



Education and Culture

Key Data on Education in Europe 2005





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A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available on the Internet. It can be accessed through the Europa server (<http://europa.eu.int>).

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2005

ISBN 92-894-9422-0

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Printed in Belgium

PREFACE



The Lisbon Strategy agreed at the March 2000 European Council presented Europe with a major challenge – that of becoming the most competitive knowledge-based economy in the world by 2010 – and with a new form of cooperation, the ‘open method of coordination’. In 2002, the Heads of State or Government recognising the essential role of education in achieving the Lisbon target, further decided that European systems of education and training should become a hallmark of quality in the world by 2010.

Education ministers had already adopted in 2001 the three major objectives of improving the quality and effectiveness of education and training systems in the European Union, ensuring that those systems are accessible to all, and opening education and training to the wider world. To this end, they agreed on a work programme which identifies and describes a set of common objectives and provides for harmonised means of measurement (statistics, indicators) enabling Member States to monitor progress in achieving them .

The use of quantitative indicators and consistent and reliable qualitative information in summary form is the key to the success of the open method of coordination applied to this work programme. For this reason, the Commission has for many years been working to define relevant indicators and the information requirements they generate.

The 2005 edition of *Key Data on Education in Europe* offers an accurate and detailed picture of education in Europe. The report informs readers about the demographic trends and the employment situation in which education systems are evolving, the way in which systems are organised and how they function, and the role and make-up of the teaching profession. It examines the educational processes that enable people to acquire skills essential for the knowledge society, the relative demand for different types and levels of education, and student mobility. And it provides instructive information on the development of provision in the field of mathematics, science and technology, and on the scale of resources earmarked for education and the use made of them.

Key Data on Education in Europe is the outcome of close cooperation between the Eurydice European Unit and Eurydice National Units, and with Eurostat, the Statistical Office of the European Communities. The working method adopted has ensured that the content of the report is exceptionally reliable. Its readability and attractiveness are further enhanced through the use of a wide range of diagrams combined with commentary in concise summary form.

We hope that the variety, interest and detail of the data and information in this publication and the ways in which they reinforce each other will make a significant contribution to national and European level debate on the quality of education and of how it is developing in the context of lifelong learning.

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INTRODUCTION

This sixth edition of *Key Data on Education in Europe* retains its main special feature which is the combination of statistical data and qualitative information to describe the organisation and functioning of education systems in Europe.

However, the present 2005 edition incorporates several new features, with a new entirely subject-based structure, the use of new sources of information, an increase in the number of time series and new opportunities for Internet browsing.

Two subject-based chapters from the previous (2002) edition are now the basis for separate publications dealing with information and communication technology ⁽¹⁾ and teaching languages at school in Europe ⁽²⁾.

All these innovations are geared to providing a better insight into the diversity and common aspects of education systems in Europe. They aim to satisfy more effectively the requirements of different readers, including those seeking clarification on a particular aspect of education systems no less than those interested in a wider perspective.

Structure and Content of the Report

The structure and selection of indicators for this sixth edition have been the subject of consultation with the Eurydice Network and the Statistical Office of the European Communities (Eurostat). The content of the report, the timetable for producing it and the working procedures involved were determined at a joint meeting organised by the European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture in October 2003.

The 153 indicators contained in this report are arranged into six subject-based chapters entitled *Context, Structures, Participation, Resources, Educational Processes* and *Graduates and Qualification Levels*.

In each chapter, the information is presented in accordance with the following structure, namely by ascending order of educational level, progression from the most general to the most specific information, and from local administrative level up to national level.

The summary at the beginning of the report familiarises readers with the main issues contained in this report and briefly reviews the most evident emergent trends. It has been possible to establish some typical associations between several matters discussed in the report and these are highlighted in box form.

⁽¹⁾ Key Data on Information and Communication Technology in Schools in Europe. Brussels: Eurydice, 2004.

⁽²⁾ Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe. Brussels: Eurydice, 2005.

This main volume of *Key Data on Education in Europe 2005* has been enhanced through the inclusion of several time series provided by Eurostat. Time series are especially helpful in identifying developments affecting aspects of education systems in Europe and in analysing their present situation with respect to the recent past. These time series are concerned in particular with participation rates at different educational levels and the mobility of students in tertiary education (Chapter C), with qualification levels among the general population, and with the number of women graduates in tertiary education and the number of graduates in science and technology (Chapter F). Furthermore, wherever possible and in the case of all information supplied by Eurydice, each national reform planned or implemented within the two years subsequent to the reference year is indicated in a note.

The complementary nature of qualitative and quantitative information has also been enhanced by input from two new sources of information in that the report now presents certain findings from the contextual questionnaires of the PISA (2000 and 2003) and PIRLS (2001) empirical surveys carried out by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), respectively. These indicators provide an interesting supplement to the material from Eurydice, as they offer a picture of what occurs in practice in schools and classrooms. It has been possible to view these data in relation to information on official recommendations and requirements in areas such as school autonomy (Chapter B), pupils' instruction time or ways in which they are grouped together (Chapter E). The same indicators also complement the statistical information gathered by Eurostat, by focusing on areas that have not been covered, or offering insight into variations between schools within a country in contrast to the data from Eurostat on schools as a whole.

Sources

Three major sources of information have thus been used for the report, namely information supplied by the Eurydice Network, the European statistical system coordinated by Eurostat and, finally, certain data taken from the international PISA/PIRLS databases.

Eurydice information gathering

The Eurydice indicators supply information derived primarily from legislation, national regulation or other official documents concerned with education, or in other words, solely from central recommendations or rulings. This information is gathered by National Units in the Eurydice Network (generally situated in the education ministries), on the basis of common definitions. It is then analysed and compared by the Network's European Unit and the National Units working together. Where the matter examined is for local authorities or individual institutions and therefore is not governed by central-level regulation, this is clearly stated in the Figure.

On the whole, this information is generally of a qualitative nature and presents a general picture of education in Europe, or a number of models or typical patterns relating to its structure or functioning. A few indicators offer quantitative information (such as the retirement age or working time of teachers, salaries, teaching time, etc.).

Indicators cover different levels of education as defined by national education systems. In some countries, pre-primary education is provided in primary schools, while in others primary and lower secondary education are incorporated within a single structure. Compulsory education generally corresponds to primary education and lower secondary education. However, in certain countries, it begins with pre-primary education while, in others it extends to upper secondary education. Readers wishing to know the precise years of study to which an indicator refers in a given country should consult Figure B1 which illustrates the educational structure of each country. The same Figure also shows how the years of study relate to the

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) used for the indicators from Eurostat (see below and the Statistical Tools section for the ISCED definitions).

In general, information from Eurydice relates solely to schools in the public sector. Most Figures also cover the grant-aided private (or 'government-dependent') sector in three countries (Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands) where the majority of pupils attend schools in that sector. Where Figures cover the grant-aided private sector in all countries, this is explicitly stated in the title.

Statistical data collection by Eurostat and the European Statistical System (ESS)

The various Eurostat data collection exercises performed by the European Statistical System (ESS) and used in this report are described briefly in the table below (the ESS consists of Eurostat and the statistical institutes, ministries, bodies and central banks which collect official statistics in the EU Member States, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway). More detailed explanatory material is contained in the 'Glossary and Statistical Tools' section. Insofar as these data collections – including statistical processing and procedures for the checking, approval and publication of the information concerned – are based on different timetables, their reference years also differ. This should be borne in mind when reading and analysing the data. All the information provided by these data collections was obtained from the Eurostat NewCronos database in December 2004 (except those for figure A3 obtained in April 2005).

THE UOE DATABASE

The joint UOE (UNESCO Institute of Statistics/OECD/EUROSTAT) questionnaires are used by the three organisations to collect internationally comparable data on key aspects of education systems on an annual basis using administrative sources.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC DATABASE

National demographic data is collected from responses to an annual questionnaire sent to the national statistical institutes. The annual national population estimates are based either on the most recent census or on data obtained from the population register.

THE COMMUNITY LABOUR FORCE SURVEY (LFS)

This survey has been carried out annually since 1983. It is the principal source of statistics on employment and unemployment in the European Union. The survey is directed at individuals and households. The questions mainly cover the characteristics of employment and job seeking.

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

The European System of National and Regional Accounts (abbreviated to 'ESA 1995', 'ESA', or sometimes also 'the system') is an internationally comparable accounting framework for systematic and detailed description of a 'total economy' (i.e. a region, a country or a group of countries), its components and its relationships with other 'total economies'.

These different data collection systems provide statistical information on populations and their composition, employment, unemployment and the educational levels reached by the population of the European Union (Chapter A), pupil participation rates and those newly enrolled in education systems (Chapter C), teaching staff and educational expenditure (Chapter D) and graduates (Chapter F).

All these Eurostat statistical data are available in the New Cronos Internet database at:

http://epp.eurostat.cec.eu.int/portal/page?_pageid=1996,45323734&_dad=portal&_schema=PORTAL&screen=welcomeref&open=/edtr/educ&language=en&product=EU_MASTER_education_training&root=EU_MASTER_education_training&scrollto=0.

The PISA/PIRLS international databases

Besides measuring performance, the PIRLS 2001 and PISA 2000 and 2003 international surveys include questionnaires to identify variables in the school and family context which may shed light on their findings. Questionnaires were sent to school heads and pupils for the PISA survey, and to teachers and the parents of pupils in the case of PIRLS. The 30 indicators contained in the present publication have been prepared using replies from these further surveys.

PISA

PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) is an international survey conducted under the auspices of the OECD to measure the performance levels of pupils aged 15 in reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy. Data collection has been programmed in three stages, namely PISA 2000, PISA 2003 (used to prepare the present document) and PISA 2006. Further data collection exercises are planned in 2009 and 2012. The survey is based on representative samples of 15-year-old pupils, who may either be in lower secondary or upper secondary education, depending on the structure of the system. Readers wishing to know the level at which these pupils are enrolled, in principle, should consult Figures B1 and C7.

PIRLS

PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study) was conducted in 2001 by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) and aimed to measure the performance levels of pupils in reading comprehension in the fourth year of primary education. A second round of data collection is scheduled for 2006. The survey is based on representative samples of fourth-year classes in primary school in which pupils are aged 9 or 10, depending on the country concerned. Readers wishing to know the year of primary education in which these pupils are enrolled should consult Figures B1 and C7. It should be noted that in 2001 in Slovenia, pupils in the third year of primary school were selected, whereas in the United Kingdom fifth-year pupils were selected. This has been taken into account in particular in interpreting the indicators concerned with teaching time (Chapter E section 1).

All indicators obtained from these two databases cover both public-sector schools and private schools, whether grant-aided or otherwise. Further details on statistical aspects are provided in the 'Glossary and Statistical Tools' section.

Geographical Coverage

This *Key Data on Education in Europe* report covers 30 European countries, namely all those involved in the Eurydice Network under the Socrates Programme, with the exception of Turkey which joined the Network at the beginning of 2004 and will contribute to the next (2007) edition.

As regards Eurostat, OECD and IEA data, only results from countries taking part in the Socrates Programme are provided. In the case of countries involved in the Socrates programme that do not contribute to certain Eurostat data collection exercises, the data are indicated as 'not available'. By contrast, those which did not take part in the PISA and/or PIRLS surveys are indicated with a cross on the histograms prepared from these data sources.

Given the regionally based political structure of some countries, certain indicators whose sources are Eurydice, the OECD and the IEA, break down data by administrative region (particularly in the case of Belgium and the United Kingdom) wherever possible.

Partnerships and Methodology

Eurostat has undertaken the preparation and production of statistical indicators which have been approved by the European Statistical System (ESS). Statistical data on the European Economic Area and the two candidate countries have been taken from the joint UOE (UNESCO Institute of Statistics/OECD/Eurostat) data collection and the fully compatible Eurostat collections.

The indicator on children with special educational needs (Figure C3) has been prepared with the assistance of national partners/representatives of the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education and Eurydice National Units in the case of countries with no such Agency representatives.

Questionnaires were prepared by the Eurydice European Unit working jointly with National Units in the Network in order to collect Eurydice data. The questionnaires were tested with the National Units in order to ensure their feasibility and consistency. In statistical terms, the Eurydice European Unit also exploited the findings of the context-oriented questionnaires in the PISA 2000 and PISA 2003 surveys and the PIRLS 2001 survey.

All analytical content based on the statistical and descriptive data in the report was drafted by the Eurydice European Unit. Finally, the Eurydice Network, in collaboration with Eurostat and the ESS, undertook checking of the entire report.

The Eurydice European Unit was responsible for the final publication and layout of the report. It was also responsible for all work entailed in preparing maps, diagrams and other graphic material. Eurostat Unit E4 'Structural Funds – Geographic Information System' provided assistance for maps incorporating NUTS nomenclature statistical data. Finally, the summary entitled 'Main Issues' at the beginning of the report was the sole responsibility of the Eurydice European Unit.

All those who have contributed in any way to this collective undertaking are listed at the end of the report.

Conventions and Presentation of Content

Besides its significance for policy-makers, the present report has been devised to provide a very wide audience with information on education systems in Europe.

In order for it to be easier to consult and readily accessible to everyone, the report contains numerous Figures, including histograms, maps and diagrams supplemented with comments on the essential points arising from the description and comparison of education systems.

Values associated with each quantitative indicator are presented in a table below the diagram concerned. When a table containing data is too big, readers are referred to annexes. Each Figure is accompanied by an explanatory note and additional notes directly underneath it. The explanatory note contains all details concerning terminology and conceptual aspects, which are needed for a proper understanding of the indicator and the Figure. The additional notes provide information that should be taken into account on important aspects of the situation in particular countries.

In the Figures and tables, countries appear in the protocol order established by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (EUR-OP). This means that they are cited in alphabetical order in their original language and not that of the particular version of *Key Data* concerned.

Country name codes, statistical codes and the abbreviations and acronyms used are set out at the beginning of the report. The glossary of terms and statistical tools employed are included at the end of the report.

A table of Figures is also contained at the end of the publication. It covers the Figures from each chapter and, for each Figure, indicates the source and educational level (ISCED 0, ISCED 1-3 and ISCED 5-6).

Electronic Version

An electronic version of this sixth edition of *Key Data on Education in Europe* is also freely available on the Eurydice website (<http://www.eurydice.org>).

The electronic edition includes several Figures that supplement those contained in the printed publication. These additional Figures are referred to in the latter using the number of the Figure concerned followed by an 'a' (e.g. Figure C15a).

The report may be consulted on the Eurydice website via different access routes and procedures. Visitors to the website may thus access, consult and download the following:

- the entire report via the publications list, in which case the full report may be downloaded in PDF format;
- parts of the report via the access route by topic; depending on the particular topic or sub-topic selected, users may consult and download the report chapter by chapter, or section by section;
- the Figures directly when browsing by indicator; in such instances, each Figure with its graphic content and commentary may be downloaded individually.

MAIN ISSUES

A – PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION: AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

At the age of 4, a great many children in Europe are enrolled in pre-primary educational institutions despite the fact that attendance is not compulsory. School-based or otherwise, educational provision of this kind is available everywhere, but the age of admission varies from country to country, thus partly governing variations in participation rates. Educational staff working at this level often have the same level of qualifications as primary school teachers.

- Everywhere, the officially defined general objectives for pre-primary education are fairly similar, focusing on the development of children's independence, well-being, self-confidence, citizenship, and preparation for life and learning at school. Official documents in two-thirds of European countries refer to specific skills that should be acquired before children enter compulsory primary education (B15).

- The majority of the educational staff have tertiary education qualifications, even at university level (D22).

In Austria, however, the training of *Kindergartenpädagoginnen* takes place at upper secondary or post-secondary level.

Malta provides training for prospective pre-primary teachers at upper secondary level only, while the Czech Republic and Slovakia offer it both at upper secondary and university level.

There is no direct relation between the level of qualifications of educational staff (D22) and the structure of pre-primary provision (B2). Staff may have an upper secondary level qualification in countries where pre-primary provision is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education (Czech Republic, Malta and Slovakia) as well as in those where it is not (Austria).

- Whether or not it is part of the school system, pre-primary education is available at three years old or earlier (B1) in almost all countries. In most countries, participation by four-year-old children is the norm or is rapidly developing. The participation rate exceeds 60 % in nearly all countries (C5).

However, in Greece and Liechtenstein, pre-primary education is only available from the age of 4 onwards.

Relatively low participation rates in pre-primary education (under 50 %) persist in both Poland and Finland. In Ireland, the Netherlands (*Basisonderwijs*) and United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), four-year-olds are already enrolled in primary education.

B – A VARIETY OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND INCREASING ENROLMENT IN EDUCATION

On average, the time spent in education is significantly longer than the legal minimum. This is a reflection of both increased enrolment in pre-primary education and wider participation in post-compulsory education (notably tertiary education). Curricula in compulsory education include broadly the same subjects (E2 and E3). However, the amount of teaching time allocated to them varies strikingly from one country to another. In some countries, schools have considerable freedom in this respect. For the majority of pupils in Europe, it is from around the age of 15 that it becomes necessary to choose between different branches or types of education (B1). These different forms of provision are more marked at upper secondary level. As a result, there is a high proportion of pupils of different ages enrolled at this level (C7).

- On average, compulsory education lasts 9 or 10 years (B1), while the school expectancy is 17 years (C12). In 2002, between 20 % and 25 % of the total population were either in school or engaged in some form of further study (C1).

The countries where compulsory full-time education lasts the longest are Hungary (13 years), the Netherlands (12 years) and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland, 12 years).

- In most countries, age is the sole criterion for admission to primary education (B4), and compulsory education in most cases begins at the age of 5 or 6 (B1).

- The real age of admission to primary school closely corresponds to the notional age in most countries (C6).

Nonetheless, in the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary, where maturity is an additional criterion, 7-10 % of children aged 7 are still enrolled in pre-primary education.

Compulsory education begins at the age of 7 in three Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland and Sweden), as well as in Estonia, Poland (until 2003/04), Bulgaria and Romania (until 2003/04). By contrast, in Luxembourg and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), it begins at the age of 4.

Entry into primary education represents a child's first contact with school in Germany (the majority of *Länder*), Austria and Norway. In these countries, children below primary school age have access solely to educationally oriented settings for which the Ministry of Education is not responsible (B2).

- Except for classes in foreign languages, information and communication technology and religion, the primary education curriculum everywhere consists of the same compulsory subjects (E2) and nearly always allocates more time for teaching the language of instruction and mathematics. Artistic and sports activities are also well catered for in the recommended school timetable.

In Belgium (the French and Flemish Communities), Spain, Italy, Poland, Portugal, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Bulgaria, schools are able to determine how a significant portion of their teaching time will be used (E2). In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), they are largely free to decide how such time will be allocated (B23).

The Nordic countries, Estonia, Hungary and Liechtenstein recommend that slightly more time should be allocated to artistic activities (which often include several artistic and/or practically oriented subjects) than to mathematics.

- Teaching time is more evenly spread across the different subjects in the compulsory general secondary education curriculum than in primary education. Increasingly greater emphasis is being given to the natural sciences, social sciences and foreign languages (E3).

The proportion of flexible teaching time remains significant in a small number of countries, namely Belgium (the Flemish Community), Spain, the Netherlands (VMBO), the United Kingdom and Iceland.

In several of the new Member States, namely the Czech Republic (*gymnázium*), Estonia, Slovenia and Slovakia, the natural sciences even account for the largest portion of time in the curriculum. The same applies to the social sciences in the Czech Republic (*Základní škola* programme), Latvia, Hungary and Portugal.

In Austria (*Hauptschule* then *Polytechnische Schule*) and Italy (*Liceo artistico*), this position is occupied by artistic activities.

- In the majority of countries, it is possible to redo a year in primary education (E23) subject to certain conditions. In general, progression to secondary level depends on the satisfactory completion of primary education by pupils (E25).

Nonetheless, continuation of single structure without transition is the rule in 12 countries (the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Latvia, Hungary, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway).

In some countries (Belgium, Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Poland and Bulgaria), it is generally necessary to obtain a primary school certificate before entering secondary education.

- At the age of 15, half of young people in Europe are enrolled at ISCED level 2. In most countries, nearly all young people transfer to ISCED level 3 at around the age of 16 (C7).

Approximately 10-15 % of 17-year-old pupils are still enrolled at ISCED level 2 in Denmark, Germany, Spain, Lithuania, the Netherlands and Portugal, reflecting the longer notional duration of studies at this level.

Two factors may partly explain why some young people remain enrolled at a particular educational level when they are older than the corresponding notional age: late entry into primary school due to the maturity criterion (B4) and/or the possibility of repeating a year in some classes of primary and/or lower secondary education.

- Nearly everywhere, all pupils follow the same common curriculum throughout their full-time compulsory education (B1).

In just five countries, parents choose a particular type of education for their child at the end of primary school (Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Liechtenstein).

Where lower secondary education is divided into different branches, internal assessment of pupils serves as a guide for the class council or school council in guiding them towards the most appropriate form of provision (E25). In other countries, pupils must have satisfactorily completed their school year or, less commonly, obtained a certificate of primary education or reached the appropriate age.

Where the choice between general and vocational education occurs at an early stage of schooling, it appears not to affect the distribution of pupils in these two branches at upper secondary level (C9).

- As a general rule, the higher the level of a school certificate, the more frequently its award is subject to external assessment (E27 and E28). In all countries, the possession of a general upper secondary school leaving certificate is a minimum requirement for admission to tertiary education.

In Ireland and Romania, award of the full-time compulsory school leaving certificate is based only on a final external examination.

Conversely, only Spain and Sweden make exclusive use of continuous pupil assessment for the award of the upper secondary school leaving certificate. In Belgium, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia and Iceland, the continuous assessment of pupils is supplemented by an internal examination for the award of this certificate.

Nearly all countries where certification is at least partly based on external final examinations make use of the results to monitor and manage their education systems (B21, E27 and E28).

Over 75 % of persons aged 20-24 in the 25 countries of the European Union have successfully completed upper secondary education (with an average of over 87 % in the 10 new Member States).

Nevertheless, differences in qualification levels remain substantial, given that over 35 % of those in the 20-24 age group possess an upper secondary education certificate that does not provide direct access to tertiary education (F2 and F5).

- The European school population of 19 year-olds is divided almost equally between ISCED levels 3 and 5. Young people aged 18 or 19 enrol in greater numbers in tertiary education (ISCED level 5) than in non-tertiary post-secondary forms of provision at ISCED level 4 (C7). It is between the ages of 20 and 24 that enrolment in tertiary education reaches its peak (C16). This age range generally corresponds to the notional duration of tertiary education, which students normally complete between the ages of 24 and 26, depending on the country concerned (B1).

In the Nordic Countries (except Finland) and Germany, the student population is older than elsewhere in Europe, with 15 % of students aged over 30.

- In countries with the oldest student populations, direct financial support is generally awarded to students rather than to their families (D18). In most countries where the majority of students typically complete their studies before the age of 25, indirect assistance is awarded to families and/or grants are withdrawn if students fail.

C – A RISING LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION FOR WOMEN

Young women tend to raise the average level of qualification, principally because they participate in greater numbers than did their elders in tertiary education (F4 and F7). A differentiation can be observed between the sexes in the pursuit of further studies and the choice of a specific type of provision at the end of compulsory education. However, women still remain unequal to men in terms of employment and professional responsibilities in all sectors (A10).

- Proportionally more young men than young women opt for vocational rather than general education at upper secondary level (C9). At the end of compulsory education, male participation rates fall faster than female participation rates (C10).

- Women outnumber their male counterparts in tertiary education. They more often choose studies of a social and/or economic nature rather than opting for science and technology (C18 and F9).

However, in some countries (Italy, Sweden, Bulgaria and Romania), women are also well represented in scientific and technological fields of study.

If this differentiation in the fields of study chosen by men and women persists, the total number of tertiary-level graduates in science and technology will increase more slowly than the total number of graduates in tertiary education as a whole (C18 and F10).

- Women find themselves unemployed more frequently than men with the same qualifications (A9).

Nevertheless, men with few qualifications are more seriously affected by unemployment than are women in the new Member States.

- A high level of educational qualification still remains a significant protection against unemployment, regardless of sex. The unemployment rate amongst tertiary education graduates is lower than amongst those with lower levels of education (A6).

The transition from education to the labour market may be problematic for all categories of graduate (A8), often requiring acceptance of employment below the level of qualification for those concerned (A10), or temporary employment (A12).

D – THE ROLE OF TEACHERS IN MANAGING LEARNING AND THE INCREASED DEMANDS IN THEIR PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

All student teachers for primary or secondary education receive tertiary education (university or otherwise). The higher the level at which they wish to teach, the longer and more specialised their education and the more likely it is to follow the consecutive model. Schools and therefore teachers are generally free to use their preferred textbooks and teaching methods. On the other hand, they have little say in the content of the curriculum. The profession consists of large numbers of women and many teachers are nearing retirement.

- The majority of student teachers for primary and lower secondary education, and all prospective teachers for upper secondary level, receive an education at ISCED level 5A (D23-D25).

Four countries are exceptions. In Belgium and Austria (*Haupschule*), teacher education for primary and lower secondary education occurs at non-university tertiary level (ISCED 5B). In Luxembourg and Romania, the situation is similar for teachers in primary education. Nevertheless, in Romania there is still a training route through upper secondary education (ISCED 3) for trainee primary school teachers.

- The higher the level of education for which prospective teachers are trained, the longer teacher education lasts with the result that the consecutive model is frequently encountered. Specifically, professional training begins after a first university degree (D21-D25) but accounts for a smaller proportion of time in teacher education as a whole.

However, in the Czech Republic, Germany, Poland, Slovakia and Romania, the training of all teachers in general upper secondary education combines theoretical knowledge with a practical component. A majority of teachers are also trained in accordance with the concurrent model in Lithuania, Slovenia, Finland and Sweden.

In Austria, prospective teachers in *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen* (general secondary education) are trained in accordance with the consecutive system which is in a transitional phase and is becoming increasingly similar to the concurrent model.

- Special support for new teachers, generally in the form of classroom assistance and/or special training, is not yet very widespread (D30). Half of all European countries offer special support to new teachers, while three further countries – Germany, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Norway – have been piloting initiatives along these lines.

- In-service training is compulsory or necessary for teacher career advancement and/or salary increases in the majority of countries (D26 and D27).

There appears to be no relationship between the compulsory or optional nature of in-service training and teacher participation rates in such training (D28). These participation rates depend on numerous factors including the availability of such provision and, in certain countries, the autonomy schools have in these matters, particularly as regards the planning of in-service training (B23).

- In many countries, teachers are employed by central or local authorities for education (B27).

However, schools are responsible for employing teachers in five of the new EU Member States (Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Poland and Slovakia), Belgium, Ireland and, in some categories of school, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

- In half of all European countries, teachers are employed under the terms of general employment legislation (D29).

Teachers are career civil servants only in Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Poland (for two categories of teachers) and Portugal.

The employment status of teachers often determines how they are recruited. Recruitment is centralised in the case of civil servants, and open to local authorities and/or schools in the case of employees (B27 and D29).

- Nearly all countries specify statutorily the number of hours teachers are required to teach. Certain countries also specify the number of hours they are required to spend on other tasks within the school (D33).

In the Netherlands and Sweden, the total amount of working time is specified by schools. In Sweden this is determined in an agreement between the local authority and the trade unions.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), only the number of days of presence (at school or in another place) is specified at national level.

- In primary education, one teacher is usually responsible for all subjects in a class, with possible assistance from other staff for certain specific activities (E12).

