing demands	↔	unmet needs

Reflecting values in education

In an ideal world, national values which are clearly understood and shared by all, form a coherent thread which permeates the education system from aims through to outcomes in clear steps (see Figure 1).

¹ For an analysis of education reform in England and Wales 1979-1994, see: LE MÉTAIS, 1995.

Figure 1 - Reflecting values in education

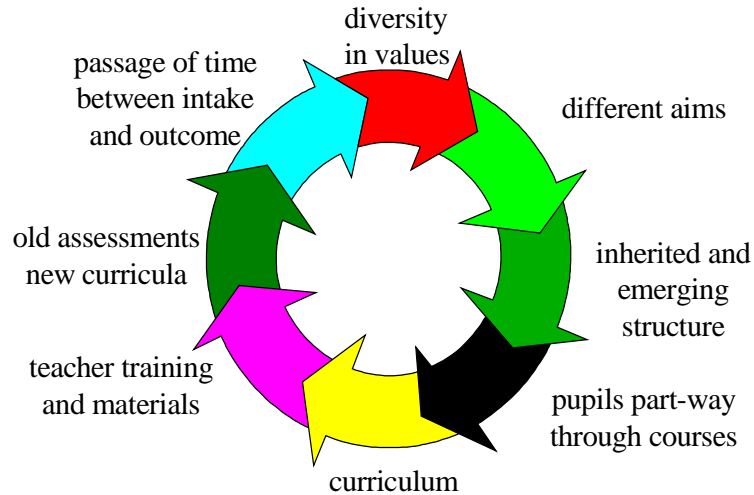


This coherence would be reflected from **aims**, through **educational structure** (duration of compulsory education, phases and types of schools), institutional **organisation** of pupils (grouping by age, general ability or curriculum choice), teachers (specialists or generalist; one per class or team teaching) and time. The **curriculum** (subject-based or interdisciplinary, balance between breadth and depth, and content) would be consistent with aims and structure and supported by appropriate **teaching styles** (achieved through initial and in-service teacher education) and **materials**. Finally, the methods and frequency of **assessment** would be chosen to enable all students to demonstrate the extent to which they had achieved the educational aims and internalised national values. Where discrepancies arose, deficiencies in any of the stages could be identified and addressed.

However, this model is too simple. National values may be neither national nor discrete. As a result, there may be dissonance between the aims of education expressed by legislation or reforms, and those pursued by students, teachers, parents, education administrators and others. It may be difficult for a single educational structure to reflect a diversity of values and aims, and similar conflicts may arise with respect to internal organisation, curriculum, teaching methods and materials and assessment. It is therefore not surprising that assessments reveal both intended and unintended outcomes and that the level of satisfaction with 'the system' varies. Equally, within a context of limited resources, the most important of which is probably the amount of learning/teaching time, choices have to be made between different learning and teaching objectives. As a result, criticisms may be levelled at the system for failing to: instil basic values; teach basic skills; develop higher order thinking and problem solving skills; develop creativity, flexibility and cooperative working; prepare young people for today's jobs; prepare them for tomorrow's unemployment and lifelong learning and so forth. These criticisms reflect different expectations or different value positions.

There is also an important time dimension to the comparison of values and aims in curriculum and assessment systems (see Figure 2).

Figure 2 - The effect of time on values in education



- 1 Education is a long-term project. It takes time to make and implement policy, build schools, train and recruit staff, develop curricula, materials and assessment instruments, and all this must be achieved before the first pupil attends class. It takes a further 10-12 years for a pupil to complete his/her compulsory education.
- 2 The passing of time brings about social and economic changes which may affect the continuing relevance (or 'shelf life') of educational aims. The time taken to establish or reform the infrastructure reduces the 'shelf-life' remaining once a new system becomes operational.
- 3 There is no point at which education can start with a clean slate - there are always inherited structures, pupils part-way through the process, and teachers with knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired to meet previous needs. The benefits of reforms in one aspect, for example, the curriculum, will not be fully achieved, or demonstrable, until other elements (e.g. teaching styles, materials and assessment instruments) have been adapted.
- 4 In terms of measuring outcomes, whilst the achievement of some aims (e.g. functional literacy) may reasonably be assessed at specific points during compulsory education, success in others (achieving individual potential, developing positive attitudes to lifelong learning and flexibility to deal with change) may not be clear until much later.

Thus, any education system, at any given point in time, is a combination of the past, the present and the future. The past is represented through aims and values, and the mode of working and expectations of the teaching force. For many teachers, the defining years are those in which they are trained and first enter the profession. The present is represented, for example, in current assessment arrangements, which tend to have a

relatively high immediate impact on curriculum practice. The future is often set out in the curriculum, since curricula tend to contain aspirations to optimise good practice. Understanding aims and values means understanding the interaction of these different features and the successful implementation of reforms needs to take these factors into consideration.

It is clear therefore, that identifying national values and educational aims is not simply a matter of reading the texts or working backwards from educational systems and provisions. The remainder of this paper summarises national differences in values and educational aims, drawn from the Archive and the seminar, under five headings:

- expressing values and aims
- structural influences
- national identity
- character and moral education
- measuring progress.

Expressing values

The countries in the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks project may be categorised in three broad groups, according to the degree of detail with which national values are expressed or prescribed in education legislation.

Minimal reference to values in education legislation

The countries in this group share a commitment to pluralism and devolved authority. Values are expressed in the Constitution and/or other statutes, which provide a framework for the expression of values through devolved educational structures.

Under the Constitution, responsibility for education in **Canada** is vested in the Provinces and Territories. The values underpinning education are therefore principally reflected in sub-national legislation. However, the Provinces and Territories have developed diversified systems of education, designed to be universally accessible and to respond to the bilingual and multicultural character of Canadian society.

