

EXCUSE ME, DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH? AN INTERNATIONAL EVALUATION

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Abstract

Globalization and market integration have made languages an essential tool for worldwide communication. Nowadays, English knowledge is spread internationally, its importance is growing, and educational systems introduce students in English learning at an increasingly early age. However, until now, very little was known about which the determinants of English competences are, which differences are linked to country specific factors and which policy educational measures can be taken to improve the English level of students at the end of compulsory education. This paper uses data from the European Survey of Language Competences (ESLC), which allows to make the first study that addresses these queries. By making use of an educational production function, where the `outcome' is the level of English acquired in the evaluated competences, we can infer which the determinants of English performance are at the end of compulsory education. English class size is a particularly important feature of the educational systems because it can be quite easily modified by policy makers. Following Woessmann (EP, 2005) class size European study in sciences cognitive skills, and implementing similar techniques, previously developed by Angrist and Lavy (QJE, 1999), we obtain a statistically significant causal result: bigger English classes perform better on average than smaller ones in Reading and Writing competences.

1 Introduction

One of the main interests of economists in educational topics is directly linked to human capital accumulation, which determines the labor market earnings of an individual. Human Capital depends on many factors and, globally speaking, it accumulates first through learning and secondly by practical experience in the labor market. Therefore, the role of Education as the first source of human capital accumulation is very relevant from an Economic perspective.

English knowledge covers many different skills, the most widely emphasized are Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking. The development of each skill can be acquired through different teaching techniques and language contact. Language contact can also be performed by several activities which can affect some skills more than others. For example, reading English books can improve Reading and Writing, but not necessarily Speaking or Listening skills. On the other side, watching not dubbed English movies can improve Listening but not necessarily Reading or Writing skills. Therefore, at the end of compulsory education, students English level is a multi-skill acquired knowledge, which depends on different learning procedures given to the student by their English teachers, home and school environment, the implicit ability of the individual in foreign languages and the contact with the English language that the student could have.

International tests like the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) provide data on common assessment tests carried out all over the World, which allow us to understand the importance of various factors determining the achievement and the impact of skills on economic and social outcomes. The European Survey of Language Competences (ESLC) is the first survey that provides a common assessment of several English skills in a 13 European educational systems sample. The ESLC was carried out in 2011 and has the same approach as previous international tests: it aims at measuring how much English knowledge students have acquired by the end of compulsory education. It evaluates English proficiency in Listening, Reading and Writing skills. Speaking was not evaluated and therefore, it is out of the scope of this study.

I begin my analysis of the determinants of English performance by building an

appropriate educational production function. In this function, cognitive skills are understood as the outcome of a production process, where inputs are the student characteristics, family background and school and institutional factors, which are combined to create the output. The educational production function is improved in order to take into account factors that affect languages specifically, such as family language controls, which measure the proximity of native European languages to English. Also, several robustness checks are provided to guarantee that my estimations are sufficiently accurate in the three evaluated skills.

The second part of my analysis focuses on a very significant determinant that was found in the educational production function and robustness checks: the positive and significant effect that English class size has on the three evaluated English skills. This implies that bigger English classes perform better on average than smaller ones. This result goes in line with other positive class size effects found using least squares methods in European data such as Woessmann (2005), who showed a similar positive effect of class size in science proficiency using TIMSS data on 12 European school systems.

Least squares coefficients are very likely to be biased due to endogeneity. To address this important concern, and taking into account that 9 out of 13 countries in the ESLC sample have maximum class size regulations, I build an instrument in line with Angrist and Lavy (1999) Maimonides' rule. What Angrist and Lavy (1999), Hoxby (2000) or Woessmann (2005) obtained, after using Instrumental Variables (IV) estimation on the class size effect estimates, was that the class size coefficients turned negative or no longer statistically significant. Performing IV estimation on the three ESLC evaluated skills gives us a surprising result: positive class size effects are obtained in France, Sweden and pooled Countries in Reading and Writing skills. No significant effect for English class size was obtained in Listening skills. Contrary to what has been believed so far, bigger classes do not necessarily perform worse in all cognitive skills and, on the contrary, perform better in Reading and Writing English skills.

To complete this study, I provide the optimal class size in the three skills. It is obtained by a functional form modification of the English class size in the estimation of the educational production function. Reading and Writing English

skills present an optimal class size of 35 and 33 respectively, which are bigger than the ones implemented by the maximum class size regulations across Europe. This study provides causal results which have important Policy implications.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the ESLC data, and provides a descriptive analysis of the test results by country. Section 3 presents the educational production function used to obtain the determinants of English performance, as well as some robustness checks. Section 4 provides a deeper study of English class size by country using OLS and IV estimation methods. A detailed description of the instrument and its strength is provided. Section 5 gives the optimal class size in each of the three evaluated skills. Section 6 concludes.

2 The Data

The empirical analysis uses data from the European Survey of Language Competences (ESLC), an European foreign language evaluation test that was carried out in February 2011. The ESLC was designed to collect information about the foreign language proficiency of students in the last year of lower secondary education or the second year of upper secondary education, so that student ages vary from 14 to 16 years old. Fourteen European countries participated in the survey, and each country was evaluated in two languages, the two most taught out of the five most widely taught European languages: English, French, German, Italian and Spanish. The participating countries were Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Greece, France, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and UK-England. Belgium was subdivided into the three educational systems that it has, and therefore the sample is composed by 14 countries or 16 educational systems. There were two separate samples for the first and second foreign languages evaluated within each country, so each student was tested in one language only.

My study uses the first target language sample since 13 educational systems were evaluated in English as the first target language. This sample has 27,641 observations of which 23,358 correspond to English. I exclude from my study the educational systems that were not evaluated in English as the first target language: UK-England and the Flemish and German regions of Belgium. In what

follows, unless I specify the opposite, when I mention Belgium I will be referring to the French community of Belgium, which is the only region that I include in my sample.

The ESLC intends to assess students' ability to use the language purposefully, in order to understand spoken or written tests, or to express themselves in writing. The test evaluates three language skills: Listening, Reading and Writing. Each student was assessed in two out of these three skills and also completed a contextual questionnaire (SQ). The results of the survey tests are reported in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) which has six levels of functional competence, ordered from lowest to highest level: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2. The ESLC focus on levels from A1 to B2. The pre-A1 level, which is also reported, indicates the failure to achieve the A1 level. The following table provides further description of the competences in language proficiency that every CEFR level provides.

ESLC Level		CEFR Level	Definition
Useful Functional Competence	Advanced	B2	Can express herself clearly and effectively
	Beginner	B1	Can deal with straightforward familiar matters
Basic User	Advanced	A2	Can use simple language to communicate on everyday topics
	Beginner	A1	Can use very simple language
Beginner		Pre-A1	Have not achieved the A1 level

Table 1: CEFR level definitions

The sample design was consistent with international scientific standards for testing of this kind such as PISA and TIMSS. The sample follows a two-stage stratified sample design: within each educational system, schools were selected using the probability proportional to size, a method of selection where the measure of size is a function of the number of eligible students enrolled in the course for the language to be tested. The second stage sampling units were students within sampled schools. The goal was to sample 25 students on average per school. The 25 students were selected using simple random sampling from the list of eligible students. In schools where the number of eligible students fell below 25, all students were selected in the student sample from such schools. Once the student sample was selected, each student was randomly assigned for testing two of the three skills evaluated by the ESLC. Each educational system had to select a minimum of 71 schools and 25 students on average per school, therefore roughly 1775

(71x25) students were sampled. In terms of data quality standards, two minimum participation rates were determined: for originally sampled schools a minimum participation of 85% of the schools and a minimum participation of 80% of the sampled students per school were required. The ESLC Principal Questionnaire (PQ) and Teacher Questionnaire (TQ) were self selecting: schools principals and English language teachers of the sampled students of the schools were invited to fill in the Questionnaires. There was no official participation criterion for the teachers and principals and the response rate was low.

In order to avoid frustration and boredom and get a higher quality measure of the student English level per skill, a routine test previous to the skill evaluation assigned each student to a test level: A1-A2, A2-B1, B1-B2. After the assignment, each student did 5 tasks per skill, but since each task measures only within a limited range of level, unless an adjustment is made, task results will not be comparable across students. In order to make student results comparable, the ESLC uses Item Response Theory, which maps the task results into independent draws of a logistic distribution different for each skill, which takes into account the level and difficulty of the tasks. The mapped results are called plausible values and the data provides 5 plausible values per skill. The following table presents the thresholds used to assign a CEFR level to a plausible value.¹

Threshold	LIST	READ	WRIT
B2	1.5	1.5	2.6
B1	0.9	0.9	0
A2	0.4	0.4	-1.5
A1	-0.3	-0.85	-2.8
preA1			

Table 2: Plausible Values CEFR Thresholds

2.1 Sample Selection

The original sample size of English as the first target language was composed by 23,358 students. Unfortunately part of the sample was an extra sample of 128 schools from specific regions of Spain (Andalusia, Canary Islands and Navarre) that joined the study later and they do not have their corresponding population weights. I exclude them from my study. Furthermore, I drop 4 schools from

¹For further details, consult the ESLC Technical Report, June 2012

Sweden and Bulgaria where no student completed the Student Questionnaire (SQ) or only half of the sampled students did complete the Questionnaire. I also drop 174 students who did not complete the SQ but they were evenly distributed across the schools participating in the survey. Thus, the final sample consists of 20,192 students in 915 schools in 13 educational systems.

2.2 Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis of the results, provided by the mean performance per skill and country, allows us to rank countries by performance. Countries are ordered following the position they got in mean Reading which is the same rank as in mean Writing skills. The following table provides mean plausible values per country and per skill, its assigned CEFR level and the position they got among the 13 participating countries.

Country	Mean Listening			Mean Reading			Mean Writing		Total
	Plaus.Val	CEFR	Rank	Plaus.Val	CEFR	Rank	Plaus.Val	CEFR	
Malta	2.36	B2	1	2.10	B2	1	2.63	B2	1,586
Sweden	2.33	B2	2	2.03	B2	2	1.66	B1	1,513
Estonia	1.56	B2	4	1.51	B2	3	1.22	B1	1,580
Netherlands	1.79	B2	3	1.19	B1	4	0.75	B1	1,760
Slovenia	1.45	B1	5	0.90	B1	5	0.31	B1	1,422
Greece	0.79	A2	7	0.74	A2	6	0.24	B1	1,177
Croatia	1.07	B1	6	0.64	A2	7	-0.10	A2	1,649
Belgium fr	0.38	A1	11	0.44	A2	8	-0.95	A2	1,503
Bulgaria	0.69	A2	8	0.42	A2	9	-1.17	A2	1,719
Spain	0.15	A1	12	0.30	A1	10	-1.51	A2	1,583
Poland	0.48	A2	10	0.25	A1	11	-1.60	A1	1,645
Portugal	0.61	A2	9	0.24	A1	12	-1.70	A1	1,563
France	-0.04	A1	13	-0.13	A1	13	-2.42	A1	1,492
Total									20,192

Table 3: Mean Test Results by Country

The following graph summarizes the table results. We can see that the Listening and Reading thresholds are very similar, since the underlying logistic distribution they follow is very similar as well. The mean English results for European countries are pretty low except for Malta, Sweden, Estonia and the Netherlands. After an average of 9 years of compulsory education, which includes in most of the countries the same number of years of English compulsory learning, half of the countries are unable to reach mean results above B1, which determines the lowest level for a useful functional competence.

