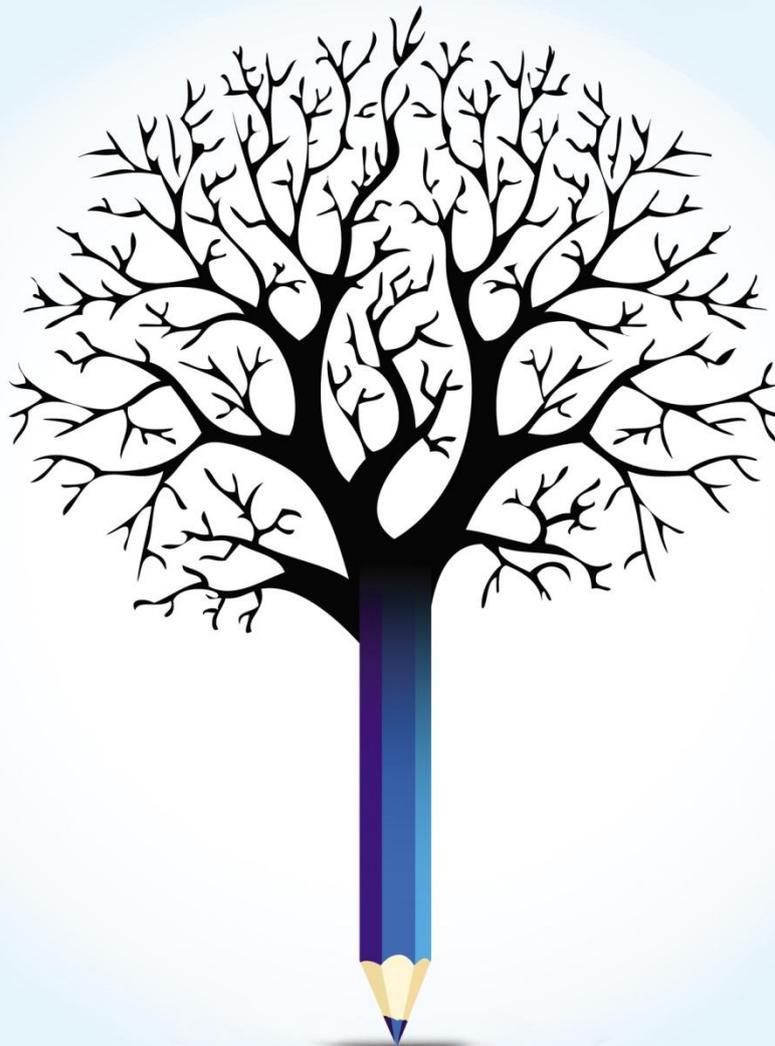




EDUCATION POLICY OUTLOOK **CHILE**



EDUCATION POLICY OUTLOOK

This **policy profile on education** in Chile is part of the new *Education Policy Outlook* series, which will present comparative analysis of education policies and reforms across OECD countries. Building on the substantial comparative and sectorial policy knowledge base available within the OECD, the series will result in a biennial publication (first volume in 2014). It will develop a comparative outlook on education policy by providing: a) analysis of individual countries' educational context, challenges and policies (education policy profiles) and of international trends and b) comparative insight on policies and reforms on selected topics.

Designed **for policy makers, analysts and practitioners** who seek information and analysis of education policy taking into account the importance of national context, the country policy profiles will offer constructive analysis of education policy in a comparative format. Each profile will review the current context and situation of the country's education system and examine its challenges and policy responses, according to six policy levers that support improvement:

- **Students:** How to raise outcomes for all in terms of 1) equity and quality and 2) preparing students for the future
- **Institutions:** How to raise quality through 3) school improvement and 4) evaluation and assessment
- **System:** How the system is organised to deliver education policy in terms of 5) governance and 6) funding.

Some country policy profiles will contain spotlight boxes on selected policy issues. They are meant to draw attention to specific policies that are promising or showing positive results and may be relevant for other countries.

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Authors: This country policy profile was prepared by Beatriz Pont, Guillermo Montt (main drafter), Etienne Albiser, Juliana Zapata and Sylvain Fraccola (statistics and design) of the Education Policy Outlook team, which is part of the Policy Advice and Implementation Division, led by Richard Yelland. Editorial support was provided by Lynda Hawe and Susan Copeland. This profile builds on the knowledge and expertise of many project teams across the OECD's Directorate for Education and Skills, to whom we are grateful.

Sources: This country profile draws on OECD indicators from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) and the annual publication *Education at a Glance*, and refers to country and thematic studies such as OECD work on early childhood education and care, teachers, school leadership, evaluation and assessment for improving school outcomes, equity and quality in education, governing complex education systems, vocational education and training, and tertiary education.

Most of the figures quoted in the different sections refer to Annex B, which presents a table of the main indicators for the different sources used throughout the country profile. Hyperlinks to the reference publications are included throughout the text for ease of reading, and the References and further reading section lists the OECD and non-OECD sources used throughout the document.

More information is available from the OECD Directorate for Education and Skills (www.oecd.org/edu) and its web pages on Education Policy Outlook (www.oecd.org/edu/policyoutlook.htm).



TABLE OF CONTENTS

HIGHLIGHTS	4
Equity and quality	
Despite significant improvement, low equity and performance persist	6
Preparing students for the future	
Increased educational attainment but challenging transitions to tertiary education or the labour market	9
School improvement	
Focusing on teachers and principals	11
Evaluation and assessment to improve student outcomes	
Towards a comprehensive system of evaluation and assessment	13
Governance	
High levels of local autonomy within a central framework	15
Funding	
Public spending in the form of demand-side and indirect subsidies	17
Annex A: Structure of Chile's education system	19
Annex B: Statistics	20
References and further reading	23

Figures

Figure 1. Student performance in reading and impact of economic, social and cultural status	5
Figure 2. Upper secondary and tertiary attainment	5
Figure 3. Reading performance and percentage of low and top performers	7
Figure 4. Students in education and not in education, by educational attainment and work status	10
Figure 5. School principals' and students' views on learning environment	12
Figure 6. Student assessment by purpose	14
Figure 7. Decisions in public lower secondary schools, by level of government	16
Figure 8. Expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP	18

Spotlights

Spotlight 1: Supporting equity with funding adapted to need (Preferential Education Subsidy)	8
Spotlight 2: Raising standards for teachers and school leaders	12



HIGHLIGHTS

Chile's context and challenges

Students: Educational attainment and reading performance in Chile have shown some of the largest improvements across OECD countries in recent years. Equity remains an issue, particularly for socio-economically disadvantaged students and students in rural areas. In PISA 2009, a large proportion of students still exhibit low reading proficiency. Enrolment in pre-primary programmes has increased, but it remains low at early ages. Educational practices that may hinder greater progress in equity include grade repetition, school choice, and transfers to other schools for struggling secondary students. Upper secondary completion has increased to exceed the OECD average in 2011, and most students expect to continue on to higher education. However, for the one-third of students enrolled in vocational education and training (VET) programmes, the transition into further education and the labour market is challenging. Tertiary education enrolment and completion has also increased considerably in recent decades, reaching the OECD average.

Institutions: Chile's learning environments are similar to those in other OECD countries, according to PISA findings, but they also show great variation across schools. School leaders exercise pedagogical leadership and receive in-service training, but until recently they did not necessarily reach their position through professional recruitment. Results of candidates entering the teaching profession on a voluntary national University Selection Test (*Prueba de Selección Universitaria*, PSU) show that while progress has been made, there is a need for improvement. Support for teachers includes clear standards, [comprehensive evaluations](#) intended for improvement and professional development opportunities. The recent creation of institutions to develop more systematic evaluation can contribute to monitoring school processes and guiding school improvement.