However, the allocation of different subjects among several teachers occurs from the beginning of primary school onwards in Denmark and Italy.

- According to the PIRLS survey (2001), teachers of reading in the fourth year of primary education tend to practise whole-class teaching combined with instruction for individual pupils. They adjust the pace of lessons, rather than their content or teaching methods, to the ability of the children concerned (E17 and E18).

In Sweden, the United Kingdom (England and Scotland), Iceland and Norway, pupils may be taught to read using programmes geared to their particular level of ability. Teachers adopt a differentiated approach (in terms of content and methods).

The four countries surveyed in PIRLS (2001) that adopt a differentiated approach to the teaching of reading in terms of content and methods, also practise automatic progression from one year to the next (E23). Almost all countries that practise whole-class teaching can manage learning difficulties, for example by requiring pupils to repeat the year, although this occurs on a limited basis.

- The PIRLS survey (2001) showed that, in the fourth year of primary education, the time spent on teaching the language of instruction each week varies significantly within individual countries (E4).

Where the minimum number of teaching hours per subject is fixed, teachers in the fourth year of primary education in practice spend more time on teaching the language of instruction than the recommended minimum requirement (B23 and E4).

- The teaching profession represents more than 2 % of the active population in all European countries. It consists mainly of women, with most teachers aged over 40. In all countries, the percentage of women teachers decreases at higher levels of education (D40 and D41).

In Europe, over 70 % of graduates in 'education' are women (except in Malta). The dominant presence of women in the field of 'education' is not new. Over the next years, women will thus constitute the majority of teachers at primary and secondary levels.

- Almost everywhere, the official retirement age is 65. However, many teachers leave their profession as soon as they have completed the required number of years in service and/or reached the minimum age for retirement with full pension entitlement (D46 and D47).

In Greece and Cyprus, the official retirement age is 60, while in Portugal (second and third stages of *ensino básico*) it is 70.

The fall in numbers of young people in Europe will continue at different rates (A1 and A3). Therefore, over the next 10 years, school systems will simultaneously have to cope with a further decrease in the school-age population and the retirement of large numbers of teachers.

E – MORE RESPONSIBILITY FOR MANAGEMENT AND GREATER SCHOOL AUTONOMY IN CERTAIN AREAS

In certain countries, school heads have to complete special training. They are seldom selected by the schools they are appointed to run. They share their freedom of decision (total or limited) with their teaching staff as regards the educational supervision of pupils, and with the administrative authority for their school as far as use of its overall resource allocation is concerned. Financial management of the teaching staff is the responsibility of the highest competent authorities in over half of all countries, notably in southern Europe, whereas decisions concerning expenditure on operational resources and movables are more decentralised.

- Decisions about the weekly timetable, teaching methods, choice of textbooks, and grouping and continuous assessment of pupils are almost always taken by schools themselves (B23).

In order to improve and monitor the quality of education provided, arrangements for school evaluation have been developed alongside school autonomy.

In just three countries, namely Greece, Cyprus and Luxembourg, autonomy is very limited.

- Schools have some room for manoeuvre concerning use of the budget they receive for operational resources. By contrast, their scope for purchasing fixed assets (immovables) financed by public funds and for raising and using funds from private loans is limited (B23).

Only primary schools in Belgium (the Flemish Community) and secondary schools in the Netherlands are totally free to allocate the overall school budget as they wish.

- In many countries, schools have at least limited scope for recruiting teachers to vacant posts. In about 10 countries, their autonomy in this respect is total.
- In hardly any countries are schools totally free to select their school head (B23).

The exceptions are Belgium (the Flemish Community), the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England and Wales).

- In addition to professional teaching experience (required nearly everywhere), prospective or newly appointed school heads in 12 countries must take special courses on aspects of teaching, administration, financial management, and human resources management (D49).

Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and Iceland are the only countries with no official requirements regarding professional qualifications and experience.

The higher salaries of school heads (compared to teachers) are partly attributable to the special training they have to complete and their added responsibilities. The size of their school may also be taken into consideration (D51-D53).

Whether or not school heads are required to take special courses does not depend directly on the degree of autonomy a school enjoys or the added responsibilities incumbent on them.

F – PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION INCREASES WITH THE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL CONCERNED AND COMPRISES MAINLY EXPENDITURE ON STAFF

All European countries invest a significant share of their national wealth (on average 5 %) in education (D1). Everywhere, expenditure on staff corresponds to the biggest budget heading (D11). The salary of teachers depends more on their length of service than on the level at which they teach. The annual cost per pupil/student increases with the level of education, so that a student in tertiary education may cost up to 5 times more than a pupil in primary education. Everywhere, families receive family allowances, at least until their children reach the age at which they complete compulsory education.

- Despite budgetary restrictions, education continues to be a significant item of public expenditure in all countries, although the proportion of resources devoted to it may be twice as much in some countries as in others, ranging from 8-17 % (D2).

Those that proportionally spend most are three Nordic countries (Denmark, Norway and Sweden), along with Malta and the Netherlands.

Teacher salaries with respect to per capita GDP (Gross Domestic Product) are lowest in the new Member States (except Cyprus and Malta), although the percentage of teachers in the labour force is similar to that in other countries (D40).

- Given its greater demographic weight and its lower pupil/teacher ratio, secondary education absorbs over a third of the financial resources available. However, tertiary education costs taxpayers the most per student (D3 and D5).

The absolute value of expenditure per pupil/student in the new Member States is lower than elsewhere at all levels of the education system.

- Nearly everywhere, admission to tertiary education requires personal expenditure by students (in the form of registration and/or tuition fees, or subscriptions paid to student organisations, etc.). These personal forms of expenditure may increase if students take longer to complete their course than the period theoretically required (D20).

In nine countries, namely the Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland), admission to tertiary education is free for students working towards a first qualification on daytime courses.

Direct financial support for students represents a significant share of public expenditure on tertiary education (D16 and D18).

- Grant-aided private education is rarely funded at the same level as the public sector. In compulsory education (ISCED levels 1-4), 80 % of pupils in Europe attend public-sector schools (B7).

In Belgium (the French and Flemish Communities) and the Netherlands, grant-aided private schools enrol more pupils than public-sector schools, with 56.8 % and 76.3 % of pupils respectively. For historical reasons in both these countries, the method and amount of funding for grant-aided private schools and public-sector schools are the same, except in the case of fixed capital resources (immovables) in Belgium.

In Poland, Finland and Sweden, the funding of grant-aided private schools and public-sector schools is subject to the same conditions (D9).

- Admission to compulsory education is free everywhere and family allowances are paid in all countries for pupils in primary and compulsory secondary education. In many countries, they are supplemented by tax relief or sometimes by study grants (D17).

No tax relief or study grants are available during the period of compulsory education in the Nordic countries, Malta (except families that pay tuition fees in private schools), Austria and Bulgaria.

- The basic gross salary of teachers, expressed as a proportion of per capita GDP, remains low at the start of their careers. However, it increases everywhere with length of service and, in half of all countries, with the educational level at which teachers work (D37-D39).

Teachers at different levels of education who have completed training of the same length and have the same level of qualifications, do not always receive the same salaries (D23-D25).

The basic salary of teachers is the same, irrespective of the level of education at which they work (ISCED levels 1-3) in 11 countries, namely all but three of the new Member States (the exceptions being the Czech Republic, Hungary and Malta), Greece, Portugal, the United Kingdom and Bulgaria.

G – PUPILS DO NOT ALL BENEFIT FROM THE SAME SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE AND FACILITIES

The sizes of schools and classes show very wide variation both between and within countries. Some schools offer childcare services outside class hours. Schools have their own libraries and/or reading areas, as well as written materials, and have also expanded their computer facilities and above all their Internet access. Yet big differences appear to persist both between and within countries.

- According to the PISA (2003) and PIRLS (2001) surveys, variations in the size of schools tend to be smallest in countries where their average size is also the smallest (B10 and B11).
- At primary level in all countries that took part in the PIRLS (2001) survey, childcare services on school premises are available for the majority of pupils before and/or after class hours (B12).

In the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Romania, childcare services are available for less than a third of pupils in the fourth year of primary education.

- In the majority of countries, official recommendations fix a maximum number of pupils per class in primary education (E14). Although almost always less than the recommended maximum, class sizes in the fourth year of primary education may vary significantly within the different countries, according to the PIRLS (2001) survey (E16).

Nevertheless, the officially recommended maximum number of pupils per class/group is over 30 in Estonia, Latvia, and Slovakia.

- Comparisons between the PISA (2000) and PISA (2003) surveys show that the computerisation of schools (D12) and access to the Internet (D13) have become very widespread in Europe in recent years.

Computerisation is developing most rapidly in Greece and Portugal. In the majority of countries, the average number of pupils aged 15 per computer in public-sector schools is now less than 10.

However, in Slovakia in 2003, the average number of pupils aged 15 per computer in public-sector schools was 35.

- Nearly all primary schools which took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey in Europe have a library. Where there is none, classes generally have their own reading corner (D14). Here, pupils have access to a wide variety of written materials, which supplement the textbooks used to teach reading (D15).

In Germany and Cyprus, classroom reading corners are commoner than school libraries.

The use of a range of written materials as a basis for teaching reading is most widespread in France, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England).

- Since facilities for tertiary education are generally located in urban areas, students may be concentrated very densely in certain regions (C15).

Entry into tertiary education thus obliges students to be mobile within their country. Despite a lack of data, it appears that international student mobility within Europe remains at a low level, except in countries where the tertiary education infrastructure – or parts of it – are only modestly developed such as in Cyprus, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein. In these countries, international mobility corresponds to the national mobility observed elsewhere (C20).

H – THE QUALITY OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IS OFTEN MONITORED THROUGH PUPIL AND SCHOOL EVALUATIONS

To improve the quality of education, most countries carry out school evaluations (B16). Individual school evaluation reports are published in only a few countries (B19). The results obtained by pupils or students in external examinations and/or tests are also used to evaluate the quality of teaching.

- Internal and external evaluations of schools are tending to become more widespread in many countries (B16). They often co-exist with individual evaluations of teachers.

In Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities), Greece, France (primary level), Luxembourg (primary level), and Bulgaria, external evaluation focuses mainly on teachers, while internal evaluation of schools is not well developed.

- Eleven countries have drawn up a standardised list of evaluation criteria covering a wide range of school activities (B17 and B18).
- In many countries, external certifying examinations are used to analyse the overall state of the education system. In addition, external tests designed specifically for monitoring the education system are assuming increasing importance in Europe (B21 and B22).

Only Belgium (the German-speaking Community), the Czech Republic, Germany, Austria, Slovakia, Liechtenstein and Bulgaria use neither certifying examinations nor tests when evaluating their education systems.

- The majority of countries use the results of school evaluations to help monitor and manage the education system. However, they do not publish the findings of individual evaluations as a matter of course (B19).

Six countries (the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland) routinely publish the findings of school evaluations.

I – THE ROLE OF PARENTS IN MANAGING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IS OFTEN FAIRLY LIMITED

In public-sector education in most countries, parents are free to choose a school but there are often restrictive conditions. Parents play an essentially consultative role in school management bodies or national councils. They rarely have access to official information that would enable them to compare the quality of provision at one school as against another.

- Public authorities often play a role in the parental choice of a school. They may assign pupils to a particular school while providing opportunities for parents to request a change or, conversely, they may refuse the first choice of parents on the grounds that the school is already filled to capacity (B5).

Parents are only totally free to choose a school in Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg (secondary education), and the Netherlands.

Parents have very little say in the choice of a public-sector school in Greece, France, Cyprus, Luxembourg (primary education), Malta, Portugal and Liechtenstein.

Freedom of choice may be an element in a policy to create competition amongst schools but this is insufficient in itself. The majority of countries do not publish the findings of school evaluations as a matter of course (B19), which restricts the information available to parents when they have the opportunity to choose a school. By contrast, in the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom, special importance is attached to ensuring that this kind of information reaches parents.

- In most EU-15 countries and Norway, there is at least one national or central participatory body that includes parents alongside representatives of other players in the education system (B26).

By contrast, there is no national-level council with parent representation in the majority of the new EU Member States, or in Bulgaria and Romania. Neither is there any such body in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland or Liechtenstein.

- Overall, parents are least likely to have decision-making powers in the area of teacher recruitment, the termination of teaching contracts and matters concerned with teaching content. They are most likely to be involved in determining the school plan and drawing up rules for everyday life at school.

Parents are represented in bodies authorised to take decisions regarding the recruitment of teachers in Belgium (schools administered by the Flemish Community), France, Ireland, the Netherlands (at the discretion of the competent authority), Portugal and the United Kingdom.

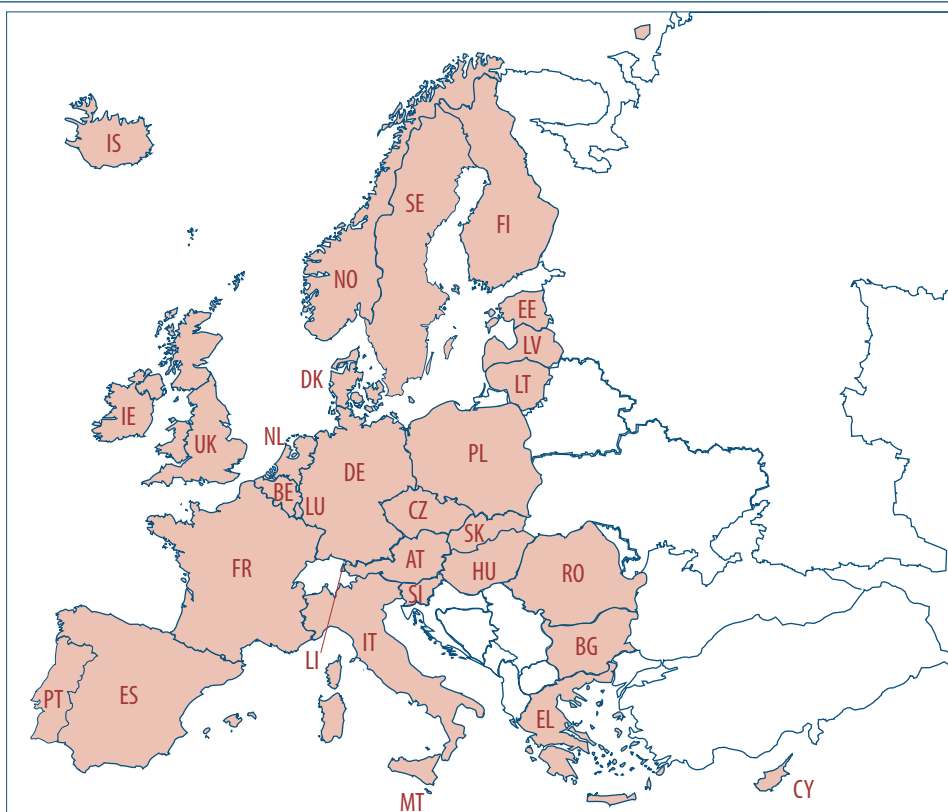
In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), school governing bodies are also responsible for managing the school budget and overseeing the curriculum.

CODES, ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Country codes

EU	European Union (on 1 May 2004)	SK	Slovakia
		FI	Finland
BE	Belgium	SE	Sweden
BE fr	Belgium – French Community	UK	United Kingdom
BE de	Belgium – German-speaking Community	UK-ENG	England
BE nl	Belgium – Flemish Community	UK-WLS	Wales
CZ	Czech Republic	UK-NIR	Northern Ireland
DK	Denmark	UK-SCT	Scotland
DE	Germany		
EE	Estonia	Ten New Member States	The 10 countries that joined the European Union on 1 May 2004 (CZ, EE, CY, LV, LT, HU, MT, PL, SI, SK)
EL	Greece		
ES	Spain		
FR	France		
IE	Ireland	EFTA/EEA countries	The 3 countries of the European Free Trade Association which are members of the European Economic Area
IT	Italy		
CY	Cyprus		
LV	Latvia		
LT	Lithuania	IS	Iceland
LU	Luxembourg	LI	Liechtenstein
HU	Hungary	NO	Norway
MT	Malta		
NL	Netherlands	Candidate countries	
AT	Austria		
PL	Poland		
PT	Portugal	BG	Bulgaria
SI	Slovenia	RO	Romania

Country codes (continued)



Statistical codes

(:)	Data not available	(-)	Not applicable
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Abbreviations and acronyms

International conventions

ESS	European Statistical System
EU-15	The 15 Member States of the European Union before 1 May 2004
EU-25	The 25 Member States of the European Union after 1 May 2004
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Communities
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNI	Gross National Income
ICT	Information and communication technology
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (IEA)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD)
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PPS	Purchasing Power Standard
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

National abbreviations in their language of origin

AHS	<i>Allgemein bildende höhere Schule</i>	AT
ARGO	<i>Autonome Raad voor het gemeenschapsonderwijs</i>	BE nl
BTS	<i>Brevet de technicien supérieur</i>	FR, LU
CPGE	<i>Classes préparatoires aux grandes écoles</i>	FR
CSA	<i>Centri Servizi Amministrativi</i>	IT
DUT	<i>Diplôme Universitaire de Technologie</i>	LU
EUD	<i>Erhvervsuddannelse</i>	DK
FHL	<i>Fachhochschule Liechtenstein</i>	LI
GNVQ	<i>General National Vocational Qualifications</i>	UK
HAVO	<i>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>	NL
HBO	<i>Hoger Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
HF	<i>Højere Forberedelseksamen</i>	DK
HHX	<i>Højere Handelseksamen</i>	DK
HTX	<i>Højere Teknisk Eksamen</i>	DK
IAP	<i>Internationale Akademie für Philosophie</i>	LI
IEES	<i>Institut d'études éducatives et sociales</i>	LU
IEK	<i>Institouto Epagelmatikis Katartisis</i>	EL
ISERP	<i>Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques</i>	LU
IST	<i>Institut Supérieur de Technologie</i>	LU
ITS	<i>Institute of Tourism Studies</i>	MT
IUT	<i>Instituts universitaires technologiques</i>	FR
KN	<i>Kolegium nauczycielskie</i>	PL
KY	<i>Kvalificerad Yrkesutbildning</i>	SE
LEA	<i>Local Education Authority</i>	UK-ENG/WLS
MAVO	<i>Middelbaar Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>	NL
MBO	<i>Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
MCAST	<i>Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology</i>	MT
NAE	<i>National agency for education (Skolverket)</i>	SE
NKJO	<i>Nauczycielskie kolegium języków obcych</i>	PL
NPQH	<i>National Professional Qualification for Headship</i>	UK-ENG
NVQ	<i>National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ)</i>	UK
PQH	<i>Professional Qualification for Headship</i>	UK-NIR
STS	<i>Sections de techniciens supérieurs</i>	FR
TEE	<i>Technika Epagelmatika Ekpaideftiria</i>	EL
TEI	<i>Technologiko Ekpaideftiko Idryma</i>	EL

National abbreviations in their language of origin

UCAS	<i>Universities and Colleges Admissions Services</i>	UK
VBO	<i>Voorbereidend Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
VMBO	<i>Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
VWO	<i>Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>	NL
WO	<i>Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>	NL
WOT	<i>Wet op het Onderwijstoezicht</i>	NL



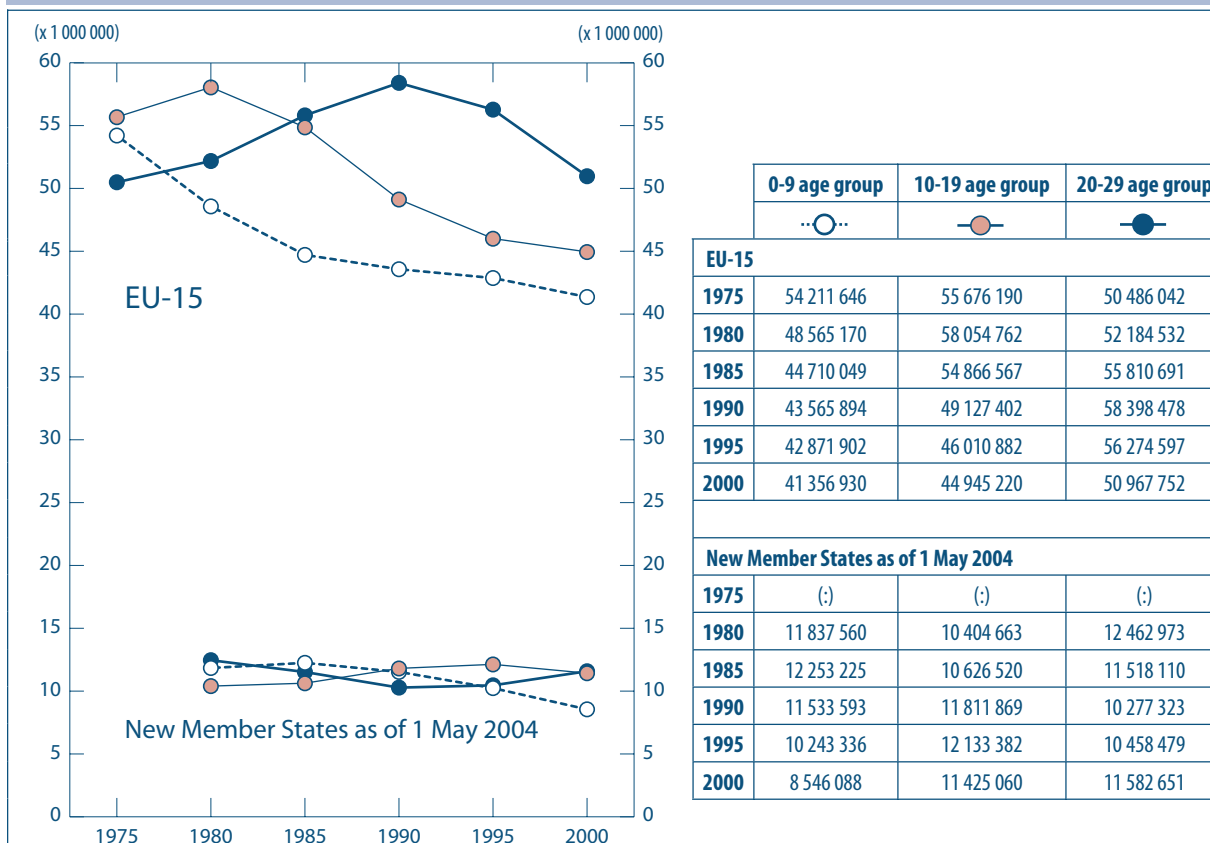
CONTEXT

THE NUMBER OF YOUNG PEOPLE IS DECREASING AT DIFFERING RATES IN THE EU MEMBER STATES

In 2000, there were 168.8 million young people aged under 30 in the 25 countries now forming the European Union (EU-25). This total has been steadily decreasing since 1975.

In the 15 EU Member States prior to May 2004 (EU-15), the overall decrease in the number of those aged under 30 corresponds to a decrease within each constituent age group. Demographic trends within the 0-29 age range reflect the fall in the birth rate recorded in most EU-15 countries since the 1960s. They have also led to changes in the size, by age group, of the under 30-year-old population in the EU-15 countries as a whole.

Figure A1: Changes in the numbers of young people in the 0-9, 10-19 and 20-29 age groups in the EU-15 and the new Member States, 1975-2000



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional notes

France: The data relate solely to the resident population and have not been statistically adjusted. Neither do they include the overseas *départements*. Data from 1991 to 2001 are derived from those of the 1999 census.

Cyprus: The data relate to territories under government control.

Malta: Data for 1985-2000 relate solely to the resident population of Maltese nationality.

Slovenia: Data for 1975 and 1980 relate to the population as of 30 June.

Explanatory note

National data are contained in the annexes.

The population is that of 1 January in the reference year.

The ten new Member States as of 1 May 2004 are the Czech Republic, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia.



C O N T E X T

While the size of the population in the 0-9 and 10-19 age groups has continually decreased since 1975 and 1980 respectively, the size of the 20-29-year-old population increased up to 1990 and then began to fall. From the mid-1980s, this age group, which had until then been the smallest, became the most strongly represented, overtaking those aged 10-19 (who until then had been the most strongly represented group) and 0-9 respectively.

Changes in the number of young people in the new Member States in the last 20 years differ from those in the EU-15. If the former are considered as a whole, the number of children in the 0-9 age group began to decrease from 1985 onwards, whereas the population aged 10-19 grew from 1980 to 1995 and then decreased. The number of 20-29-year-olds meanwhile fell between 1980 and 1990 (reflecting the fall in the birth rate in the 1960s) and then began to rise again during the 1990s. This overall trend conceals more contrasting situations among particular countries. Thus Poland and Slovakia reflect the foregoing broad description whereas the same demographic trend emerges earlier in time in countries such as the Czech Republic, or at a later stage as in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.

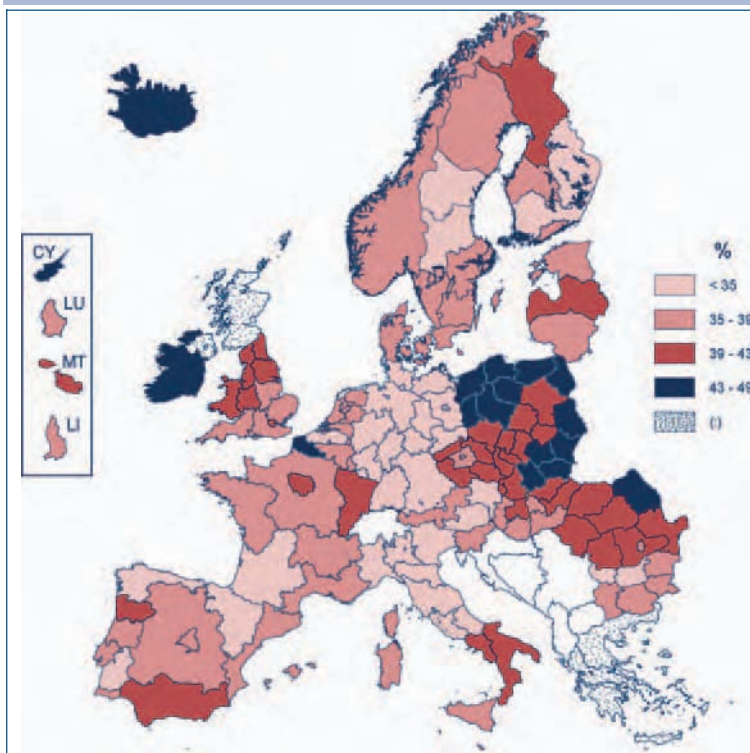
There are significant regional differences within the European Union in the proportion of young people in the total population. In almost half of all regions for which data are available, the proportion of those aged under 30 in the total population stands at between 35 % and 39 %, whereas in almost a quarter of regions this proportion accounts for under 35 % of the total population. Those aged under 30 account for over 44 % of the total population in relatively few regions (Figure A1a).

THE REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE AGED UNDER 30 IS UNEVEN

The number of people aged under 30 has been steadily decreasing since 1975 in the 25 countries now forming the European Union (Figure A1) and the proportion of young people in the total population varies markedly from one region to the next. In nearly half of the regions for which data are available, those aged under 30 represent from 35 % to 39 % of the population, while they account for less than 35 % in one fourth of the regions. Young people aged under 30 represent over 44 % of the total population in relatively few regions: in France (the overseas *départments*), Ireland (Southern and Eastern and Border Midlands and Western), Poland (Lubuskie, Malopolskie, Podkarpackie, Pomorskie, Warminsko-Mazurskie and Wielkopolskie), Portugal (Acores and Madeira, not shown on the map), Slovakia (Stredné Slovensko and Východné Slovensko) and Romania (Nord-Est).