England has no written Constitution nor Bill of Rights and it is not customary to dwell on values nor to monitor the success of curriculum and assessment arrangements with specific attention to values². Basic values such as equality of opportunity, irrespective of gender, race and disability are explicit in other legislation such as the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, the Race Relations Act 1976, the Disabled Persons (Services, Consultation and Representation) Act 1986 and the Disability Discrimination Act 1995. The most important values underlying education legislation in England include respect for the individual and equality of opportunity. The Department for Education and Employment's expressed values

² See however, the explicit rationale statement on values, aims and purposes, introduced as part of the revised national curriculum for 2000 [at: http://www.nc.uk.net/about/values_aims_purposes.html]

include: enabling individuals to achieve their full potential; and enhancing choice and diversity for parents and students.

Hungary has seen a specific change, in response to political revolution and the creation of a democratic society. Until 1989, the curriculum reinforced Communist values. In 1990, the government removed explicit values statements from the curriculum, and devolved decision-making powers to schools. The objectives of the new National Core Curriculum (NCC) honour basic human rights, children's rights, freedom of conscience and religion and the values of school education, as well as minority rights, as laid down in the Constitution, in the preamble to the Education Act (1993) and in international agreements.

In the **Netherlands**, the State does not prescribe values and the education system is characterised by pluralism and autonomy. Pluralism is fostered through the Constitutional 'freedom of foundation, orientation and organisation' and a guarantee that all schools which meet basic standards will be funded at an equivalent level. The competent authority of each individual school (that is, the municipality or a denominational or other body that established it) determines its values and aims. At this level, one may find very explicit, even prescriptive values. Autonomy is reflected through the devolution of management and financial responsibilities, again to the competent authority. Debates at various levels lead to guidelines and teaching materials, which may be voluntarily adopted by competent authorities, but cannot be imposed.

The Constitution in the **USA** reflects its emergence from its colonial past, in a framework of individual and collective rights and responsibilities. There is a focus on civic morality, knowledge and common agreement. There is a concern for universal public education which will teach people to think independently and creatively and to avoid subservience to the will of others. It safeguards the rights of the individual with regard to matters of conscience but devolves the control of education to the States and Districts. Within this framework, the imposition of a national set of values would be perceived as a threat to individual and State liberties. However, the commitment to universal public education is seen as the key to a truly democratic society. Successive administrations seek to achieve a broad consensus concerning values and aims. Where consensus on specific educational programmes or objectives is achieved, and carried through into (federal) legislation, federal resources may be allocated in support of their achievement. Consensus-seeking is an essential feature of education at all levels.

National values expressed in general terms

In this group of countries, general statements on values are made at national level, but the details are determined by the authorities with devolved responsibilities.

One example is **Australia** where, within a system of devolved authority to the States and Territories, education legislation and practice are essentially based on the principle of equal access at all levels. The Federal Government, in cooperation with the State and Territory Governments, has played an increasing role in promoting equity and an education that reflects its commitment to social justice. Some value perspectives are supported by legislation not specific to

education. Individual States and Territories explicitly indicate values in their legislation and guidelines.

Attitudes and values, along with knowledge and skills, are an integral part of the **New Zealand** Curriculum. The curriculum does not prescribe specific values, recognising that the values held by individuals and by various groups may vary greatly, but it assumes that the values of individual and collective responsibility which underpin New Zealand's democratic society are supported by most people in most communities.

The post-Franco Constitution of 1978 sets the framework for democracy in **Spain**, within which

it is expected that education contributes to traditional values adapting themselves to emerging realities, and also that it will help for new values to appear and transfer them so that we can reinforce these realities without any great individual or collective disasters taking place. (Spain. Ministry of Education and Science, 1990.)

The new democracy was to be reinforced not only through educational reform but also through the process of securing that reform,

which continually demands that it be argued and accepted by the whole of our society... progressively introduced over a sustained period ... with the extensive support that must be assured for its prolonged survival. [and] the active, motivated and reflexive participation of the personnel fundamental to education itself. (Spain. Ministry of Education and Science, 1990.)

This operational value, reinforced by devolved responsibility, means that values are centrally guided but not imposed.

National values expressed in detail

Countries with highly centralised systems tend to express very detailed aims and clear educational and social values. For example, in **Japan**, the Fundamental Law of Education (1949) enunciates explicit values:

Education shall aim at full development of personality, at rearing a people, sound in mind and body, who love truth and justice, esteem individual values, respect labour, have a deep sense of responsibility and are imbued with an independent spirit as the builders of a peaceful state and society. (Kanaya, 1993).

The values underlying education in the **Republic of Korea** are expressed at three levels. The Constitution defines basic values which have changed little since their adoption some fifty years ago. Education legislation and the national curriculum provide more specific statements of values as they relate to education and these are subject to regular review. Whilst wholesale change is uncommon, influences of the changing world make themselves felt through, for example, a growing materialism and the need to compete effectively on an international basis.

In **Singapore**, the government undertakes wide consultation to achieve consensus but despite the centralised system, there is diversity, especially between the

denominational schools and non-denominational schools. Inspectors look at school statements of values, aims and mission as a framework for inspecting what is delivered and how.

In contrast to the three Pacific Rim countries, **Sweden** has a devolved system but nevertheless prescribes, in considerable detail, the basic and operational values underpinning its education system and how they should be transmitted. These include: the inviolability of human life, individual freedom and integrity, equal value, solidarity with the weak and vulnerable, understanding and compassion, open discussion, internationalisation of Swedish society, and empathy with the values and conditions of others.

Evolving values

Whilst basic values may alter little over time, political changes often serve as a stimulus for a major change, either in the expressed values themselves, or in the way in which they are expressed. Yet, the nature of this change varies. It may be linked to aspirations for national identity or for a break with the past. Thus the Korean concern for democracy reflects its national history of conflict and competition with communist North Korea. The Spanish reforms stress the involvement of parents and students in the life and decision-making of the school, reflecting its relatively new democracy. Some central and eastern European countries (for example, Hungary) are striving to re-establish national, rather than Soviet, values and carry these through into their aims and systems.

There are other, perhaps less dramatic, influences which nevertheless bring about change. Parental expectations have been a significant contributor to student performance and lead to increasing competition for access to the most prestigious education institutions in many countries, but most strikingly in the Pacific Rim states. In the **Republic of Korea** it has been found that the material benefits of increased social and professional status are providing a more powerful incentive than the intrinsic value traditionally placed on scholarship and education.