Governance and funding: The Ministry of Education sets the central framework and guides educational policy, and schools have autonomy within a regulated framework. Education is delivered by municipalities and by a high proportion of privately managed educational institutions that receive public subsidies. Expenditure on education has increased over the past decade, and investment in educational institutions is now higher than the OECD average. Chile also has the largest share of private funds among OECD countries, mostly due to high private funding in tertiary education.

Key policy issues

Within a context of significant improvements, equity and quality in education are a challenge in relation to other OECD countries. Schools require strong school leaders and support to implement and drive school improvement, along with continued support to improve teaching conditions. The evaluation and assessment framework can be further consolidated for greater coherence. Public funding and quality assurance of tertiary education institutions remain key issues to ensure efficiency and equity. The challenge extends to aligning skills of young people with the needs of the labour market to ensure social progress.

Recent policy responses

To strengthen performance and support disadvantaged students, a financial incentive, the [Ley de Subvención Escolar Preferencial](#), 2008 (Law on Preferential Subsidies) has been introduced. It increases funding for schools that serve disadvantaged students from early childhood through secondary education, while offering more support to these students and their schools. In tertiary education, a more comprehensive scholarship programme pays full tuition expenses for high-performing disadvantaged students, and low interest rates have been set for student loans.

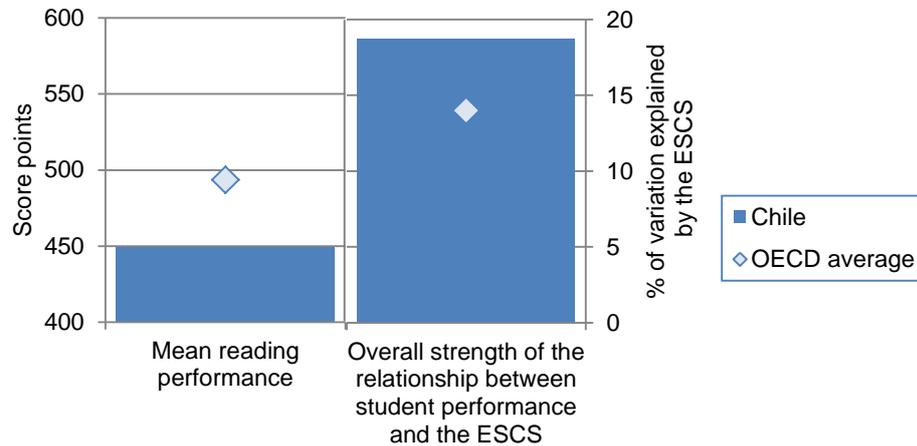
A new accountability system brings together the Ministry of Education, the National Education Council and a newly created Quality of Education Agency ([Agencia de Calidad de la Educación](#), 2012), which is in charge of coordinating national assessments for schools and students, monitoring national system performance and providing information to stakeholders on performance. The [Superintendencia de Educación Escolar](#) also initiated inspections in 2012 to ensure that schools meet legal standards for operation. To support quality assurance in tertiary education, a draft bill introduced in parliament (2013) aims to increase monitoring and promote quality.

Changes designed to enhance professionalism include standards for teachers and school leaders plus a recent reform of the school leadership role, which requires competitive and open selection processes, offers higher salaries and more assistance for professional development, and grants more flexibility in firing teachers.



PISA performance results and equity levels have improved significantly in Chile since 2000, with the highest increase in reading literacy across OECD between 2000 and 2009. However, students perform at a lower-than-average level in PISA, and the impact of socio-economic status on performance is higher than the OECD average.

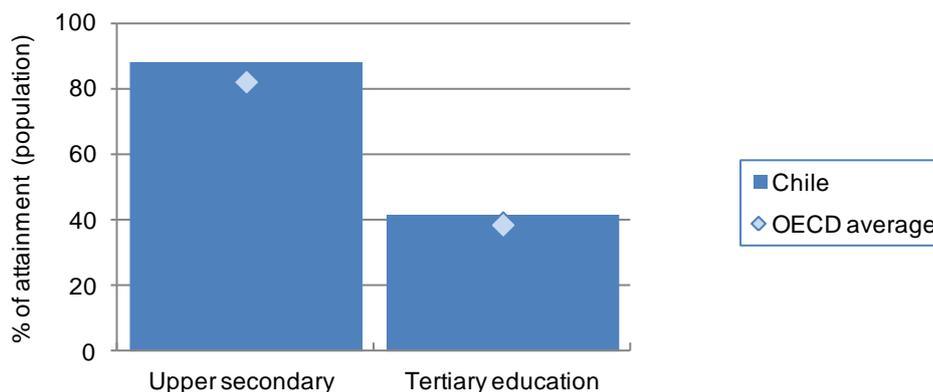
Figure 1. Student performance in reading and relationship between student performance and the economic, social and cultural status (ESCS), for 15-year-olds, PISA 2009



Source: OECD (2010), *PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do: Student Performance in Reading, Mathematics and Science (Volume I)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264091450-en>.

Secondary and tertiary education attainment is similar to the OECD average: 88% of 25-34 year-olds have attained at least secondary education (compared to the OECD average of 82%), and 41% have attained tertiary education (compared to the OECD average of 39%).

Figure 2. Upper secondary and tertiary attainment for 25-34 year-olds, 2011



Source: OECD (2013), *Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2013-en>.



EQUITY AND QUALITY: DESPITE SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENT, LOW EQUITY AND PERFORMANCE PERSIST

Equity indicators as well as the performance of the Chilean system have improved greatly since 2000, with the highest PISA performance increase between 2000 and 2009 in reading literacy. Performance increases were concentrated among low-performing students. Yet challenges remain in raising performance and reducing inequalities: around 30% of students in Chile do not meet basic proficiency in reading and science, and around 50% do not meet basic proficiency in mathematics. In addition, equity levels are low: the impact of socio-economic background on performance of a 15-year-old student is 19%, compared to the OECD average of 14% (Figure 3).

Enrolments in **early childhood education** have been increasing, but in 2011, enrolment rates in pre-primary education for children aged 3-4 reached just 59%, below the OECD average of 74%. Pre-primary education is offered through a mix of public and government-subsidised private providers; and quality assurance mechanisms are new and still in a pilot phase. Improvement in both access and quality of pre-primary education will promote the system's long-term performance and equity.

An [OECD study on equity and quality in education](#) demonstrates that some **system-level policies and practices** (such as school choice, grade repetition and funding schemes that do not address the needs of the most disadvantaged students) can hinder equity if not properly targeted. In 2009, according to PISA, 15-year-old students in Chile were the least likely among OECD member countries to be in a school with peers of different academic performance and socio-economic status. In 2008, a new financial incentive reformed both the open school choice system (that did not provide incentives to counteract segregation) and the funding scheme (that did not allow for more resources to reach the students that needed them the most) (See Spotlight 1). Grade repetition and transfers to other schools are used to deal with struggling secondary students. According to PISA, in 2009, more than 23% of 15-year-old students in Chile reported having repeated at least one grade, above the OECD average of 13%; and 25% of students attended schools which would transfer struggling students. These practices are costly, and evidence shows that they do not promote better student performance over the long run.

Opportunities and results for **students of disadvantaged backgrounds and geographical inequalities** remain a challenge. According to PISA 2009, performance of 15-year-old students attending rural schools is significantly lower than that of their peers in urban schools, even after comparing students of equal socio-economic backgrounds. These performance differences between rural and urban students are among the highest in OECD countries.

The challenge: Reduce the proportion of low performers and enhance system-level policies to support disadvantaged students.