Regional disparities are especially marked in southern Europe (Spain, Italy and Portugal), France and Slovakia. The proportion of young people is relatively high in the south of Spain (and in the Canary Islands, not shown on the map), accounting for slightly more than 40 % of the total population in these regions against 36 % or less in the rest of the country. In France, the average percentage of young people is 39 %, it varies from 35 % in the Sud-Ouest to nearly 50 % in the overseas *départments*. In the southern regions of Italy, the proportion of young people reaches or exceeds 39 % while it is 31 % or less in Nord Ouest, in Lombardia, in Nord Est, in Emilia-Romagna and in the Centro regions. In the north of Portugal (and also in Acores and Madeira, not shown on the map), those aged under 30 represent more than 40 % of the population but the proportion is below 37 % in Lisbon, as well as in the southern regions (Alentejo and the Algarve). In Slovakia, young people account for over 47 % of the total population in Východné Slovensko while they only represent 40 % in Bratislavský kraj.

Figure A1a: Percentage of young people in the 0-29 age group by NUTS regions, 2002



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional note

France, Italy, Portugal, Finland and United-Kingdom: Data are for the year 2001.

Explanatory note

The population is that of 1 January in the reference year.

NUTS 1 is used in most EU-15 countries with the exception of Ireland, Portugal, Finland and Sweden. In these countries, and in the new Member States, NUTS 2 is used. For the definition of NUTS classification, please see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

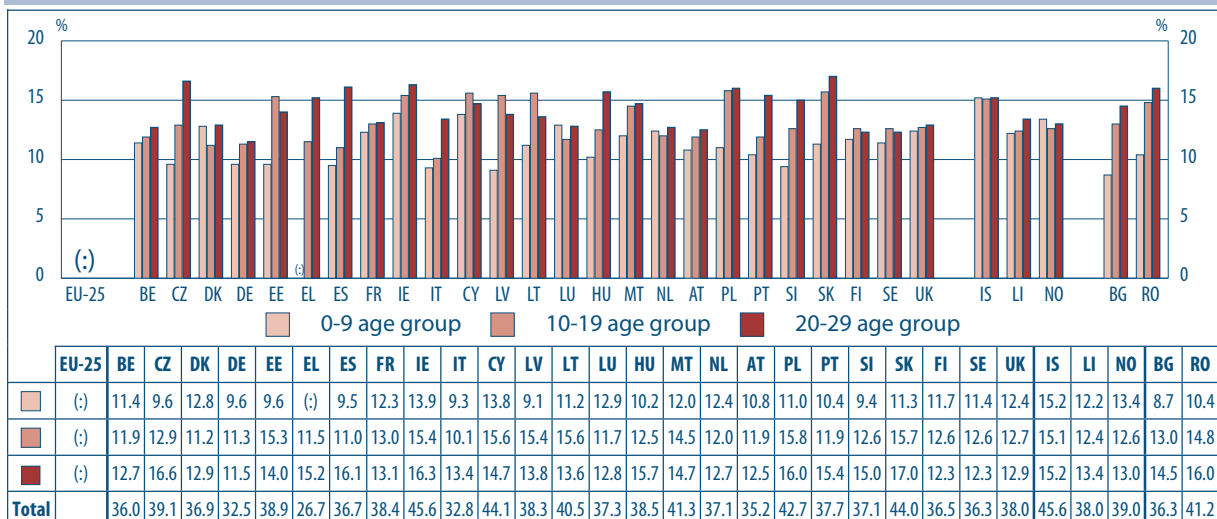
MORE YOUNG PEOPLE ARE AGED 20-29 THAN THOSE AGED YOUNGER STILL

Among young people aged under 30 in 2002, 20-29-year-olds were the most numerous in the majority of Member States, followed by those aged 10-19 and then those in the 0-9 age group. This trend has emerged since the 1990s (Figure A1).

The foregoing demographic structure is evident to a greater or lesser extent depending on the country concerned. Nevertheless, in some countries the situation is different. Thus, those aged 10-19 are most numerous in the Baltic countries, Cyprus, Finland and Sweden, reflecting how the birth rate began to fall at a later stage than in the other countries. In Luxembourg and Norway, those in the 0-9 age group are the most numerous. Together with Denmark and the Netherlands, these are the only countries to have recorded an increase in the size of that age group during the 1990s.

In all, the proportion of young people aged under 30 in 2002 was lowest (at around 32 %) in Germany and Italy. Ireland and Iceland recorded the highest proportions, with over 45 %.

Figure A2: Percentages of young people in the 0-9, 10-19 and 20-29 age groups, 2002



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional notes (Figure A2)

Greece: Data are provisional.

France: The data relate solely to the resident population and have not been statistically adjusted. Neither do they include the overseas *départements*.

Cyprus: The data relate to territories under government control.

United Kingdom: Data for 2002 are missing. Data provided are for 2001.

Explanatory note

The population is that of 1 January in the reference year.

THE NEW MEMBER STATES WILL BE ESPECIALLY AFFECTED BY THE DECREASE IN THE NUMBER OF YOUNG PEOPLE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE BY 2015

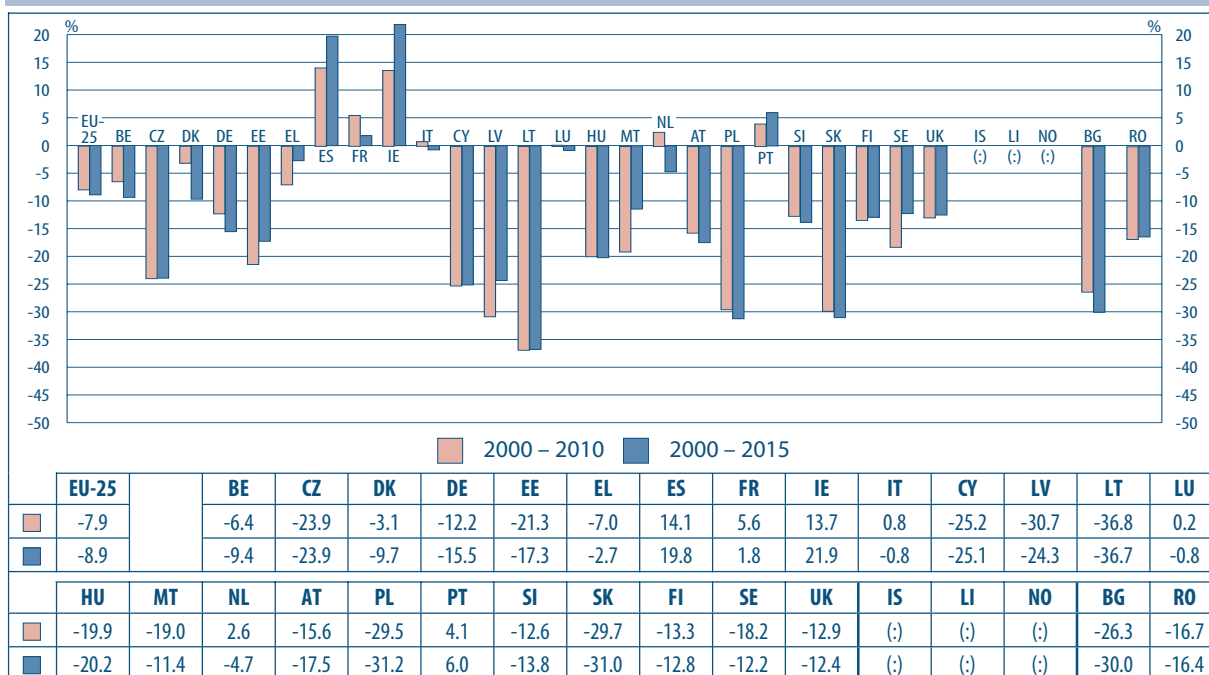
Demographic projections for people in the 5-14 age group provide a reliable estimate of future pupil intake in primary education (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2).

These projections may be used to plan the human and material resources required for the sound functioning of education systems: for example, they enable future requirements in terms of teachers to be estimated so that arrangements can be made to recruit them as necessary. Within the EU-25, 15 countries have a deliberate planning policy⁽¹⁾.

More specifically, population forecasts for the 5-9 and 10-14 age groups respectively are especially helpful given the compulsory nature of primary education (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2) (Figure B1). However, in a few countries, these age groups do not account for the entire population of those undergoing compulsory education. By 2015, the projections point clearly to a fall of around 9 % among those aged 5-9 in the EU-25 and of over 12 % among those aged 10-14.

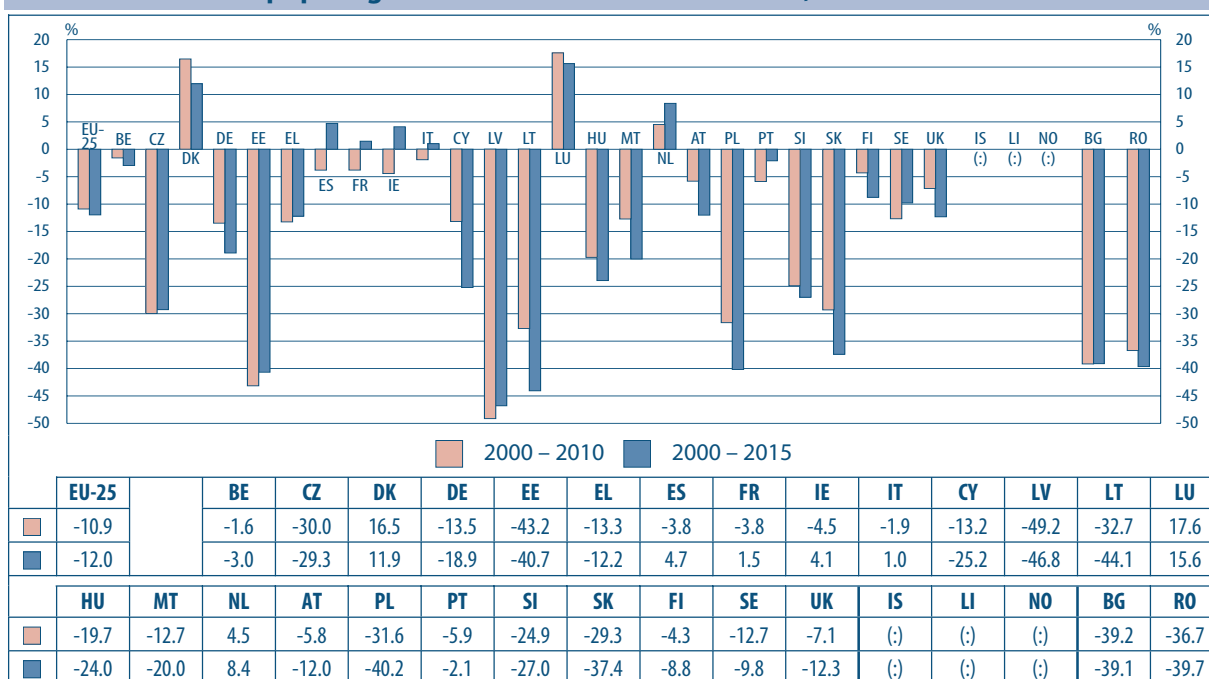
⁽¹⁾ See Chapter 1 of The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

**Figure A3a: Projection of growth rates
in the number of pupils aged 5-9 between 2000 and 2010, and between 2000 and 2015**



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

**Figure A3b: Projection of growth rates
in the number of pupils aged 10-14 between 2000 and 2010, and between 2000 and 2015**



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Explanatory note (Figures A3a and A3b)

The population is that of 1 January in the reference year. As these data are very recent (April 2005), the country-specific notes are only available on the Eurostat website at <http://epp.eurostat.ec.eu.int>.



C O N T E X T

All countries with the exception of Spain, France, Ireland and Portugal are anticipating a decrease in the number of pupils at ISCED level 1 by 2015. Spain and Ireland are expecting the most marked growth in the 5-9 age group between 2000 and 2015. It is therefore likely that the resources required for primary education (ISCED 1) will increase in both countries.

In some countries, the decrease in size of the 5-9 age group will begin at a later stage. Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands are thus expecting a slight increase in numbers within this age group between 2000 and 2010 and then a decrease between 2010 and 2015 down to a level below that of the year 2000.

Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Bulgaria are expecting a fall of at least 30 % between 2000 and 2015 in the number of pupils aged between 5 and 9. In the Czech Republic, Cyprus and Latvia, the corresponding decrease will be almost 25 %.

A majority of countries are also forecasting a decrease by 2015 in the number of young people of secondary school age. The expected fall in numbers of those aged 10-14 is especially striking in the new Member States, where it is estimated at over 20 % and will reach over 40 % in the three Baltic countries and Poland.

At the other extreme, in Denmark and Luxembourg, the 10-14 age group will grow in size between 2000 and 2010 and then decrease between 2010 and 2015. However, it will still be bigger in 2015 than in 2000. In the Netherlands, the same age group will increase in size throughout the whole period.

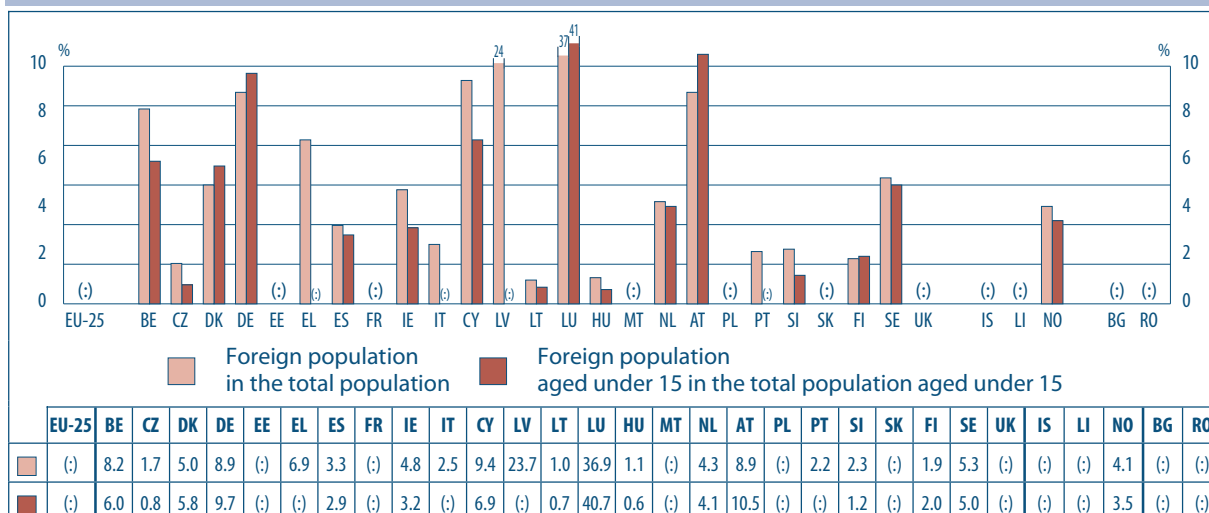
In Spain, France, Ireland and Italy, there will be an increase in enrolments in secondary education between 2010 and 2015 following the decline expected between 2000 and 2010, with the size of the 10-14 age group being greater than in 2000.

THE PROPORTION OF FOREIGNERS IN THE UNDER 15-YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP EXCEEDS 10 % IN A SMALL NUMBER OF COUNTRIES

In 2002, the population of foreign nationality represented less than 10 % of the total population in almost all Member States. The exceptions were Latvia and Luxembourg where the corresponding proportion was over 20 %.

In most countries for which data are available, the proportion of young people of foreign nationality aged under 15 in the total population of the same age is lower than the proportion of the population of foreign nationality in the total population. Young foreigners aged under 15 are proportionally more numerous than foreigners in the total population in Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, Austria and to a lesser extent in Finland. Among these countries, three have the highest proportions of foreigners in the under 15-year-old age group, namely Germany and Austria with around 10 % and Luxembourg with around 40 %. Everywhere else, the proportion of young foreigners in the under 15-year-old age group is less than 7 %. Indeed, the proportion of foreigners aged under 15 in the total population aged under 15 is very low in countries where immigration is a recent trend. It is thus less than 3 % in the Czech Republic, Spain, Lithuania, Hungary, Slovenia and Finland.

**Figure A4: Percentage of the foreign population
in the total population and in the population aged under 15, 2002**



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional notes

Czech Republic, Greece, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Austria: 2001 data.

Cyprus: The data relate to territories under government control.

Explanatory note

The proportion of the population of foreign nationality in the total population is calculated by dividing the total population of foreign nationality by the total population on 1 January and multiplying the result by 100.

The proportion of the foreign population aged under 15 in the total population aged under 15 is obtained by dividing the population of foreign nationality in the 0-14 age group by the total population in the 0-14 age group and multiplying the result by 100.

YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15-24 WHO HAVE LEFT THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ARE PARTICULARLY AFFECTED BY UNEMPLOYMENT

In the EU-25, 20 % of 15-24-year-olds who have left the education system are without a job. The difficulty of securing the labour market integration of young people is recurrent in all European Union countries with the exception of Denmark, Ireland, Cyprus, the Netherlands and Austria where unemployment rates for this age group are well below the EU average.

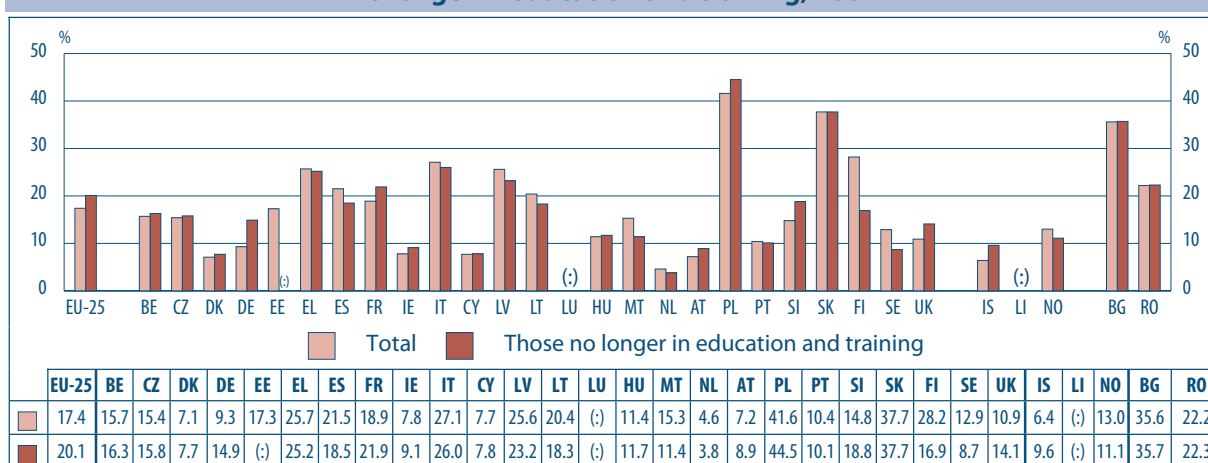
According to the standard definition of the active population, persons who have worked for at least an hour or actively sought a job during the survey reference period are members of it. Consequently, if they are not employed they are taken into account when calculating the unemployment rate. The unemployment rate of 15-24-year-olds thus partially reflects the phenomenon of 'student workers' who have not satisfied their desire for employment. By contrast, the unemployment rate of those aged 15-24 who have left the education system does not take the phenomenon of 'student workers' into account, and relates solely to young people who are no longer undergoing any form of education or training.

A comparison of these two unemployment rates yields different results for different countries. In the majority of EU countries, the unemployment rate for 15-24-year-olds who have left the education system is higher than the rate for the population aged 15-24. Germany, France, Poland, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and Iceland record the greatest differences between the two rates. This reflects the fact that 'student workers' obtain part-time work to finance their studies relatively more easily in these countries than elsewhere, while young people no longer in education and training experience difficulty in securing employment on the

labour market. These 'student workers' compete with young people aged 15-24 who are no longer involved in any form of education or training and who experience major difficulties in securing any form of labour market integration, part-time or otherwise.

Conversely, in other countries (including Spain, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Finland, Sweden and Norway), the unemployment rate among 15-24-year-olds is higher than among those aged 15-24 who have left the education system. In these countries, many 'student workers' thus have difficulty in finding a job which is compatible with the pursuit of their studies.

Figure A5: Unemployment rates for all 15-24 year olds and for 15-24 year olds no longer in education and training, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Explanatory note

The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed people by the active population.

For the purpose of calculating **the unemployment rate of young people no longer in education and training**, young people still continuing education or training have not been included (in either the numerator or the denominator). On the other hand, they are taken into account in the standard definition of the active population if they have worked for at least one hour or actively sought a job during the survey reference week (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

THE CHANCES OF SECURING EMPLOYMENT INCREASE WITH AGE AND LEVEL OF STUDIES

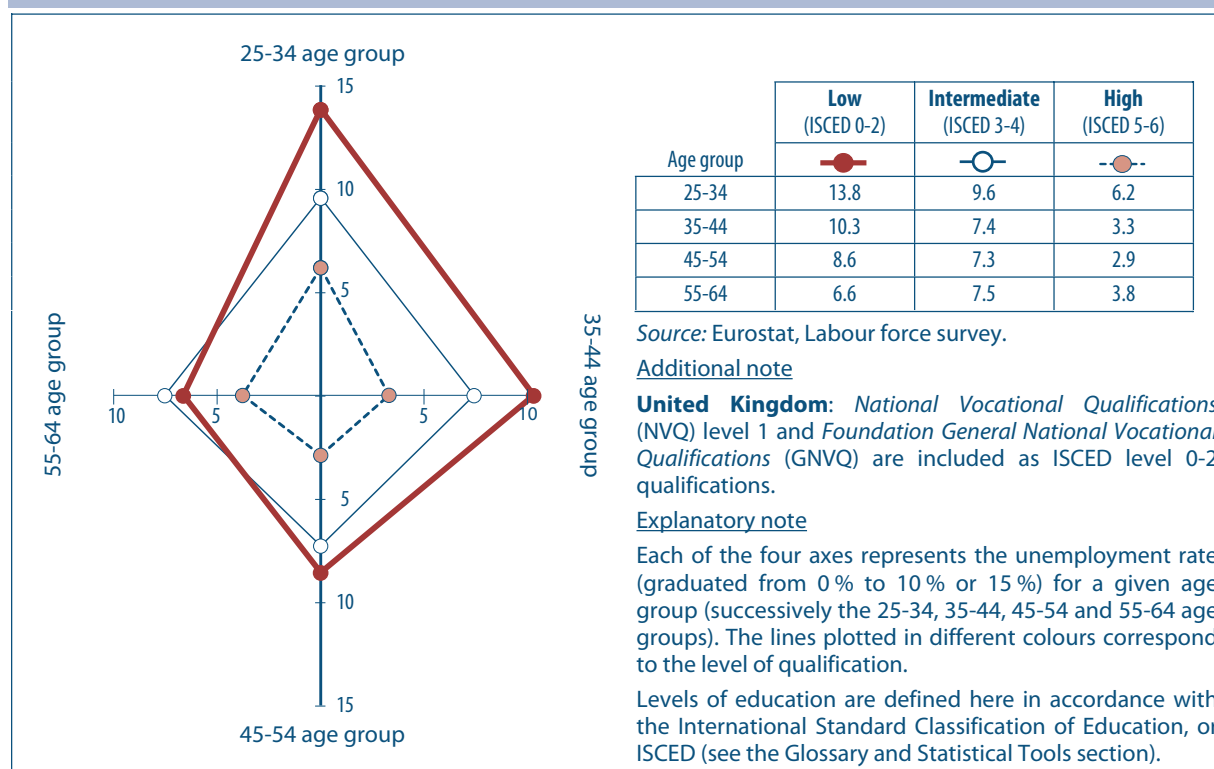
One striking feature of the employment situation in Europe is how unemployment rates differ with age. In all European Union countries (except Germany where unemployment rates are similar across the different generations), the unemployment rate decreases with age. From examining differences in unemployment rates by age group, it is clear that the 15-24 age group was the one with the highest rates during the period from 1992 to 2002 (Figure A6a). Securing the first job thus represents a major difficulty for those aged 15-24.

While age is a determining factor in securing a job in the European Union, the level of qualification is another discriminating factor vis-à-vis unemployment. Indeed, unemployment decreases markedly with the level of qualification.

In the European Union in 2002, the unemployment rate among those aged 25-64 who, at best, had completed compulsory education stood at 10 %, which was over twice as high as in the case of those who had obtained a tertiary education qualification. Holders of upper secondary education qualifications constitute an intermediate group with an unemployment rate of 8.1 %. Qualifications are thus unquestionably an asset on the labour market, helping those who are most highly qualified to secure employment.

The foregoing relationship between unemployment rates and level of qualification is characteristic of virtually all countries (Figure A8a). However, in Greece and Portugal (in the case of 25-34-year-olds) and Romania (for all age groups), those who hold upper secondary school qualifications experience the highest level of unemployment. The biggest variations in unemployment rates with respect to the level of qualification occur in five new Member States (the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia) and Bulgaria.

Figure A6: Unemployment rates by age group and by level of qualification, EU-25, 2002



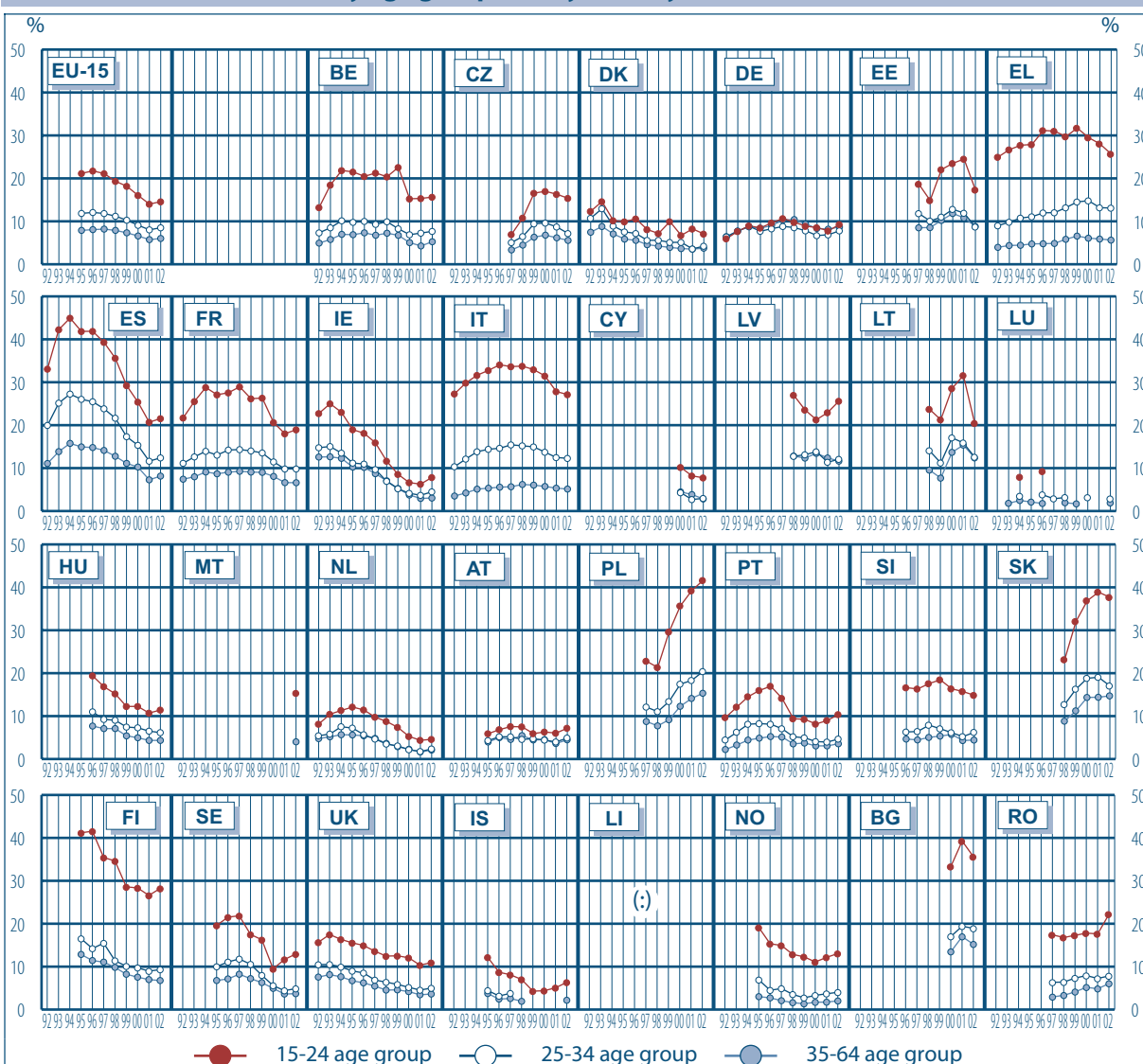
THE UNEMPLOYMENT RATE AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15-24 REMAINS A CAUSE FOR CONCERN IN MANY EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Unemployment is a recurrent phenomenon affecting all European countries to varying degrees. However, people are not uniformly affected by labour market imbalances. Unemployment rates vary according to age and qualification levels (Figure A6).