Another stimulus comes from the realisation in many countries that dependence on primary or material resources is no longer sufficient and that future employment and economic prosperity require highly developed human resources. This is underlined by increasing awareness of a country's success (or lack of it) relative to that of other countries in terms of international test results, employment and economic indicators. Targeted stimulus for change comes from employers in the **USA** who enter into specific agreements with districts and schools concerning educational aims and targets, in return for establishing plant locally and providing employment for 'suitably trained' personnel.

The education world is getting smaller, in the sense that policy-makers in very distant countries are becoming more aware of each others' approaches and outcomes. International studies of student achievement increasingly influence education policy. With a primary focus on student achievement, these studies may cause (or reinforce) the value of educational competitiveness based on a limited range of measurable outcomes.

Finally, funding provides a powerful incentive for change, even in 'decentralised' countries, where it has encouraged participation in 'national' initiatives such as pre-school education (e.g. Headstart in the USA), adding a vocational dimension to general education (Technical and Vocational Education Initiative in England).

Tensions between values

It is important to distinguish between the formal value system and the informal or implicit system espoused by practitioners. Information on the latter often emerged during the seminar from the way in which participants structured their descriptions of their system. It is by no means straightforward to measure values-in-use. There are a few national research studies and there has been some international cooperation in recent years, through the International Association for Educational Assessment (IEA) and through European groups such as the Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe (CIDREE). However, even where research has been carried out, the situation may be more complex than the findings suggest.

For example, a **Korean** study showed evidence of a reduction in the congruence between the stated values and values-in-use. Traditionally, obedience to and respect for elders were more highly valued than pupil independence. Many parents wished to improve their children's social status and made considerable sacrifices to secure their children's success. For their part, Korean children were expected to sacrifice play in favour of extra learning. Strong competition, reinforced by assessments and examinations, led to the establishment of many private institutions which provide tuition outside school. Surveys of pupils also indicated strong support for 'values' or virtues such as 'basic etiquette' (defined as 'healthy living'), 'regular life', honesty and sincerity, which were also highly regarded by teachers. However, more recently, individuals have increasingly pursued the material benefits of social advancement, which reflects a transfer from intrinsic to extrinsic motivation for educational success. Equally, at government level, more emphasis is being placed on creativity and diversity, in pursuit of national economic success.

Conflicts between individual and collective values are found in **Spain** where the legislation based on the Constitution defines the educational right and obligation as 'schooling' and the gypsy community expresses opposition to obligatory school attendance.

In the **USA**, conflicts can arise between different constitutional rights. For example, the insistence by certain fundamentalist groups on the teaching of 'creationism' (instead of Darwinian theories of evolution) opposes freedom of belief and the separation of church and school. It is important to remember that whilst constitutional rights (such as freedom of religion) can be defended in law, values cannot, and therefore fundamentalists' challenges to values have implications for rights.

Aims

Value positions logically imply (or dispose us towards) particular aims, structures and working methods. Aims are easier to define, and may also be expressed as objectives,

goals and targets. Educational aims may be intrinsic (e.g. to contribute to lifelong education, to develop knowledge, skills and understanding for the individual and society) or instrumental (preparing young people for work and contributing to the national economy). They may focus on developing individual qualities or capacities, or on promoting citizenship and a sense of community or safeguarding a cultural heritage (or literacy).

Expressing educational aims

The *INCA* Archive contains the specific aims for individual countries which have been mentioned in the documentation consulted (see summary in Appendix 1). Aims may be specific or they may be general, for example, to acknowledge or promote cultural, religious and social diversity. Examples of aims outlined by different countries are listed below in broad categories, although these are not mutually exclusive and there is overlap between categories in some aims.

artistic

Australia: to develop an appreciation and understanding of, and confidence to participate in, the creative arts

Korea: to appreciate the arts

cultural

Australia: to develop understanding and respect for cultural heritage

Canada: to respond to the bilingual and multicultural character of society

England: to promote the ... cultural ... development of pupils at the school and of society

Korea: to preserve and develop natural culture

Netherlands: to recognise that young people are growing up in a multicultural society

New Zealand: to develop respect for the diverse ethnic and cultural heritage of New Zealand people with acknowledgement of the unique place of the Maori

developmental

Australia: to provide a foundation for further education and training, in terms of knowledge and skills, respect for learning and positive attitudes for lifelong education

Canada: to prepare students for further education, work and everyday life

Korea: to develop a respect for learning, a quest for truth and an ability to think scientifically to help individuals lead creative and rational lives

New Zealand: to provide a broad education through a balanced curriculum covering essential learning areas and skills with high levels of competence in basic literacy and numeracy, science and technology, to participate successfully in the changing technological and economic environment

Singapore: to develop literacy, numeracy, bilingualism, physical education, moral education and creative thinking

Sweden: to develop the ability to work independently and solve problems

economic

Australia: to prepare students to meet changing employment needs and the requirement for a 'productive work-force' in the current and emerging economic and social needs of the nation

England: to prepare young people for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life and to increase the relevance of student achievement to the world of work so as to enhance the nation's international competitiveness

France: to prepare students for work, not just for qualifications

Korea: to work diligently, be thrifty, be honest and responsible and become productive workers and wise consumers

USA: to teach students to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning and productive employment in the nation's modern economy

environmental

Australia: to promote an understanding of, and concern for, balanced development and the global environment

Korea: to appreciate nature

Switzerland: to teach a sense of responsibility towards the environment

personal

Australia: to promote the creative use of leisure time

Japan: to develop the capacity to cope positively with a changing society

Korea: to develop broadmindedness, a healthy body and creativity in individuals, self-reliance and awareness of the individual

Spain: to promote progressive independence within their environment

Sweden: to enable young people to keep their bearings in a complex reality, with a vast flow of information and rapid change

political

Korea: to promote patriotism and affection for others for the continuance and development of national independence as well as world peace