Recent policies and practices

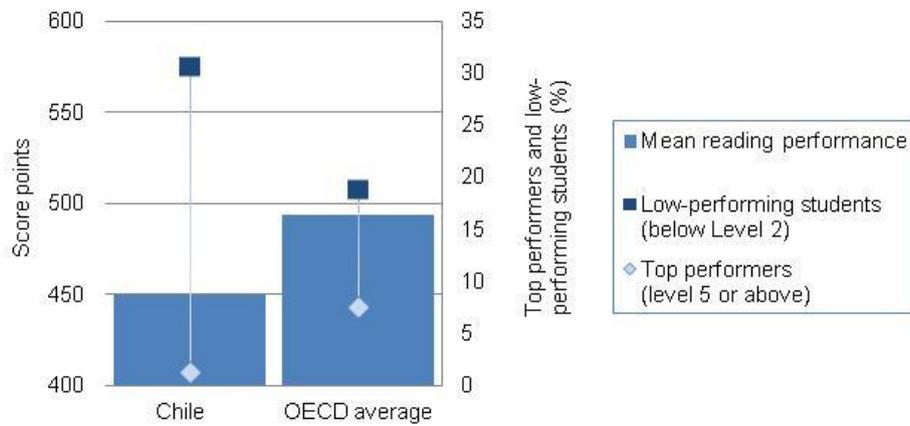
The general education law ([Ley General de Educación](#), 2009) replaced the previous legal framework governing primary and secondary education. It prohibits selection into primary schools based on family income and previous performance and limits schools' ability to expel struggling students to those who have been asked to repeat a grade. This law also introduced an accountability system to monitor student performance (*Sistema de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación*).

Coverage of pre-primary education has been increased systematically since 2006, together with a systematic decrease in the ratio of pupils to staff (teachers and teachers' aides). In 2011, public funding for pre-primary education increased by 17%, to move towards a government-announced goal of universal coverage by 2014 for 4-year-olds and 5-year-olds for families in the lowest 60% of household income distribution. In addition, the subsidy for each enrolled student of this age was increased by 15%.

The law on preferential subsidies ([Ley de Subvención Escolar Preferencial](#), SEP, 2008) provides struggling primary schools with funding and technical and pedagogical support from the Ministry of Education (see Spotlight 1). It was expanded to secondary schools in 2011, and funding has been increased.



Figure 3. Mean score in reading performance and percentage of low and top performers, for 15-year-olds, PISA 2009



Source: OECD (2010), *PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do: Student Performance in Reading, Mathematics and Science (Volume I)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264091450-en>.



Spotlight 1: Supporting equity with funding adapted to need (Preferential Education Subsidy, SEP)

Acknowledging that disadvantaged students need more resources to overcome their disadvantage, the government introduced a new incentive (*Ley de Subvención Escolar Preferencial*, SEP, 2008), under which primary schools receive additional funding for enrolment of socio-economically disadvantaged students. These funds are in addition to the baseline funding that public and government-subsidised private schools receive for each enrolled student.

Since the 1980s, Chile's educational system had been structured around decentralised educational management and open school choice, with private and public schools having freedom to select their students. Schools were funded mainly through a flat per-student public subsidy (voucher), with each school receiving an equal amount per student enrolled. To get better results and attract more students and more funding, schools could select students from advantaged socio-economic backgrounds. This affected private subsidised schools more than public schools, since they did not have other economic support. In 1993, the government allowed private subsidised schools and secondary municipal schools to charge fees to parents to complement the government subsidy. Under this system, attendance at different schools depended more on family income, with students from disadvantaged backgrounds attending public municipal schools and a more diverse student body in private subsidised schools.

In 2008, the introduction of the preferential education subsidy modified this scheme to make it more equity oriented. It allocates a large share of expenditure on a per-student basis, topping up the flat-rate voucher, and provides an additional amount for schools that enrol a significant proportion of students from low socio-economic backgrounds. Acceptance of these funds is voluntary, and schools accepting this subsidy must account for the funds received and meet certain requirements, including developing a plan to raise the school's academic performance. The additional funding that schools can receive is high: an autonomous school can receive a 50% increase in the subsidy for each vulnerable child enrolled in the school. Also, participating schools cannot select students by ability or socio-economic background and cannot charge additional fees. The preferential subsidy has been increasing annually (21% in 2011), and the law was modified in 2011 to expand coverage to secondary schools.

Concretely, schools that receive the supplement have to sign an agreement and elaborate a plan for education improvement, and set objectives and define measures to support students with learning difficulties. Schools are categorised as autonomous, emerging or recovering, based on criteria such as their results in the national standardised assessment of student performance (*Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación*, SIMCE). Depending on their category, schools either design their own educational improvement plan, receive support from the Education Ministry to draft their progress plans, or get external technical assistance. Struggling schools that fail to improve after receiving assistance risk losing their licence or their eligibility for the subsidy.

The SEP resulted in important changes in the Chilean school system. Although the programme is voluntary, around 85% of the 9 000 eligible schools participated in 2011. All municipal schools and about 66% of private subsidised schools are actively engaged. This high coverage has changed the relationship between schools and the Ministry of Education and has helped improve its regressive funding structure. Although some schools were reticent to accept the conditions imposed by the agreement, most [schools have welcomed the new resources](#), as well as the clear pedagogical goals and diagnostic tools tailored to help meet them. [Studies](#) show positive effects on student performance.



PREPARING STUDENTS FOR THE FUTURE: INCREASED ATTAINMENT BUT CHALLENGING TRANSITIONS TO TERTIARY EDUCATION OR THE LABOUR MARKET

Labour market perspectives can play an important role in the decision to stay in education. Unemployment rates in 2011 were below the OECD average for individuals with an upper secondary education or a lower attainment. Still, in 2011, the proportion of Chilean young adults not in education, employment or training (NEET) was estimated at 23.7%, above the OECD average of 15.8% (Figure 4).

Upper secondary attainment has expanded significantly in Chile and exceeded the OECD average. By 2011, about 88% of 25-34 year-olds had attained at least upper secondary education (above the OECD average of 82%). Graduation rates at upper secondary level are at the OECD average of 83%. Virtually all upper secondary graduates who expect to continue education take an entry exam (*Prueba de Selección Universitaria*, PSU). This exam, introduced in 2004, is an important gatekeeper into higher education, as the scores determine access to tertiary academic (type-A) programmes. According to a [study](#) commissioned to evaluate this exam, its contents are not necessarily aligned with the curriculum covered in upper secondary schools.

Vocational education and training (VET) can ease the entry into the labour market. In Chile, one-third of upper secondary students are enrolled in a pre-vocational or vocational programme, which gives access to employment or tertiary VET programmes. However, these students have had a difficult transition into the workplace or further education, according to an [OECD study on Chile's VET system](#). There are different options for strengthening this key level of education: focusing on acquisition of hard and soft skills in addition to vocational skills; ensuring that pathways provide access and mobility within the VET system and between different levels – in particular improving access to the tertiary education system; and maintaining close links between VET programmes and industry. Further developing workplace training, as part of VET programmes, can also facilitate entry into the labour market.

Tertiary education enrolment and completion rates have increased considerably in recent decades to reach the OECD average, and there has been rapid growth in the number of institutions and programmes offered. However, an [OECD study on tertiary education in Chile](#) points out that expansion has brought challenges in the areas of quality assurance and equity. In 2011, 29% of adults had attained tertiary education (slightly below the OECD average of 32%), with a difference of 20 percentage points in attainment between younger (25-34 year-olds) and older adults (55-64 year-olds). This trend may result from increases in graduation rates. In 2011, graduation rates were higher than the OECD average in vocationally oriented programmes (tertiary type-B), but below the OECD average in academic tertiary programmes (tertiary type-A).