The striking feature of the employment situation in Europe is the way the unemployment rate varies with age. In all European Union countries (except Germany, where unemployment rates for the different generations are fairly similar), the rate decreases with age. From an examination of variations in unemployment rates for each age group, it is clear that the population aged 15-24 registered the highest rates throughout the 1992-2002 period, which were more than double those for the 35-64 age group. Securing the first job is thus a major problem for the 15-24-year-old population, representing a serious challenge for them in almost half the countries in the European Union. In Belgium, Estonia, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, Bulgaria and Romania, the unemployment rate of this age group reached over 20 % during this period. Yet while some of these countries (Spain, Ireland, Finland and Sweden) have recorded a significant continuous decrease in the unemployment rate of those aged 15-24 in recent years, others such as Poland and Slovakia have not yet

achieved any significant breakthrough in the fight against youth unemployment. However, the unemployment rate of those aged 15-24 may conceal very different situations because of the statistical definition of the unemployment rate, which includes student workers and thus any student who has worked for just one hour or actively sought employment during the reference year of the survey. This phenomenon, which exists on a different scale depending on the country concerned (Figure A5), limits the extent to which data are readily comparable.

**Figure A6a: Trends in unemployment rates (percentages)
by age group and by country, 1992-2002**



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

Portugal: A change in the sampling method limits the comparability of data between 1997 and 1998.

Explanatory note

Unemployment is defined in accordance with International Labour Organization guidelines (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section). The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed people by the active population.

National data are contained in the annexes.



GRADUATE UNEMPLOYMENT RATES REMAIN LOW THROUGHOUT EUROPE

During the period 1992-2002, the unemployment rate among people with tertiary education qualifications aged 25-64 was lower than the overall unemployment rate in all countries for which data were available, with the exception of Denmark which recorded unusually low unemployment rates in 2001 and 2002. The idea that a tertiary education qualification reduces the chance of unemployment is thus well founded in all European countries.

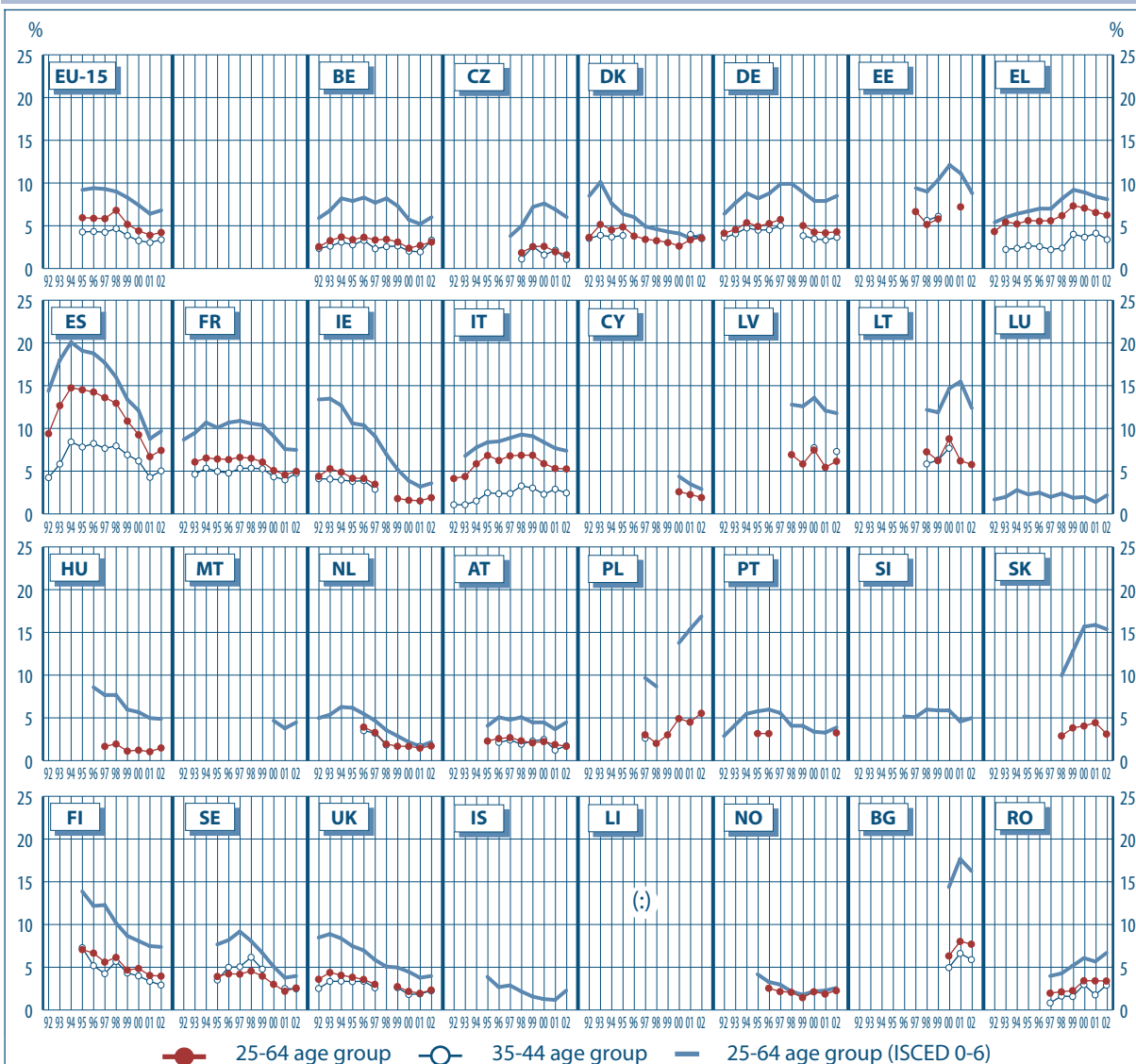
The graduate unemployment rate remained lower than 8 % throughout the whole decade (1992-2002) and in all countries except Spain and Lithuania. The unemployment rate among graduates aged 35-44 is lower than that among 25-64-year-olds during the same period everywhere except in Denmark, Estonia, Latvia and Sweden. The youngest and oldest workers therefore tend to be the most affected by periodic fluctuations in the labour market. Where the market is sluggish, firms recruit few young graduates and lay off the oldest workers.

Changes in the unemployment rate of people with tertiary education qualifications do not reflect any uniform trend in the various countries for which data are available. With effect from different points in time and for longer or shorter periods during the 1990s, certain countries such as Denmark, Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland and the United Kingdom recorded an almost continuous decrease in the graduate unemployment rate, whereas the opposite trend was apparent in Greece, Italy, Poland and Slovakia.

Bulgaria and Romania have also recorded an almost continuous increase in the graduate unemployment rate since 2000 and 1997 respectively.

Finally, differences in graduate unemployment rate trends and the average unemployment rate lend weight to the assumption that graduates are less vulnerable to unemployment. The fall in the average unemployment rate is as much to the benefit of unemployed graduates as other unemployed people (Spain and Ireland), whereas the increase in the average unemployment rate affects graduates less than others (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia).

Figure A7: Trends in unemployment rates among those with a tertiary-level qualification (ISCED 5 and 6) by age group, and in the overall unemployment rate by country, 1992-2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Belgium, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and Bulgaria: A change in survey characteristics (that occurred in 1993 in Italy, 1998 in Portugal, 1999 in Belgium, Poland and Finland, 2001 in Sweden and Bulgaria and 2002 in Latvia and Lithuania) limits the meaningful comparison of data from the preceding and subsequent period in each case.

Poland: 1999 data relate to the first quarter of the year.

Explanatory note

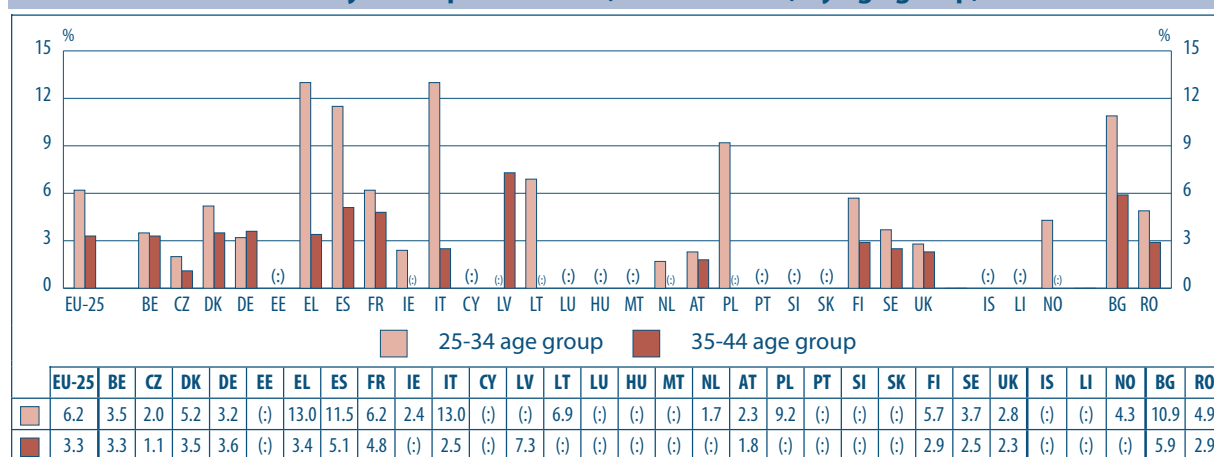
The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed people by the active population. Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

YOUNG GRADUATES ALSO EXPERIENCE DIFFICULTY IN SECURING THEIR FIRST JOB

Even though the labour market integration of young people with tertiary education qualifications (ISCED 5 and 6) appears more straightforward than in the case of those with lower qualifications (Figure A7), qualifications at this level are not a guarantee against unemployment after graduation.

In 2002, the unemployment rate among younger graduates (those aged 25-34) was on average around two times higher than in the case of graduates aged 35-44 in the EU-25. The tendency for unemployment to affect younger graduates more than others was apparent in all Member States except Germany. Graduates aged 25-34 were particularly affected in Greece and Italy, where the unemployment rate for this group was roughly between three and five times higher than for graduates aged 35-44.

**Figure A8: Unemployment rates among those
with a tertiary-level qualification (ISCED 5 and 6) by age group, 2002**



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

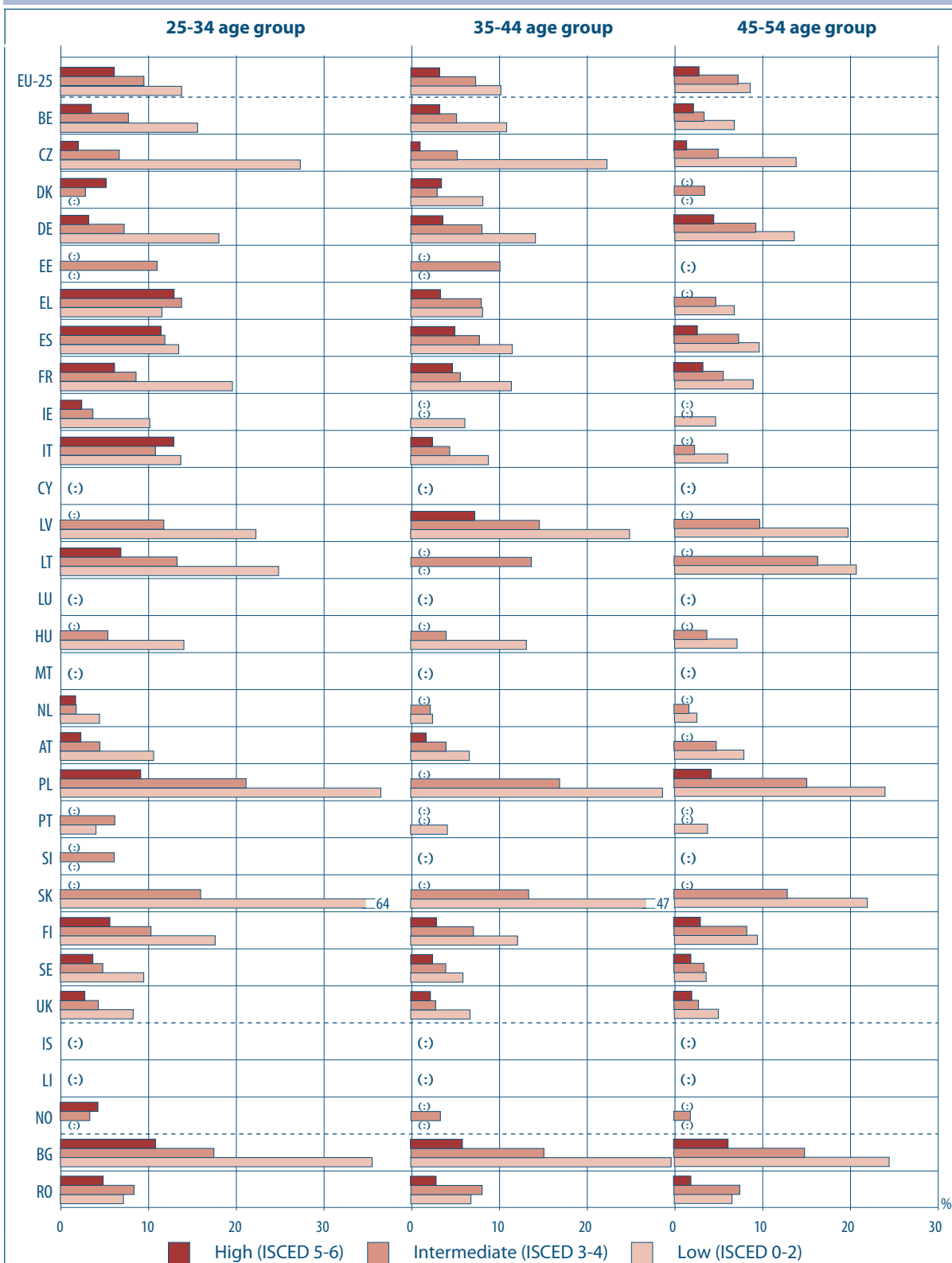
Explanatory note

The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed people by the active population. Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).



C O N T E X T

Figure A8a: Unemployment rates by age group and by level of qualification, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

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C O N T E X T

Data (Figure A8a)

	EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
25-34 age group																															
■	6.17	3.5	2	5.2	3.2	(:)	13	11	6.2	2.4	13	(:)	(:)	6.9	(:)	(:)	(:)	1.7	2.3	9.2	(:)	(:)	(:)	5.7	3.7	2.8	(:)	(:)	4.3	11	4.9
■	9.55	7.8	6.7	2.9	7.3	11	14	12	8.7	3.7	11	(:)	12	13	(:)	5.4	(:)	1.8	4.5	21	6.2	6.2	16	10	4.9	4.3	(:)	(:)	3.4	18	8.4
■	13.8	16	27	(:)	18	(:)	12	14	20	10	14	(:)	22	25	(:)	14	(:)	4.5	11	37	4.1	(:)	64	18	9.5	8.3	(:)	(:)	(:)	36	7.2
35-44 age group																															
■	3.3	3.3	1.1	3.5	3.6	(:)	3.4	5.1	4.8	(:)	2.5	(:)	7.3	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	1.8	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	2.9	2.5	2.3	(:)	(:)	(:)	5.9	2.9
■	7.41	5.2	5.3	3	8.1	10	8.1	7.8	5.6	(:)	4.4	(:)	15	14	(:)	4	(:)	2.2	4	17	(:)	(:)	13	7.1	4	2.8	(:)	(:)	3.4	15	8.1
■	10.3	11	22	8.2	14	(:)	8.2	12	12	6.2	8.9	(:)	25	(:)	(:)	13	(:)	2.5	6.7	29	4.2	(:)	47	12	6	6.8	(:)	(:)	(:)	30	6.9
45-54 age group																															
■	2.89	2.3	1.5	(:)	4.6	(:)	(:)	2.7	3.4	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	4.3	(:)	(:)	(:)	3.1	2	2.1	(:)	(:)	(:)	6.2	2
■	7.28	3.4	5	3.5	9.3	(:)	4.7	7.4	5.6	(:)	2.3	(:)	9.8	16	(:)	3.7	(:)	1.7	4.8	15	(:)	(:)	13	8.3	3.4	2.8	(:)	(:)	1.9	15	7.5
■	8.57	6.8	14	(:)	14	(:)	6.8	9.6	8.9	4.7	6	(:)	20	21	(:)	7.1	(:)	2.6	7.9	24	3.8	(:)	32	9.5	3.6	5	(:)	(:)	(:)	25	6.6
55-64 age group																															
■	3.78	(:)	2.1	(:)	7.1	(:)	(:)	(:)	4.5	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	5.2	1.9	1.9	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	3.6
■	7.53	(:)	3.5	4.9	12	(:)	(:)	5.9	5.6	(:)	2.1	(:)	9.2	12	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	6.4	12	(:)	(:)	15	8.1	5.2	3.5	(:)	(:)	(:)	15	2.8
■	6.64	4.4	11	(:)	14	(:)	3.8	8.2	5.5	(:)	5.8	(:)	14	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	8.3	11	3.6	(:)	34	8.9	5.1	3.9	(:)	(:)	(:)	20	0.9

Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are included as ISCED level 0-2 qualifications.

Explanatory note

The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed people by the active population. Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED 1997 (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

WOMEN ARE MORE LIKELY TO BE UNEMPLOYED THAN MEN WITH THE SAME LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION

The effect of a tertiary education qualification in preventing unemployment applies as much to men as to women. Yet men and women are not equally affected by unemployment.

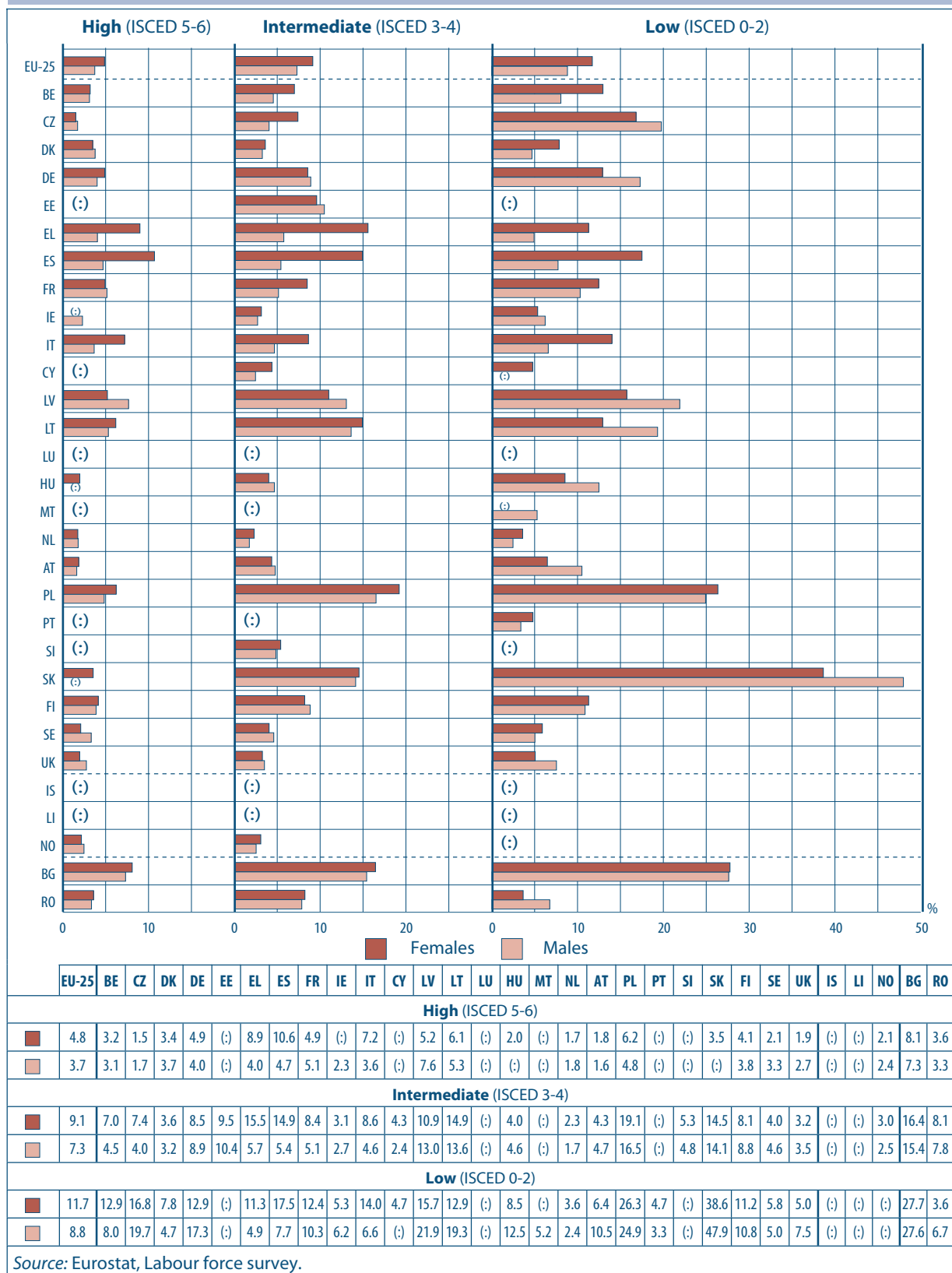
Women with the same level of qualification remain on average more likely to be unemployed than men, even though this inequality between the sexes decreases with higher levels of qualification. Thus in the EU-25, the unemployment rate among women is higher than that of men irrespective of the qualification levels considered. Within the European Union, the new Member States are distinctive for the fact that the average unemployment rate tends to be higher among the least qualified men (ISCED 0-2) than among women in the same category.

However, examination of the situation country by country reveals that the situation as it affects men and women is almost identical in some countries. In Greece, Spain and Italy the unemployment rate among women is much higher than among men, irrespective of the levels of qualification concerned. By contrast, the unemployment rate among women is always lower than that of men in Latvia and the United Kingdom.



C O N T E X T

Figure A9: Unemployment rates among the 25-64 age group of the population, by level of qualification and by sex, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note (Figure A9)

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are included as ISCED level 0-2 qualifications.

Explanatory note

The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed people by the active population. Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

In the remaining countries, differences are more or less marked depending on the given level of qualification. The unemployment rate among men who at most have a qualification at ISCED levels 0-2 is higher than among similarly qualified women in the Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria and Slovakia. In some of these countries, the unemployment rate among men may even reach high levels (almost 50 % in Slovakia). This imbalance in favour of women is characteristic of those with upper secondary education qualifications in Germany, Estonia, Hungary, Austria, Finland and Sweden.

Finally, in the case of graduates, the imbalance to the detriment of men is relatively modest in the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Sweden and Norway.

YOUNG GRADUATES OFTEN ACCEPT JOBS FOR WHICH THEY ARE OVER-QUALIFIED

Persistently high unemployment in most European Union countries obliges young people with tertiary education qualifications to accept jobs for which they are over-qualified so that they can begin their working lives. Only when they have reached a certain age do they secure posts which match the level of their qualification more closely.

In the EU-25, only 50 % of young graduates aged 25-34 occupy a job in the categories of 'professionals and managers' whereas among 35-64 year-olds the proportion reaches 62 %. Access to posts involving a significant level of responsibility appears easier for young graduates in the new Member States and in Iceland, since respectively 66 % and 68% of them secure employment in one of the foregoing categories before reaching the age of 35.

Certain countries stand well apart from the EU average, particularly Spain, France and Cyprus. The percentage of young graduates occupying posts as 'managers' or 'professionals' is particularly low at under 40 % when the corresponding proportion among 35-64-year-olds exceeds 54 % in these countries. At the other extreme, in Germany and Luxembourg, the percentage of young graduates occupying these posts is slightly higher than in the case of those aged 35-64. The proportion of young graduates with a job that reflects their level of qualification is well above the EU average in Luxembourg, Hungary, Poland, Portugal and Slovenia.

The proportion of young graduates in the categories of 'technicians and associate professionals' or 'clerks, service and sales workers' is thus higher than in the case of those aged 35-64. Relatively few graduates have jobs in the 'craft workers and machine operators' category. However, the proportion of men who do so is not insignificant in Germany, Estonia, Spain, Ireland, Lithuania and Austria where it is over 10 %.

Young women graduates have still greater difficulty in finding a job that matches their level of qualification. In the EU-25, around 47 % of those aged 25-34 are 'professionals' or 'managers' as compared to almost 54 % of men in the same age group and with the same level of qualification.