New Zealand: to prepare students to participate as active and informed citizens in a democratic society, within an international context and to acknowledge New Zealand's role in the Pacific and as a member of the international community of nations

social

Korea: to teach students to love freedom, observe a sense of responsibility and live harmoniously in society

Sweden: to teach students to give of their best in responsible freedom

moral or religious

Australia: to develop a capacity for judgement in matters of morality, ethics and social justice

England: to promote the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental ... development of pupils at the school and of society

New Zealand: to create a community of shared values

Sweden: to instil those values on which society is based and to help students to develop the ability to critically examine facts and relationships and appreciate the consequences of the various alternatives facing them

physical

Australia: to promote physical and personal health and fitness

Japan: education shall aim at ... rearing a people, sound in mind and body

Korea: to acquire the knowledge and attitudes necessary for the sound growth and development of body and soul and to acquire courage and perseverance

Like values, aims may reflect a country's historical and geographical context. The 1989 educational reform in **Spain** was preceded by extensive consideration of, and public consultation on, the values and aims of education. The reforms introduced a decentralised model whereby responsibility for education was devolved to the Autonomous Communities (although the transfer of responsibilities is not yet complete).

International comparisons such as the Third International Maths and Science Survey also exercise an influence on educational aims. Reactions to such surveys vary. Whilst some countries express concern at their relatively poor performance, setting international achievement targets (e.g. **New Zealand, USA**), others seem able to distance themselves. For example, there was evidence from the seminar that **Korea** paid less attention to its position as a leading performer in the TIMSS survey because Korea was already aware that it was relatively successful with the youngest pupils. Korea was more concerned that this relative advantage diminished as students grew older.

Relationships between values and aims

There is a clear link between values and educational aims, despite the variations in the way in which they are expressed. For example, the intrinsic value of education is reflected in the almost universal entitlement to free education, expressed in most countries as the individual's right. However, **Germany** defines it as a parent's right to have free education for their children and **England, Italy, Japan, the Republic of Korea** as a parental duty. In the **Netherlands**, legislation (1969) explicitly asserts young people's 'right to an education even if their parents do not appreciate the importance of regular schooling'. Recognition of the intrinsic value of lifelong education is exemplified in the constitutional duty of the **Korean** State to promote lifelong education and in **Swedish** legislation.

Recognition of, and respect for, the unique individual are expressed in terms of rights to individual treatment and respect (**Australia, New Zealand, Sweden**), or more generally, in educational aims related to the achievement of individual potential (most countries).

Higher expectations, combined with the increase in the numbers of young people remaining in education beyond the compulsory period, have increased the financial strain. Procedural principles, such as the effective and efficient use of resources and

responsiveness to the community, have acquired the status of operational values in their own right in several education systems (e.g. parts of **Australia, England, New Zealand**). This is often implemented through a mixed market structure of public and private sector schools (see below) and through target setting, performance tables and inspections at institutional level.

Different interpretations may lead to apparently conflicting policies in support of the same values. For example, equality of educational opportunity is an explicitly stated right in virtually all of the countries studied, but schools are comprehensive (non-selective) in some countries, and highly selective in others. Similarly, in some countries freedom of conscience is put into practice through state funding of denominational education (e.g. **Australia, the Netherlands**), whilst elsewhere it results in the removal of explicit denominational education from the school curriculum (e.g. **France**).³

Structural influences on values and aims

The socio-political structure has considerable influence on a country's values and aims and on the ways in which these are agreed and carried forward into policy areas such as education. Of the 16 countries analysed, there are five which have strong 'state' (as opposed to national or federal) control over education: **Australia, Canada, Germany, Switzerland** and the **USA**. The remaining countries have national education systems and national influence and control are exercised through a variety of regulatory means, reflecting different balances between national, regional, local and/or municipal government (see summary in Appendix 2).

Japan, the Republic of Korea and Singapore have highly centralised systems with state control of the structure of the education system, teacher education, the curriculum and textbooks. Elsewhere, there is a growing trend towards decentralisation and the devolution of responsibilities to regions or individual schools. Pluralism is explicitly pursued in many countries:

- to enable individuals or groups to secure the transmission in school of their values and religious or educational philosophy (**Canada, France, Italy, Netherlands**)
- to provide a choice for parents and/or students between schools and courses (e.g. **Australia, Hungary**)
- to provide a mixed market of public sector and private sector provision (e.g. **England, Sweden**).

Private sector schools do not receive state funding in **Italy**, but elsewhere they do, in some instances at levels equivalent to that of public sector schools (e.g. **France, the Netherlands**).

³ Except in the Upper-Rhine, Lower Rhine and Moselle *départements* which have retained a special status since their return to France in 1918.

In its turn, the structure of the education system both reflects and reinforces certain value positions. Thus, a selective education system may be introduced in order to reflect the value of respecting the unique individual, or to promote excellence in a cost-effective way. It may therefore be perceived either as egalitarian and meeting differentiated needs, or as élitist and exclusive.

Implications

The implications of different structural arrangements will be considered under three headings:

- the extent to which the system secures coherent support for, and implementation of, agreed values and aims;
- the balance of power between different parts of the system and between autonomy and accountability;
- the system's flexibility to change.

Coherence

A centralised system, with a 'top-down' model, would appear to favour coherence between national values, educational aims and their implementation and outcomes, even if this strength may be perceived as unacceptable by those whose values and aims diverge from the 'national' view. However, views expressed at the seminar indicated that this is not always the case in practice. In the **Republic of Korea**, for example, the discrepancy which sometimes occurs between the official, state values and intentions and those of the teachers and students was apparent.

The high value accorded to devolved authority in some other countries makes national *direction* difficult, and even national *influence* over educational values and aims is only achieved with particular care, and with due emphasis on proceeding by consensus. Whilst devolved responsibility provides scope for responsiveness to locally identified needs, the resulting diversity may, in itself, be perceived as inequality between regions or schools. The need to secure widespread support undermines a government's ability to standardise levels of resources and their allocation to specific programmes or activities. A striking example is the **USA**, where the following objective is enshrined in federal legislation:

All students will leave Grades 4, 8 and 12, having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography, and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning and productive employment in the nation's modern economy. (Goals 2000: Educate America Act).