Challenges remain for Chile to strengthen the quality and equity of tertiary education: programmes are long (usually five years for academic and professional degree courses and more in some subjects); the quality of programmes is uneven; funding approaches result in some inequalities; and there is a lack of relevance to skills needed in the labour market. Reforms have been introduced to the system of quality assurance; they will need to focus on creating a culture of continued improvement to ensure high quality skills.

The challenge: Align the skills developed in upper secondary and tertiary education with those required by the labour market.

Recent policies and practices

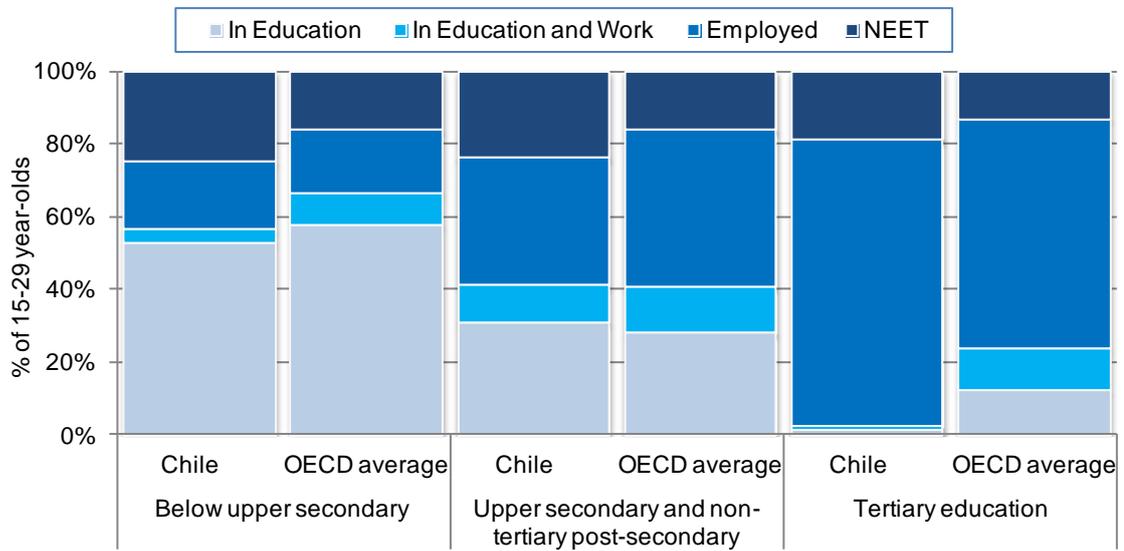
The General Education Law ([Ley General de Educación](#), 2009) reduces the length of primary schooling from eight to six years and increases the length of secondary schooling from four to six years. This change will come into force in 2017.

To reduce inequalities in access to higher education, the tertiary scholarship programme ([Becas de Educación Superior](#), 2012) expanded scholarships to cover full or partial tuition costs for all students with satisfactory educational performance in the lowest 60% of household income distribution.

To support quality assurance in tertiary education, a draft bill is in process designed to increase monitoring and promote quality in higher education through the creation of a [Superintendencia de Educación Superior](#) and a reformulation of the process by which programmes and institutions receive accreditation. This draft bill also defines performance standards and a compulsory accreditation process.



Figure 4. Percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education and not in education, by educational attainment and work status, 2011



NEET: Neither Employed, nor in Education and Training

Source: OECD (2013), *Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2013-en>.



SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT: FOCUSING ON TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

The key to improving achievement in Chile's 12 063 schools (in 2011) is to develop the conditions for school leaders and teachers to succeed. Chile is among the countries with the lowest proportion of students in publicly owned schools, with around 48% municipal, 46% private subsidised and 6% non-subsidised schools. Overall, **learning environments** are similar to those in other OECD countries, according to PISA data. Students report good relations with their teachers (Figure 5) and indicate that their teachers motivate them to read. However, Chile's school climates are among those that vary most within the OECD: the level to which teacher-related and student-related factors affect performance differs widely from school to school.

School leadership has been a priority in Chile in recent years. School leaders focus on school improvement and tend to engage in more active leadership roles than their peers in many OECD countries (Figure 5), although there is great variation in the level of leadership across schools. Until recently, school leadership was developed through in-service training, and leaders did not necessarily reach their position as a result of professional recruitment. To support their development, since 2005 Chile has had standards for principals, the *Marco para la Buena Dirección* (Good School Leadership Framework), which describes the skills and competencies needed for good school leadership and provides a reference for professional development (see Spotlight 2). Changes introduced in 2011 have focused on professionalising recruitment, training and evaluation of school leaders. In Chile, as in other OECD countries, not enough people are interested in leadership roles to fill all vacant positions.

Teachers and teaching quality have been a focus in Chile that can benefit from further investment. Initial entry into the teaching profession has been weak. Candidates have not been drawn from the top secondary graduates, although their scores in the university entry exam (PSU) have been increasing in recent years. They are not required to take licensing exams or to have a teaching practicum. A voluntary standardised assessment introduced in 2008 (*Evaluación Inicia*), which evaluates pedagogical and content knowledge of new teachers, has shown results that can be improved. Salaries per teaching hour are lower than the OECD average; and teachers have the highest number of statutory working hours in the OECD, with a comparatively high proportion spent in classroom teaching. Average class size is among the largest in the OECD, with the least support staff to help teachers carry out their work. Professional training is available to support teachers' development. In addition, the Maestros' Teacher Network (*Red Maestros de Maestros*, 2002) was created to accredit pedagogical excellence in selected teachers. It has focused on developing mentoring programmes for new teachers.

The challenge: Improve the quality of schools, their leaders and teachers to drive system improvement.

Recent policies and practices

The *Ley de Calidad y Equidad de la Educación* (2011) has introduced reforms to professionalise school leadership. School principals for publicly owned schools are chosen through a competitive and open examination. School principals will have higher salaries, more autonomy to make staffing decisions and introduce school-based evaluations, and the option for financial assistance for professional development in both school leadership and management. In 2013, however, more than one-fifth of school leadership positions remained vacant after the first call. This reform also applies similar criteria for selection and remuneration of heads of municipal education departments.

The same law reformed public teacher contracts, establishing teachers' rights to be consulted on their evaluation and measures taken by the school principal in relation to teacher performance.

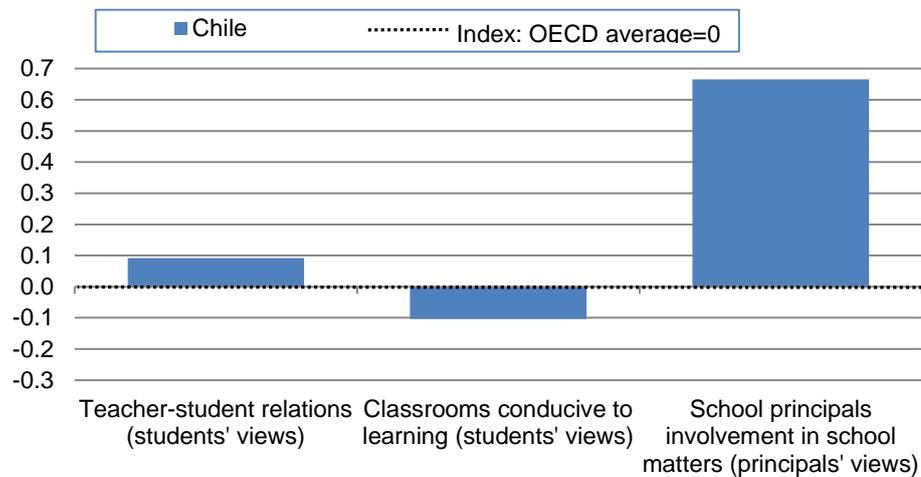
A school leaders' training plan (*Plan de Formación de Directores de Excelencia*, 2011-13) has been offered to develop a pool of excellent leaders for the future. The Ministry provides a grant that covers 90% of enrolment fees and costs of living for selected candidates, who can choose from a list of courses and institutions approved by the Ministry's professional development unit (*Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas*, CPEIP). More than 1 500 school principals and teachers have participated in this programme since its inception.