	Professionals and managers	Technicians and associate professionals	Clerks, service and sales workers	Craft workers, machine operators
EU-25				
BE				(-) (-)
CZ				(-) (-)
DK			(-) (-)	(-) (-)
DE				(-) (-)
EE	(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)
EL				(-) (-)
ES				(-) (-)
FR				(-) (-)
IE				(-) (-)
IT				(-) (-)
CY				(-) (-)
LV			(-) (-)	(-) (-)
LT				(-) (-)
LU		(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)
HU				(-) (-)
MT	(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)
NL				(-) (-)
AT				(-) (-)
PL			(-) (-)	(-) (-)
PT		(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)
SI		(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)
SK			(-) (-)	(-) (-)
FI				(-) (-)
SE				(-) (-)
UK				(-) (-)
IS			(-) (-)	(-) (-)
LI	(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)	(-) (-)
NO			(-) (-)	(-) (-)
BG				(-) (-)
RO				(-) (-)

Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

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C O N T E X T

Data (Figure A10)																																
Age group		EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
Professionals and managers																																
25-34	F	47.4	57.7	66.4	34.4	49.5	44.4	57.3	39.0	32.8	58.0	47.4	34.8	53.3	56.0	89.2	72.1	(-)	64.0	47.5	67.4	65.2	71.2	73.1	41.2	50.5	47.6	65.9	(-)	25.3	53.9	78.1
	M	53.8	60.4	61.5	55.0	54.0	(-)	54.8	37.9	46.0	59.8	54.0	39.6	55.0	42.7	89.0	68.6	(-)	67.9	50.7	76.3	70.1	70.7	57.2	57.5	60.5	59.1	70.5	(-)	39.4	53.7	71.7
35-64	F	57.2	65.8	73.6	42.0	48.0	50.8	71.6	62.4	43.3	73.0	69.8	52.3	58.7	71.0	80.6	83.7	(-)	70.4	60.2	87.4	64.9	76.8	81.2	46.9	56.1	51.0	76.3	(-)	35.5	62.1	82.8
	M	65.4	69.8	71.2	68.3	53.3	57.3	74.1	57.3	70.0	72.8	73.1	54.9	64.1	63.5	92.2	79.0	80.0	78.7	63.1	81.9	84.4	88.0	70.2	64.6	67.3	68.9	79.0	(-)	53.5	64.2	84.0
Technicians and associate professionals																																
25-34	F	27.9	16.0	26.3	47.1	31.1	(-)	22.6	21.6	38.8	11.7	28.7	21.9	33.3	23.2	(-)	16.9	(-)	21.8	35.0	15.7	21.7	(-)	16.9	32.4	36.8	28.0	19.1	(-)	52.7	25.1	13.9
	M	23.1	14.9	31.2	32.6	20.8	(-)	20.4	19.5	32.7	10.1	27.0	26.6	25.6	19.8	(-)	19.7	(-)	22.1	22.7	13.0	(-)	(-)	35.5	24.4	27.5	22.2	19.3	(-)	40.9	23.3	10.9
35-64	F	26.2	9.8	20.3	47.7	32.0	22.7	14.0	14.8	42.8	8.3	17.5	19.3	25.6	16.6	(-)	9.3	(-)	17.6	24.0	8.0	30.6	(-)	16.1	29.5	34.3	27.1	17.0	(-)	49.6	25.9	11.4
	M	17.4	11.3	22.5	18.0	20.5	(-)	11.2	16.2	21.1	9.3	16.0	19.8	12.4	11.5	(-)	11.1	(-)	13.1	13.5	8.7	(-)	(-)	23.1	25.3	22.8	16.1	10.3	(-)	34.9	18.3	5.4
Clerks, service and sales workers																																
25-34	F	21.7	24.4	6.5	15.3	16.2	(-)	17.5	34.7	25.3	25.7	20.9	40.0	(-)	15.1	(-)	9.9	(-)	13.7	14.7	15.9	11.2	(-)	(-)	21.9	11.1	22.1	(-)	(-)	18.6	15.9	5.8
	M	11.3	19.6	6.3	(-)	8.2	(-)	17.4	17.4	11.6	14.6	13.9	24.1	(-)	10.9	(-)	7.7	(-)	7.6	6.1	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	7.8	5.9	10.8	(-)	(-)	9.9	(-)	6.2
35-64	F	13.9	23.5	5.4	8.4	15.5	17.7	10.1	19.1	11.9	16.2	10.9	22.1	10.9	7.5	(-)	6.0	(-)	10.6	10.3	3.6	(-)	(-)	(-)	20.3	8.4	19.7	(-)	(-)	12.7	9.2	4.0
	M	6.2	14.6	3.3	4.9	6.6	(-)	7.3	9.4	3.0	8.4	7.8	13.7	(-)	6.1	(-)	4.9	(-)	5.2	5.4	5.2	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.1	3.7	6.1	(-)	(-)	4.5	7.7	2.9
Craft workers, machine operators																																
25-34	F	2.9	1.9	(-)	(-)	3.2	(-)	(-)	4.8	3.0	4.6	3.1	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	2.7	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.4	1.6	2.3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	2.2
	M	11.8	5.1	(-)	(-)	16.9	(-)	7.5	25.3	9.8	15.4	5.0	9.7	(-)	26.6	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	20.5	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	10.3	6.1	7.9	(-)	(-)	9.7	(-)	11.2
35-64	F	2.6	(-)	0.7	(-)	4.5	(-)	4.3	3.7	2.0	(-)	1.8	(-)	(-)	4.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	5.4	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	3.3	1.2	2.1	(-)	(-)	2.3	(-)	1.7
	M	11.0	4.3	3.0	8.9	19.6	26.5	7.4	17.0	6.0	9.5	3.1	11.6	21.8	18.8	(-)	5.0	(-)	3.1	18.0	4.2	(-)	(-)	(-)	6.1	6.2	8.9	(-)	(-)	7.2	9.8	7.6
F Females M Males																																
Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.																																
Explanatory note																																
Occupations are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88) which was initiated by the International Labour Organization (Geneva, 1990) and is used in the Eurostat Labour Force Survey (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).																																
Percentages have been calculated on the basis of the employed population and do not take account of ‘non-respondents’ and the ‘armed forces’ category (ISCO code 0) in the denominator.																																
Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).																																

Inequality between the sexes in securing employment is far less marked in the new EU Member States. On average in these countries, over than 65 % of women graduates aged 25-34 are 'managers' or 'professionals' as compared to 67 % of men. On average, the difference between men and women in this respect is 3.6 times lower in the new Member States than in the rest of the European Union.

By contrast, the proportion of 25-34-year-old women graduates who work as 'technicians and associate professionals' or 'clerks, service and sales workers' is higher than in the case of men in all countries except the Czech Republic and Hungary.



TRENDS IN LEVELS OF TEMPORARY EMPLOYMENT ARE SIMILAR AT ALL LEVELS OF QUALIFICATION

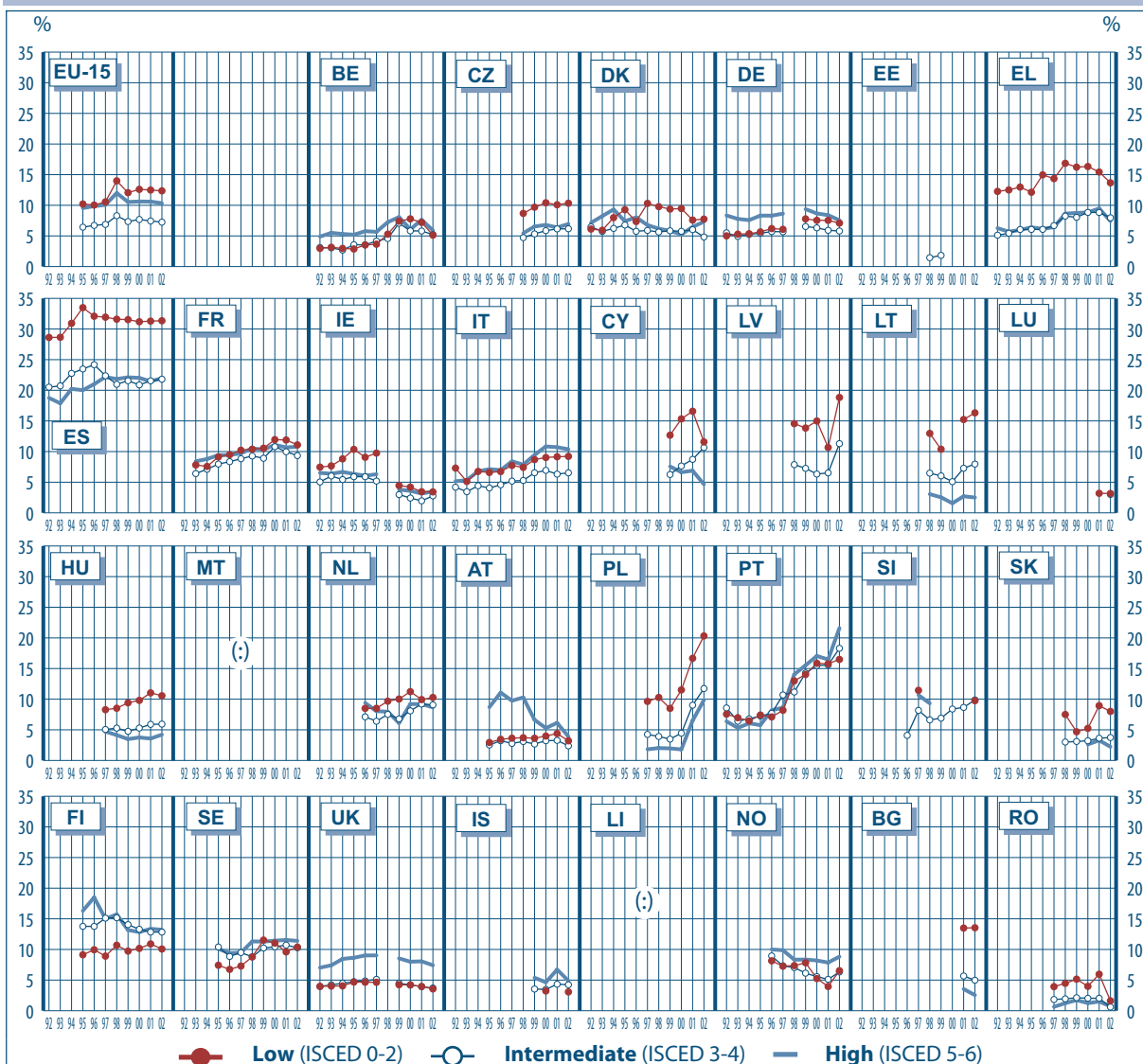
Overall, the percentage of employees in temporary jobs changed relatively little between 1992 and 2002 in many EU Member States. However in some countries such as Poland, Portugal and Slovenia, it increased significantly irrespective of the qualification level of those concerned. Only Ireland experienced a fall in temporary employment. More specifically, differences in the level of temporary employment among working people with different levels of qualification changed relatively little during the period from 1992-2002 in most countries (Cyprus, Austria and Slovakia being exceptions).

In some countries, temporary employment is not very prevalent. It was experienced by less than 10 % of working people throughout the decade (regardless of their qualification level) in Belgium, Germany, Slovakia and the United Kingdom. In Estonia, less than 5 % of working people are temporarily employed. By contrast, the level of temporary employment was over 18 % throughout the foregoing period in Spain (irrespective of the level of qualification).

In the same period, the least qualified employed people were more likely to have a temporary job than the more highly qualified in Greece, seven new EU Member States (the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia) and Bulgaria.

It is not possible from the statistics given here to conclude that there is a relationship between changes in unemployment and in temporary employment. Certain countries such as Denmark, Ireland, Finland and the United Kingdom, which recorded a decrease in the unemployment rate for several consecutive years, also recorded a decline in the level of temporary employment. Yet an improvement in the employment situation in Spain was not associated with a decrease in temporary employment. Indeed, in Portugal, the opposite occurred as a fall in the unemployment rate was accompanied by a surge in temporary employment.

Figure A11: Trends in percentages of employees aged 25-64 with temporary jobs, by level of qualification and by country, 1992-2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Belgium, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and **Bulgaria**: A change in survey characteristics (that occurred in 1993 in Italy, 1998 in Portugal, 1999 in Belgium, Poland and Finland, 2001 in Sweden and Bulgaria and 2002 in Latvia and Lithuania) limits the meaningful comparison of data from the preceding and subsequent period respectively in each case.

Germany: 2002 data on high education attainment (ISCED 5-6) are provisional.

Poland: 1999 data relate to the first quarter of the year.

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are included as ISCED level 0-2 qualifications.

Explanatory note

A job may be considered temporary if both the employer and employee agree that it is terminated in accordance with objective criteria such as a precise date, completion of a particular task, or the return of another worker who was temporarily replaced. A fixed-term contract of employment generally specifies the arrangements under which it is terminated.

National data are contained in the annexes.



C O N T E X T

MORE WOMEN HAVE TEMPORARY JOBS THAN MEN WITH THE SAME LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION

In 2002, 9.4 % of employees had a temporary job with the least qualified being the most affected. The EU average shows that this kind of employment was experienced by over 12 % of persons with a low level of qualification (i.e. those who at the most had satisfactorily completed lower secondary education) compared to less than 8 % of those who had satisfactorily completed upper secondary education or non-tertiary post-secondary education (corresponding here to the intermediate level). The proportion is 10 % in the case of tertiary education graduates. However, the European average conceals highly contrasting situations from one country to the next (Figure A12a).

In 2002, more women found themselves in temporary employment than men with the same level of qualification in a majority of countries. In the EU-25, differences between men and women in this respect rise with the level of qualification. This difference ranges from 0.5 percentage points for the least qualified to 4.1 percentage points in the case of tertiary education graduates.

Of those countries for which all data are available, only Hungary and Poland have proportionally more men than women with a temporary job irrespective of the level of qualification concerned. In other countries (Germany, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Romania), this situation is apparent solely in the case of certain categories of the active population.

Additional notes (Figure A12)

Germany: 2002 data on high (ISCED 5 -6) education attainment are provisional.

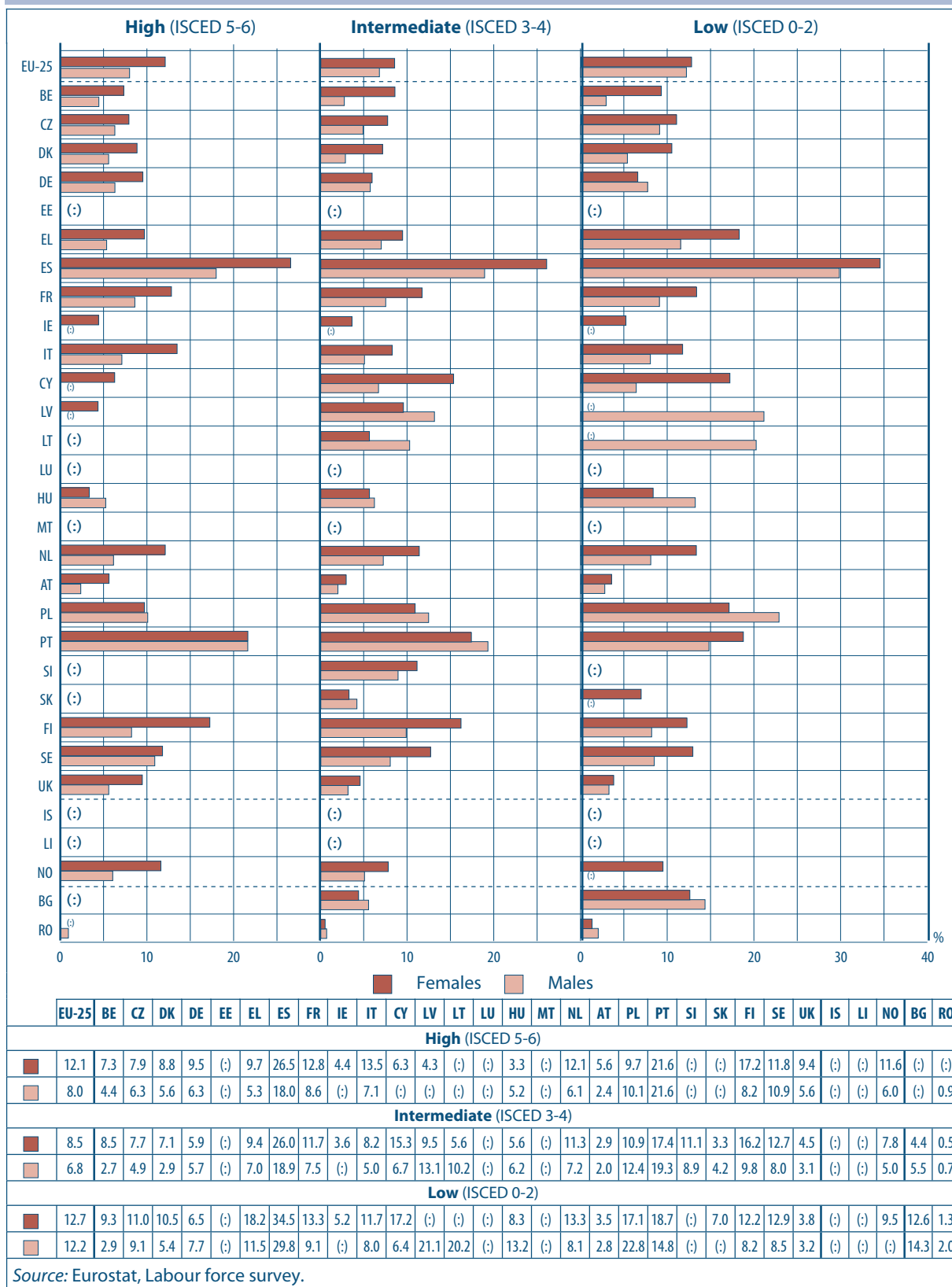
United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are included as ISCED level 0-2 qualifications.

Explanatory note

A job may be considered temporary if both the employer and employee agree that it is terminated in accordance with objective criteria such as a precise date, completion of a particular task, or the return of another worker who was temporarily replaced. A fixed-term contract of employment generally specifies the arrangements under which it is terminated.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

Figure A12: Percentage of employees aged 25-64 with temporary jobs, by level of qualification and by sex, 2002

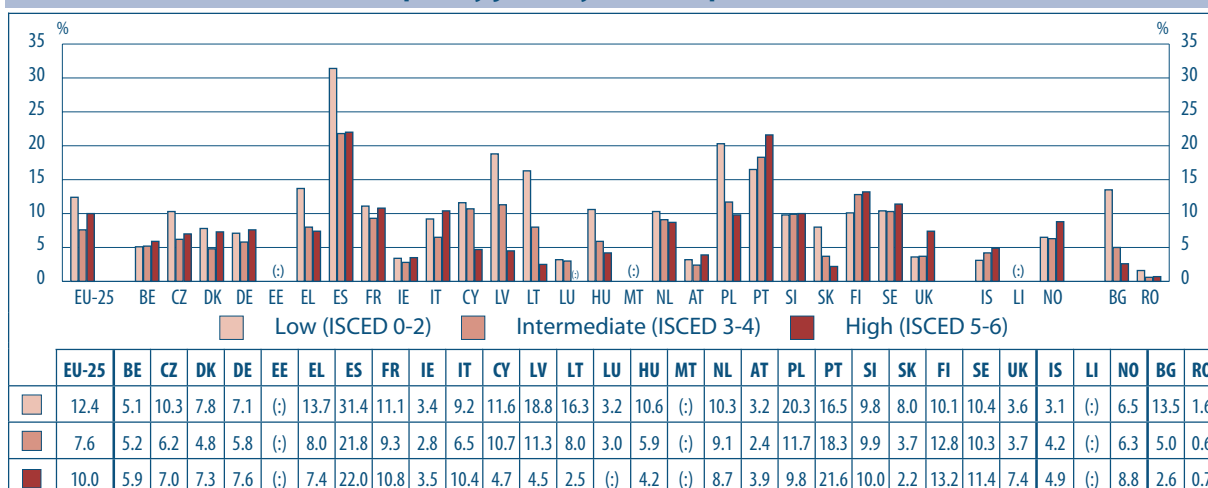


ON AVERAGE IN 2002, THE LEAST QUALIFIED PEOPLE HELD MORE TEMPORARY JOBS

Although in 2002, 9.4 % of employees had a temporary job in the EU-25, employment was more insecure for women and for those with the lowest level of qualifications (Figure A12). The EU average indicates that over 12 % of people with low qualifications (i.e. those who had done no more than complete lower secondary education) were temporarily employed, as opposed to under 8 % of those who had successfully completed upper secondary education or non-tertiary post-secondary education (intermediate level). The corresponding percentage for graduates was 10 %. However, the EU average conceals situations that vary very markedly from one country to the next. Some countries recorded temporary employment levels of under 5 % regardless of qualification levels, namely Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria, Iceland and Romania.

In all countries (except Slovenia), the percentage of employees with a temporary job varied very significantly depending on their level of qualification.

Figure A12a: Percentage of employees aged 25-64 with temporary jobs, by level of qualification, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Germany: 2002: data on high (ISCED 5-6) education attainment are provisional.

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are included as ISCED level 0-2 qualifications.

Explanatory note

A job may be considered temporary if both the employer and employee agree that it is terminated in accordance with objective criteria such as a precise date, completion of a particular task, or the return of another worker who was temporarily replaced. A fixed-term contract of employment generally specifies the arrangements under which it is terminated.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

In a first group of countries (Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovakia and Bulgaria), consisting mainly of new Member States, the percentage of employees with a temporary job decreased as qualification levels rose. In Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Slovakia and Bulgaria, qualifications appear to be a decisive factor in lowering the level of temporary employment. In these countries, graduates account for a share of temporary employment which is between 2.5 and 6.5 less



C O N T E X T

than in the case of the least qualified employees (i.e. those who have done no more than complete lower secondary education).

In the second group of countries (Belgium, Portugal, Finland, the United Kingdom and Iceland), the least qualified employees are proportionally the smallest group to occupy temporary jobs, followed by those with an intermediate level of qualification. By contrast, a greater proportion of those with tertiary education qualifications hold temporary jobs than those in the other two qualification categories.

In the final category of countries, relatively fewer employees with upper secondary education or non-tertiary post-secondary education (intermediate level) qualifications hold temporary jobs than those in the other categories. This proportion is under 10 % in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, France, Ireland, Italy, Austria, Norway and Romania. In Sweden, it stands at slightly over 10 % and, in Spain, still corresponds to a relative minority although it reaches over 20 %.

In over half of the countries for which data was available, people who were least qualified accounted for the greatest relative proportion of those in temporary employment, which reached its highest level of over 31 % in Spain. By contrast, those with an intermediate level of qualification were relatively least affected by temporary employment in many countries.



ORGANISATION

SECTION I – STRUCTURES

A WIDE VARIETY OF STRUCTURAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR PRE- AND POST-COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Similarities and differences in the organisational structure of European education systems are illustrated in the diagrams for each country in Figure B1 which covers all forms of mainstream educational provision from pre-primary level (in institutions for which ministries of education or other ministries are responsible) to tertiary education, with the exception of doctoral programmes, which are not shown here.

At **pre-primary level**, children in half of all European countries are initially admitted to the education system (in institutions for which ministries of education are responsible) at the age of 3 or 4. In a few countries (Belgium, Estonia, Spain, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Sweden and Iceland), the very youngest children may attend school even earlier. Before reaching the age of 6 in Denmark, Germany (in the majority of *Länder*), Austria, Finland and Norway, children are catered for solely in institutions for which a ministry other than the education ministry is responsible. They are admitted to this provision from the age of three onwards, or even earlier in some countries.

Attendance at a pre-primary educational institution is optional in most countries in that parents may enrol their child at one if they wish. As a rule, education becomes compulsory at the age of 5 or 6 and generally corresponds to the point of entry to primary school, except in Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary and the Netherlands. In Ireland and the Netherlands, whose education systems have no pre-primary level as such, children may enter primary school 'infant classes' and an optional year of *basisonderwijs*, respectively, from 4 years of age. In Luxembourg, attendance in the last two years of pre-primary education (*Spillschoul*) is compulsory. In Hungary, children aged 5 must take part in school activities preparing them for their entrance to school. In three Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland and Sweden), as well as in Estonia, Poland (until 2003/04), Bulgaria and Romania (also until 2003/04), education does not become compulsory until the age of 7.

In the great majority of countries, **full-time compulsory education lasts nine or ten years** and continues until pupils are aged at least 15 or 16. However, full-time compulsory education lasts 11 years in Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland), 12 years in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) and 13 years in Hungary.

The **path through school** is generally the same for all pupils until the end of lower secondary education or, in other words, until they are aged 14 or 15. They continue with a common core curriculum until the age of 16 in Spain, Poland, the United Kingdom and Romania (in the reformed system). In several countries, this common-core general education is provided within a single structure covering the whole of compulsory education, until the age of 15 in Portugal and Slovenia and 16 in all the Nordic countries and Estonia.

However, in some countries parents have to choose a particular branch or type of schooling at the beginning of lower secondary education for their children. This happens at the age of 10 in the majority of *Länder* in Germany and Austria, 11 in Liechtenstein and 12 in Luxembourg. In the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, compulsory education occurs within a single structure until pupils are aged 14 or 15. However, at certain stages from the age of 10 onwards, pupils in these countries may enter separate secondary schools providing both lower and upper secondary education.



ORGANISATION

**Figure B1: The structure of education systems
from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03**

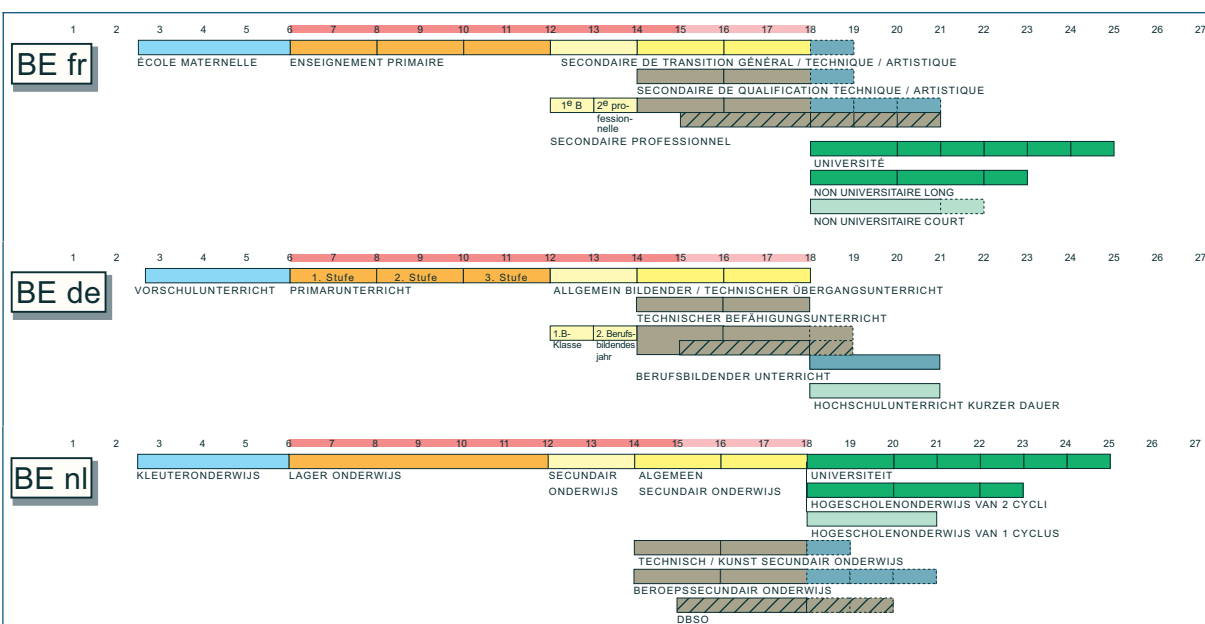
Explanatory note

The ages shown here correspond to the 'normal' ages of admission to courses and their duration. Early or late entrance, extended school careers resulting from pupils having to repeat years, or breaks in schooling are not taken into account in these illustrations and notes. No maximum ages are given for post-secondary and tertiary education.

The statistical data are structured by educational level in accordance with the latest International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED – UOE, 1997 edition). These ISCED levels do not always correspond to the levels of education as defined in the various countries (and described in the diagram). In such instances, ISCED allocations of 0, 1 and 2 have been included in the diagram. These details are required above all for those countries that provide compulsory education in a single structure with no formal distinction between primary education (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2).