However there is a significant variability of the results across countries. At a glance we can see that the top ranking countries are small countries, with a native language that is only spoken within those countries. At the bottom of the rank, big countries are located, which also have native languages spoken widely across the World, like Spain and France.

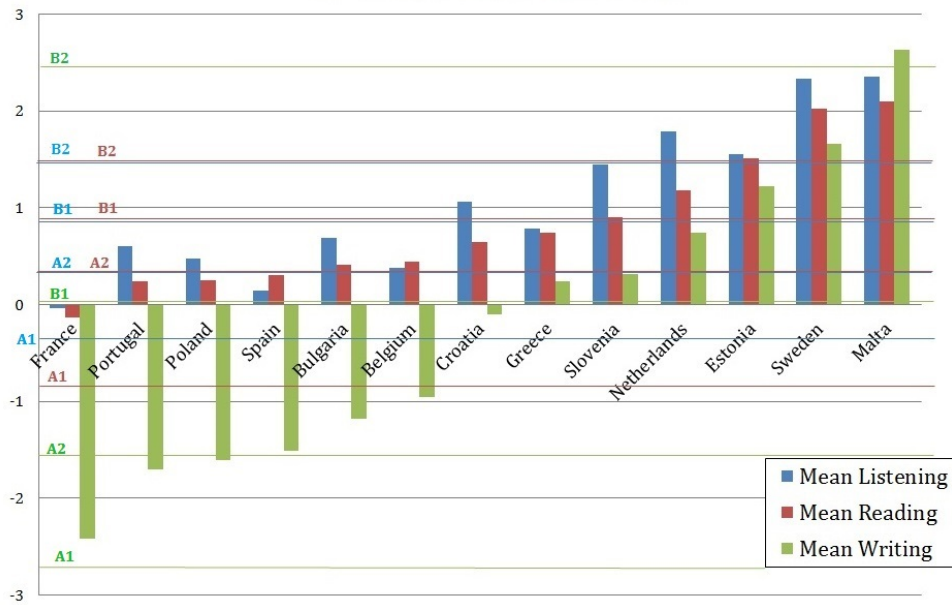


Figure 1: Mean Test Results by Country

Due to this significant variability of the results across countries, I'd like to study what factors are behind, exploring what are the main determinants of English proficiency at the end of compulsory secondary education. To do it, I am going to use the contextual information provided by the Student Questionnaire and national information, in order to infer which factors are relevant, which factors' effects differ from previous research of other skills previously evaluated in other international tests such as PISA, TIMSS and PIRLS, and try to do a policy evaluation that allows us to improve the English results in future.

In the rest of my analysis I will use the plausible value results, since they measure the level of performance in the evaluated English skills, knowing that they have a CEFR level associated.

3 The Education Production Function

One of the main interests of economists in Educational topics is directly linked to Human Capital accumulation, which determines the labor market earnings of an individual. There are several factors which determine the human capital of an individual: the education acquired, the personal and labor market experience, the family background and the intrinsic ability of the individual, which is also a determinant of the other Human Capital input factors. Globally speaking, human capital accumulates first through learning and second by practical experience in the labor market. Therefore the role of Education as the first source of human capital accumulation is very relevant from an Economic perspective.

Nowadays English knowledge has become a very valuable skill and a prerequisite for success in the labor market. Apart from work purposes, research, global media and tourist information are most of the times carried out or given in English, and therefore, its knowledge has become relevant also for educational purposes and leisure time.

During the past decade, the economic literature has made use of international tests of educational achievement to analyze the determinants and impacts of cognitive skills. International tests assess what students know, cognitive skills, as opposed to how long they have been in school or what is the value added of an extra year of a professor. This testing approach intends to measure the knowledge of the students for practical purposes, and the ESLC has the same approach: it intends to assess students' English ability to use language purposefully. It measures how much English knowledge students have acquired by the end of lower secondary education, or equivalently, by the end of compulsory education. It does so by measuring the global proficiency in English after an average of 9 years of study.

The ESLC was carried out in 11 of the sampled countries in the last year of lower secondary education, and in Bulgaria and Belgium at the second year of upper secondary education. The sample criteria intended to avoid significant differences in the study level of the sampled students, and only very few exceptions were allowed. The Bulgarian educational system presents the characteristic that the primary education only lasts 4 years, while in the rest of the sampled countries the general pattern is 6 years of primary education, and since the lower

secondary education lasts 4 years, Bulgarian kids at the end of second year of upper secondary education have the same age as the Spanish kids who, at the end of lower secondary education, have completed 6 of primary and 4 of lower secondary years of education. In the Belgian case, the primary education lasts 6 years, but the lower secondary only 2 and the English onset is done at the end of primary education. Therefore, for the explained reasons, an exception was made in both cases.²

Generally speaking, homogeneity across educational systems in Europe is not present. There are substantial differences in the age at the beginning of compulsory primary education, in the existence or not of pre-primary education, in the duration of primary and lower secondary education and on the English age onset at school.

3.1 The model

The model underlying the literature of the determinants of international educational achievement resembles the following educational production function:

$$S_{isc} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 F_i + \beta_2 R_{is} + \beta_3 I_c + \beta_4 A_i + \epsilon_{isc}$$

where S_{isc} are the test scores in the Listening, Reading and Writing skills evaluated, F_i captures student and family background characteristics, R_{is} is a measure of school resources, I_c captures institutional features, A_i is the individual ability of the student and ϵ_{isc} is a logistically distributed error, since the outcome variable follows a logistic distribution.

There are several ways to exploit the cross country variation. The first one consists of the estimation of similar education production functions within different countries, which exploits country level observations, as performed by Hanushek and Kimko (2000).

The second possibility is to exploit the broad array of institutional differences that exists across countries to estimate a pooled multivariate cross-country education production function in the same way that Woessmann, Luedemann, Schuetz and West (2009) did using PISA 2003 data. This second approach is the one that

²For more details, consult the Final Report European Survey of Language Competences.

I will follow. It combines micro data on student achievement and institutional information to obtain the effect of the determinants of English skill performance at an European level.

This cross-country comparative approach provides advantages. First, it exploits institutional variation that does not exist within countries, by pooling observations that belong to different institutional systems these institutional differences can be estimated, which is impossible in within country estimation. Second, it reveals whether any result is country specific or more general. Third, since international European data presents much wider variation than any sample belonging to a specific country, this international variation implies more statistical power to detect the impact of specific factors on student outcomes. Therefore, it allows for the determination of specific factors that affects students outcomes internationally.

The cross-sectional nature of this estimation allows only for a descriptive interpretation of which are the determinants of English performance, since the implicit individual ability can only be controlled partially by the student and family background characteristics.

3.2 Specification

The following section provides a general specification of the variables included in the model in each of the factors which determine the educational production function.

The student and family background characteristics include: on one hand, student characteristics such as exact age at the beginning of February, gender, Immigrant status, which takes the value 1 if the student reports to have been born in another country, and Repetition, which is an indicator variable that takes the value 1 if the student has repeated at least one grade; on the other hand, family background characteristics such as: if the student's parents hold a university degree, if they are white, blue or pink collar workers, their parent's knowledge of English, the number of books the student has at home, if the student uses English at home and if the student has English as one of his/her mother tongues (learnt before being 5 years old). Apart from the White Collar indicators for both parents, a Blue Collar Father indicator and a Pink Collar Mother indicator are

included. Pink collar are occupations related to services, which have traditionally been done by women such as secretaries, hairdressers, nurses, etc. The reason why I include Pink Collar mother rather than Blue Collar mother, that has been traditionally the included sector in international studies, is as follows. The service sector weight has grown in the last few decades in developed economies. Since this new source of employment and growth is mainly related with services, women have a competitive advantage with respect to men in this sector and it could be a reason for the increasing female participation in the labor force during the last decades. Therefore, it seems natural to include a group of occupation that takes into account this fact and has, until now, not been used in previous international studies. The Economic, Social and Cultural Status (ESCS) index is comprised of three components: home possessions (such as number of bathrooms and TVs, among others items, that are an approximate measure of the household wealth), parental occupation and parental education expressed in years of schooling. This compound index is provided by the ESLC as it is always the case in other international tests.

The school resources are all variables related to the school, but reported by the student. It includes: the number of years of English study at school since the beginning of primary education, early onset at school (indicator variable that takes the value 1 if the student studied English at school in pre-primary education), English lesson time per week, English class size, ancient languages (indicator variable that takes the value 1 if the student has studied ancient languages) and the number of foreign languages studied at school reported by the student. In my specification I include the English class size in logarithms because it is the functional form that better captures the fact that an extra student has proportionally higher impact on smaller classes.

The institutional variables include information such as the GDP per capita in purchasing power parity of 2010 in prices of 2005, Educational Expenditure on secondary education per student in 2010³, the country population at the beginning of 2011, an indicator variable if the TV in English is not dubbed, External Exit Exams (if the students have to perform an external exit exam to get their lower secondary education degree), which according to Eurydice⁴ it is the case

³GDP per capita and Educational Expenditure are given in 2005 prices.

⁴Network that provides information and analyses of European education systems and policies.

for Malta, France, Portugal, Netherlands, Poland and Estonia; and Multilingual region, that is an indicator variable that takes the value one if the school was located in one of the five multilingual regions sampled: four in Spain and one in Estonia. This last variable is a regional one.

Finally, I include a set of family language controls. Most languages in Europe can be grouped by family language, which gathers languages by their proximity. In my sample, except of Estonian and Greek which do not belong to any of the main European family languages, the rest of the languages can be grouped by families: *Germanic*, which English belongs to and also includes Dutch and Swedish, *Romance*, which groups all the Latin origin languages: French, Maltese, Portuguese and Spanish; and *Slavic* which includes Bulgarian, Croatian, Polish and Slovenian.⁵

3.3 Empirical results

The data provides 5 plausible values per evaluated skill, which are independent draws of a logistic distribution that takes into account the difficulty and level of the performed tasks. Due to this independence across plausible values, the mean of the 5 plausible values is a good estimator of the overall skill performance of the student. Therefore, the plausible values are transformed into student means per skill. Table 4 provides some descriptive statistics, weighted by the student's sampling probability, of the outcome variables that are going to be used in the following estimation.

From the original initial sample of 20,192 observations, 5,228 observations are lost due to missing values in the Student Questionnaire. Since these observations with missing values are removed from my estimation, the following weighted statistics outcomes variables exclude those observations. This table provides the mean, standard deviation and minimum and maximum values of the outcome variables that are going to be used in the weighted least-squares estimation. As we can see, Mean Listening and Mean Reading skills have a very similar distribution, while Mean Writing presents a much more dispersed one. This has to be taken into account when evaluating the impact of the skill determinants of English performance.

⁵The Appendix provides a descriptive summary of all the variables used in the Baseline.

Variable	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Mean Listening	10,221	0.57	1.213	-4.57	5.72
Mean Reading	10,350	0.44	1.24	-3.78	6.02
Mean Writing	10,144	-1.06	2.93	-12.23	10.92

Weighted by students sampling probability.