Whilst the objective might enjoy wide support, the Federal authorities are unable to measure the extent to which it has been attained, because the States traditionally resist national testing and the Constitution prohibits the Federal Government from imposing tests against the wishes of the State Governments. Moves to devolve responsibility for decision-making have gained support, with an impact on curricula at local level, against a background of the development of national standards. Opponents argue that systemic

reform encroaches on State freedom in education. The argument is strengthened by dissatisfaction with Federal bureaucracy (by parents, teachers, and State administrators) which further undermines opportunities for Federal intervention. In a similar way, the constitutional freedom in the USA, which allows parents to educate their children at home, or which allows State and District authorities to secure educational services from private enterprises operating under contract (e.g. the Edison Project) or through voucher schemes, weakens the control of both State and Federal Governments over the unity of values and educational aims.

On the other hand, it might be argued that the citizens in such countries are better prepared to play an active role in participatory or consultative models of agreeing values and setting objectives. Several countries have sought greater involvement of parents in the 'partnership' of educating their children as a way of securing greater understanding of, and support for, common values and aims. More structured practices include:

- a requirement that the school interact with families and the broader social community (Italy);
- representative membership of school councils (e.g. England, Spain) or committees;
- involving parents in school or classroom activities.

The language used in the following three examples gives an interesting insight into implicit assumptions of the relationship between the partners:

Education supports and complements parental education. (Switzerland)

Every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional and academic growth of children. (USA)

The school shall make clear to pupils and parents the goals of education, the requirements of the school and the rights and obligations of pupils and guardians. (Sweden)

The most detailed statement encountered in the present study is the parent participation policy in Tasmania (**Australia**), whose objective is 'to make sure that parent participation happens in all schools and that it is valued, planned, implemented and evaluated'.

Balance of power

Greater managerial and financial autonomy for schools have been balanced by greater accountability to their immediate 'clients' (students and their parents) for example, through information on their aims, practices and outcomes and involvement of parents, other members of the local community and (less commonly) students, in the decision-making of the school (e.g. **Australia, England, Netherlands, Spain, USA**).

Flexibility

Decentralised systems can be more responsive to local needs but may, as suggested above, make national reforms difficult to implement. Whilst centralised systems should lend themselves to more efficient change on a national scale, the very conformity of those working in such a system may inhibit flexibility. For example, the low value

given to autonomy within the highly centralised structure in the **Republic of Korea** contradicts the creativity and individualism which the Government perceives as essential skills for the nation's future economic success. The Ministry is encouraging the development of these skills, whilst teachers, trained in a conformist environment and striving to control the large classes they teach, continue to promote traditional obedience and conformity on the part of pupils.

National identity

The way in which issues of 'national identity' are expressed in educational aims reflects a number of broader values including freedom, respect for the individual, social cohesion and the preservation of cultural heritage. Political upheavals and international mobility also stimulate governments to review and (re)assert their national identity.

Aims

promoting social cohesion through respect for, and the reconciliation of, diversity

Australia: the National Agenda for Multicultural Australia encourages immigrants to preserve their culture

Hungary: the recognition and integration of the numerous minorities, following the withdrawal of Soviet control

Netherlands: basing education on the principle that pupils grow up in a multi-cultural society

Sweden: the internationalisation of Swedish society combined with increasing cross-border mobility place great demands on people's ability to live together and appreciate the values that are to be found in cultural diversity

Switzerland: education should encourage respect for other languages and cultures

the preservation of cultural or linguistic heritage

Australia: promote understanding and respect for Australia's cultural heritage, including the particular cultural background of Aboriginal and ethnic groups

Canada: safeguards the linguistic freedom for the French-speaking minority

Netherlands: promotes understanding and respect for cultural heritage and protects the Frisian language by its teaching and use in schools in Friesland

New Zealand: respect for the diverse ethnic and cultural heritage of New Zealand people with acknowledgement of the unique place of the Maori

Sweden: awareness of one's own cultural origins and sharing in a common cultural heritage provides a secure identity which it is important to develop, together with the ability to empathise with the values and conditions of others

Switzerland: safeguards linguistic diversity (French, German, Italian and Romanch)

the (re)assertion of a national identity after political upheaval

Germany: following reunification, Germany has focused political and organisational efforts on re-establishing unity between the 11 old and five new *Länder* in the fields of education, science, culture and sport, and particularly on the establishment of a common and comparable basic structure for education

Hungary: re-establishes a national identity after decades of Soviet control, taking into consideration its people resident outside Hungary and the minorities within

national assertiveness within an international framework

Hungary: finding the place of the Nation State in the wider world (Europeanism)

Japan: educating the individual to live in the global human society

Korea: education has served as a means of political socialisation by causing intentional changes in knowledge, behaviour, values and outlook on the nation and the world. It aims to promote patriotism and affection for others for the continuance and development of national independence, as well as world peace and to preserve and develop national culture

New Zealand: acknowledgement of New Zealand's role in the Pacific and as a member of the international community of nations

Provision

The Archive shows several approaches to securing social cohesion:

- *active promotion of multi-cultural knowledge, skills and understanding for all*, e.g. by including the study of other cultures in the curriculum (Australia, the Netherlands)
- *parity of provision*, by supporting the establishment of schools catering for specific religious or cultural groups e.g. religious schools in many countries, specialist Maori medium schools in New Zealand
- *support for the minority group*, e.g. providing facilities for a minority language community to run mother tongue classes (several countries)
- *compensatory programmes* for those perceived as disadvantaged in terms of the national culture or language e.g. national language classes for immigrants (Australia, New Zealand)

Singapore implicitly promotes social cohesion through values, by explicitly according priority to the needs of the community and the nation over those of the individual. Schools in **Sweden** are charged with the task of actively confronting xenophobia and intolerance with knowledge, open discussion and effective measures.

Several countries reinforce the sense of national identity and inculcate pride through ceremonial saluting of the flag and singing the national anthem in school (e.g. **Singapore, USA**).