Only so-called 'education-oriented' pre-primary institutions which have to employ staff with qualifications in education are shown in the diagram, irrespective of whether or not they are under the responsibility of the ministry of education. Day nurseries, playgroups and day care centres (in which the staff are not required to hold a qualification in education) are not shown here. Neither is provision for special education, which is subject to separate organisational arrangements.

This figure does not show advanced research programmes at doctoral level (ISCED level 6). Detailed information on these programmes, together with further information on programmes at ISCED level 5, may be found in Eurydice (2005) ⁽¹⁾.



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

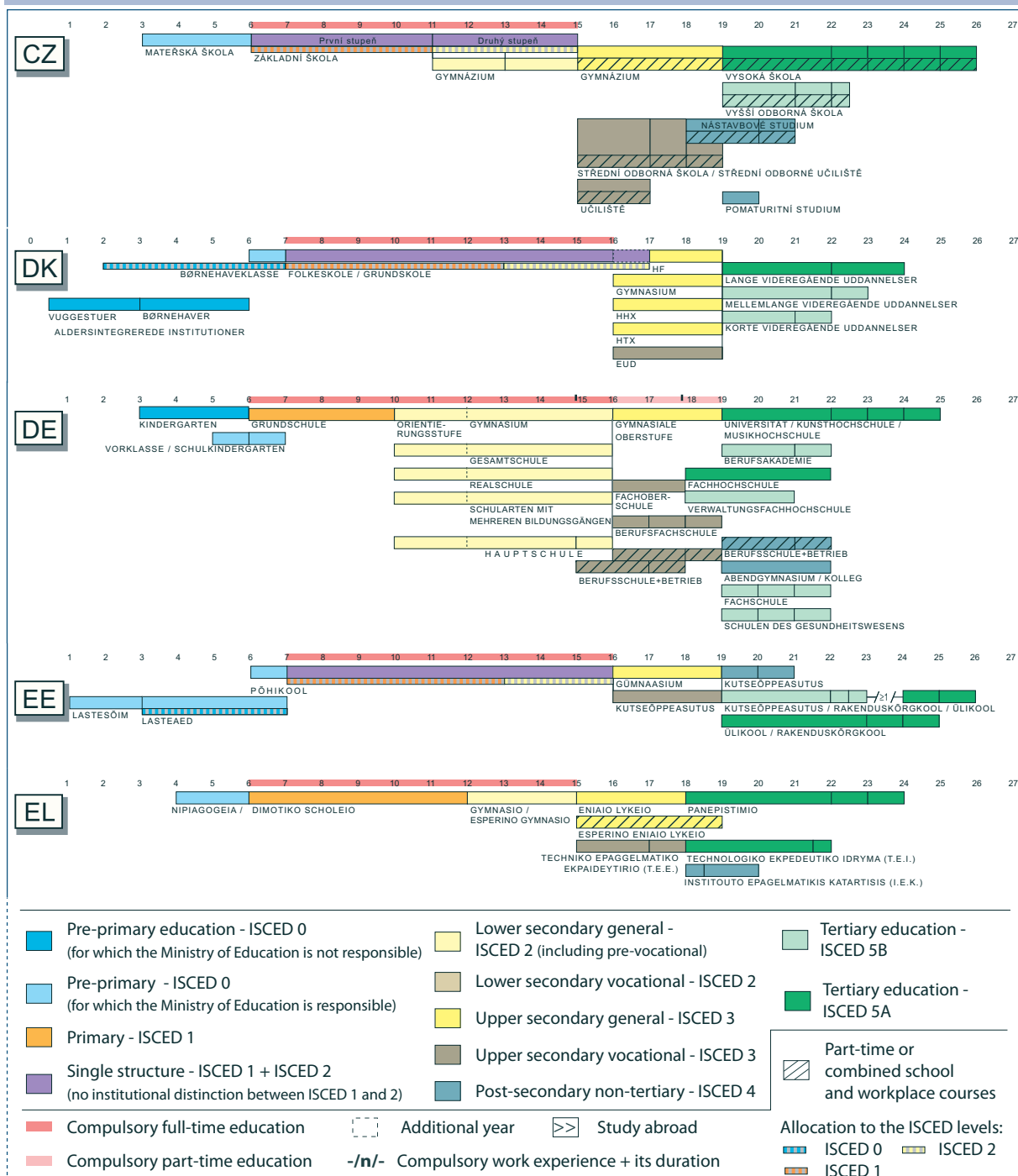
Belgium: Full-time compulsory education ends at the age of 16 for pupils who have not completed the first stage of secondary education.

Belgium (BE de): Since 1999, only children aged 3 on 31 December of the ongoing school year have been admitted to pre-primary school.

⁽¹⁾ *Focus on the Structure of Higher Education in Europe – 2004/05: National Trends in the Bologna Process*. Brussels: Eurydice, 2005.

SECTION I – STRUCTURES

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

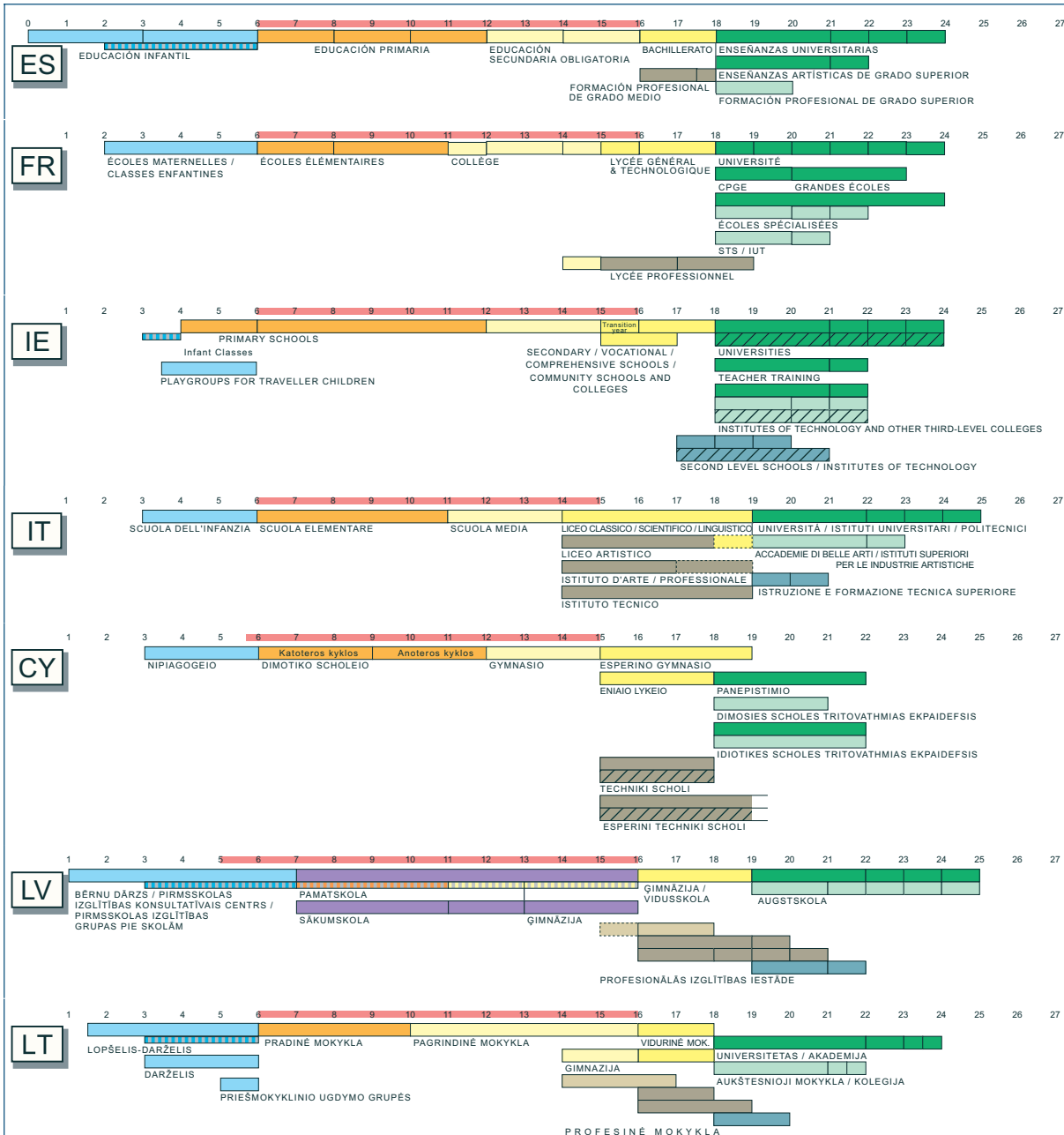
Germany: In some *Länder*, *Vorklassen* are provided for children aged 5. In most other *Länder*, *Vorklassen* or *Schulkindergärten* are provided for children of compulsory school age who do not have the maturity required to enter primary education.

Greece: The 2001 law concerning technological education institutions (TEIs) sets the length of the period of study at four years; three and a half years remains the minimum duration of training. These institutions are now considered to be at ISCED level 5A.



ORGANISATION

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Spain: The *Enseñanzas artísticas de grado superior* are included in a broader generic category (called *Enseñanzas de régimen especial de grado superior*).

Ireland: ISCED 1997 classifies *infant classes* as ISCED level 1. Only *Early Start schools* are regarded as ISCED 0. Since the 2002/03 school year, compulsory education has ended at the age of 16 instead of 15.

Italy: The reform of the university system came into effect in the 2001/02 academic year.

Cyprus: From 2004/05 onwards, one year of pre-primary education (*prodimitiki*) is compulsory.

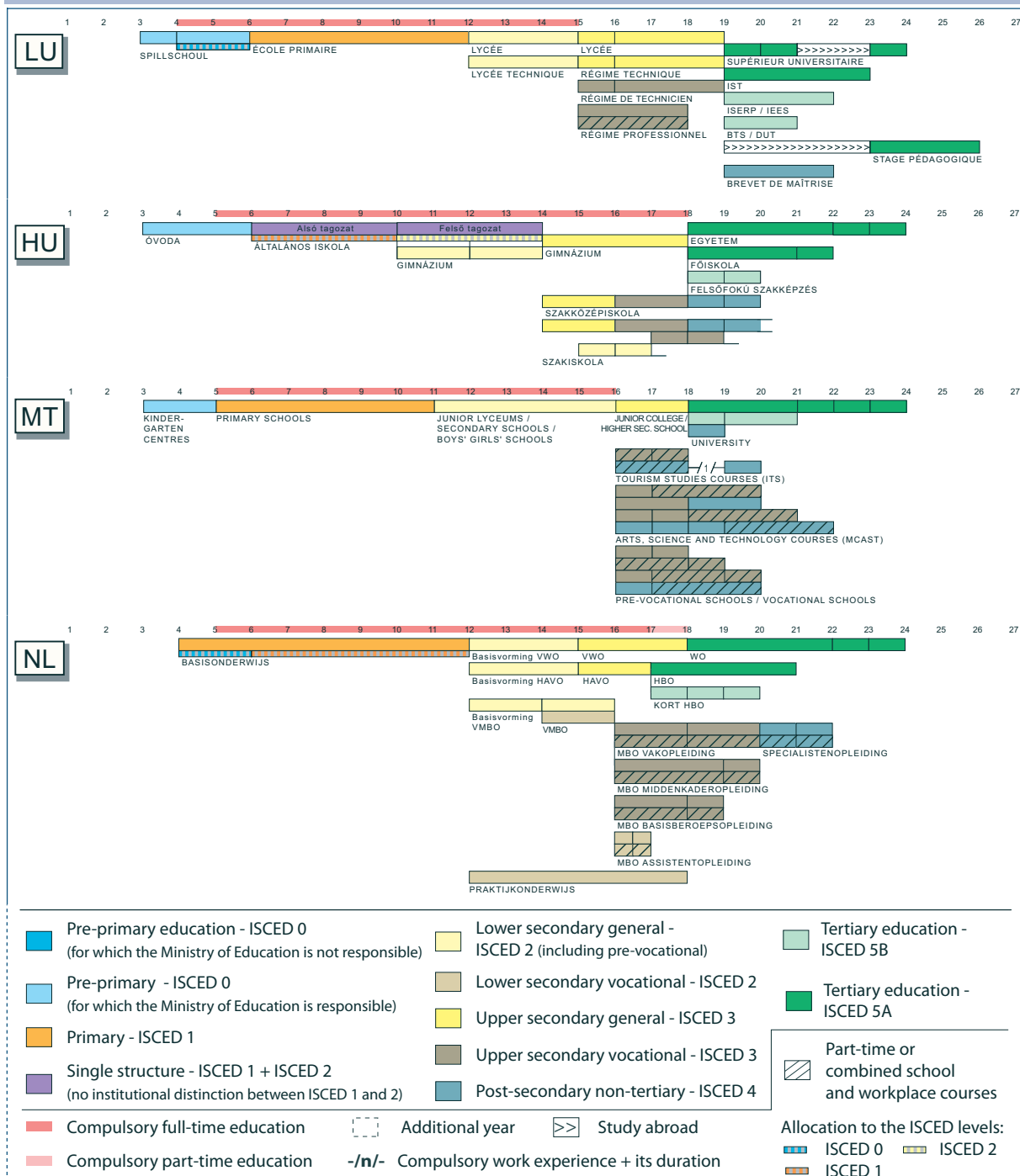
Latvia: Pupils without a certificate of basic education by the age of 15 may take the appropriate courses up to the age of 18 within the curriculum for basic vocational education.

Lithuania: The current legislation stipulates either 6 or 7 as the age for starting compulsory education. From 2003/04, the revised Law on Education stipulates the age of 7.



SECTION I – STRUCTURES

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Luxembourg: Some municipalities offer educational provision once children reach the age of 3.

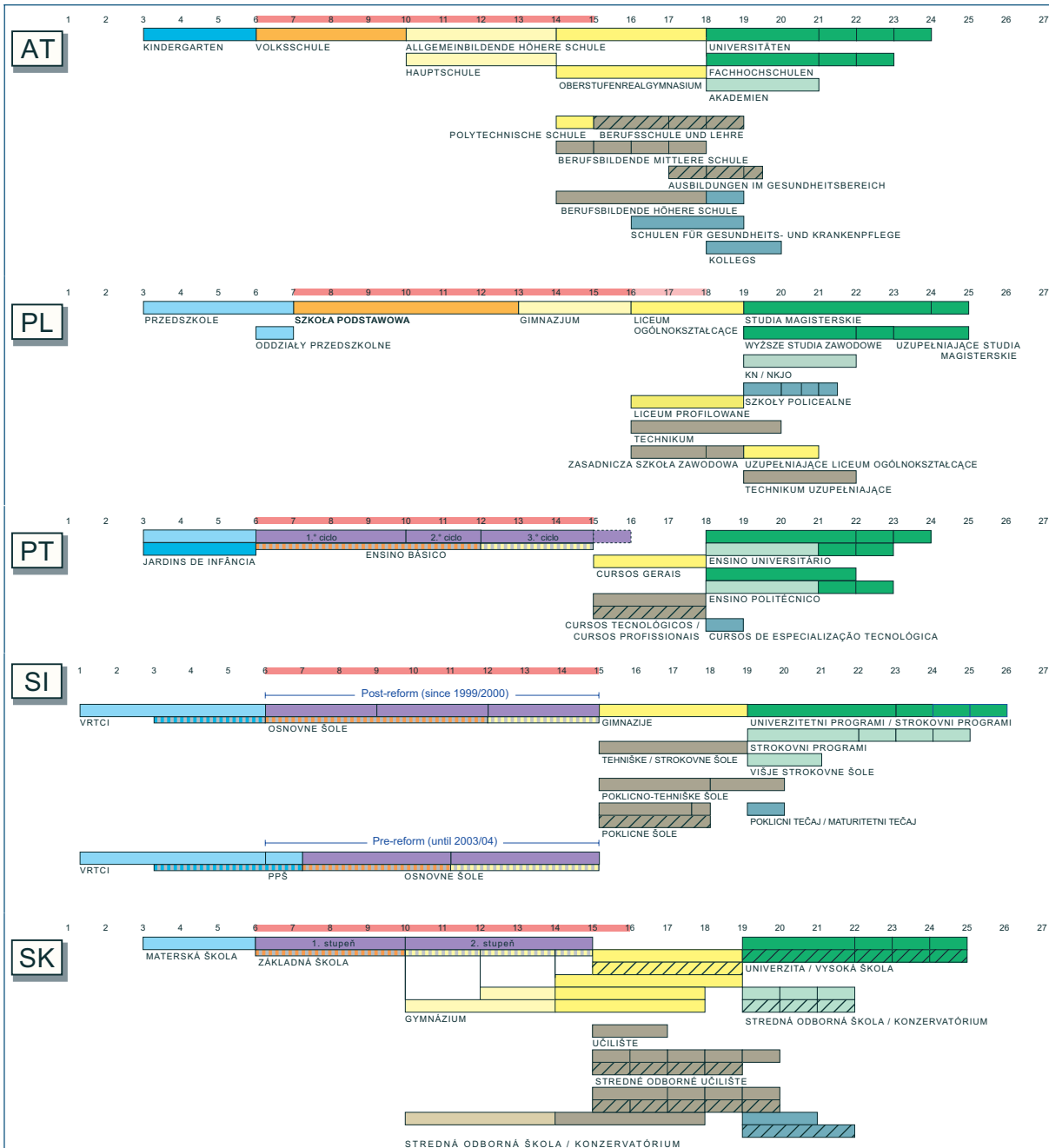
Malta: The Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology (MCAST), is gradually taking over responsibility for all vocational training. It enrolled its first students in 2001/02.

Netherlands: There is no pre-primary education in the strict sense. The Figure shows the situation in the first years of *Basisonderwijs* (primary school). Compulsory education ends at the end of the school year in which pupils turn 16 and have followed 12 years of compulsory education.



ORGANISATION

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

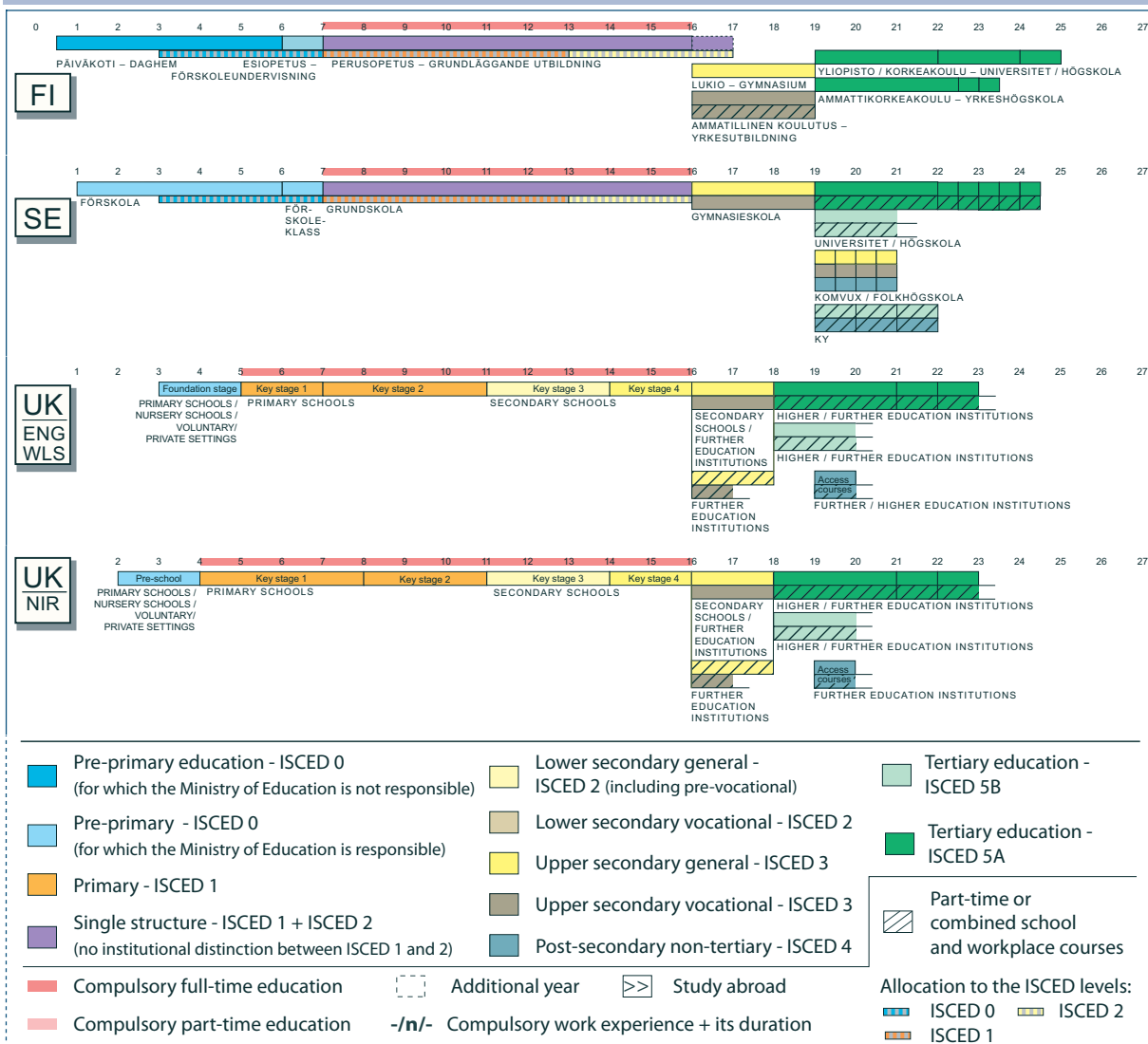
Poland: From 2004/05 onwards, one year of pre-primary education is compulsory.

Portugal: Adolescents aged 15 who have unsuccessfully completed nine years of compulsory schooling may select *cursos profissionais* as a 'second chance' educational opportunity.

Slovenia: It is possible to receive part-time education at all levels. ISCED level 4 programmes are offered by upper secondary schools and are classified at this level only in international statistics.

SECTION I – STRUCTURES

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Finland: A new second-cycle polytechnic degree at ISCED level 5A, which requires at least three years of work experience after the first-cycle degree, has been introduced within the polytechnics (*ammattikorkeakoulu*) for a trial period lasting until 2005.

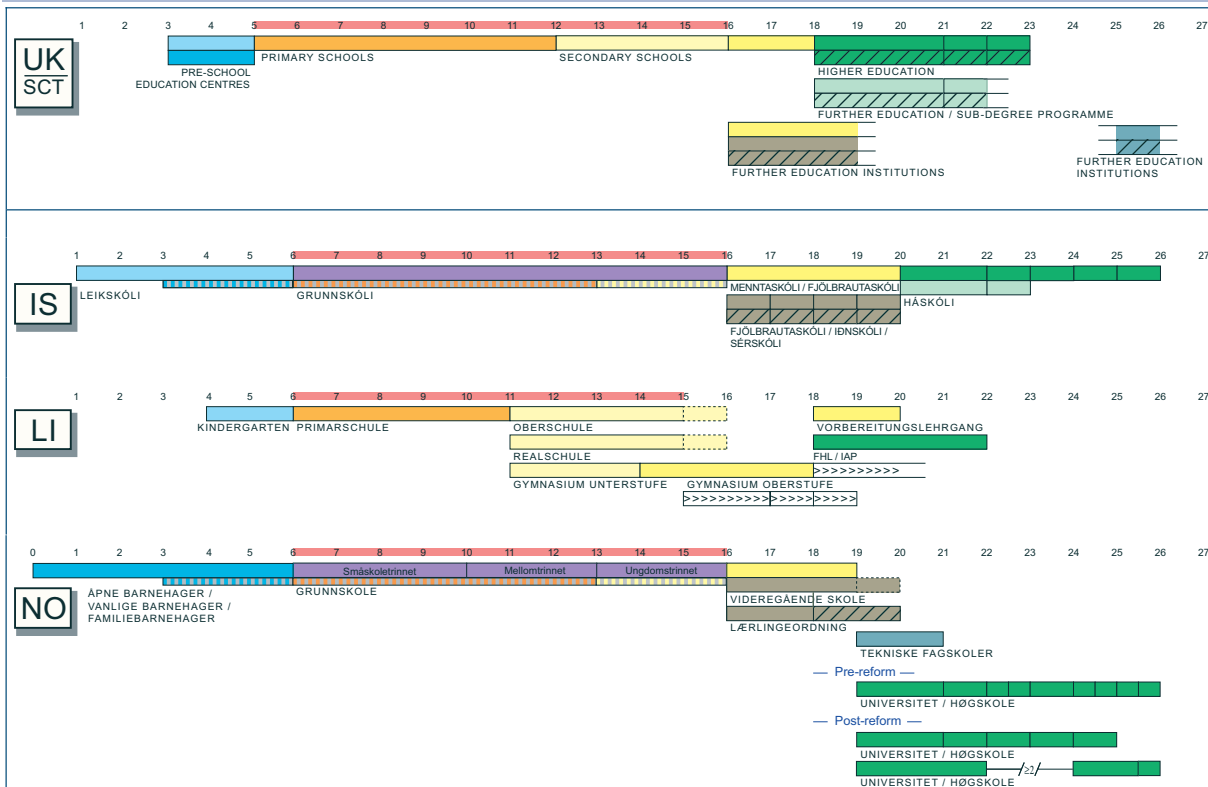
Sweden: Provision at the KY, *Komvux* and *Folkhögskola* includes some courses that are not at ISCED level 4. The minimum student age limit, as well as the duration of training itself, may vary.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Voluntary and private pre-primary settings (day nurseries, pre-school groups, playgroups) are considered here to be education-oriented as they are required to provide an educational programme which follows government guidelines as a condition of funding. In Wales, an 'early years curriculum' is currently provided for children aged 3 to 5 and an extended foundation phase will be introduced in 2008. Northern Ireland will also be introducing an extended foundation stage from 2007. In England and Wales, as children attain compulsory school age at different points in the school year, schools provide a *reception class* (ISCED 0) for children who reach compulsory school age before the start of *key stage 1* (ISCED 1); places in this class may also be available for 4-year-olds for all or part of the year. Secondary schools in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, in partnership with further education colleges and training organisations, now also offer some vocational and work-related courses to 14-16 year olds. Access courses prepare mature students (19+ but typically older) without formal qualifications for tertiary education.



ORGANISATION

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Iceland: Since the 2001/02 school year, additional general courses have been drawn up for vocational upper secondary programmes, enabling pupils to obtain the *Stúdentspróf*.