Table 4: Mean Skills description

The following Tables 5, 6 and 7 provide the educational production function estimated for each skill separately by ordinary least squares (OLS) weighted by students sampling probability per skill. The last step of the sample design assigned students randomly to two out of three of the skills, and the skill weights take that last sampling step into account. Weighting by students sampling probability provides the estimated effects of the factors for the whole population, which is the number of English students at the end of compulsory education. Standard errors are clustered by school, since the observations are grouped by school and so, there is an implicit correlation between the students results and students contextual factors that has to be taken into account for the errors to be efficiently estimated. The odd columns provide the baseline specification explained in the previous section, which includes family language controls. The even columns provide the baseline specification which includes a whole set of school dummies to control for school fixed effects (SFE). In general, both specifications are quite good. The R-squared coefficients are 0.50, 0.44 and 0.44 for Mean Listening, Mean Reading and Mean Writing respectively.

The school fixed effects absorb everything that is common to students belonging to the same school. Common factors include observed and unobserved factors, and that's the reason why the R-squared increases from 0.50 to 0.65, 0.44 to 0.60 and 0.44 to 0.62. This increase is suggesting that there are some relevant factors that are not being taken into account in the baseline specification.

Institutional country factors are absorbed by the fixed effects, as well as all the background characteristics not taken into account by the family background information. For example, observe that in the original specification age is statistically very significant for all skills but, after including the SFE, the coefficient is no longer significant because, since I am controlling for Repetition, the age is

virtually the same across students in the same grade and school, and therefore the SFE absorb the age school characteristic. However, for some other variables the relative change in the significance of some coefficients is not so obvious and could point towards between school sorting bias. For example, the Father University coefficient is very significant in the baseline, but not significant in the SFE specification. In this case, the significant change in the estimates suggests that the OLS estimation suffers from between-school sorting bias. In other words, parents who have a higher level of education may decide to put their kids in specific schools which are private or tougher, and parents with lower level of education may not know about the local schools quality and send their kids to the closest local one. Therefore, due to this sorting between schools, the educational level of the father is common across the students, so it is absorbed by the SFE. The same pattern is observed with Pink Collar mother in Reading or Mother University in Listening.

Globally speaking, coefficients are in general statistically significant. However, in terms of standard deviations, its effects are very small since only very few have an equivalent impact to more than a half standard deviation in terms of mean test scores. For example grade Repetition, that is significant at 1% level, creates a negative effect that is only equivalent to 0.25 standard deviations lower in Listening, 0.3 standard deviations lower in Reading and 0.42 standard deviations lower in Writing scores.

In line with PIRLS studies, girls perform better in Writing skills relative to boys, although it only provides an advantage equivalent to 0.16 standard deviation higher scores. Immigrant status, which in other international studies has been always a negative determinant in math and reading skills, is a positive and significant determinant of Listening skills, equivalent to 0.2 standard deviations higher scores.

Books at home and ESCS index are, as the literature has shown, a positive and significant predictor of student performance. Books reference is the lower rank of books at home, from 11 to 25. We can observe that the higher the number of books at home, the bigger its effect become, going from an equivalent of 0.13 to 0.25 standard deviations higher in all skills. The ESCS index effect is significant but its effects is only about 0.1 standard deviations higher scores in all skills.

	Mean Listening		Mean Reading		Mean Writing	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS						
Age	-0.14*** (0.028)	-0.02 (0.033)	-0.09*** (0.03)	-0.02 (0.029)	-0.18** (0.085)	0.02 (0.09)
Female	0.02 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.03)	0.01 (0.03)	0.004 (0.03)	0.48*** (0.08)	0.42*** (0.07)
Repetition	-0.18*** (0.058)	-0.25*** (0.058)	-0.35*** (0.056)	-0.33*** (0.054)	-1.26*** (0.13)	-1.38*** (0.16)
Immigrant	0.23*** (0.08)	0.196** (0.087)	0.10 (0.08)	0.07 (0.08)	0.27 (0.21)	0.073 (0.22)
FAMILY BACKGROUND						
Books 26-100	0.02 (0.045)	0.02 (0.045)	0.08** (0.04)	0.04 (0.04)	0.39*** (0.13)	0.32** (0.13)
Books 101-200	0.16*** (0.0423)	0.13*** (0.04)	0.25*** (0.04)	0.18*** (0.04)	0.66*** (0.12)	0.5*** (0.11)
Books>200	0.19*** (0.05)	0.19*** (0.047)	0.33*** (0.05)	0.25*** (0.047)	0.73*** (0.14)	0.6*** (0.13)
ESCS index	0.13*** (0.03)	0.06*** (0.02)	0.15*** (0.03)	0.08*** (0.027)	0.26*** (0.10)	0.11 (0.08)
Father University	0.085** (0.04)	0.03 (0.04)	0.09* (0.047)	0.05 (0.05)	0.28** (0.121)	0.28** (0.112)
Mother University	0.113*** (0.043)	0.049 (0.04)	0.11** (0.05)	0.08* (0.046)	0.35*** (0.106)	0.14 (0.106)
White Collar Father	0.02 (0.039)	0.03 (0.039)	0.04 (0.047)	0.03 (0.045)	-0.12 (0.117)	-0.09 (0.103)
White Collar Mother	0.18*** (0.049)	0.15*** (0.043)	0.21*** (0.049)	0.15*** (0.05)	0.57*** (0.14)	0.45*** (0.4)
Blue Collar Father	-0.09** (0.039)	-0.07* (0.037)	-0.12*** (0.04)	-0.13*** (0.04)	-0.42*** (0.13)	-0.31** (0.12)
Pink Collar Mother	0.10*** (0.036)	0.07** (0.034)	0.08* (0.046)	0.03 (0.035)	0.48*** (0.129)	0.34*** (0.112)
Father English Well	0.16*** (0.035)	0.12*** (0.034)	0.15*** (0.035)	0.10*** (0.035)	0.48*** (0.098)	0.31*** (0.102)
Mother English Well	0.04 (0.032)	0.02 (0.032)	0.05 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)	0.13 (0.099)	0.1 (0.098)
English use at home	0.41*** (0.04)	0.38*** (0.05)	0.35*** (0.05)	0.4*** (0.05)	0.98*** (0.13)	1.01*** (0.12)
Early Onset at home	0.23*** (0.074)	0.16** (0.081)	0.23*** (0.08)	0.09 (0.081)	0.41** (0.18)	0.34** (0.17)
Fam.Language Controls	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
School Controls	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes
Observations	10,221	10,221	10,350	10,350	10,144	10,144
R-squared	0.502	0.647	0.443	0.599	0.440	0.623

Clustered robust standard errors by school in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
Weighted by students sampling probability

Table 5: Student and Family Background

Mother and Father University have both a positive and significant impact, equivalent to 0.1 standard deviations higher scores in all skills. White Collar Mother has a positive effect in all the skills, varying its effects from 0.15 to 0.2 standard deviations. The fact that only one of the parents affects the kid could be driven by relative impact or by collinearity due to assortative mating. In fact, the correlation of parents education expressed in years in the sample is around 0.62 and the parents white collar occupation correlation is around 0.45, which suggests that assortative mating could be the reason behind this fact. Blue Collar Father presents a negative and significant effect in all English skills, although its effect is small. Pink Collar Mother is a positive and significant determinant, whose effect represents 0.1 standard deviation higher scores in all skills. In the occupational variables I use as a reference of White Collar Father and Blue Collar Father, unemployed, retired and Pink Collar Father. In the case of the White Collar Mother and Pink Collar Mother the reference is unemployed, retired and Blue Collar mother. In each case, I decided to put as a reference the categories which have fewer number of observations. Parents occupation variables White Collar and Blue Collar father behave as previously in other international studies: White Collar parents have a positive and significant effect on student's scores, and Blue Collar has a significant negative effect. The Pink Collar mother significant positive effect is a novel finding.

Estimations in the lower part of Table 5 present variable effects that are specifically related to English, and that have not been used before in previous research on maths and literature skills. The same pattern observed in White Collar parents happens with Parents English knowledge, where only the Father knowledge has a statistically significant positive effect in all skills, which represents scores 0.15 standard deviations higher. Again, these two variables present a correlation of 0.43. English use at home is a positive and significant coefficient which represents 0.33 standard deviation higher scores across all skills evaluated. Early onset at home, which indicates whether one of the kid's mother tongues is English, has also a significant effect in all skills, between 0.15 and 0.2 standard deviations higher. Not surprisingly, its effect seems to be higher for Listening skills. The interaction between books and Parents English knowledge, which could capture the fact that if parents have a high English level, some of the books at the student home could be in English, did not have any effect, and therefore I excluded it.

Table 6 provides estimates of School Information given by the student. As can be seen, variables are statistically very significant although their effects are all between 0.05-0.1 standard deviations higher. Particularly remarkable is the fact that the Ancient Languages indicator provides a 0.16 standard deviations higher Writing scores.

	Mean Listening		Mean Reading		Mean Writing	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
SCHOOL INFORMATION						
English Hours per Week	0.08*** (0.026)	0.06** (0.029)	0.1*** (0.031)	0.09*** (0.034)	0.27*** (0.067)	0.24*** (0.09)
Years English School >5 years	0.03*** (0.006)	0.03*** (0.007)	0.05*** (0.006)	0.05*** (0.006)	0.08*** (0.02)	0.07*** (0.02)
Early Onset at School <5 years	0.17*** (0.06)	0.09* (0.05)	0.17*** (0.06)	0.08 (0.05)	0.51*** (0.13)	0.23* (0.12)
Number of Foreign Languages	0.11*** (0.024)	0.10*** (0.023)	0.11*** (0.026)	0.10*** (0.025)	0.21*** (0.06)	0.09 (0.07)
Ancient Languages	0.07 (0.054)	0.11** (0.046)	0.13** (0.058)	0.15** (0.061)	0.39*** (0.14)	0.5*** (0.14)
English Class Size logarithms	0.16*** (0.05)	0.27*** (0.056)	0.19*** (0.057)	0.31*** (0.067)	0.75*** (0.17)	0.79*** (0.12)
INSTITUTIONAL INFORMATION						
GDP ppa 2010 per capita	-0.07*** (0.02)		-0.06*** (0.02)		-0.18*** (0.05)	
Educational Expenditure 2010	0.16*** (0.06)		0.15** (0.06)		0.62*** (0.14)	
TV English not dubbed	0.16 (0.10)		0.20* (0.12)		0.47* (0.27)	
Population 2011	-0.11*** (0.02)		-0.06*** (0.017)		-0.20*** (0.04)	
Multilingual Region	0.28** (0.13)		0.08 (0.16)		0.65 (0.42)	
External Exit Exams	-0.11 (0.078)		-0.35*** (0.086)		-0.67*** (0.2)	
Fam.Language Controls	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
School Controls	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes
Observations	10,221	10,221	10,350	10,350	10,144	10,144
R-squared	0.502	0.647	0.443	0.599	0.440	0.623
Clustered robust standard errors by school in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 Weighted by students sampling probability						

Table 6: School and Institutional Information

English class size is expressed in logarithms to account for the fact that an extra student has higher impact in smaller classes rather than in bigger ones. Its effect is positive and significant, equivalent to a quarter of a standard deviation higher in all skills. This implies that bigger classes perform a quarter of a standard deviation better in all English skills. This surprising result motivates the second part of my study.