Character and moral education

This facet of the curriculum deals with the student's personal development and his/her relationships with others in the community or the wider world, some of which were addressed in the previous section. It also includes the development of attitudes, moral judgement and social skills.

In some cases, curricula include little detail concerning specific values and aims, although shared acceptance of the Confucian/humanistic/Christian values underpinning the education system are explicitly assumed, for example in the **Republic of Korea**, the **Netherlands** and **Spain**. Respect for the family and one's elders, and issues of loyalty, integrity and inter-personal competition are often implicit in national curriculum and assessment frameworks. However, as has already been indicated, some of these values are evolving and it can no longer be assumed that they are shared by all members of a community.

It was also clear from the seminar that concern with aspects of student behaviour provides a powerful stimulus for what might be called 'character development and training'. Whilst all countries represented at the seminar expressed concern over discipline problems, closer inspection revealed that the precise nature of the problems can range from lateness (Singapore) and restlessness in large classes (Korea), to drug abuse and violence (USA).

These differences may partly account for the ways in which aims for character development are expressed. Another important factor is the limitations of translation and the use of simple statements to convey complex themes and concepts. For example, 'the humanitarian idea' is the limited translation of a key Korean value founded on the requirement that the young respect their elders. The Archive nevertheless reveals a degree of consistency in the focus on self, relationships, society and environment:

Australia: self-confidence, optimism, high self-esteem, respect for others and achievement of personal excellence; to develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which will enable them to participate as active and informed citizens in a democratic Australian society within an international context

Japan: self-reliant citizens of a peaceful and democratic state and community with a respect for human values; moral education in schools should stop school violence and bullying, solve other behavioural problems and help children overcome school maladjustment problems

Korea: broadmindedness, a healthy body and creativity, self-reliance and awareness of the individual

Netherlands: the education system is expected to contribute to pupils' upbringing on the basis of values acknowledged (notably by Christianity and humanism) as part of the Dutch tradition, to develop understanding and respect for cultural heritage

New Zealand: the first of the Government's aims for the 21st century is the creation of 'a community of shared values', which include honesty, reliability, respect for others, respect for the law, tolerance (*rangimarie*), fairness, caring or compassion (*aroha*), non-sexism and non-racism

Sweden: schools shall represent and impart the equal worth of all people and solidarity with the weak and vulnerable, by fostering in the individual a sense of justice, generosity of spirit, tolerance and responsibility

Switzerland: the harmonious development of the abilities of the child within the framework of the democratic tradition of western civilisation, teaching of tolerance and a sense of responsibility towards others and his/her environment, as well as respect for other languages and cultures

USA: every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. Recognising the influence of the environment, an explicit aim for the *system* is to ensure that every school will be free of drugs, violence and the unauthorised presence of firearms and alcohol and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

Curriculum

The diversity of approaches is also evident in curricular provision. In some countries, moral education is linked to religious education. However, whilst religious education is compulsory for all school pupils in **England**, and forms part of the special character of publicly funded denominational schools in many other countries, it is formally forbidden in state schools in **France**. The lack of religious education does not, however, mean that there is no moral education. It is notable that **Japan**, the **Republic of Korea** and **Singapore** have a clearly defined place for moral education. Elsewhere, moral and character education may be a cross-curricular dimension rather than a separate subject. For example, in the **Netherlands**, a cross-curricular theme concerned with the relationship between the person and the social environment (man and nature, the democratic citizen, gender differences, etc.) is expected to be reflected in all subjects of the basic curriculum. However, practice indicates that this is hard to implement.

Teaching methods

As might be expected, these also vary. Teachers in **Germany** are obliged by law to teach values. Legally speaking, this commitment is just as important as the teaching of knowledge. However, in conformity with the basic law of educational freedom, teachers are free to choose their own methods. In contrast, teachers in **Singapore** operate within a tightly controlled framework. Civic and moral education are compulsory throughout primary and secondary education, based on a structured syllabus and prescribed textbooks. This learning is reinforced through service programmes (e.g. voluntary work in hospitals) and by encouraging students to participate in out-of-school club activities.

Sweden is interesting in the extent to which the school's responsibility for 'inculcating' values are explicitly defined in terms of the development of skills and attitudes, as well as the acquisition of knowledge:

As well as being open to different ideas and encouraging expression, the school shall emphasise the importance of forming personal standpoints and provide pupils with opportunities for doing this. By making choices over courses and evaluation of their daily education, pupils will develop their ability to exercise influence and take responsibility.

The school shall actively and consciously further equal rights and opportunities for men and women. The way in which boys and girls are treated and assessed in school, as well as the demands and expectations that are placed on them, contributes to their perception of gender differences. The school has a responsibility to counteract traditional gender roles and shall therefore provide pupils with the opportunity of developing their own abilities and interests irrespective of their sexual identity.

The school must actively resist any tendency towards bullying or persecution and confront xenophobia and intolerance with knowledge, open discussion and effective measures.

All school activity shall be carried out in accordance with fundamental democratic values. It is not in itself sufficient that education imparts knowledge of fundamental democratic values. The school must also use democratic working methods and prepare pupils for active participation in civic life.

Measuring progress

Aims

Virtually all assessment, at least implicitly, assesses the extent to which an individual student, school or the system has achieved the aims set for the course or the system. As indicated above, the time dimension means that the measurement of any outcome is never a true reflection of the pure effects of aims-structure-school and class organisation-curriculum-teaching style and materials and assessment. Whilst this does not mean that those involved in education should not be held accountable for achieving aims which have been set, any interpretation of outcomes should be carefully related to the inputs and other influences over time.

Values

The measurement of progress in relation to values presents many difficulties. The seminar indicated general agreement that, whilst assessment of student performance in terms of knowledge and skills is widespread, there is little, if any, formal assessment of student growth in terms of attitudes, values and moral judgements. And yet, there are calls for assessment which goes beyond the quantitative (**USA**) particularly as employers are seeking young people who are highly motivated, flexible, independent thinkers and good team workers with leadership potential.