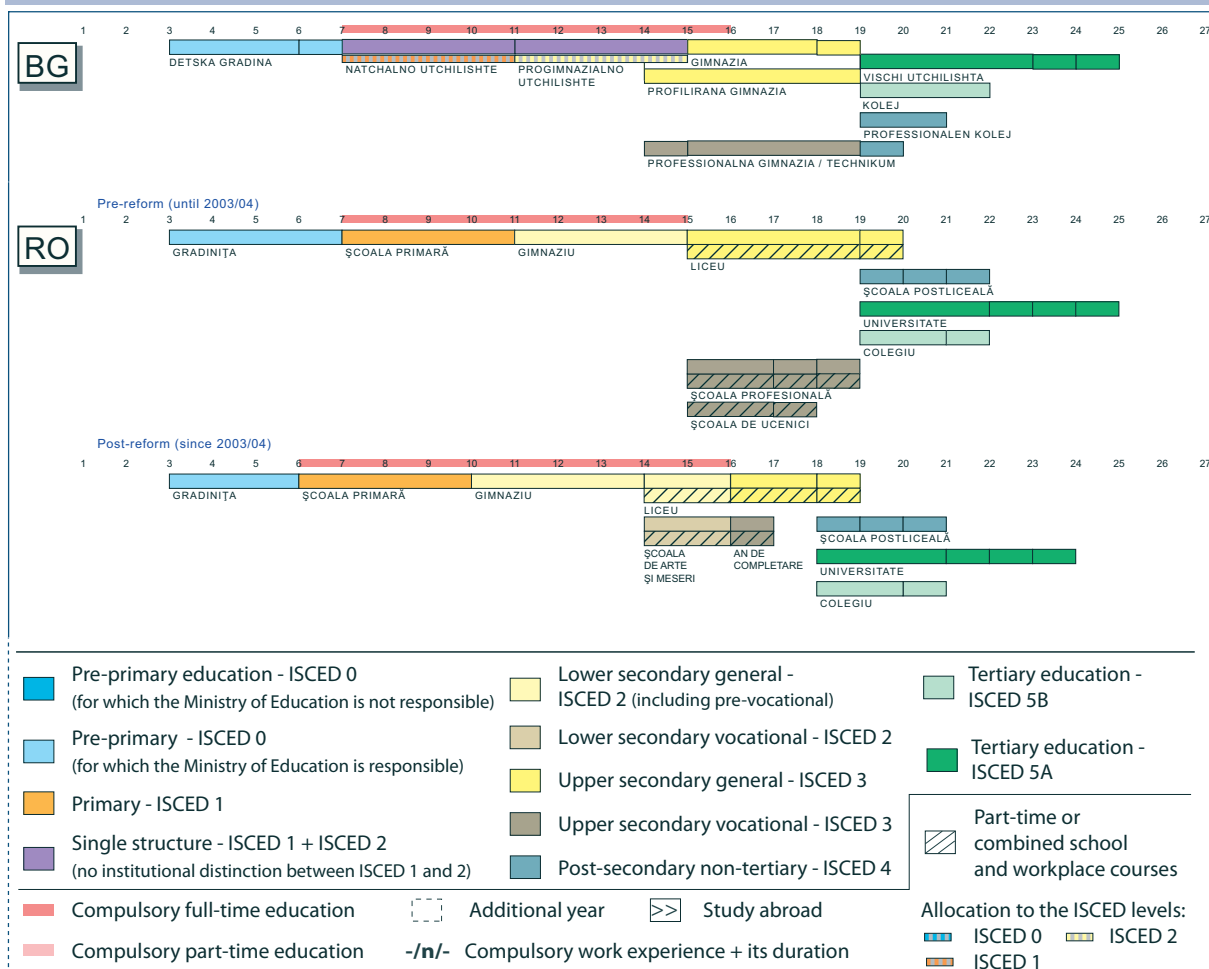
Liechtenstein: Following a reform of the education system, the age of admission to post-compulsory education and the length of courses have been altered since 2001/02. The duration of provision in the *Gymnasium (gymnasiale Unterstufe)* has been reduced by a year in lower secondary education. After their eighth year at school, *Gymnasium* pupils have to do at least the first year of *gymnasialen Oberstufe* or the final year of *Realschule* in order to have completed their compulsory education. The *Vorbereitungslehrgang* has been renamed *Berufsmittelschule* and now has a new curriculum with a new structure, lasting two instead of one and a half years.

The **end of full-time compulsory education** often coincides with the transition from lower to upper secondary education, or the completion of education within the single structure. However for Belgium, France, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Liechtenstein (the *Gymnasium*) and Bulgaria, the transition from lower to upper secondary education occurs one or two years before the end of full-time compulsory education.

Beyond the age of 16, young people are obliged to continue education or training on at least a part-time basis for two years in Belgium, Hungary (both years full-time) and Poland, and generally for three years in Germany beyond the age of 15 or 16. In the Netherlands, part-time compulsory education lasts one year. In these countries, compulsory continues into upper secondary education or is completed at the end of this educational level.

In **upper secondary education**, different types of provision have been established in all countries. Whatever they are called, they can be divided into two major categories, namely general education programmes that prepare the student for tertiary level studies, and vocational education programmes for qualifications geared to both professional activity and further studies.

SECTION I – STRUCTURES

Figure B1 (continued): The structure of education systems from pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 5), 2002/03

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Bulgaria: Since 2002/03, the *Technikum* no longer offer vocational education programmes.

In many countries, these different types of programme are organised as separate branches and the student must opt for one branch or the other. In other countries, both general and vocational programmes are offered within the same framework and sometimes within the same institution. In Ireland, courses covering aspects of both general and pre-vocational education are offered alongside general education courses. Vocational and general courses are offered by the same institutions in Sweden and the United Kingdom (particularly in the case of *further education institutions*). Their students may take either vocational or general courses, or combine the two.

Several countries offer **post-secondary education**, which is **not regarded as tertiary-level provision**. The students concerned have generally completed a course at upper secondary level without being required to hold a formal upper secondary qualification in order to enrol. Courses in post-secondary education generally last between six months and two years, and are frequently offered on a part-time basis. Some of them give access to the labour market, while others are a stepping stone to tertiary education.

The diagram indicates the notional age of admission to **tertiary education** and the usual minimum length of the courses on offer. The information is intended as no more than a guide given that, while admission to tertiary education is theoretically possible from the age of 18 or 19 onwards depending on the country concerned, the age at which young people actually embark on studies may vary. Furthermore, students are often free to study for a greater number of years or on a part-time basis.

At this level of education, all countries offer **programmes of a broadly theoretical nature** (ISCED level 5A) providing students with the qualifications needed to secure access to professions calling for high skills, or to advanced research programmes at doctoral level (ISCED level 6) which are not shown here. Except in the case of Greece and Finland, tertiary education in Europe also covers other programmes (ISCED level 5B) of a **more practical, technical or vocational nature**, which are often shorter than the foregoing theoretically oriented programmes.

Courses with an essentially theoretical emphasis leading to a first qualification generally last at least three years. When the award of such a qualification either involves the prior acquisition of a qualification with a strong practical emphasis, or corresponds to an intermediate stage naturally leading on to a further qualification, the minimum duration of the course entailed may be less than three years.

In all countries and in accordance with the reforms that are part of the Bologna Process, the first qualification (broadly corresponding to a *Bachelor's degree*), which tends to be of similar length (around three years) in most countries, is often followed by a second qualification (corresponding to a *Master's degree*).

The education systems of several European countries are currently undergoing **reform** or have been restructured since 2000. These reforms are concerned with extending the period of compulsory education or restructuring the path through school (including vocational or pre-vocational education), or with the length and structure of tertiary education courses.

For example, full-time **compulsory education has been extended** by one year in Ireland, Italy as well as Cyprus and Poland (both from 2004/05) and Slovakia, and by two years in Latvia, Hungary and Romania (from 2003/04 onwards).

Reforms of the **path through school** affect different levels of education, depending on the country concerned. In Poland, a system of primary education lasting six years and lower secondary education lasting three years has replaced the single structure since the beginning of the present decade (2000-2010). In Slovenia, the last year of pre-primary education is now part of the single structure. In the Netherlands, Finland and Hungary, reform is concerned with the organisation of secondary education.

As regards **tertiary education**, Luxembourg is establishing a university-type structure that is expected to commence activity in the 2004/05 academic year. Finally, in order to satisfy the criteria developed by the Bologna Process (with a view to establishing greater compatibility between systems of tertiary education on the basis of two main study 'cycles'), reforms have been initiated in all countries and, in most cases, are now being implemented. In Estonia, Finland and Norway, certain paths through tertiary education are distinctive in offering access to a second study cycle only when students have acquired a specified period of professional experience, subsequent to successful completion of the first cycle of studies in the field concerned.

THREE MAIN PATTERNS OF PRE-PRIMARY PROVISION

There is a wide range of facilities that the youngest children in Europe may attend before entering primary school. Institutions that have to recruit staff with qualifications in education have been placed in the category of education-oriented institutions, irrespective of whether or not they are the responsibility of the ministry of education. The age of admission varies from one country to the next (Figure B1).

In pre-primary institutions that are the responsibility of the education ministry and which thus belong to the education system as such, staff responsible for a group of children always hold specialist qualifications in education. By contrast, in other forms of provision that at least partly come under authorities or ministries other than the education ministry, staff members responsible for educational activity may not necessarily hold a qualification in education. This is the case in day nurseries, playgroups or day care centres which usually take in very young children.

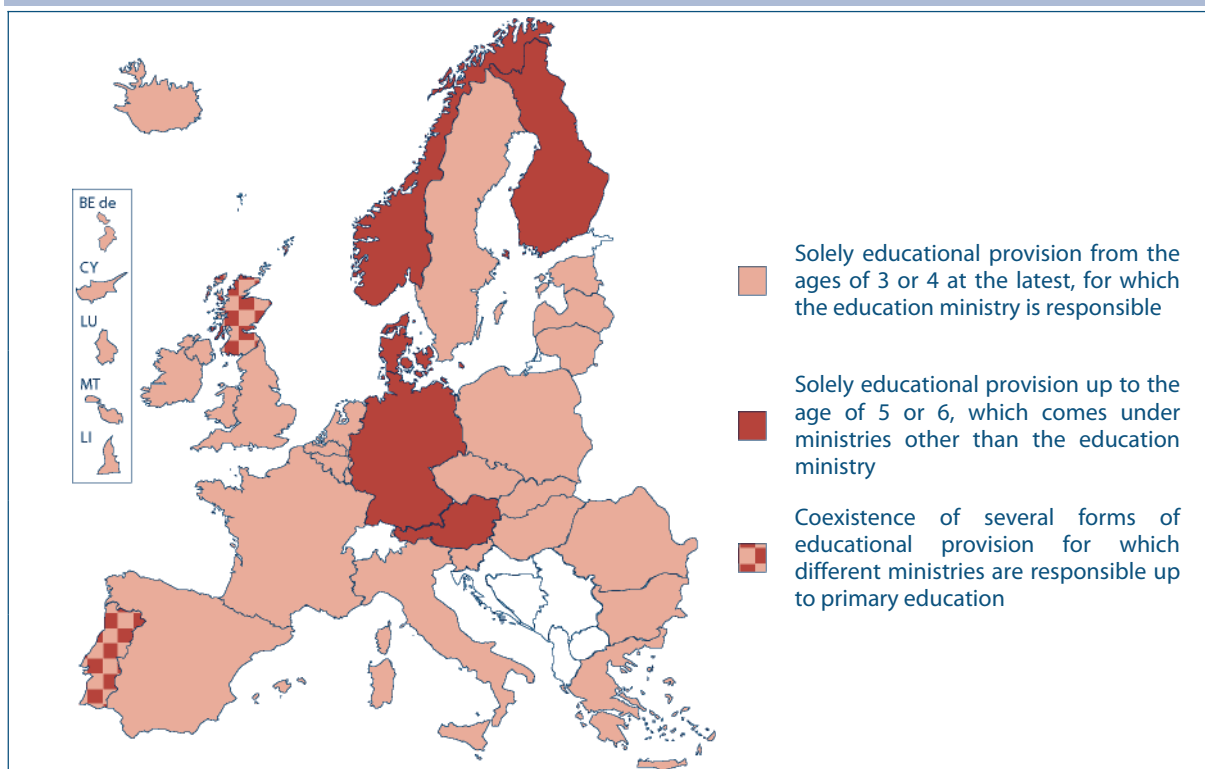
In general, education-oriented institutions enrol children from the age of 3 onwards. In Denmark, Finland and Norway, all types of pre-primary establishment catering for children from a very early age must employ staff with qualifications in education.

While in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), staff in education-oriented non-school institutions are not required to have a teaching qualification, it is recommended that those receiving funding from the education authorities should employ at least one qualified teacher.

Attendance at a pre-primary institution is voluntary in all countries (Figure B1) with the exception of Latvia, where the last two years of pre-primary education are compulsory, Luxembourg, where the *Spillschoul* is compulsory from the age of 4, Hungary, where the final year of *óvoda* is compulsory for children aged 5, and Slovenia where (until 2003/04) attendance was compulsory from the age of 6. In Poland, the pre-primary class (*oddziały przedszkolne*) or the final year of pre-primary education (*przedszkole*) are compulsory for children aged 6 with effect from 2004/05. In the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), compulsory primary education starts at the age of 4.

In the majority of countries, children aged under 3 are provided for in day nurseries or day care centres that come under the ministry of youth, childhood provision or social affairs. However, in several countries the structure for which the education ministry is responsible is the only source of formal provision for children from the age of one to one and a half (Estonia, Spain, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Sweden and Iceland), two to two and a half (Belgium, France and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)) or three (Italy, the United Kingdom and most new Member States). A wide range of educational provision is available in the other countries and children go to school later. There are pre-primary classes for 6-year-olds in Denmark and Finland. In most of the German *Länder*, Austria and Norway, school provision starts with compulsory primary education. In Denmark and Sweden, parents may opt to enrol their children in the *folkeskole* and the *grundskola* respectively from the age of 6.

Figure B2: Ages and main patterns of admission to pre-primary education-oriented institutions (ISCED 0), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Netherlands: There is no pre-primary education in the strict sense. The Figure shows the situation in the first years of *basisonderwijs* (primary school).

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Voluntary and private pre-primary settings (day nurseries, pre-school groups, playgroups) are considered here to be education-oriented as they are required to provide an educational programme which follows government guidelines as a condition of funding.

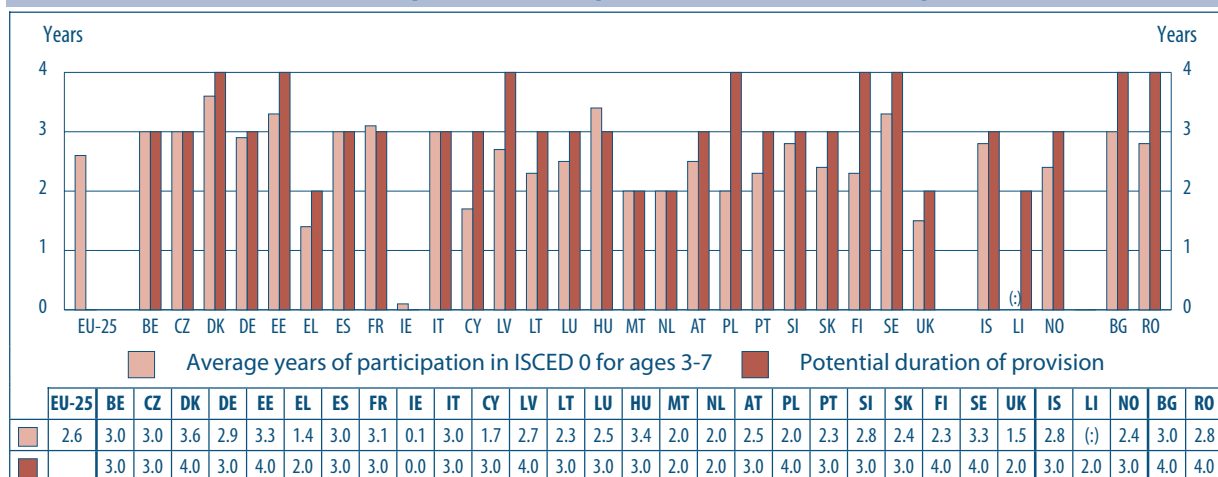
Explanatory note

Only so-called 'education-oriented' pre-primary institutions or settings, in which staff (responsible for a group of children) have to hold qualifications in education, are shown here, irrespective of whether those institutions or settings come under the ministry of education. Day care centres, day nurseries and playgroups (whose staff do not necessarily hold qualifications in education) are not included.

ON AVERAGE, THE ACTUAL DURATION OF PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IS SHORTER THAN THE POTENTIAL DURATION

In the majority of European countries, the average period during which children are enrolled in pre-primary education is shorter than the potential duration of provision. This average period may be influenced by various factors, such as the minimum age of admission to pre-primary provision, the age at which primary education becomes compulsory, and pre-primary education participation rates which in turn may depend on whether pre-primary institutions are free of charge and widespread throughout the country concerned. Thus the average enrolment period may be very short either because official provision itself is very short or because enrolment at the schools or other settings that offer it is uncommon.

Figure B3: Average length of time (in years) spent by children aged 3-7 in pre-primary education (ISCED 0) in comparison to the potential duration of this provision, 2001/02



Source: Eurydice, Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions.

Ireland: Only pupils in the publicly funded Early Start units are regarded as ISCED 0. Many children are enrolled in public health agency-funded and private pre-school settings at ISCED 0, and data are lacking for the most part.

Netherlands: In terms of educational structure, there is no pre-primary education in the strict sense. Children aged 4-6 enrolled in the first years of *basisonderwijs* (primary school) are considered to be at ISCED level 0 for the purpose of international statistical data collections.

Sweden: The pre-primary classes (*förskoleklass*) are included.

United Kingdom: The Figure relates solely to children enrolled in school institutions. Approximately a further 30 % of 3-year-olds are enrolled in education-oriented non-school institutions. Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

The average duration of children's attendance at an education-oriented institution is obtained by adding the participation rates for the different age groups from the ages of 3 to 7. For example, in Belgium the pre-primary participation rate for children aged 3 is 98.2 %, 99.2 % for those aged 4, 97.8 % for those aged 5, 4.8 % at the age of 6 and 0.2 % for 7-year-olds, so the average duration of participation in pre-primary education would equal $(0.982 + 0.992 + 0.978 + 0.048 + 0.002) \times 1 \text{ year} = 3.00 \text{ years}$.

The official duration of provision corresponds to the number of years – from the age of 3 onwards – during which pre-primary institutions may enrol children prior to their admission to primary school.

Only so-called 'education-oriented' pre-primary institutions or settings, in which staff (responsible for a group of children) have to hold qualifications in education, are shown here, irrespective of whether those institutions or settings come under the ministry of education. Day care centres, day nurseries and playgroups (whose staff do not necessarily hold qualifications in education) are not included.

In a few countries, the total period actually spent by children in pre-primary education is almost the same as the potential duration of provision, as in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Germany, Spain, France, Italy, Malta and the Netherlands (in the *basisonderwijs*). In some of these countries, such as Belgium, Spain, France and Italy, this is attributable to the very high participation rate among very young children in pre-primary settings (Figure C6) and the fact that access to pre-primary education is free of charge.

Most countries offer provision in pre-primary education to children aged under 3, with the exception of Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland) and Liechtenstein (Figure B1). In the eight countries where it is possible to attend pre-primary education for 4 years, the average duration of attendance ranges from only 2 years in Poland to 3.6 years in Denmark. In countries where it is possible to attend pre-primary education for 3 years, the corresponding average period ranges from 1.7 years in Cyprus to 3.4 years in Hungary.

Hungary is the only country where the actual length of time spent in pre-primary education exceeds the potential duration of provision, mainly because the preparatory year prior to entering primary education is compulsory. Furthermore, children in Hungary must have reached the age of six (at which compulsory education officially begins) by the end of May in the year they are supposed to start school. Thus many children who reach the age of 6 after 31 May tend to stay in pre-primary education for a further year and begin primary schooling only in the following year (although parents may apply for exemptions from this rule). When specified, this fixed date is always later in the year in other countries (Figure B4).

AGE IS THE MAIN CRITERION FOR ACCESS TO COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION

Two criteria – namely age and maturity – may determine whether children should be admitted to compulsory primary education. Age is the more widespread of these criteria since it applies to all countries, although the specific age by which children should be enrolled varies from one country to the next. However, in practice, it is possible in most countries for them to start primary school at an earlier age. In some countries also, the maturity of children is taken into account in deciding whether they should begin compulsory primary education. For further details on the participation rates of children with respect to age, see Figure C6.

It should be noted that in some countries, the beginning of compulsory education does not coincide with that of primary education (Figure B1). In three countries (Latvia, Luxembourg and Hungary), compulsory education begins at the pre-primary stage. It is compulsory for the last two years in Latvia and Luxembourg, and the last year in Hungary.

In three other countries, pupils can be admitted to primary school before compulsory education begins. This is the case in the first two years of primary school in Ireland (*infant classes*) and the first year of *basisonderwijs* in the Netherlands. It is also the case in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), where primary schools often provide places in the *reception class* for pre-compulsory pupils for all or part of the year before the start of *key stage 1*.

In almost all countries, compulsory primary education starts at the same time as the school year. In more than half of them, children must start school in the calendar year during which they reach the **compulsory age**. In some countries, the required age must have been reached before a date that normally precedes or coincides with the start of the school year. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), children born between September and February may either start school in the month of August preceding their fifth birthday or defer the beginning of school until the following August.

In some countries (as in the case of the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Hungary, Austria and Portugal), the notional age for admission to primary education must be reached prior to a specific date. Pupils born after the stipulated date have to wait until the following year before they can start compulsory schooling. In these countries, a certain percentage of children stay in pre-primary education beyond the notional age for completion (Figure C6). The difference should therefore not be regarded as indicative of possible learning difficulties.

In the majority of countries, the **maturity** of children is taken into account solely when parents want to enrol their child in primary school before the age of compulsory education. By contrast, maturity is an additional criterion taken into account for the admission of all children to compulsory primary school in Denmark, Germany, Austria, all new Member States (with the exception of Estonia) and Liechtenstein. Various procedures are used in different countries to assess children's maturity, including medical examinations, psychological examinations, aptitude tests, the opinion of the educational team and/or the future teacher, the opinion of the head teacher and of parents, etc.

**Figure B4: Admission to compulsory primary education:
date of reference period during calendar year when age must be reached, 2002/03**

Children must have reached the age for beginning compulsory primary education

➤ **at any date during the calendar year**

BE fr, BE de, BE nl, DK, EL, ES, FR, IE, IT, LV, LT, MT, NL, PL, SI, FI, SE, IS, NO, BG, RO

➤ **before or by a specific date**

CZ (1/9), **DE** (according to the *Land*, between 30/6 and 30/9), **EE** (1/10), **CY** (1/9), **LU** (15/9), **HU** (31/5), **AT** (31/8), **PT** (15/9),

SK (1/9), **UK-ENG/WLS** (31/8, 31/12, 31/3), **UK-NIR** (1/7), **UK-SCT** (between 1/3 and 1/8); **LI** (between 1/5 and 31/8)

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: The *Länder* may in certain circumstances allow children to start compulsory education during the school year. This flexibility enables schools to take children's maturity into account.

Italy: An experiment involving 250 primary schools was started by the Ministry of Education in 2002/03 with a view to reforming the education system. Children who had reached the age of 6 by 28 February 2003 were enrolled in the first class of primary school. The Decree for Implementation of the Law on Reform (No. 53 of 28 March 2003) was approved in 2003. With effect from 2004/05, children must have reached 6 years of age by 31 August of the calendar year in which they begin school. It will also be possible to enrol children who become 6 no later than 30 April in the following calendar year.

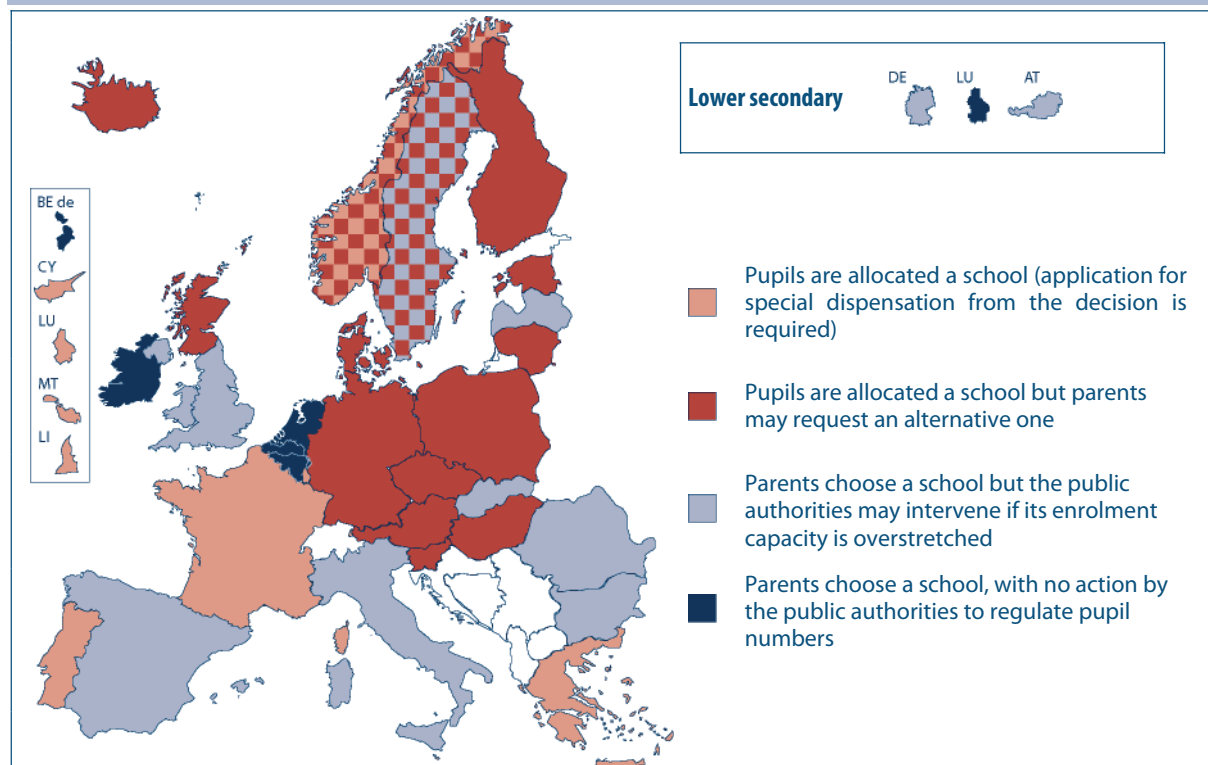
Netherlands: Compulsory education starts on the first school day of the month following the one in which the child turns 5.

Portugal: Children who have reached the age of 6 between 16 September and 31 December may also be admitted to *ensino básico* if a request is made by the parents or guardians at the school located in the pupil's area of residence, during the period established annually for enrolment.

THE FREEDOM TO CHOOSE A SCHOOL WITHIN THE PUBLIC SECTOR IS LIMITED IN MOST COUNTRIES

Pupils can be allocated to schools in different ways but parents may normally choose whether they send their children to public-sector or private schools. While in the case of the former, pupils may be allocated to a particular school by the public authorities, parents may sometimes freely choose their preferred school. However, when a school reaches its maximum enrolment capacity, the public authorities often channel pupils towards other schools.

**Figure B5: Parental freedom of choice of schools
for compulsory education in the public sector, 2002/03**



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: Some municipalities entitle parents to choose their preferred school (within the municipal area concerned).

Germany: In the case of secondary schools, the *Hauptschulen* and *Berufsschulen* have catchment areas.

Estonia: Parents may choose an alternative school but, if it has no vacant places, their children have to attend the school in which they were originally enrolled.

Ireland: Official pupil/teacher ratios and maximum class-size requirements may impact on a school's capacity to accept pupils. The onus is on parents to seek alternative placement.

Hungary: Parents may choose an alternative school (*általános iskola*) but, if the school capacity is reached before all local applicants are enrolled, applicants are redirected to another school in the same catchment area.

Netherlands: In primary education, a minority of schools administered by some municipalities have their own catchment areas.

Finland: Parents may choose another school solely if it is not already enrolled to capacity.

Sweden and Norway: The degree of parental choice varies from one municipality to the next.

United Kingdom (SCT): If parents express a preference for another particular school (known as a placing request) the education authority has a duty to grant it wherever possible.