Additionally, Table 6 provides the effect of institutional factors on each skill. The GDP per capita 2010 effect is negative and significant. This is highly remarkable since the countries which have higher GDP per capita are Sweden and Netherlands, which have also a higher level of English as shown in Figure 1. Although in any case its effect is very small. Educational Expenditure in 2010 at secondary is positive and significant, representing between 0.10 to 0.15 higher standard deviations. TV English not dubbed is positive and significant although its effect is not significant precisely for the Listening skill, that is the skill that could benefit more from listening TV in English. The Population coefficient of 2011 expressed in tens of million, goes in the expected direction: bigger countries have worst results in English skills. In the case of Belgium I have use the population of Belgium Wallonia.

Multilingual regions perform positively and significantly better in Listening, equivalent to 0.25 standard deviations higher scores. Surprisingly External Exit Exams is negative and significant, this could point to a teaching-to-the-test negative effect. The fact that the country makes the students do an external exit exam precisely at the end of that academic year could make students to pay more attention to the courses that are evaluated by the test. On the other hand, due to External Exit Exams, English teachers could pay more attention to activities and English knowledge that are not evaluated by the ESLC which makes a purposeful use of English evaluation, like vocabulary or grammar. Several interactions have been tried between country variables such as GDP and its Population and GDP and TV in English not dubbed at that country, but none of them provided a statistically significantly effect, and therefore, I removed those interactions from the specification.

Table 7 provides the Family Language control coefficient estimates used in the baseline specification of Listening, Reading and Writing from the odd columns previously commented. The Family Language Germanic control estimate, to which English belongs and also groups Dutch and Swedish, is positive and highly significant across all skills. It is the equivalent to a complete standard deviation higher scores in Listening, 0.75 standard deviations in Reading and 0.2 standard deviations in Writing. Romance family language is negative and significant, and it is equivalent to 0.2 to 0.5 standard deviation less in scores across all skills.

Slavic languages also perform the equivalent to 0.2 and 0.3 standard deviation less in Reading and Writing skills. This results clearly quantify the proximity of languages with respect to English and illustrate the comparative advantage that Dutch and Swedish kids have with respect to other family languages.

Family Language Controls	Mean Listening (1)	Mean Reading (3)	Mean Writing (5)
Germanic	1.25*** (0.121)	0.92*** (0.125)	0.65** (0.289)
Romance	-0.29*** (0.103)	-0.28*** (0.109)	-1.57*** (0.247)
Slavic	-0.07 (0.0835)	-0.32*** (0.0944)	-0.83*** (0.209)
Observations	10,221	10,350	10,144
R-squared	0.502	0.442	0.440

Clustered robust standard errors by school, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
Weighted by students sampling probability

Table 7: Family Language Controls

3.4 Robustness Check 1: Country Controls

Table 11 provides again the least squares weighted specification. The odd columns provide the baseline specification that was in the odd columns in the previous section, with family language controls, and the even columns provide the baseline specification which includes a whole set of country dummies to control for country fixed effects (CFE). As before, the fixed effects absorb everything that is common to students belonging to the same country. Common factors include observed and unobserved factors, but this time, contrary to the section where we used the SFE, the R-squared improvement is tiny: from 0.502 to 0.508, 0.442 to 0.448 and 0.44 to 0.441. This little increase suggests that the country effects affecting English skill performance are mostly taken into account by the baseline specification: the observed factors can almost totally explain the country factors that are affecting the results.

Notice that the results with CFE, contrary to the SFE specification, do not lose significance in any variable and coefficients do not change much with respect

to the baseline model with family language controls. Therefore, they confirm that the results from the original specification have only little country bias, and are robust enough to explain the determinants of English performance.

3.5 Robustness Check 2: Same Student Regressions

In previous regressions, I was only taken into account students that had been evaluated in the skill we wanted to study. Since students were randomly allocated to two out of three evaluated skills, the determinant expressed the average effect of the factors on English skills, knowing that the students are not the same in all specifications. Therefore, it will be interesting to check if there are significant changes between determinants when we take into account the same student performing different skills. In other words, I will group students by types, each type corresponding to every possible combination of the two out of three evaluated skills: Type 1 if the student was evaluated in Listening and Reading, Type 2 if the student was evaluated in Listening and Writing and Type 3 if the student was evaluated in Reading and Writing. The drawback of this estimation is that this focus on smaller groups reduces the sample size in each of the regressions.

From the original sample there were 493 students that were only evaluated in one skill, therefore, they are excluded from the specifications of this section. Table 12 and 13 show the observations used to perform the estimates since observations that have at least one missing value on the variables used for estimation are removed. Table 12 divides the sample by country, and each country by types. Table 13 provides a descriptive summary of the outcomes performed by each of the student types. We can see that the descriptive statistics of the outcomes do not change significantly from the original total mean skill descriptive statistics reported in Table 4, which is a good signal, since the allocation of kids to different skills seems to be purely random.

Table 14 reports the results of these regressions. As it can be seen, these estimates are very similar to the ones obtained previously: determinants in general are very significantly different from 0, but they represent little individual impact in terms of standard deviations in scores. For the sake of brevity, I will only comment results that differ from previous ones.

Repetition, that was previously significant, negative and equivalent to a quarter of a standard deviation in terms of scores is now insignificant in the Listening skill of the first type. It represents a half of a standard deviation less in writing of Type 2 and represents a significant quarter standard deviation less in terms of scores in Reading and Writing of Type 3. Immigrant status is no longer significant in Listening for the Second Type. Surprisingly, Father and Mother university as well as Pink Collar Mother are not significant for the Type 1 student. The rest of family background behave as before in terms of impact and significance. School information behaves also as before in terms of impact and significance. In the institutional information the Multilingual region indicator, that previously gives only a positive advantage equivalent to a quarter of a standard deviation extra scores in Listening, are present now also as well in Writing for Type 3 students.

Therefore, globally speaking, results do not change much from the initial specification. So, we can conclude that the original specification results are robust to CFE and to sample reductions. The specified multivariate education production function has enough statistical power to perform an accurate descriptive analyses of which are the determinants of English skills.

4 English Class Size

Previous sections have shown, under many different specifications, that English Class size in logarithms reported by students, is a positive and very significant determinant of English performance for all English skills evaluated. The effect of a bigger class gives students around a quarter of a standard deviation of extra score in all evaluated skills. This means that bigger classes perform better on average than smaller ones. I used the natural logarithms specification because a change in class size by one student is proportionately larger for smaller classes, as was already noticed by Hoxby (2000). Hoxby (2000) shows that simple least-squares estimates are biased towards showing positive effects of smaller classes in the US state of Connecticut. While her estimated least-squares coefficients are negative and statistically highly significant, her identification strategy using exogenous class-size variations to estimate causal effects yield "rather precisely estimated zeros".

However, results are very different in most European countries. As Woessmann (2005) showed using TIMSS data, in 12 European school systems, class size is statistically significant positively related to maths performance using least-squares estimation in all countries. The positive and significant coefficients of class size obtained in this study, corroborate what previous studies have found related to the positive effect of class size on scores of the European countries.

The problem with least squares conventional estimates is that school resources in general, and class sizes in particular, are not only a cause but also a consequence of student achievement or of the unobserved factors related to student achievement. Class sizes depend on choices by politicians, administrators and parents, which may be related to the level of performance achieved. Therefore, the least squares coefficients are very likely to be biased, the direction of which is ambiguous *a priori*. However, it is highly remarkable that the bias seems to go in the opposite direction from the bias found using US data. While in the United States, the resource allocation of schools, measured by class size, is strongly related to family background in a regressive way, due to the unique US features of decentralized education finance and considerable residential mobility, many other forces seem to be at play in Europe that give rise to a compensatory resource allocation, as observed by West and Woessmann (2003).

4.1 Instrumenting English Class Size

The ideal way to overcome endogeneity problems is to perform explicit experiments, which generates exogenous variation in class size by randomly assigning students to different sized classes. To my knowledge, no experiment of this kind has been carried out in Europe yet. The second possibility to identify causal class-size effect is to use quasi-experimental strategies. The best known example of it was introduced by Angrist and Lavy (1999). Angrist and Lavy used a maximum class size rule in Israel, which is popularly known as Maimonides' rule, to generate an exogenous predictor of the class size, which is used as an instrument for the actual class size. Maximum class size rules induce a nonlinear and non monotonic relationship between grade enrollment and class size, which generates rule-induced discontinuities that creates the exogenous variation that can be exploited to obtain the causal effect of class size on test scores.

For the sake of simplicity, I will explain what the class size regulation induces in schools with an example. Imagine we have a school in a country which has a maximum class size regulation of 25 students. At the beginning of the school year, that school has a cohort size of 25 students which are allocated to the unique class that the school has, since the number of students does not force the school to open two classes. However, the number of students that the school has by cohort is a combination of multiple choice decisions taken first, by the parents of the students, who decided to move to that neighbourhood and to matriculate their kids in that school; second, by the kids effort, which have made possible for them to pass all the previous courses and third, by the administrations, who have chosen the materials and level required for students to pass previous courses. Due to such combination of endogenous choices, those 25 students are together in the unique class offered by the school. Now imagine that instead of 25, the school has 26 students at the beginning of the year, and therefore, the school is forced to open two classes of size 13. We can see that the only difference between being in a class of 25 or 13 is just that a last additional kid appeared randomly in the second scenario. The difference between scenarios is just due to the maximum class size regulation, which induces a non linear and non monotonic difference between cohorts. Since such large drops in class size come about solely due to regulation, it can be argued that they are exogenous to students performance and purely random. If so, we can use the exogenous variation created by the rule

induced discontinuities to build the Predicted Class Size function and use it as an instrument of the actual class size in IV estimation. If students' test results are different in classes that only differ in terms of this maximum class size rule, this can be attributed to a causal effect of class size.

According to Eurydice, a network that provides information and analyses of European education systems and policies, nine out of thirteen countries in my sub-sampled ESLC have maximum class size regulations. The class size function derived from maximum class size rule discontinuities can be stated formally as follows. Let $CohortSize_s$ be the number of English students enrolled in the surveyed grade reported by the principal of the school. Let $MaximumClass_c$ be the maximum class size rule that affects each of the 9 countries shown in the following graph. Assuming that cohorts are divided into classes of equal size, we have the Predicted Class Size function.

$$PredictedClassSize_{sc} = \frac{CohortSize_s}{int(\frac{CohortSize_s - 1}{MaximumClassSize_c}) + 1}$$

For any positive number n, the function $int(n)$ is the largest integer less than or equal to n. The Predicted Class Size function captures the fact that maximum class size regulations allows cohorts smaller than the threshold to be grouped in only one class, while any cohort higher than the threshold but lower than the double of the threshold will be grouped in two classes, and higher than the double but lower than three times the threshold will be grouped in three classes, and so on.

Since the Principal Questionnaires (PQ) present a remarkable amount of non response or missing values, using this source of information makes us lose a significant part of the students sample. Taking into account that any time a missing value is present in a variable that I use from the (PQ), since it is common to all students in that school, I remove all students from that school from my estimates. Therefore, missing values reduce sample size and the robustness of my estimates.⁶

⁶Another possibility to obtain the Cohort Size per school and not losing any school by the PQ non response, would be to ask ESLC to provide the number of all Eligible Students that they obtained per selected school in the first part of the stratified sample design, which they used in order to perform the second part of the sample design. Unfortunately, no positive answer has

Table 15 illustrates how many observations remain available after removing missing values of the Cohort Size and after also removing the missing values that come from the SQ information. The last column shows the number of available observations to perform the second part of my study.