A grant programme (*Beca Vocación de Profesor*, 2012) offers full scholarships for high performing students to enter teacher training. Depending on their scores on the PSU, students may also opt for a monthly stipend and a fully funded semester abroad. Students who receive the scholarship must work in government-funded schools for at least 3 years within 12 years after receiving the scholarship.

The *Evaluación Inicia* (2008) is a voluntary standardised assessment to evaluate pedagogical and content knowledge of new teachers. Its results provide information to teacher training stakeholders to enhance the quality of teacher training, both to those searching where to study and to employers of those teachers, among others.



Figure 5. The learning environment, PISA 2009



Source: OECD (2010), *PISA 2009 Results: What Makes a School Successful? Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264091559-en>.

Spotlight 2: Raising standards for teachers and school leaders

Chile has developed a national framework defining standards for the teaching and school leadership profession to provide clarity on expectations for the profession and to guide teacher training, recruitment and evaluation in a decentralised environment.

The *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*, 2008 (Good Teaching Framework) provides a clear and concise profile of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. It identifies four domains: preparation for teaching, creation of an environment favouring the learning process, teaching that allows the learning process of all students, and professional responsibilities. Within each domain, it describes criteria and performance levels (outstanding, competent, basic or unsatisfactory).

The *Marco para la Buena Dirección*, 2005 (Good School Leadership Framework) provides both a description of the skills and competencies needed for good school leadership in Chilean schools and a reference for professional development of school leaders. It covers four areas: leadership, curricular management, management of the school environment and coexistence, and resource management. Each of these areas includes a set of criteria on which to focus professional development.



EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT TO IMPROVE STUDENT OUTCOMES: TOWARDS A COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM OF EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

A decentralised education system that grants high levels of autonomy to schools requires comprehensive and well-developed mechanisms of evaluation and assessment to promote quality and equity. Chile has evaluation and assessment systems for students, teachers, schools and the system as a whole (Figure 6). These have recently begun developing into a comprehensive **evaluation and assessment framework** as a result of the creation of various institutions focusing on accountability, including the [Agencia de Calidad de la Educación](#) (Quality of Education Agency).

System evaluation is carried out through a full-cohort national standardised assessment of student performance, the [Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación](#) (SIMCE). It measures student performance in language, mathematics and sciences (in Years 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10) and in English (in Year 11). In 2010, it also began a sample-based assessment of competencies in physical education and technology. SIMCE results are widely publicised and its impact is substantial, as the results delivered at school level are used to allocate resources and rewards to schools and teachers, to guide educational policy and to provide information to parents.

There is no systematic **school evaluation** to develop school improvement plans or evaluate school processes and quality, but the Quality of Education Agency created in 2012 is responsible for developing approaches for comprehensive school evaluation. School evaluations have been limited to verifying compliance with the law, the use of subsidies, the qualification of teachers and the delivery of study programmes. Outcome-based evaluations generally rely solely on aggregated SIMCE data. More thorough evaluations of school quality and school processes are voluntary (e.g. the [Sistema de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Gestión Escolar](#), SACGE), but while coverage reached 50% in public schools, only 1% of private schools had participated by 2005.

Chile has a comprehensive centralised **teacher evaluation** system, also used for accountability, which is compulsory for municipal schools and has succeeded in creating a culture that values evaluation (many teachers working in subsidised private schools also participate in the process). The teacher assessment ([Docente Más](#)) is rooted in an established teaching framework and standards of practice (see Spotlight 2) and draws on multiple sources of evidence. Although the private sector is not fully integrated in teacher evaluation systems, a multitude of voluntary reward schemes and programmes (which involve some type of evaluation) exist for private schools that receive government subsidies. The [Asignación de Excelencia Pedagógica](#) (AEP), for example, is an independent process that recognises professional merit of classroom teachers through tests of discipline and pedagogy as well as portfolios. The teacher evaluation system is designed to drive professional improvement, but quality and value of the evaluation can be threatened if it is used as a mechanism for holding teachers accountable, with high stakes for teachers' careers. According to an [OECD study on evaluation and assessment](#), Chile's teacher assessment system can be strengthened by ensuring that it provides more and better feedback to teachers along with the opportunity for professional dialogue, strengthens the link to actual classroom practices and ensures that teachers clearly understand the high quality teaching framework.

Student assessment is conducted through the SIMCE (scores are used for diagnostic and improvement purposes at the school level and not reported to students) and through continuous formative assessment in the classroom. All students are assessed in an on-going manner throughout the school year in each curriculum area or subject according to school-based criteria. No externally based national final examinations exist at any level. Year-end results are provided to parents and students in a certificate of studies needed for enrolment at the next level.

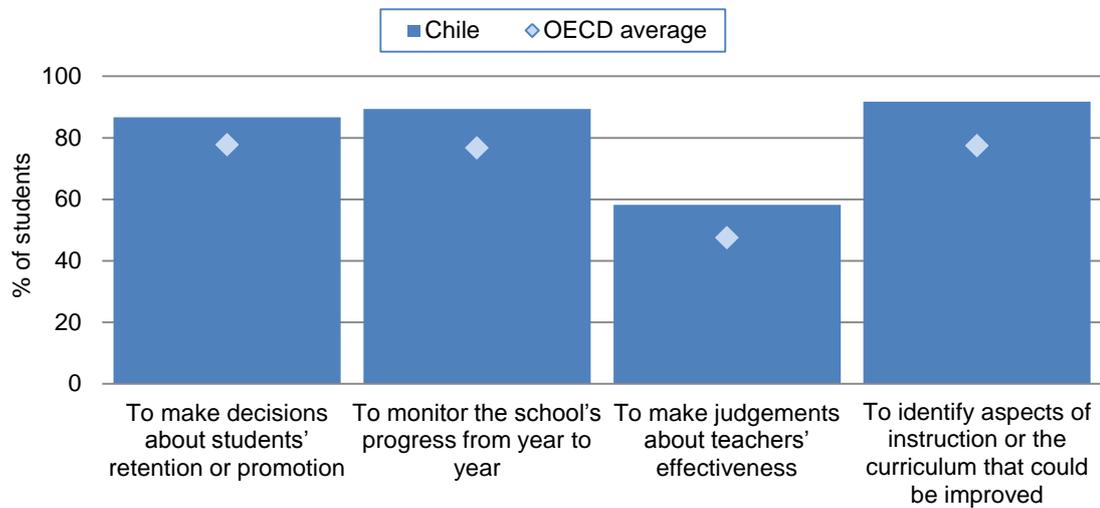
The challenge: Assure a common and coherent framework for evaluation of the system, schools, teachers and students.

Recent policies and practices

The Quality of Education Agency ([Agencia de Calidad de la Educación](#), 2012), evaluates student and school performance and designs the national assessment system for students and schools. Its activities include ranking schools according to efficiency criteria, visiting schools and revoking the license of continuously low performing schools. This agency aims to integrate teacher assessments into its work and plans to develop indicators to assess individual schools.



Figure 6. Percentage of students in schools where the principal reported assessments of students in national modal grade for 15-year-olds, PISA 2009



Source: OECD (2010), *PISA 2009 Results: What Makes a School Successful? Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV)*, OECD Publishing, Paris <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264091559-en>.