In **Spain**, values are high on the agenda of the government, which wants to establish a framework for measuring them. Proposals to improve the quality of teaching begin with a chapter on values, but many of these are instrumental (e.g. disseminating high quality materials). Most 'measurement' is qualitative and subjective but the National Institute for Quality and Assessment (INCE) is trying to develop indicators.

The main problem facing those who seek to assess educational outcomes in terms of coherence with values is that of definition. Values relate to the nature of society and, in a pluralistic community, are diverse. There may be instances where a state is seeking to promote values and attitudes which conflict with the predominant values of the community. For example, the promotion of creativity in a traditionally conformist and

centralist society in the **Republic of Korea**, or, in several western countries, the promotion of cooperation and teamwork to meet the demands of employers in a society which is overtly competitive. In **Singapore**, generic thinking skills and processes, e.g. analysing, problem solving and decision-making permeate the curriculum.

Other areas of difficulty include:

- *Time*: First, are schools able/willing to devote the amount of time necessary for meaningful assessment? Second, when should assessment take place? For example, at what point can we measure commitment to lifelong learning? Students' moral judgement develops at different rates and in different ways, according to the experiences and opportunities which they have outside as well as in school.
- *Method*: In terms of validity, there is a danger that we measure behaviour and then *infer* values and attitudes. In terms of reliability, there is a danger that we discriminate against those whose values and attitudes differ from those of the school or of the teacher, reflecting instead those of their parents or other social group.
- *Criteria*: Is there a hierarchy of values, aims and attitudes? For example, in Singapore community values 'score' more highly than individual values.
- *Consequences*: The interpretation of grades may cause problems. The fact that a student has not developed moral judgement to a prescribed degree, does not mean that s/he is amoral. Swedish teachers have to justify the grade awarded and they are responsible for ensuring that the student secures a pass in those areas which s/he has failed. How can this requirement be met with regard to values and attitudes?

It has been argued that, by failing to assess the more difficult area of personal qualities, attitudes and social skills, we are implying to pupils, parents and teachers that knowledge and skills are more important.

Conclusions

It is difficult to draw firm conclusions about the place and effect of values and aims in the education systems of the countries in the study. However, the work to date does provide some pointers, and countries, which warrant more detailed consideration.

Changes in and consideration of values may explicitly precede, or remain implicit in, other changes

There is evidence of some cases where consideration of values precedes change. For example, the reforms in **Spain** were preceded by lengthy consultation on values as well as on the proposed changes. The periodic curriculum review in the **Republic of Korea** involves a consideration of changing aims to meet new economic and social challenges. In other cases, reforms have been inspired by perceived economic imperatives (e.g. the teaching of Asian languages in **Australia**, and the promotion of information technology in several countries) or international comparisons (e.g. the increase in mathematics teaching in **Australia**, the change in use of calculators in schools in **England**, and the increased priority

accorded to maths and science in **Canada** and the **USA**, following the publication of the TIMSS results).

Whilst some reforms reflect the prominence given to specific values (e.g. the devolution of financial and management responsibility to schools in pursuit of greater institutional responsiveness to local needs and raising standards through competition in **England** and the **Netherlands**), the introduction of these initiatives has not necessarily been preceded by a general review of values and aims.

The explicit statement of shared values can make a difference to policy

The information available suggests that explicit statements of the values underpinning educational aims will only increase the coherence between values aims and structures if they are endorsed by those most closely involved, that is, teachers, parents and education administrators.

The explicit statement of values can make a difference to process

Despite the explicitness of the government's aims, there may be difficulties in bringing about change, as a result of values dissonance between the government and individual teachers. However, the explicit declaration of an aim may *indirectly* bring about the desired change by securing funding for implementation and for staff development.

From the information available, no direct link can be made between the value of participation and the policy of involving parents and the community more closely in the work of the school. This may be part of a general trend towards greater accountability and responsiveness of publicly funded services to those most closely involved. Alternatively, it may be prompted by the recognition that parents are willing to invest their time and expertise in improving their own child's education.

The explicit statement of aims may make a difference to outcome

The danger in attributing causal relationships between clarity of aims and outcome may be demonstrated in a comparison of performance in the TIMSS tests with the statement of values and aims compiled in the Archive.

Table 1 - Performance of Year 9 students from England (international eighth grade) and those of other countries in the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks project (adapted from Keys, 1996b)

	Science	Mathematics
<i>England significantly higher than</i>	Canada; France; Germany; New Zealand; Spain; Sweden; Switzerland	Spain
<i>Not significantly different from England</i>	Australia; Hungary; Netherlands; United States	Denmark; Germany; New Zealand; United States
<i>England significantly lower than</i>	Japan; Korea; Singapore	Australia; Canada; France; Hungary; Japan; Korea; Netherlands; Singapore; Sweden; Switzerland

The countries with explicit values and aims statements (Japan, Korea, Singapore and Sweden) have performed better than England in both mathematics and

science. Three of the countries which, like England, do not have detailed prescription of values and aims countries (Hungary, the Netherlands, USA) performed at a similar level as England in science, but two performed significantly better in mathematics.

The seminars have demonstrated that it is essential to review the curriculum and assessment frameworks in the Archive with representatives from the relevant countries

- to understand the unstated values and aims underlying the intended curriculum and planned reforms
- to challenge stereotypical expectations or assumptions about the meaning of words or concepts. For example, the ‘regulated attainment targets’ in the **Netherlands** entail much less central control than the non-regulatory curriculum ‘guidelines’ in the **Republic of Korea**
- to help us avoid generalisations. For example, despite the similarities, there are significant differences between primary education in the Pacific Rim countries in the study
- to gain an insight into participants’ perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of their own systems and their perceptions of ours.

Overall, the project has demonstrated the importance of avoiding superficial solutions to education reform and of carefully examining alternative approaches to, say, selective secondary education or to moral and character education *in the context of* other countries’ implicit and explicit values and educational aims, structure and curriculum and assessment arrangements. The links are complex and may be subtle, but they are always significant. Where the values and aims of one’s own country are at variance with those of the country being studied, then educational provisions adopted from the latter may not achieve the desired aims at home.