Figure 2 depicts countries affected by maximum class size regulations. Numbers in brackets denote the maximum class size per country. The graph plots the average class size in a grade against the number of English students that are in that grade, i. e. cohort size, reported by the principal of the school. The red straight lines depict the average class size that would be predicted by a strict implementation of the maximum class-size rule.

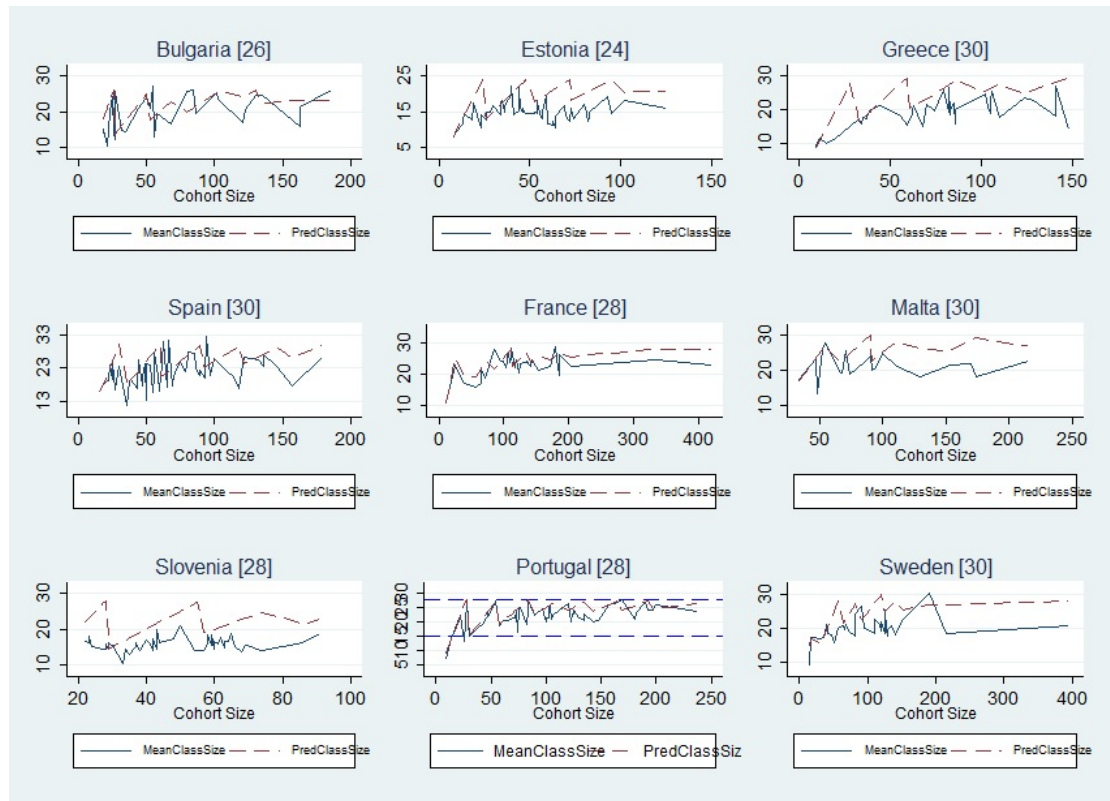


Figure 2: Predicted and actual average class size by grade enrolment

Figure 3 depicts an amplified graph of Portugal from Figure 2. The continuous blue line shows the relation between the mean of the actual English class size reported by students and the English cohort size of the grade that students belong to. I have been given yet to me to this petition, and I have to work using the PQ available information.

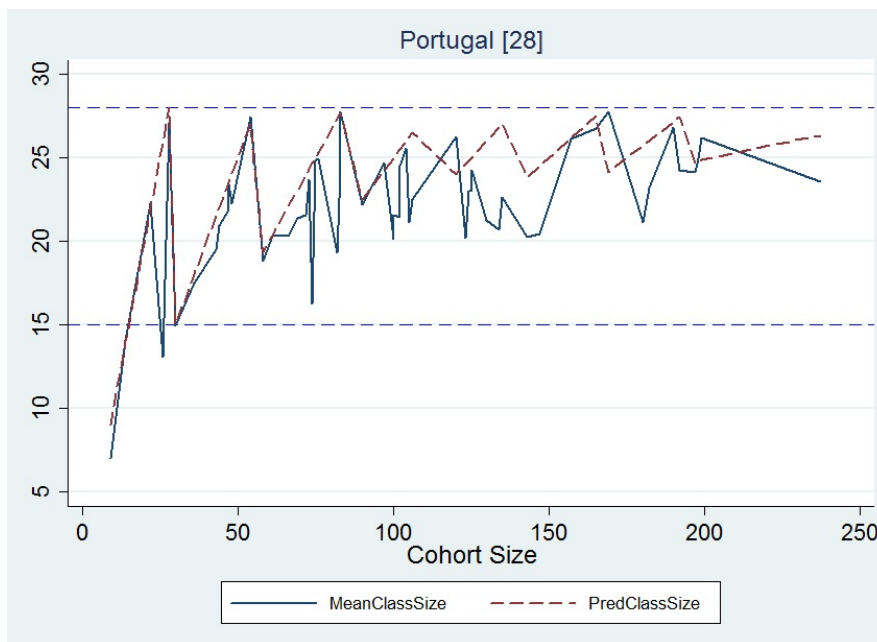


Figure 3: Predicted and actual average class size by Cohort size in Portugal

to, reported by the principal. The dashed red line plots the Predicted Class size function taking into account the Cohort Size reported by the principal. The blue horizontal dashed lines indicates the discontinuities on class sizes caused by the strict implementation of the maximum class size regulation. As we can see, if the class is smaller than 28, it smoothly approaches to 28 and, from the moment it reaches the limit, the class size is sharply divided by two. We can see that the first 3 discontinuities created by the maximum class size rule are perfectly replicated by the mean of the actual class size, therefore suggesting that the maximum class size rule is quite strictly well implemented in Portugal.

For an instrument to be valid, two main assumptions have to be satisfied. On the following assumptions, I will call z the instrument *PredictedClassSize*, x will be the instrumented variable *EnglishClassSize* and y will be the test scores on the 3 evaluated skills.

The first one is orthogonality or exogeneity of the instrument: $E(z, u) = 0$. This assumption implies that, whatever the unobserved factors that are endogenously affecting the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) of the Class Size variable estimation, these factors are not affecting the Predicted Class Size instrument

variable. If several instruments were available, an exogeneity test could be performed, but since I just have one available instrument, this quantitative test cannot be performed. Therefore I will argue the reasons that make me think that this instrument is orthogonal. As I said previously, class sizes depend on choices by politicians, administrators and parents, which may be related to the level of performance achieved by the student. Since Predicted Class size drops depend only on the strict implementation of the maximum class size rule that affects the country, it can be argued that they are exogenous to students performance, since they do not depend on choices by the student close environment: principals, parents or regional education authorities. The maximum class size affects all students in the same country equally, independently of their family background or local schools choices. Therefore, the orthogonality assumption is quite well satisfied by the Predicted Class Size instrument.

The second assumption concerns the relevance or strength of the instrument. For an instrument to be relevant, it needs to be a good predictor of the variable that is instrumenting. Which means: $E(x, z) \neq 0$

$$\beta_{IV} \simeq \frac{Cov(x, y)}{Cov(x, z)} \simeq \frac{E(x, y)}{E(x, z)}$$

Therefore, if $E(x, z) \simeq 0$, $\beta_{IV} \rightarrow \infty$ and therefore it will not be consistently estimated. The instrument would be weak and not strong enough to make a consistent IV estimation. To address this important and critical assumption I provide the First Stage estimates provided by the following equation, by country and grouped countries:

$$\text{Log}(ActualClassSize) = \beta \text{Log}(PredictedClassSize) + X'\gamma + \zeta$$

This equation is estimated for all countries separately and for the grouped countries without including Malta. The reason why I did not include Malta is that the number of observations was not big enough to implement the F-test for the country alone. The coefficient reported in Table 8 is the β coefficient of previous regression.

We can see that the instrument is strong in most of the countries, and the $E(x, z) \neq 0$ assumption is satisfied. The IV coefficient is a very significant pre-

dictor of English Class Size in 5 countries and in the grouped countries. Also, the F-test that checks the validity of the complete First Stage IV model satisfies the validity threshold since its p-value is lower than 0.05, meaning that, with a probability higher than 0.95, we reject the null hypothesis that the model is not statistically valid. Malta's F-test cannot be performed since I do not have enough observations to perform the test. Therefore I exclude Malta from the grouped countries and from the complete IV model that will be estimated later.

Country	Correlation	IV First Stage	
		Coefficient	Prob > F
Bulgaria	0.2719	0.247 (0.200)	0.0000
Estonia	0.1448	0.360*** (0.120)	0.0003
Greece	0.2180	0.487*** (0.153)	0.0000
Spain	0.1277	0.311 (0.221)	0.0000
France	0.4065	0.757*** (0.205)	0.0000
Malta	0.2720	-0.0160 (0.168)	—
Portugal	0.4905	0.849*** (0.0971)	0.0000
Slovenia	0.0348	0.0831 (0.109)	0.0047
Sweedden	0.2152	0.501** (0.211)	0.0035
All Countries (Malta excluded)	0.3766	0.459*** (0.111)	0.0000

Clustered Robust standard errors by school in parentheses
Wheighted by students sampling probability

Table 8: Testing the Strength of the Instrument

4.2 English Class Size IV estimation

Table 9 provides the coefficient estimates by country and by pooled countries, excluding Malta, of English Class size coefficients in logarithms using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Instrumental Variables (IV) two stage least squares using the instrument Predicted Class size in logarithms. Again, I use population

weights by skill provided by the data for both estimations. Since the sample size of some of the countries is small, I performed also a more robust IV estimation method: limited information maximum likelihood (liml), which provides more robust IV estimates in small samples. Since coefficient and errors do not present any difference with respect to the standard two stage least squares, I exclude the liml estimates for the sake of simplicity.