GOVERNANCE: HIGH LEVELS OF LOCAL AUTONOMY WITHIN A CENTRAL FRAMEWORK

The Ministry of Education sets the central framework and guides **national education policy**. Priorities and decision making for all educational levels (pre-primary to tertiary) are set by the Ministry. The Ministry grants licences for schools to operate, develops policies to guarantee the right to education and freedom of education, proposes changes to the legal framework governing education, develops compulsory components of the curriculum, monitors school and student performance, and assigns and distributes school subsidies. Other bodies that help shape education policy are:

- The National Education Council ([Consejo Nacional de Educación](#), CNED), an advisory group of ten people representing various stakeholders in education (pre-primary, primary and secondary levels, public and private schools, and universities and vocational institutions), gives approval or feedback to certain ministerial proposals, including the compulsory curriculum, quality standards for schools and standards governing students' promotion across levels.
- New institutions have been created in 2012 to support evaluation and accountability (*Superintendencia de Educación Escolar* and the *Agencia de Calidad de la Educación*).
- Other stakeholders include teachers' unions (*Colegio de Profesores*); student unions; associations representing private schools, such as the Federation of Institutions of Private Education (*Federación de Instituciones de Educación Particular*, FIDE) and Private Schools of Chile (*Colegios Particulares de Chile*, CONACEP); and the Chilean Association of Municipalities.

Schools work in a decentralised environment, as decisions on administrative and many educational matters occur at the municipality or school owner level (Figure 7). There is a difference in the degree of autonomy between municipal and privately managed subsidised schools (in which more than 50% of students are enrolled), including administrative, financial and work restrictions. Privately managed schools have full autonomy. Municipal schools also have high levels of autonomy: about half of the decisions that affect educational practice take place at the school level with the remaining half at the municipal level. Decisions about organisation of instruction, programmes of study and learning resources are made by schools or school owners within the boundaries set by the Ministry's framework. For schools receiving the *Subvención Escolar Preferencial* (SEP) funding, initiatives for school improvement are compulsory and schools have autonomy to decide on the content.

The law establishes three types of **tertiary education institutions**: universities, professional institutes (*Institutos Profesionales*) and Technical Training Centres (*Centros de Formación Técnica*). Institutions must go through a licensing process in order to be able to operate, and then through accreditation for their students to be eligible for financial aid. These are the only direct mechanisms regulating the tertiary education sector, where institutions have a high degree of autonomy. The university sector has 25 institutions which are members of the *Consejo de Rectores de las Universidades Chilenas*, CRUCH (Council of Rectors of Chilean Universities) and which have traditionally enjoyed different treatment and a much higher status than newer private institutions. The governance and quality of tertiary education are currently the focus of reform: draft bills on the oversight of higher education ([Superintendencia de Educación Superior](#)) and changes in the accreditation system are under development. The Ministry of Education also sets reference fees (*Arancel de Referencia*) to calculate the maximum student aid package that students are entitled to receive. By basing these reference fees on quality indicators, the Ministry aims to send a strong signal to institutions and programmes on the direction they should follow.

The challenge: To provide local authorities and institutions with the capacity to deliver quality provision within a national vision.

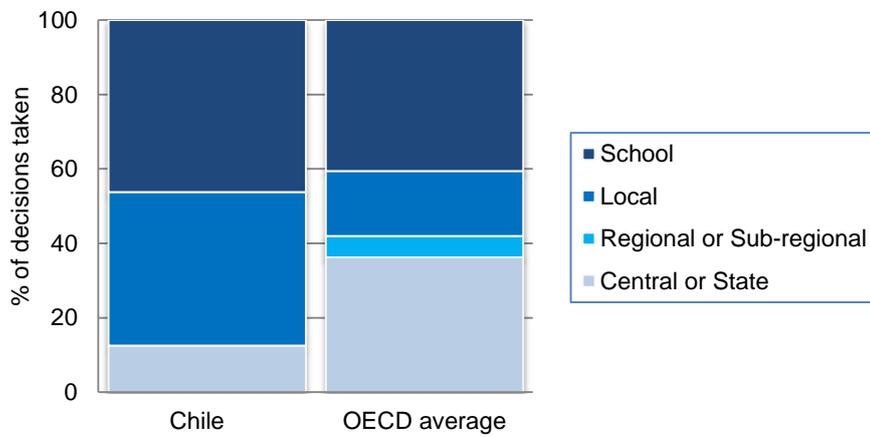
Recent policies and practices

The Education Superintendence ([Superintendencia de Educación Escolar](#), 2012) has been developed to take on an auditing and accountability role, supervising compliance of school providers with relevant laws, standards and regulations.

The Ministry of Education has created an information system for tertiary education ([Sistema de Información de la Educación Superior](#), SIES) which aims to provide information on economic returns, indicators on the financial situation of institutions, and academic attributes such as vacancies, enrolment rates and number of professors, so that students are better placed to make informed decisions about their future.



Figure 7. Percentage of decisions taken in public lower secondary schools at each level of government, 2011



Source: OECD (2012), *Education at a Glance 2012: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2012-en>.



FUNDING: PUBLIC SPENDING IN THE FORM OF DEMAND-SIDE AND INDIRECT SUBSIDIES

Chile's **investment in educational institutions** is higher than the OECD average, spending 6.4% of its GDP on education, all levels of education combined (compared to the OECD average of 6.3%) (Figure 8). Between 2005 and 2011, Chile has increased spending by 1.0 percentage points (above the OECD average of 0.5 percentage points). Expenditure on educational institutions reaches 17.7% of total public expenditure, among the highest rates in OECD countries. The largest portion of expenditure on educational institutions is from public sources (58.0%), as in other OECD countries, but Chile has the largest share of private funds among all OECD countries (42.1%, compared to the OECD average of 16.4%), as a result of high private funding of tertiary education. Most of the private funds are from household expenditure.

Annual expenditure per student from primary to tertiary education (USD 4 183 or 24% of GDP per capita) is below the OECD average (USD 9 313, or 28% of GDP per capita). Spending per student at the primary level (USD 3 301) and the secondary level (USD 3 110) is low, representing 41% and 35% of the OECD average, respectively. Spending at the tertiary level (USD 7 101) amounts to 52% of the OECD average. From 2005 to 2011, the levels of expenditure per student increased by 37% at the primary, secondary and non-tertiary post-secondary levels and by 8% at the tertiary level. The financial crisis had no discernible effect on the education budget.

Funding of primary and secondary schools includes a high proportion of subsidies and private expenditure. Private sources account for 21.4% of per-student spending at primary, secondary and non-tertiary post-secondary levels (compared to the OECD average of 8.5%), the second highest level among OECD countries. Public spending takes the form of demand-side subsidies, whereby the Ministry of Education grants a fixed amount per enrolled student to private subsidised schools and municipal schools. Subsidised schools (private and municipal secondary) are allowed to charge tuition fees to supplement the subsidy, and all schools enrolling students from low socio-economic backgrounds can opt for an additional subsidy (*Subvención Escolar Preferencial*) (see Spotlight 1).

In 2010 data, public **funding of tertiary education institutions** represents a small proportion of expenditure. Public spending accounts for 22.1% of expenditure (compared to the OECD average of 68.4%), excluding indirect public expenditure relating to financial support to students. Direct expenditure accounts for 59.6% of total public expenditure at the tertiary level (compared to the OECD average of 78.3%), and indirect public expenditure takes the form of scholarships (15.5%) and loans (20.3%) to individual students (compared to the OECD average of 11.4% for scholarships and 9.8% for loans). Funding for higher education comes from private sources, and Chile has one of the largest proportions of public expenditure on tertiary institutions derived from financial support of households and other private entities. Considerable progress has been made in extending grants and loans to students in private institutions. Government funding for scholarships increased by nearly 70% from 2007 to 2009, and further increases were made in the following years.