Bibliographical references

BATHORY, Z. (1992). ‘Hungarian experiences in international student achievement surveys’, *Prospects*, **22**, 4, 434-40.

BEATON, A.E., MARTIN, M.O., MULLIS, I.V.S., GONZALEZ, E.J., SMITH, T.A. and KELLY, D.L. (1996). *Science Achievement in the Middle School Years: IEA’s Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)*. Boston, MA: Boston College, Centre for the Study of Testing, Evaluation, and Educational Policy.

BEATON, A.E., MULLIS, I.V.S., MARTIN, M.O., GONZALEZ, E.J., KELLY, D.L. and SMITH, T.A. (1996). *Mathematics Achievement in the Middle School Years: IEA’s Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)*. Boston, MA: Boston College, Centre for the Study of Testing, Evaluation, and Educational Policy.

BROOKS, G. (1996). *Reading Performance at Nine*. Slough: NFER.

BROWN, M. (1996). ‘FIMS and SIMS: the first two IEA International Mathematics Surveys’, *Assessment in Education*, **3**, 2, 193-212.

HENKEL, M. (1991). *Government, Evaluation and Change*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

KANAYA, T. (1993). 'Japan'. In: POSTLETHWAITE, T. N. (1993). *International Encyclopaedia of National Systems of Education*. Second Edition. London: Pergamon.

KEYS, W. (1996a). 'Take care when you compare', *Times Educ. Suppl.*, **4172**, 14 June, 16.

KEYS, W. (1996b). 'What do international comparisons really tell us?' Presentation to National Foundation for Educational Research Annual Conference, London, 10 December.

KOGAN, M. (1986). *Educational Accountability: an Analytical Overview*. London: Hutchinson.

LE MÉTAIS, J. (1995). *Legislating for Change: School Reforms in England and Wales, 1979-1994*. Slough: NFER.

LE MÉTAIS, J., O'DONNELL, S., BOYD, S. and TABBERER, R. (1997). *International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks: The Archive*. London: School Curriculum and Assessment Authority.

SPAIN. MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE (1990). *The White Paper for the Reform of Educational System*. Madrid: Ministry of Education and Science.

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT (OECD) (1992). *The OECD International Education Indicators: a Framework for Analysis*. Paris: OECD.

RYLE, G. (1949). *The Concept of Mind*. London: Hutchinson.

WATANABE, R. (1992). 'How Japan makes use of international educational survey research', *Prospects*, **22**, 4, 455-62.

Appendix 1 - National education aims

Educational aims, purposes, goals and principles *as stated in documents consulted* (see the description for each country in the Archive).

	Eng	Aust	Can	Fran	Germ	Hung	Italy	Japan	Korea	Neth	NZ	Sing	Spain	Swed	Switz	USA ⁴
Excellence	X	X	X						X		X	X				X
Individual development	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Social development	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
Personal qualities	X	X	X				X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Equal opportunity	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
National economy	X	X	X			X	X	X	X		X	X	X			X
Preparation for work	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Basic skills	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Foundation for further education	X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X	X		X	
Knowledge/skills/understanding	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Citizenship/community/democracy	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cultural heritage/literacy		X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Creativity		X	X				X	X	X	X		X				
Environment		X	X						X			X				
Health/physical/leisure		X	X				X	X	X	X		X	X	X		
Lifelong education		X	X						X		X	X		X		
Parental participation		X	X				X				X	X		X	X	X
	Eng	Aust	Can	Fran	Germ	Hung	Italy	Japan	Korea	Neth	NZ	Sing	Spain	Swed	Switz	USA

Australia, Canada, Germany, Switzerland and the USA have devolved systems and there are regional and local variations.

Appendix 2 - Levels of control and administrative organisation

The levels indicated in **bold** are those which have major responsibilities for decision making.

	National level	Second level	Third level	Institutional level	
England	Ministry (DfEE)	Approx. 150 local education authorities (LEAs)		School governing bodies	Devolved responsibility to schools
Australia	<i>Commonwealth</i>	6 States and 2 Territories	<i>Districts (Tas)</i>	<i>(optional) school councils (Tas)</i>	<i>Local school management being introduced on voluntary basis (Tasmania)</i>
Canada	<i>Confederation</i>	10 Provinces and 2 Territories ⁵	School Boards (elected Members)	School councils (non- elected)	<i>In Canada, federal control is informal, through Council of Ministers of Education (Toronto)</i>
France	2 Education Ministries	22 régions	96 départements or communes		Devolved responsibility to <i>régions</i> (post-compulsory), <i>départements</i> (secondary) and <i>communes</i> (primary)
Germany	<i>Federal Govt.</i>	16 Länder	<i>Local school districts</i>		<i>Länder set guidelines; local school districts recruit staff, determine curricular content and choose texts</i>
Hungary	Ministry	3000 municipalities or counties		School	
Italy	Ministry	20 regional <i>sovrintendenas</i>	Provveditorato and communes	School council	Centralised policymaking. Some delegation of administrative powers from provinces to schools
Japan	Ministry (Monbusho)	47 prefectures (responsible for upper sec)	3246 municipalities (compulsory ed)		Ministry oversees; prefectures operate upper secondary and support municipalities
Korea	Ministry	15 Municipal/Provincial Education Authorities (MPEA)	179 regional offices of education	'School management committees'	Plans for devolution of school budgets to school management committees
Netherlands	Ministry	Provinces	Municipalities (<i>Gemeente</i>)	c 6300 Competent Authorities	Devolution of financial and management responsibility to competent authorities. School plans from 1998
New Zealand	Ministry and 7 Central Agencies			Board of Trustees (from 1989)	Trustees develop a Charter - aims, purposes etc.
Singapore	Ministry			School/Principal	
Spain	Ministry	17 Autonomous Communities	Provinces, municipalities		
Sweden	Ministry	Municipalities		School principals	
Switzerland	<i>Confederation</i>	26 Cantons	<i>Boroughs</i>		
U.S.A.	<i>Federal Govt</i>	50 States	<i>Districts</i>	<i>School</i>	

⁵ **Canada:** Territories have territorial government within federal framework, but exercise less autonomy than Provinces.