English Class Size \log_s	Mean Listening			Mean Reading			Mean Writing		
	OLS	IV	Obs	OLS	IV	Obs	OLS	IV	Obs
Bulgaria	1.007** (0.457)	0.410 (1.992)	281	0.594** (0.290)	-3.569* (2.067)	316	0.797 (0.491)	-1.646 (1.856)	281
Estonia	0.461*** (0.159)	0.531 (0.633)	666	0.164 (0.200)	0.565 (0.802)	655	0.329 (0.375)	1.258 (1.666)	656
Greece	0.101 (0.132)	0.0566 (0.328)	502	0.167 (0.118)	-0.00450 (0.674)	536	0.673*** (0.250)	1.293 (0.885)	512
Spain	0.159 (0.101)	0.229 (0.660)	676	0.309*** (0.116)	1.979* (1.113)	688	0.469 (0.301)	1.345 (2.012)	664
France	0.290 (0.189)	-0.251 (0.399)	370	0.269 (0.180)	1.062** (0.527)	362	1.231* (0.643)	4.274** (2.135)	347
Portugal	0.162 (0.164)	0.0591 (0.353)	702	-0.141 (0.106)	0.161 (0.355)	712	0.00185 (0.330)	-0.718 (0.864)	694
Slovenia	0.341** (0.163)	4.810 (7.370)	550	0.0775 (0.178)	0.866 (2.777)	567	-0.156 (0.317)	-0.818 (6.420)	558
Sweden	0.421*** (0.160)	0.0464 (0.973)	376	0.702*** (0.182)	2.083** (0.857)	359	1.388*** (0.350)	4.456** (2.213)	360
All Countries (Malta excluded)	0.191** (0.0972)	-0.0293 (0.253)	4,158	0.280*** (0.0974)	1.002*** (0.355)	4,195	0.655** (0.262)	1.839** (0.847)	4,072

Robust standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
Weighted by students sampling probability

Table 9: OLS and IV 2SLS Estimates

The OLS positive and significant coefficients of English Class size in logarithms by country corroborate what previous studies like Woessmann (2005) had found using European data: bigger classes perform better on average. The IV coefficients provided by the two stage least squares using the ESLC data, give us a surprising result. What previous researchers like Hoxby (2000), Woessmann (2005) or Angrist and Lavy (1999) have obtained after using IV on class size effect estimates was that class size coefficients turned negative or no longer significant. That seems to be the case in the Listening skill, where, after using IV estimation, the positive and very significant coefficient of English Class Size of Bulgaria, Estonia, Slovenia, Sweden and the pooled European countries disappears, since the IV coefficients are no longer statistically significantly different from zero. But a different scenario appears with Reading and Writing skills estimates.

In the Reading skill estimates, for Bulgaria the class size coefficient turns very

negative and marginally significant, but for Spain, France, Sweden and All Countries estimates more than triple their size, and remain positive and significant. In the case of France, Sweden and All Countries, coefficients are positive and significant at a 5% or even lower significance level.

In the Writing skill estimates, the same positive and significant pattern remains in France, Sweden and All Countries estimates. Coefficients approximately triplicate its size and the effect of English Class size remains positive, corroborating and exacerbating what the OLS coefficients have previously pointed out: bigger classes perform better on average.

The fact that the coefficients become bigger, in absolute value, and remain statistically significant after using IV, suggests that the endogeneity present in the OLS estimates was due to measurement error, since this kind of endogeneity problem creates a downward bias that make the OLS coefficient estimates smaller.

The Bulgaria negative class size marginally significant coefficient in Reading implies what is expected: smaller classes perform better on average than bigger ones. This has a causal interpretation since this coefficient is obtained using IV estimates. This seems natural since, the smaller the class, the smaller is the student-teacher ratio, and therefore, the more time the teacher can dedicate to each individual student.

However, the surprising positive causal result obtained in Spain, France, Sweden and All pooled countries, points to the opposite direction. In these countries bigger classes perform better on average than smaller ones in Reading and Writing. What could be the explanation? One possibility could be that, since English is a multi-skill ability and English lecture time is limited, teachers can make special emphasis on one skill versus some other, and therefore allocate their limited class time towards some particular English skills *versus* others. Therefore, if a teacher has a bigger class, he/she could dedicate greater proportion of the class to grammar, vocabulary and exercise correction rather than to speaking or listening activities that could be more difficult to implement in larger classes. This focus on grammar can make bigger classes more effective in English Writing and Reading skills. Notice that this positive causal effect of bigger classes cannot be found

in any country in the Listening skill, a skill more related to practice and use of the language teaching techniques, which require more individual and personalized training and therefore, more teacher time per student.

And what is the global effect of this relative emphasis on some skills versus some other of bigger classes? The effect of this Reading and Writing English skills orientation could be improving the English level of the students in different ways across countries. Remember that in Figure 1, when the Mean Tests results by skill and country were ranked, Sweden performed the second best in all mean evaluated skills and France the worst in all skills, but both countries present a causal, very significant and positive effect of English class size in Reading and Writing test scores.

This study provides causal English class size effects on English results, which have important policy implications. Educational policy makers have always claimed that class size reductions were the right policy to improve students' results at all levels and courses. *A priori*, it seems logic to assume that if classes are smaller, the teacher can dedicate more time per student individually. However, previous results clearly quantify the effect of English class sizes on performance in all evaluated English skills and they point towards the opposite direction in theoretical skills. In particular, class size reductions will not be the right policy in Reading and Writing skills. On the opposite, a better educational policy for English learning would be to increase classes for theoretical skills like Reading and Writing, and to provide reduced classes for students to improve just their Listening and Speaking skills.

5 Optimal English Class Size

Previous section has shown a positive causal effect of English Class size in logarithms on Reading and Writing skills in France, Sweden and All Countries, excluding Malta. This positive class size means that bigger classes perform better on average than smaller ones in the already mentioned skills. But what does big actually mean in terms of class size? The variable English Class size, that I used in OLS and IV estimation is composed of 19,331 observations that vary from 1 to 43, it has a mean of 20.19 and a standard deviation of approximately 6 students.

The English Class size OLS estimates in the original Multivariate specification was positive and significant. The logarithm functional form gives us the coefficient estimates of part 3 which are bigger than the Class Size coefficient in levels, therefore suggesting that a logarithm functional form is more appropriate to capture the effect of class size on English skills. The positive effect obtained in the logarithm specification was maintained using IV estimation methods as has been shown in the previous section in Reading and Writing skills.

However it would be interesting to know whether this more curved functional form provided by logarithms is actually hiding an optimal maximum class size that makes bigger classes better than smaller ones up a point, and the moment that this class size limit is surpassed, bigger classes do not necessarily perform better on average than smaller ones. To address this possibility I vary the multivariate original specification by replacing the English class size logarithm functional form by the following:

$$\alpha(\log(EngClassSize)) + \beta(\log(EngClassSize))^2$$

which gives nonsignificant α nor β , therefore it suggests that this functional form is not appropriate.

The second modification I implement consists on altering the multivariate original specification by replacing the English class size functional form by the following:

$$\alpha(EngClassSize) + \beta(EngClassSize)^2$$

which provides the coefficient estimates given by Table 10, which are highly statistically significant and robust to School Fixed Effects specification that, as explained previously, removes the between-school sorting bias.

Now that the quadratic functional form has turned out to be significant, we can obtain the optimal English class size from first order condition.

$$EnglishSkill = \alpha(EngClassSize) + \beta(EngClassSize)^2 + X\gamma + \epsilon$$

FOC:

$$\frac{\partial EnglishSkill}{\partial EngClassSize} = \alpha + 2\beta(EngClassSize) = 0$$

School Fixed Effects	(1) Mean Listening	(2) Mean Reading	(3) Mean Writing
English Class Size	0.0403*** (0.0113)	0.0438*** (0.0104)	0.115*** (0.0268)
English Class Size Squared	-0.000652** (0.000266)	-0.000624*** (0.000224)	-0.00177*** (0.000634)
Observations	10,486	10,573	10,372
R-squared	0.647	0.596	0.623
Clustered robust standard errors by school, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 Weighted by students sampling probability			

Table 10: Optimal Class Size

Therefore the optimal English class size is given by

$$EngClassSize^* = -\frac{\alpha}{2\beta}$$

Substituting the obtained estimation results for α and β we obtain the optimal English class size.

$$EngClassSize_{List}^* = 30.9$$

$$EngClassSize_{Read}^* = 35.096$$

$$EngClassSize_{Writ}^* = 32.486$$

Figure 4 plots the English class size under the Logarithm initial specification of Listening and Reading (which had a very similar coefficient) and the functional forms provided by the quadratic function used in this section: Table 10 estimates.

Therefore, the optimal class size of Reading and Writing skills are bigger than the ones given by the strict implementation of the Maximum class size rules in Europe, which varied from 24 to 30.

6 Conclusion

This paper studies the main determinants of English performance at the end of compulsory education by using the European Survey of Language Competences (ESLC) that was carried out in 2011. The significant variability of English skill test results across countries, which were significantly illustrated by the descriptive results of Section 2, motivates the first part of this study, where we wanted to explore which factors were behind them. Therefore, we estimated the main determinants of English proficiency at the end of compulsory education by using the contextual information provided by the Student Questionnaire and National Information. The standard educational production function commonly used in the Education literature was improved in order to take into account factors that affect languages specifically, such as family language controls. By using this improved function, we have been able to obtain the main determinants of English performance. To address the accuracy of the estimation, robustness checks are also reported.

The second part of my analysis focuses on a very significant determinant that was found in the education production function: the positive and significant effect that English class size has on English skills, which implies that bigger English classes perform better on average than smaller ones. This result is in line with other least squares positive class size effects found using European data such as Woessmann (2005).

When educational politicians wonder how to improve the educational performance of students, they often suggest reducing class sizes: if students are taught in smaller classes, increased individual attention may lead to a better learning, or at least that is what has been believed so far. Finance ministers, by contrast, caution that class-size reductions are a very expensive policy. The second part of my study addresses precisely that assumption: whether smaller English classes are better in terms of performance. Least square estimates points contrary to what has been believed: the positive and significant English class size coefficients in all evaluated skills indicate that bigger classes perform better than smaller ones. However, least squares coefficients are very likely to be biased. To address this important concern, and taking into account that 9 out of 13 countries in the ESLC sample have maximum class size regulations, I build an instrument in line with

Angrist and Lavy (1999) Maimonides' rule. Performing Instrumental Variables estimation on the three ESLC evaluated skills gives us a surprising result: positive class size effects are obtained in France, Sweden and pooled European countries in Reading and Writing skills. Contrary to what has been believed so far, bigger classes do not necessarily make students perform worse in all cognitive skills and moreover, it made them perform better in Reading and Writing English skills.

What could be the explanation? One possibility could be that, since English is a multi-skill ability, and since English lecture time is limited, teachers can make special emphasis on one skill versus some other, and therefore, they allocate their limited class time towards some particular English skills *versus* others. Therefore, if a teacher has a bigger class, she could dedicate greater part of the class to grammar, vocabulary and exercise correction rather than speaking or listening, activities that could be more difficult to implement in greater classes. This focus on grammar can make bigger classes more effective in English Writing and Reading skills. Notice that this positive and causal result is not obtained for any country in Listening, a skill that is more related to practice and which requires more individual attention, requiring more teacher time per student.

To complete this study, I provide the optimal class size in the three skills. Reading and Writing English skills present an optimal class size of 35 and 33 respectively, which are bigger than the ones implemented by the maximum class size regulations across Europe, that vary from 24 to 30. This study provides causal English class size effects on English outcomes, which have important policy implications. In particular, class size reduction will not be the right policy in Reading and Writing English skills, as my results have shown. On the opposite, a better option would be to increase classes up to the optimal level for Reading and Writing skills, and to provide reduced classes for students to improve just their Listening and Speaking skills.

For further studies, it will be necessary to accomplish the fact that English is a multi-skill ability, and therefore relative emphasis that a teacher does on some skills versus others could create students that are very good at some skills such as Reading and Writing skills, but are totally unable to speak or understand spoken English.