The challenge: Ensure efficiency and equity of public funding in education.

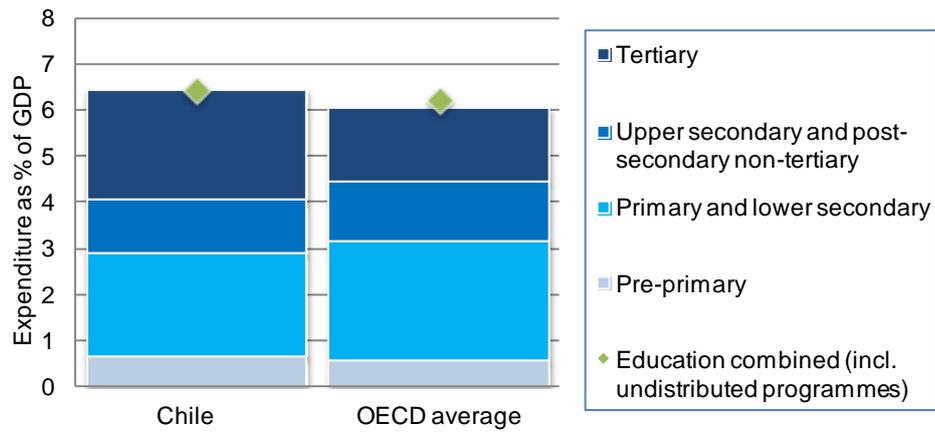
Recent policies and practices

Modifications made in 2012 to the laws regulating financial aid to students at the tertiary level added a subsidy to private student loans (*Crédito con Aval del Estado, CAE*) so that effective real interest rates of student loans are capped at 2% and loans are income contingent. The *Becas de Educación Superior* programme expanded the previous scholarship programmes to cover all students with satisfactory educational performance belonging to the lowest 60% of household income distribution.

To avoid discrimination of students according to the type of institutions, a bill under discussion seeks to consolidate, systematise and homogenise the various forms of student financial aid schemes under a single system (*Sistema de Financiamiento para la Educación Superior*).



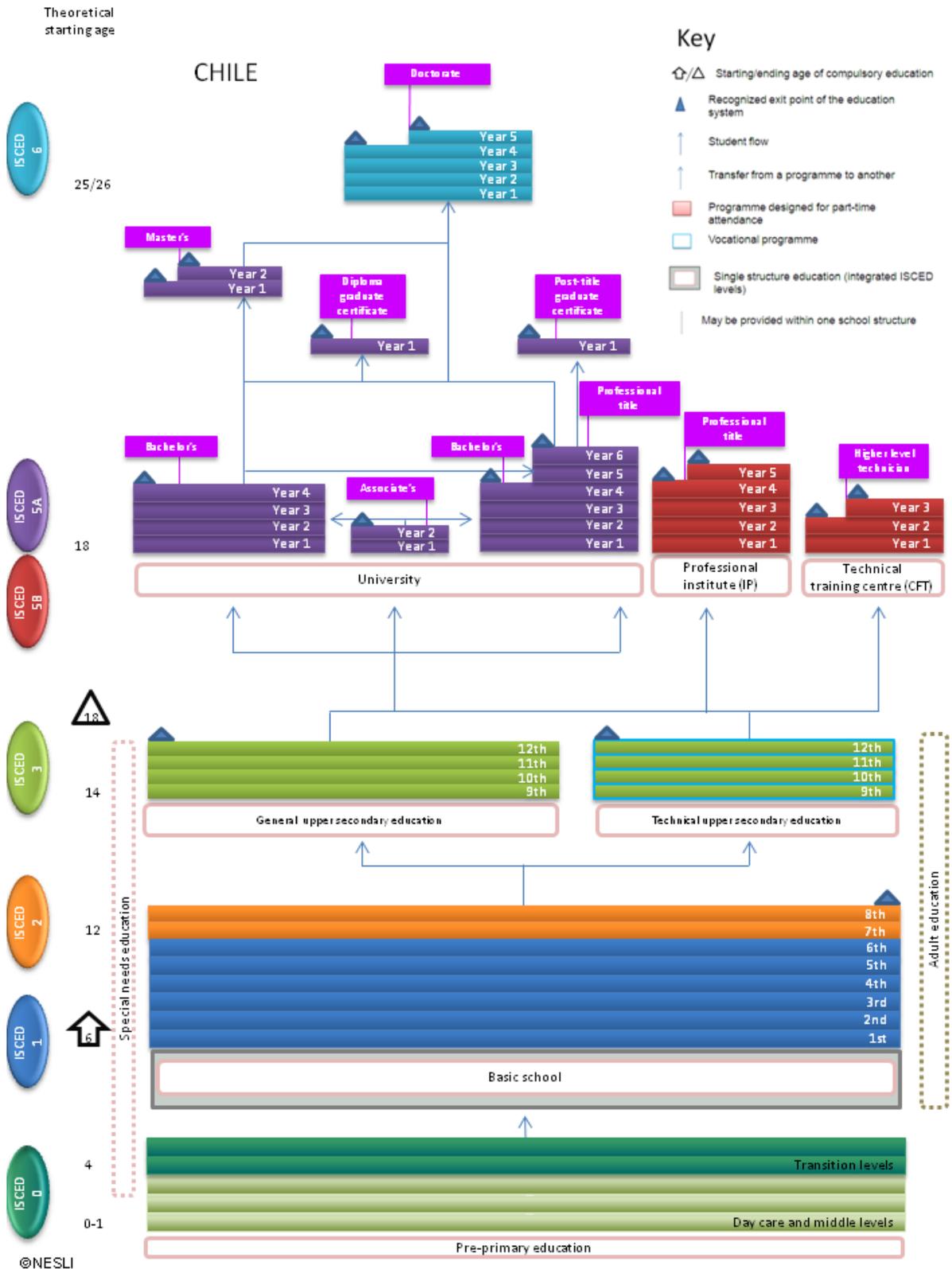
Figure 8. Expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP, by level of education, 2010



Source: OECD (2013), *Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2013-en>.