7 References

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	Mean Listening		Mean Reading		Mean Writing	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS						
Age	-0.14*** (0.03)	-0.11*** (0.03)	-0.09*** (0.03)	-0.12*** (0.03)	-0.19** (0.08)	-0.20** (0.10)
Female	0.02 (0.026)	0.02 (0.027)	0.01 (0.031)	0.01 (0.032)	0.47*** (0.08)	0.47*** (0.08)
Repetition	-0.18*** (0.057)	-0.19*** (0.06)	-0.36*** (0.06)	-0.29*** (0.06)	-1.27*** (0.13)	-1.24*** (0.14)
Immigrant	0.22*** (0.0819)	0.22*** (0.0809)	0.10 (0.0811)	0.11 (0.0806)	0.19 (0.223)	0.20 (0.224)
FAMILY BACKGROUND						
Books 26-100	0.016 (0.0443)	0.02 (0.0442)	0.09** (0.0383)	0.08** (0.0381)	0.41*** (0.134)	0.41*** (0.134)
Books 101-200	0.15*** (0.0416)	0.16*** (0.0415)	0.25*** (0.0441)	0.25*** (0.0437)	0.67*** (0.127)	0.67*** (0.127)
Books>200	0.20*** (0.0492)	0.21*** (0.0497)	0.34*** (0.0535)	0.33*** (0.0530)	0.76*** (0.140)	0.76*** (0.141)
ESCS index	0.14*** (0.0253)	0.13*** (0.0255)	0.15*** (0.0288)	0.14*** (0.0293)	0.25*** (0.0836)	0.25*** (0.0845)
Father University	0.08* (0.0397)	0.09** (0.0400)	0.09* (0.0474)	0.09** (0.0473)	0.28** (0.118)	0.29** (0.119)
Mother University	0.13*** (0.0425)	0.12*** (0.0420)	0.11** (0.0471)	0.10** (0.0471)	0.34*** (0.104)	0.34*** (0.104)
White Collar Father	0.02 (0.0387)	0.03 (0.0383)	0.03 (0.0473)	0.03 (0.0470)	-0.13 (0.117)	-0.12 (0.116)
White Collar Mother	0.16*** (0.0464)	0.16*** (0.0469)	0.23*** (0.0479)	0.22*** (0.0482)	0.62*** (0.133)	0.62*** (0.133)
Blue Collar Father	-0.10*** (0.0390)	-0.11*** (0.0389)	-0.12*** (0.0401)	-0.14*** (0.0402)	-0.43*** (0.132)	-0.43*** (0.132)
Pink Collar Mother	0.09*** (0.0335)	0.09*** (0.0333)	0.09** (0.0446)	0.09** (0.0449)	0.51*** (0.125)	0.51*** (0.126)
Father English Well	0.16*** (0.0335)	0.14*** (0.0342)	0.16*** (0.0342)	0.15*** (0.0343)	0.48*** (0.0980)	0.47*** (0.100)
Mother English Well	0.039 (0.0313)	0.02 (0.0313)	0.04 (0.0397)	0.03 (0.0392)	0.12 (0.0959)	0.11 (0.0974)
English use at home	0.41*** (0.0434)	0.41*** (0.0431)	0.35*** (0.0532)	0.35*** (0.0529)	0.98*** (0.136)	0.98*** (0.136)
Early Onset at home	0.24*** (0.0724)	0.23*** (0.0736)	0.21** (0.0824)	0.20** (0.0836)	0.45** (0.183)	0.42** (0.185)
SCHOOL INFORMATION						
English Hours per Week	0.08*** (0.0257)	0.09*** (0.0254)	0.10*** (0.0302)	0.10*** (0.0302)	0.26*** (0.0669)	0.26*** (0.0669)
Years English School >5 years	0.03*** (0.00618)	0.03*** (0.00611)	0.05*** (0.00655)	0.05*** (0.00661)	0.08*** (0.0204)	0.08*** (0.0201)
Early Onset at School<5 years	0.17*** (0.0587)	0.20*** (0.0593)	0.18*** (0.0596)	0.19*** (0.0593)	0.50*** (0.132)	0.51*** (0.133)
Number of Foreign Languages	0.12*** (0.0237)	0.12*** (0.0237)	0.10*** (0.0274)	0.10*** (0.0271)	0.21*** (0.0661)	0.20*** (0.0660)
Ancient Languages	0.8 (0.0533)	0.10* (0.0550)	0.13** (0.0581)	0.16*** (0.0596)	0.39*** (0.146)	0.39*** (0.149)
English Class Size <i>logarithms</i>	0.15***	0.18***	0.20***	0.24***	0.75***	0.76***
Fam.Language Controls	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
Country Controls	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes
Observations	10,221	10,221	10,350	10,350	10,144	10,144
R-squared	0.502	0.508	0.442	0.448	0.440	0.441

Clustered robust standard errors by school in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
Weighted by students sampling probability

Table 11: Family Language Controls and Country Controls

Country	Student Type			Total
	(1)	(2)	(3)	
Belgium fr	432	435	438	1,305
Bulgaria	343	322	318	983
Estonia	439	445	438	1,322
Greece	343	317	356	1,016
Spain	450	442	452	1,344
France	341	312	315	968
Croatia	419	454	460	1,333
Malta	293	294	286	873
Netherlands	402	407	422	1,231
Poland	440	428	448	1,316
Portugal	458	441	445	1,344
Sweden	363	340	343	1,046
Slovenia	373	364	395	1,132
Total	5,096	5,001	5,116	15,213

Table 12: Student Type by Country, observations with missing values eliminated

	Correlation	Variable	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Student Type 1	0.82	Mean Listening	5096	0.57	1.19	-3.725	5.367
		Mean Reading	5096	0.46	1.24	-3.779	5.692
Student Type 2	0.79	Mean Listening	5001	0.61	1.23	-4.57	5.72
		Mean Writing	5001	-1.08	2.95	-11.61	9.527
Student Type 3	0.81	Mean Reading	5116	0.45	1.24	-2.71	6.02
		Mean Writing	5116	-1.04	2.92	-12.23	10.92
Weighted by students sampling probability							

Table 13: Mean Results and Correlations once missing values are eliminated

VARIABLES	Student Type 1		Student Type 2		Student Type 3	
	Mean List (1)	Mean Read (2)	Mean List (3)	Mean Writ (4)	Mean Read (5)	Mean Writ (6)
STUDENT BACKGROUND						
Age	-0.15*** (0.0333)	-0.07** (0.0323)	-0.12*** (0.0377)	-0.08 (0.106)	-0.12*** (0.0407)	-0.29*** (0.109)
Female	-0.04 (0.0389)	-0.04 (0.0426)	0.07* (0.0375)	0.59*** (0.120)	0.05 (0.0423)	0.38*** (0.129)
Repetition	-0.11 (0.0734)	-0.34*** (0.0717)	-0.25*** (0.0699)	-1.65*** (0.209)	-0.32*** (0.0705)	-0.88*** (0.205)
Immigrant	0.27** (0.114)	0.20 (0.125)	0.18 (0.122)	0.46 (0.292)	0.041 (0.115)	0.06 (0.275)
FAMILY BACKGROUND						
Books 26-100	0.03 (0.0513)	0.09 (0.0581)	-0.02 (0.0669)	0.28* (0.151)	0.09* (0.0510)	0.49*** (0.188)
Books 101-200	0.14** (0.0604)	0.24*** (0.0685)	0.16*** (0.0568)	0.49*** (0.167)	0.28*** (0.0568)	0.82*** (0.192)
Books>200	0.20*** (0.0602)	0.3*** (0.0709)	0.18*** (0.0682)	0.59*** (0.184)	0.37*** (0.0724)	0.87*** (0.189)
ESCS index	0.19*** (0.0366)	0.19*** (0.0384)	0.06* (0.0361)	0.34** (0.140)	0.10** (0.0391)	0.19* (0.114)
Father University	0.06 (0.0587)	0.08 (0.0665)	0.12** (0.0518)	0.31** (0.159)	0.11 (0.0657)	0.23 (0.176)
Mother University	0.06 (0.0610)	0.11 (0.0704)	0.17*** (0.0589)	0.30* (0.165)	0.14** (0.0609)	0.41** (0.161)
White Collar Father	0.07 (0.0592)	0.06 (0.0708)	-0.03 (0.0513)	-0.38** (0.176)	0.03 (0.0701)	0.16 (0.164)
White Collar Mother	0.14** (0.0694)	0.24*** (0.0682)	0.22*** (0.0559)	0.59*** (0.160)	0.19*** (0.0679)	0.53** (0.216)
Blue Collar Father	-0.06 (0.0487)	-0.10* (0.0539)	-0.14** (0.0566)	-0.62*** (0.185)	-0.12* (0.0633)	-0.21 (0.176)
Pink Collar Mother	0.08 (0.0505)	0.07 (0.0604)	0.12*** (0.0453)	0.41*** (0.145)	0.10* (0.0583)	0.57*** (0.220)
Father English Well	0.13*** (0.0443)	0.12** (0.0545)	0.20*** (0.0566)	0.45*** (0.154)	0.19*** (0.0471)	0.54*** (0.133)
Mother English Well	0.06 (0.0477)	0.003 (0.0557)	0.02 (0.0502)	0.0001 (0.135)	0.12** (0.0505)	0.23* (0.126)
English use at home	0.34*** (0.0555)	0.29*** (0.0683)	0.47*** (0.0743)	1.06*** (0.157)	0.36*** (0.0818)	0.88*** (0.178)
Early Onset at home	0.26*** (0.0933)	0.21* (0.110)	0.21* (0.125)	0.57** (0.230)	0.27** (0.128)	0.26 (0.252)
SCHOOL INFORMATION						
English Hours per Week	0.07** (0.0295)	0.11*** (0.0288)	0.10*** (0.0319)	0.25*** (0.0696)	0.12** (0.0469)	0.28*** (0.0972)
Years English School >5 years	0.03*** (0.00856)	0.04*** (0.00917)	0.02** (0.00874)	0.07** (0.0280)	0.06*** (0.00979)	0.10*** (0.0276)
Early Onset at School<5 years	0.09 (0.0688)	0.14* (0.0786)	0.26*** (0.0762)	0.47** (0.199)	0.19*** (0.0701)	0.58*** (0.164)
Number of Foreign Languages	0.07** (0.0343)	0.09*** (0.0350)	0.15*** (0.0300)	0.16* (0.0875)	0.12*** (0.0349)	0.25*** (0.0909)
Ancient Languages	0.06 (0.0668)	0.13* (0.0718)	0.07 (0.0675)	0.53*** (0.196)	0.14* (0.0751)	0.27 (0.205)
English Class Size logarithms	0.11* (0.0577)	0.19*** (0.0645)	0.19*** (0.0729)	0.92*** (0.239)	0.18** (0.0791)	0.64*** (0.182)
INSTITUTIONAL INFORMATION						
GDP ppa 2010 per capita	-0.06** (0.0235)	-0.05** (0.0247)	-0.08*** (0.0250)	-0.21*** (0.0593)	-0.08*** (0.0273)	-0.15** (0.0635)
Educational Expenditure 2010	0.15** (0.0678)	0.12 (0.0718)	0.17** (0.0699)	0.69*** (0.160)	0.16** (0.0775)	0.55*** (0.167)
TV English not dubbed	0.15 (0.110)	0.31*** (0.118)	0.13 (0.127)	0.59** (0.283)	0.04 (0.135)	0.36 (0.322)
Population 2011	-0.11*** (0.0172)	-0.04** (0.0190)	-0.12*** (0.0182)	-0.18*** (0.0451)	-0.08*** (0.0205)	-0.21*** (0.0481)
Multilingual Region	0.19 (0.146)	0.14 (0.182)	0.34** (0.139)	0.45 (0.543)	0.001 (0.173)	0.75* (0.383)
External Exit Exams	-0.13 (0.0821)	-0.38*** (0.0948)	-0.10 (0.102)	-0.62*** (0.226)	-0.30*** (0.104)	-0.72*** (0.260)
Observations	5,096	5,096	5,001	5,001	5,116	5,116
R-squared	0.504	0.437	0.503	0.463	0.451	0.426