ANNEX A: STRUCTURE OF CHILE'S EDUCATION SYSTEM





ANNEX B: STATISTICS

#	List of key indicators	Chile	Average or total	Min	Max
Background information					
<i>Political context</i>					
1	Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP, 2010 (EAG 2013)	4.1%	5.8%	3.8%	8.8%
<i>Economy</i>					
2	GDP per capita, 2010, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs (EAG 2013)	17 312		15 195	84 672
3	GDP growth 2011 (OECD National Accounts)	6%	1.8%	-7.1%	8.5%
<i>Society</i>					
4	Population density, inhab/km ² , 2010 (OECD Statistics)	23.2	138	2.9	492
5	Young people, aged less than 15, 2010 (OECD Statistics)	22.3%	17.3%	13%	28.1%
6	Foreign-born population, 2009 (OECD Statistics)	2.1%	14.1%	0.8%	36.9%
Education outcomes					
7	Mean reading performance (PISA 2009)	449	493	425	539
8	Change in mean reading performance, 2000-09 (PISA 2009)	40	1	-31	40
9	Change in mean mathematics performance, 2003-09 (PISA 2009)	m	0	-24	33
10	Change in mean science performance, 2006-09 (PISA 2009)	9	3	-12	30
11	Enrolment rates in early childhood education and primary education, ages 3 and 4, 2011 (EAG 2013)	59.3%	74.4%	11.6%	98%
12	Population that has attained below upper secondary education, 25-64 year-olds, 2011 (EAG 2013)	28%	25%	7%	68%
13	Population that has attained at least upper secondary education, 25-34 year-olds, 2011 (EAG 2013)	88%	82%	43%	98%
14	Population that has attained tertiary education, 25-34 year-olds (EAG 2013)	41%	39%	19%	64%
15	Population whose highest level of education is vocational upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary, 2011 (EAG 2013)	m	33.5%	8.4%	73.9%
Unemployment rates, 25-64 year-olds, 2011 (EAG 2013)					
16	Below upper secondary	4.4%	12.6%	2.7%	39.3%
	Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary	5%	7.3%	2.2%	19.2%
	Tertiary education	5.4%	4.8%	1.5%	12.8%
Students: Raising outcomes					
<i>Policy lever 1: Equity and quality</i>					
17	First age of selection in the education system (PISA 2009)	16	14	10	16
Proficiency levels on the reading scale (PISA 2009)					
18	Students below Level 2	30.6%	18.8%	5.8%	40.1%
	Students at Level 5 or above	1.3%	7.6%	0.4%	15.7%
Between- and within-school variance in reading performance (PISA 2009)					
19	Between schools	4 893	3 616	665	6 695
	Within schools	4 005	5 591	2 795	8 290
20	Students reporting that they have repeated at least a grade in primary, lower secondary or upper secondary schools (PISA 2009)	23.4%	13%	0%	36.9%



#	List of key indicators	Chile	average or total	Min	Max
21	Variance in student performance explained by student socio-economic status (PISA 2009)	19%	14%	6%	26%
22	Difference in reading performance between native students and students with an immigrant background, after accounting for socio-economic status (PISA 2009)	m	27	-17.0	85.0
23	Gender differences in student performance on the reading scale (PISA 2009)	-22	-39	-55	-22
<i>Policy lever 2: Preparing students for the future</i>					
Upper secondary graduation rates, 2011 (EAG 2013)					
24	General programmes	53%	50%	18%	82%
	Pre-vocational/ vocational programmes	30%	47%	4%	99%
25	Change in upper secondary graduation rates (average annual growth rate 1995-2011), (EAG 2013)	m	0.6%	-1%	3.6%
Graduation rates, first-time graduates, 2011 (EAG 2013)					
26	Tertiary-type 5A	24%	40%	21%	60%
	Tertiary-type 5B	22%	11%	0%	29%
	Tertiary-type 5A (average annual growth rate 1995-2011)	m	4%	-1%	11%
	Tertiary-type 5B (average annual growth rate 1995-2011)	m	0%	-20%	14%
27	Youth population not in education, employment or training 15-29 year olds, 2011 (EAG 2013)	23.7%	15.8%	6.9%	34.6%
Institutions: Improving schools					
<i>Policy lever 3: School improvement</i>					
28	Index of teacher-student relations based on students' reports (PISA 2009)	0.09	0	-0.42	0.44
29	Index of disciplinary climate based on students' reports (PISA 2009)	-0.10	0	-0.40	0.75
Teachers younger than 40 years old, 2011 (EAG 2013)					
30	Primary education	46.8%	41%	15%	60%
	Lower secondary education	45.5%	39%	11%	56%
	Upper secondary education	46.8%	34%	7%	47%
Number of teaching hours per year in public institutions, 2011 (EAG 2013)					
31	Primary education	1 120	790	589	1 120
	Lower secondary education	1 120	709	415	1 120
	Upper secondary education	1 120	664	369	1 120
Ratio of teachers' salaries to earnings for full-time, full-year adult workers with tertiary education, 2011 (EAG 2013)					
32	Primary education	0.73	0.82	0.44	1.34
	Lower secondary education	0.73	0.85	0.44	1.34
	Upper secondary education	0.77	0.89	0.44	1.40
33	Change in teachers' salaries between 2000 and 2011 in lower secondary education (2000 = 100), (EAG 2013)	m	16%	-9%	103%
34	Impact of teacher appraisal and feedback upon teaching, 2007-08 (TALIS 2008)	Not participating	33.9%	10.9%	69.1%
35	Teachers who wanted to participate in more development than they did in the previous 18 months, 2007-08 (TALIS 2008)	Not participating	55%	31%	85%
36	School principals' views of their involvement in school matters, mean index, (PISA 2009)	0.67	-0.02	-1.29	1.03



#	List of key indicators	Chile	average or total	Min	Max
<i>Policy level 4: Evaluation and assessment to improve student outcomes</i>					
Assessment purposes (PISA 2009)					
37	To make decisions about students' retention or promotion	86.7%	78%	1%	100%
	To monitor the school's progress from year to year	89.4%	77%	35%	98%
	To make judgements about teachers' effectiveness	58.2%	47%	8%	85%
	To identify aspects of instruction or the curriculum that could be improved	91.7%	77%	47%	98%
Frequency and source of teacher appraisal and feedback, 2007-08 (TALIS 2008)					
38	Once every two years or less	Not participating	35.8%	13.8%	65.6%
	At least once per year	Not participating	52.2%	27.6%	68.6%
	Monthly or more than once per month	Not participating	12%	3.3%	29.8%
Systems: Organising the system					
<i>Policy level 5: Governance</i>					
Decisions taken at each level of government in public lower secondary education, 2011 (EAG 2012)					
39	Central or state government	13%	36%	0%	87%
	Regional or sub-regional government	m	6%	0%	36%
	Local government	41%	17%	4%	100%
	School government	46%	41%	5%	86%
<i>Policy level 6: Funding</i>					
Annual expenditure per student by educational institutions, for all services, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP, 2010 (EAG 2013)					
40	Pre-primary education	3 544	6 762	2 280	20 958
	Primary education	3 301	7 974	1 860	21 240
	Secondary education	3 110	9 014	2 470	17 633
	Tertiary education	7 101	13 528	6 501	25 576
Relative proportions of public and private expenditure on educational institutions, 2010 (EAG 2013)					
41	Public sources	57.9%	83.6%	57.9%	97.6%
	All private sources	42.1%	16.4%	2.4%	42.1%
	Public sources, index of change in expenditure on educational institutions (2000-10)	m	136	101	195
	All private sources, index of change in expenditure on educational institutions (2000-10)	m	211	104	790
<p><i>Note: The average, minimums and maximums refer to OECD countries except in TALIS where they refer to participating countries. "m" refers to data not available.</i></p> <p><i>PISA values that are statistically significant are indicated in bold.</i></p>					



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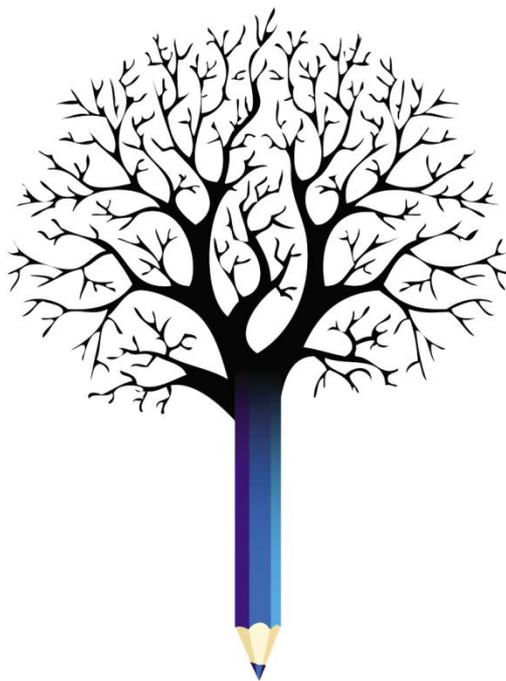
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