Clustered robust standard errors by school in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 14: Same Student Regression Results

Country	Obs	Obs with CohortSize	Obs with any missing
Bulgaria	1,563	671	475
Estonia	1,645	1,244	990
Greece	1,583	1,180	784
Spain	1,719	1,274	1,031
France	1,503	812	546
Malta	1,177	431	307
Portugal	1,580	1,221	1,060
Slovenia	1,586	1,156	841
Sweden	1,513	795	549
All Countries (Malta excluded)	12,692	8,353	6,276

Table 15: Observations available for IV estimation

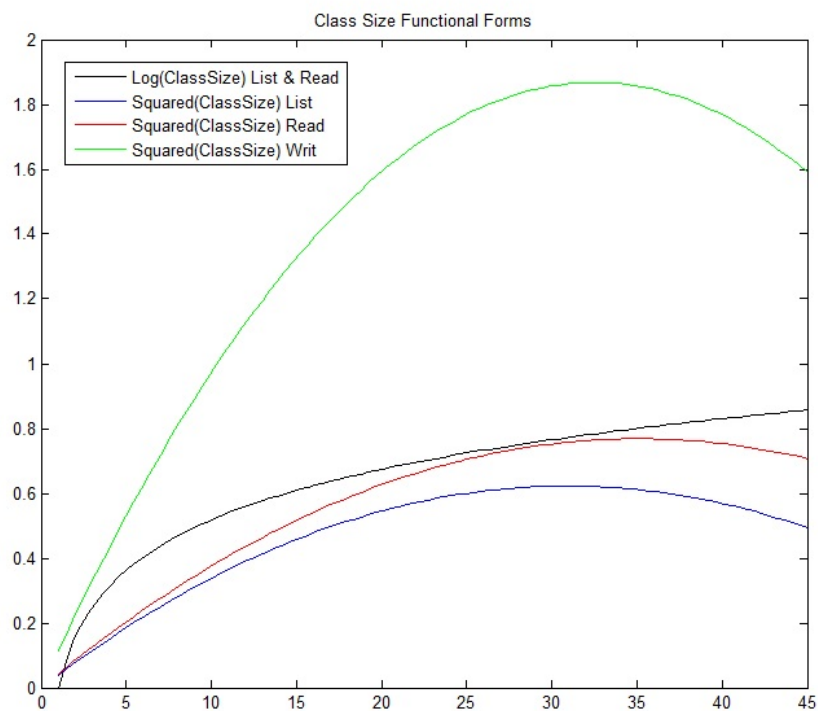


Figure 4: Class Size Functional Forms

A Appendix

The following appendix provides more detailed information of the variables used.

Information provided by the institutional/country variables was obtained from Eurostat, from Eurydice, a European network on education systems and policy and from the ESLC. The variables that come from Eurostat information are GDP per capita in purchasing power parity of 2010 in prices from 2005, Educational Expenditure on secondary education per student in 2010 in prices from 2005, and country Population in January 2011 expressed in tens of million (for Belgium regional information from Eurostat was needed to obtain the Wallonia population).

The information that comes from Eurydice is: the External Exit Exams (if the students have to perform an external exit exam to get their lower secondary education degree), which according to Eurydice it is the case for Malta, France, Portugal, Netherlands, Poland and Estonia; and the grouping criteria necessary to compute the repetition variable. Eurydice also provided information about the school grouping criteria of students at the beginning of primary education, which allowed me to obtain an accurate measure of the Repetition variables. Most of the European countries have as grouping criteria the natural year: therefore all students born in the same year are grouped in the same grade. However, some countries in my sample do not grouped students by the criteria of having the same age by January 1st, as it was the case for Netherlands and Estonia, which groups by same age in October 1st; and Croatia, which date is March 1st. Family Language controls were also obtained from Eurydice.

The rest of the Institutional variables were obtained by using the ESLC data which provide me information regarding about Multilingual regions, and information regarding the media, which was used to build the TV not dubbed variable.

The Student Variables come from the Student Questionnaire (SQ). The Age reports the exact age at the beginning of February 2011, since that was the exact month of the study. To compute it, I use the date of birth provided by the students. Parents occupation indicators White, Blue, Pink Collar come from a variable that reports the exact occupation of the parents, according to international ISCO index. In order to use it in my study, I transformed into collar indicators. The

rest of the variables are provided by the SQ, and required just small modifications.

Variable	Obs	Mean	StdDev	Min	Max
Mean Listening	13,378	1.011	1.318	-4.570	5.723
Mean Reading	13,475	0.784	1.379	-3.779	6.022
Mean Writing	13,031	-0.259	2.912	-12.818	10.916
Age	19,869	15.472	0.900	11.127	20.9473
Female	20,132	0.508	0.500	0	1
Repetition	19,897	0.134	0.340	0	1
Immigrant	20,129	0.064	0.245	0	1
Books 26-100	20,032	0.308	0.461	0	1
Books 101-200	20,032	0.192	0.394	0	1
Books>200	20,032	0.248	0.432	0	1
ESCS index	20,010	-0.032	0.998	-4.65	3.77
Father University	18,934	0.311	0.463	0	1
Mother University	19,438	0.336	0.472	0	1
White Collar Father	18,293	0.410	0.492	0	1
White Collar Mother	19,269	0.388	0.487	0	1
Blue Collar Father	18,293	0.414	0.492	0	1
Pink Collar Mother	19,269	0.302	0.459	0	1
Father English Well	19,614	0.421	0.494	0	1
Mother English Well	19,816	0.438	0.496	0	1
Early Onset at home	20,007	0.162	0.3686	0	1
English use at home	20,103	0.154	0.369	0	1
English Hours per Week	19,642	2.733	1.012	0.666	15
Years English School	19,827	6.339	2.836	0	11
Early Onset at School	20,117	0.0875	0.283	0	1
Number of Foreign Languages	20,045	1.949	0.739	1	8
Ancient Languages	20,108	0.124	0.329	0	1
English Class Size	19,331	20.186	5.969	1	43
Predicted Class size	8,859	23.207	4.014	8	30
GDP ppa 2010 per capita	20,192	21.444	6.264	10.8	31.7
Educational Expenditure 2010	20,192	6.11	2.09	2.26	9.12
TV English not dubbed	20,192	0.689	0.463	0	1
Multilingual Region	20,192	0.037	0.188	0	1
External Exit Exam	20,192	0.450	0.497	0	1
Population 2011	20,192	1.722	1.960	0.041	6.498
Germanic	20,192	0.145	0.352	0	1
Romance	20,192	0.370	0.483	0	1
Slavic	20,192	0.325	0.468	0	1

Table 16: Summary: Descriptive Statistics

MASTER'S THESIS CEMFI

- 0801 *Paula Inés Papp*: "Bank lending in developing countries: The effects of foreign banks".
- 0802 *Liliana Bara*: "Money demand and adoption of financial technologies: An analysis with household data".
- 0803 *J. David Fernández Fernández*: "Elección de cartera de los hogares españoles: El papel de la vivienda y los costes de participación".
- 0804 *Máximo Ferrando Ortí*: "Expropriation risk and corporate debt pricing: the case of leveraged buyouts".
- 0805 *Roberto Ramos*: "Do IMF Programmes stabilize the Economy?".
- 0806 *Francisco Javier Montenegro*: "Distorsiones de Basilea II en un contexto multifactorial".
- 0807 *Clara Ruiz Prada*: "Do we really want to know? Private incentives and the social value of information".
- 0808 *Jose Antonio Espin*: "The "bird in the hand" is not a fallacy: A model of dividends based on hidden savings".
- 0901 *Víctor Capdevila Cascante*: "On the relationship between risk and expected return in the Spanish stock market".
- 0902 *Lola Morales*: "Mean-variance efficiency tests with conditioning information: A comparison".
- 0903 *Cristina Soria Ruiz-Ogarrío*: "La elasticidad micro y macro de la oferta laboral familiar: Evidencia para España".
- 0904 *Carla Zambrano Barbery*: "Determinants for out-migration of foreign-born in Spain".
- 0905 *Álvaro de Santos Moreno*: "Stock lending, short selling and market returns: The Spanish market".
- 0906 *Olivia Peraita*: "Assessing the impact of macroeconomic cycles on losses of CDO tranches".
- 0907 *Iván A. Kataryniuk Di Costanzo*: "A behavioral explanation for the IPO puzzles".
- 1001 *Oriol Carreras*: "Banks in a dynamic general equilibrium model".
- 1002 *Santiago Pereda-Fernández*: "Quantile regression discontinuity: Estimating the effect of class size on scholastic achievement".
- 1003 *Ruxandra Ciupagea*: "Competition and "blindness": A duopoly model of information provision".
- 1004 *Rebeca Anguren*: "Credit cycles: Evidence based on a non-linear model for developed countries".
- 1005 *Alba Diz*: "The dynamics of body fat and wages".
- 1101 *Daniela Scidá*: "The dynamics of trust: Adjustment in individual trust levels to changes in social environment".
- 1102 *Catalina Campillo*: "Female labor force participation and mortgage debt".
- 1103 *Florina Raluca Silaghi*: "Immigration and peer effects: Evidence from primary education in Spain".
- 1104 *Jan-Christoph Bietenbeck*: "Teaching practices and student achievement: Evidence from TIMSS".

- 1105 *Andrés Gago*: “Reciprocity: Is it outcomes or intentions? A laboratory experiment”.
- 1201 *Rocío Madera Holgado*: “Dual labor markets and productivity”.
- 1202 *Lucas Gortazar*: “Broadcasting rights in football leagues and TV competition”.
- 1203 *M^a. Elena Álvarez Corral*: “Gender differences in labor market performance: Evidence from Spanish notaries”.
- 1204 *José Alonso Olmedo*: “A political economy approach to banking regulation”.
- 1301 *Joaquín García-Cabo Herrero*: “Unemployment and productivity over the business cycle: Evidence from OECD countries”.
- 1302 *Luis Díez Catalán*: “Collective bargaining and unemployment during the Great Recession: Evidence from Spain”.
- 1303 *Cecilia Dassatti Camors*: “Macroprudential and monetary policy: Loan-level evidence from reserve requirements”.
- 1304 *Juan Carvajal*: “Choosing to invest in human capital through adult education”.
- 1401 *Haritz Garro*: “Desire to win and public information in majority rule elections”.
- 1402 *Álvaro Martín Herrero*: “Credit and liquidity risk in sovereign bonds”.
- 1403 *José Carreño*: “Housing bubbles, doubts and learning”.
- 1404 *Ester Núñez de Miguel*: “Excuse me, do you speak English? An international evaluation”.