In the majority of European countries, parents as well as the authorities may be in a position to influence decisions concerning the allocation of pupils to public-sector schools, although to a varying extent. In one third of all countries, pupils are allocated to a school but parents may choose an alternative one. In another third, parents choose a school but the public authorities may intervene if its enrolment capacity is overstretched.

Only in Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg (at lower secondary level) and the Netherlands can parents freely choose a school for their child with no interference whatever by the public authorities. Conversely, the authorities allocate pupils to schools with no scope for parental intervention (except in the event of special dispensation), in countries such as Greece, France, Cyprus, Luxembourg (primary level), Malta and Portugal. In doing so, the public authorities may take into account, for example, whether pupils (or their brothers or sisters) have previously attended the school, or the place of residence or work of their families, etc.

CRITERIA FOR PUPIL ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS ARE GEOGRAPHICAL, ACADEMIC OR PHILOSOPHICAL

According to replies from school heads in the PISA 2003 survey, a pupil's place of residence is a high priority factor or a prerequisite for enrolment in the majority of schools in many countries (the Nordic countries, several countries in the south, Germany and Poland).

In the other countries where the residence requirement is generally far less common, greater importance appears to be attached to the ability of pupils (as reflected in school reports or placement tests) as a prerequisite or high priority factor when they enrol (as in the German-speaking and Flemish Communities of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Hungary, the Netherlands, Slovakia and Liechtenstein). It should be noted that all these countries have several branches of secondary education (Figure B1), which may explain why ability is taken into account when pupils enrol.

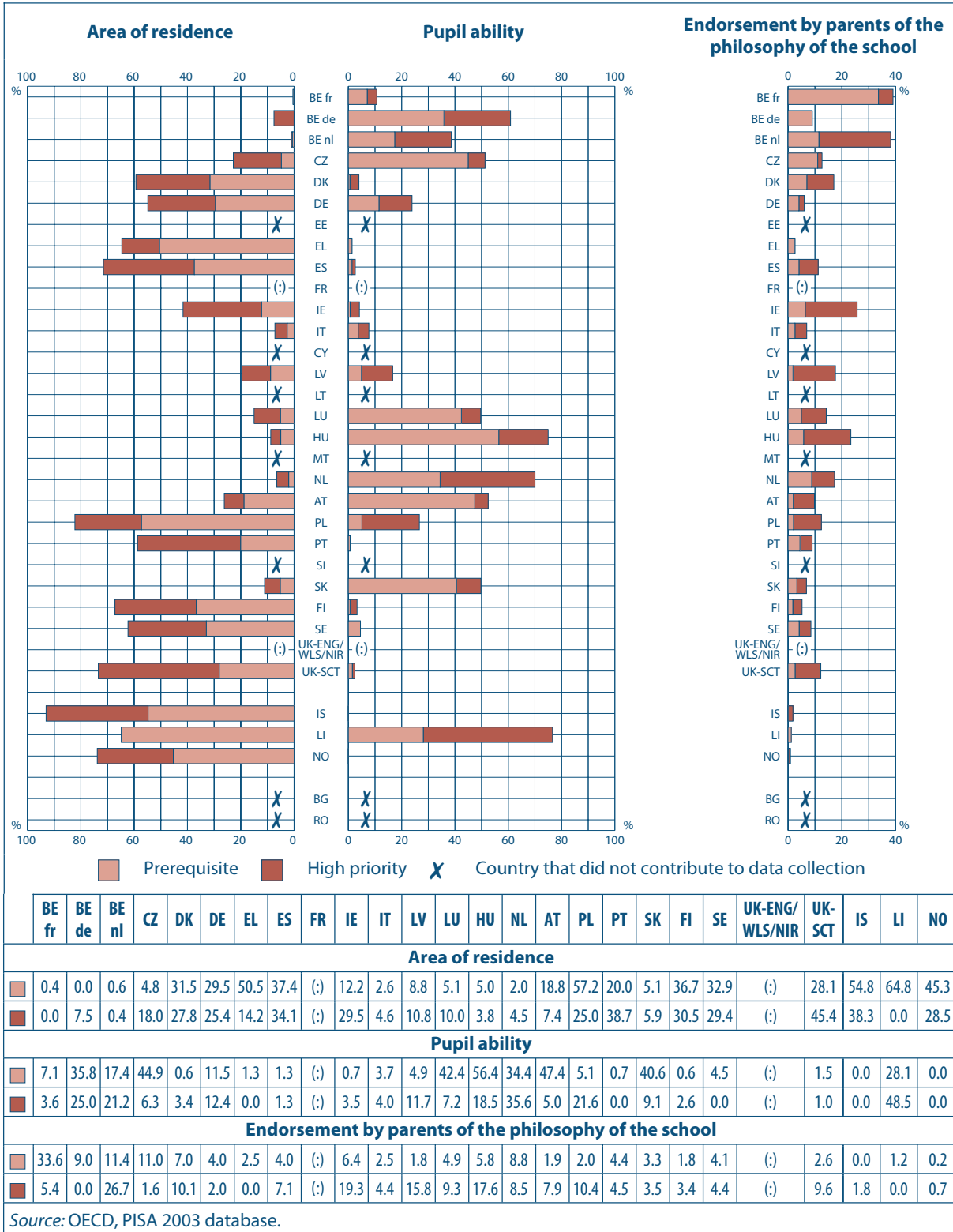
The French Community of Belgium and Italy are noteworthy for the fact that, according to their school heads, neither of these two requirements is regarded as a priority.

While parental endorsement of the educational or religious philosophy of the school is an entry requirement that exists in virtually all countries, its occurrence is less widespread – except in the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium where almost 40 % of schools make this a high priority factor, or even a prerequisite, and in Ireland and Hungary in the case of one third of schools.



ORGANISATION

Figure B6: Proportions of pupils aged 15 attending a school in which the entry requirements, as reported by school heads, include compliance with geographical, academic or philosophical criteria, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



Additional notes (Figure B6)

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (area of residence = 23.1 – 38; pupil ability = 7.5 – 2.2; endorsement by parents of the philosophy of the school = 10.7 – 6.9) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the extent to which they took account, when enrolling pupils, of a variety of factors such as, for example, residence in a particular area, academic record (including placement tests), or parental endorsement of the instructional or religious philosophy of the school. Two forms of possible answer are shown here, namely whether one or more of these factors were a prerequisite or had high priority.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

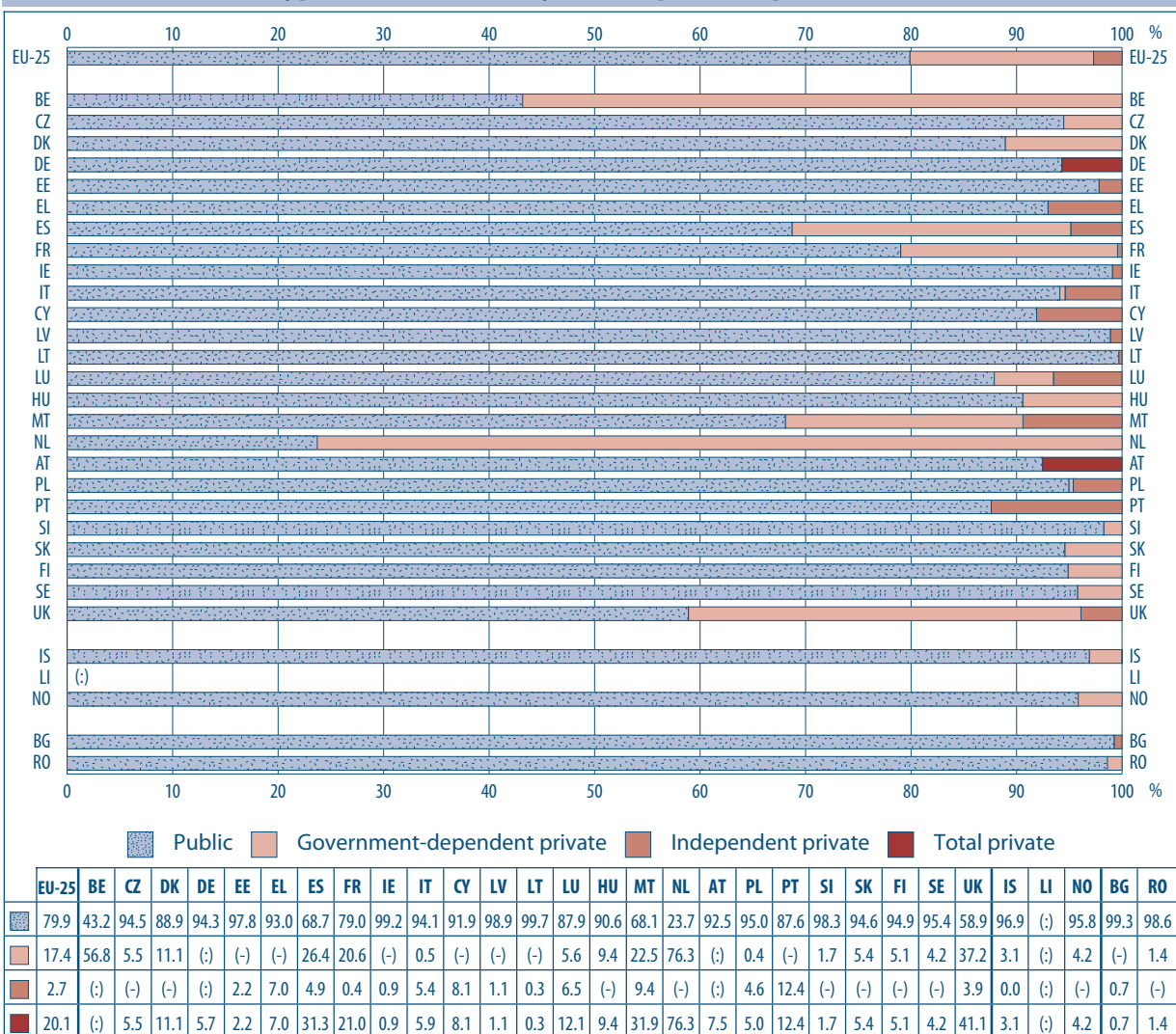
ENROLMENT IN INDEPENDENT PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS IS RARE IN BOTH PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

In almost all European countries, the great majority of students attend public institutions, except in Belgium and the Netherlands, where there are proportionally more pupils in the government-dependent private sector. Attendance at government-dependent private institutions is also fairly widespread in Spain, France, Malta (between 21 and 26 %) and the United Kingdom (37 %).

The countries where almost all pupils (98 % or more) attend public institutions are Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Bulgaria and Romania.

In the 25 EU countries, independent private education accounts on average for only 2.5 % of enrolments, in comparison to some 85 % in the case of public institutions. Portugal has the highest percentage of independent private institutions (12.4 %), followed by Malta (9.4 %), Cyprus (8.1 %) and Greece (7 %).

Figure B7: Distribution of pupils/students (ISCED 1, 2, 3 and 4) according to the type of institution they attend (public or private), 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional note

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions.

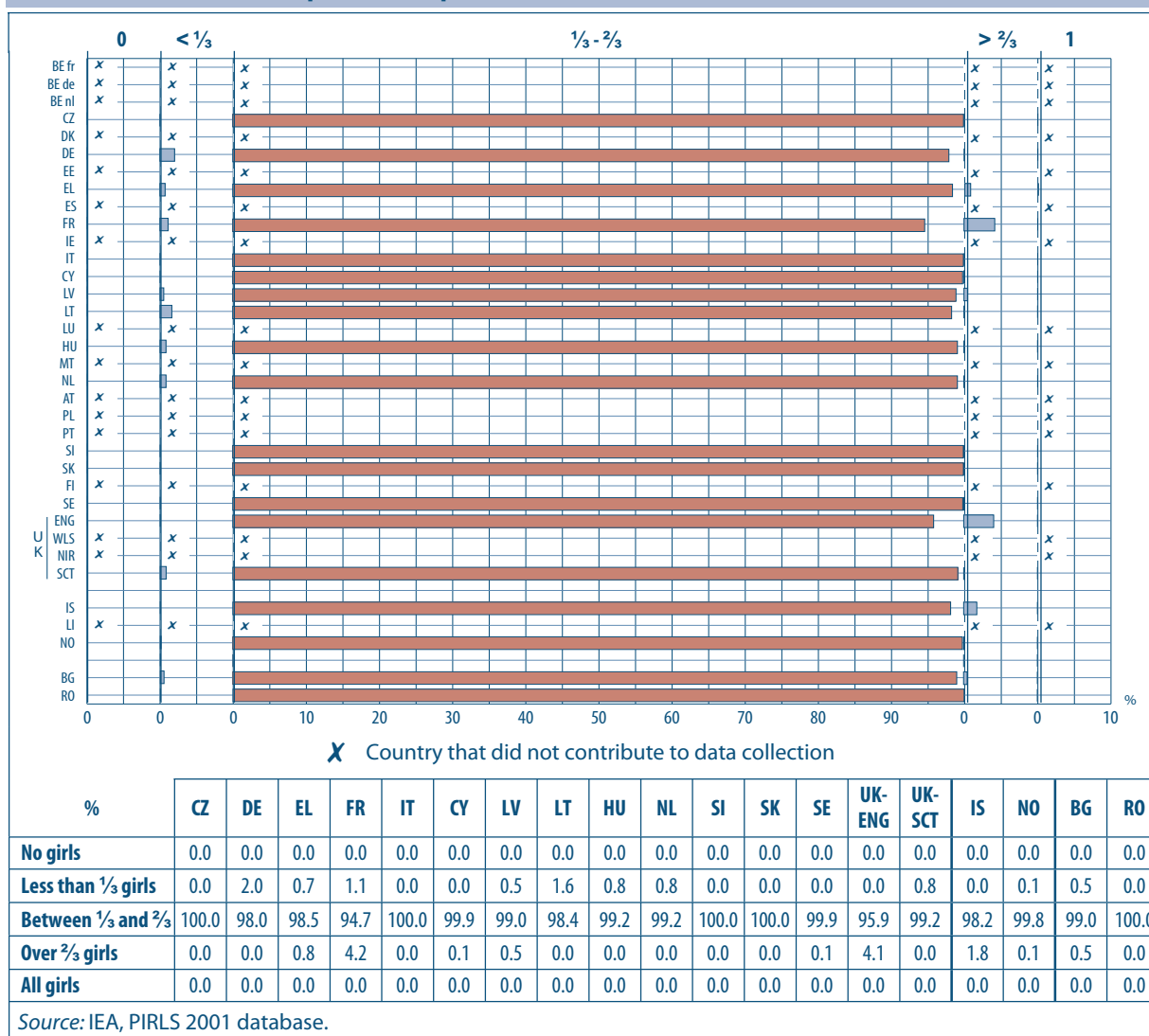
Explanatory note

Pupils or students fall into different categories depending on whether they attend public-sector or private institutions. An institution is classified as public if it is controlled directly by the public authorities. If not, it is private. Private institutions are either government-dependent or independent, depending on their core funding. They are said to be government-dependent if they receive more than 50 % of their financing from the public authorities. Independent private institutions receive less than 50 % of their finance from the public sector.

BOYS AND GIRLS ARE NEARLY ALWAYS TAUGHT TOGETHER IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

In countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey, co-education was the norm and was reflected in an even balance between the number of boys and girls in schools. The great majority of pupils in the sample (the fourth year of primary education) attended a school that catered for boys and girls in almost identical numbers. Pupils enrolled in schools where over two thirds of the intake consisted of girls were relatively few in number. Some were reported in France and the United Kingdom (England). Pupils attending schools where over two thirds of the intake consisted of boys were even less common. No pupil in the sample was enrolled in a single-sex school.

Figure B8: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in terms of the proportions of girls (and boys) at the school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Explanatory note (Figure B8)

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of boys and girls attending their school.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

SINGLE-SEX SECONDARY SCHOOLS EXIST IN JUST A FEW COUNTRIES

In countries that took part in the PISA 2003 survey, the majority of schools were co-educational.

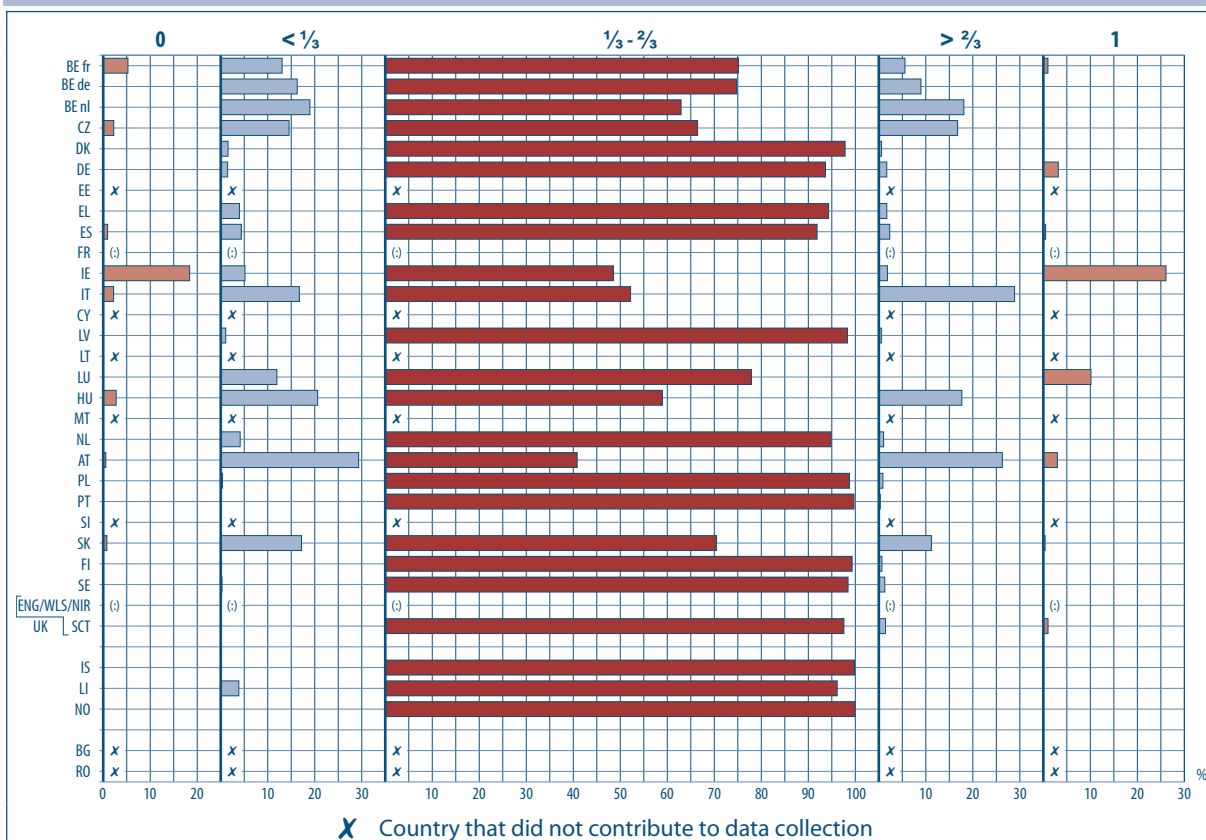
In a first group consisting of all the Nordic countries, Latvia, Portugal, Poland, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Liechtenstein, virtually all pupils (over 96 %) attended a school with similar proportions of girl and boys. The situation was fairly similar in Germany, Greece, Spain and the Netherlands, where over 90 % of pupils attended schools with equally balanced enrolment of boys and girls. This situation may be partly attributable to the fact that all the foregoing countries (with the exception of Germany, the Netherlands and Liechtenstein) provide a common core curriculum up to the age of 16 (Figure B1). There are therefore no schools in these countries providing technical or vocational streams, or other specialised course options for 15-year-old pupils. It should also be noted that in the majority of countries with a single structure, young people aged 15 complete their compulsory education in the same school as the one they first attended. The level of co-education is therefore similar to the level in schools catering for younger children.

In a few other countries (in particular Italy, Hungary and Austria), the gender breakdown of pupils in schools is less evenly balanced. These countries offer different paths through school, which may result in imbalance because some schools only cater for certain technical or vocational streams. The same countries are also noteworthy for the fact that most of their 15-year-old pupils are enrolled at a level of upper secondary education (Figure C7).

Schools catering only for girls are uncommon (a few private schools in Luxembourg) and those solely for boys even more so. Ireland appears to constitute a special case as around 44 % of its schools are single-sex.

Finally, it is important to note that the gender balance of particular classes may not reflect that of the school as a whole. Boys and girls may, for example, choose course options in differing proportions, or they may be taught separately for some subjects such as sport.

Figure B9: Breakdown of pupils aged 15 in terms of the proportions of girls (and boys) at the school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
No girls	5.3	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	(:)	18.4	2.2	0.1	0.0
Less than 1/3 girls	13.1	16.3	19.0	14.5	1.6	1.5	4.0	4.4	(:)	5.2	16.7	1.1	11.9
Between 1/3 and 2/3	75.1	74.8	62.9	66.4	97.8	93.7	94.3	91.9	(:)	48.5	52.2	98.3	77.9
Over 2/3 girls	5.6	9.0	18.1	16.8	0.6	1.7	1.7	2.3	(:)	1.8	28.9	0.5	0.0
All girls	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	0.5	(:)	26.1	0.0	0.0	10.1

	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR	UK-SCT	IS	LI	NO
No girls	2.8	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	(:)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Less than 1/3 girls	20.6	4.1	29.3	0.4	0.0	17.2	0.0	0.3	(:)	0.0	0.1	3.8	0.1
Between 1/3 and 2/3	59.0	94.8	40.8	98.8	99.7	70.5	99.3	98.5	(:)	97.6	99.8	96.2	99.9
Over 2/3 girls	17.7	1.0	26.3	0.9	0.3	11.2	0.7	1.3	(:)	1.4	0.1	0.0	0.0
All girls	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	(:)	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (0 % = 2.6; ≤ 33 % = 0.5; > 33 % et ≤ 66 % = 86.9; > 66 % = 1.5; 100 % = 8.5) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of boys and girls attending their school.

Explanatory note (Figure B9 continued)

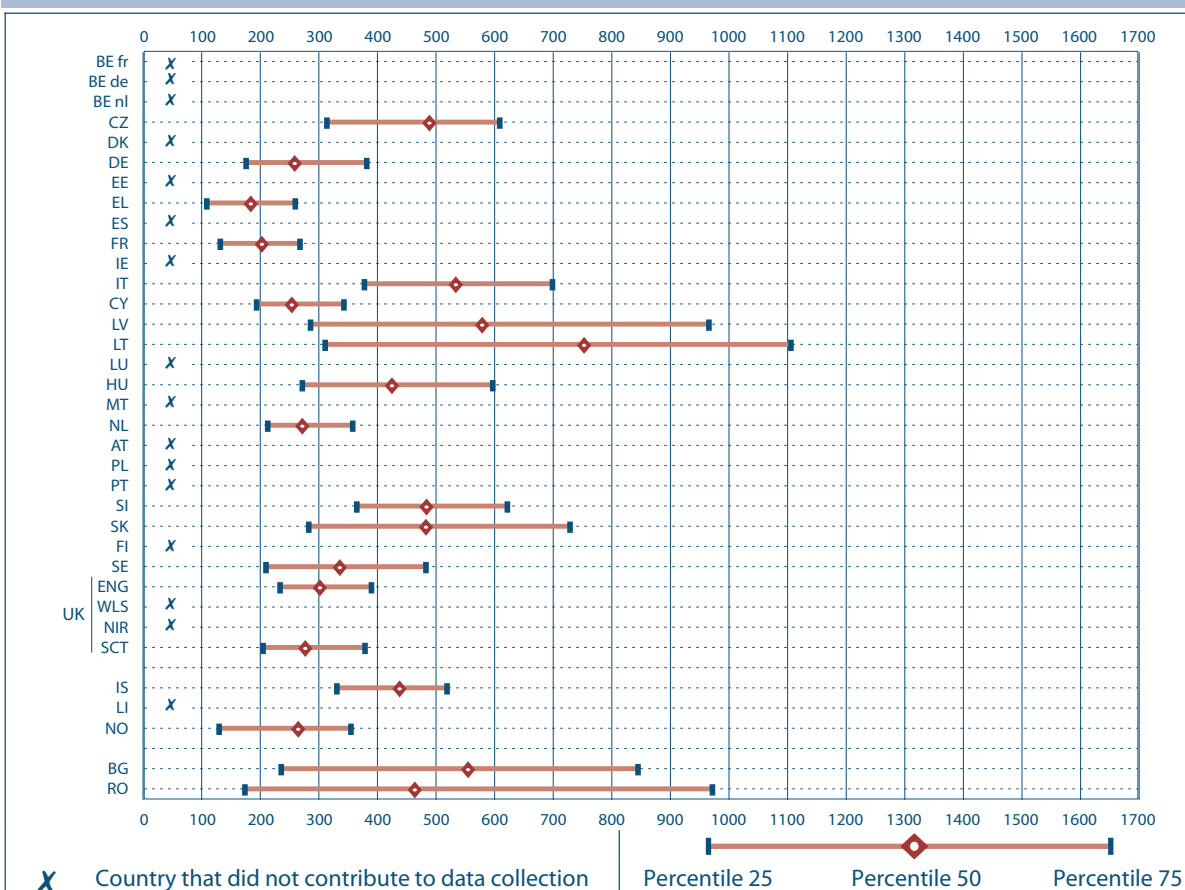
The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, PUPILS ATTEND SCHOOLS WITH AVERAGE ENROLMENTS OF BETWEEN 200 AND 400

According to the PIRLS 2001 survey, most pupils in their fourth year of primary education attend schools that cater for between 200 and 400 pupils. Attendance at large schools was only apparent in some of the countries covered by the survey (mainly the Baltic countries). Thus in France, for example, pupils attend schools whose average (enrolment) size is 216 pupils, whereas in Lithuania it is 741 pupils. These differences are partly attributable to the structure of provision (Figure B1) and whether pupils at different levels are taught in separate schools. In France, primary education lasts five years, and primary schools are always separate from secondary schools. In Lithuania most schools offer both primary and secondary education, which accounts for their very considerable size.

Figure B10: Distribution of pupils in the fourth year of primary education (in terms of the median and percentiles) by size of school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

SECTION I – STRUCTURES

Data (Figure B10)

(P)	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
10	106	106	58	80	245	144	137	140	166	131	257	140	133	188	121	171	78	126	83
25	314	176	109	132	378	194	286	311	272	213	365	283	210	234	205	331	130	236	174
50	489	259	184	203	534	254	579	753	425	272	484	483	336	302	277	438	265	555	464
75	609	382	260	268	699	343	966	1106	597	358	622	729	483	390	379	519	355	845	972
90	757	464	308	332	854	401	1202	1308	730	506	808	894	627	469	460	702	449	1114	1414
Ø	462	281	192	216	552	266	635	741	452	302	512	511	362	316	291	428	261	577	622

(P) Percentile; Ø Mean size.

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of boys and girls attending their school. These two figures were added together to give the total school enrolment.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the distribution of schools by size, but the distribution of pupils by size of the school they attended. The sampling procedure adopted by the survey leads to an overrepresentation of large schools. Values derived from simply sampling schools themselves would have been slightly lower.

For further information on the PIRLS survey and the definition of percentile, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In the interests of clarity, the figure only shows values corresponding to the percentiles 25, 50 and 75 in the distribution. Values for the percentiles 10 and 90 are shown in the table under the Figure.

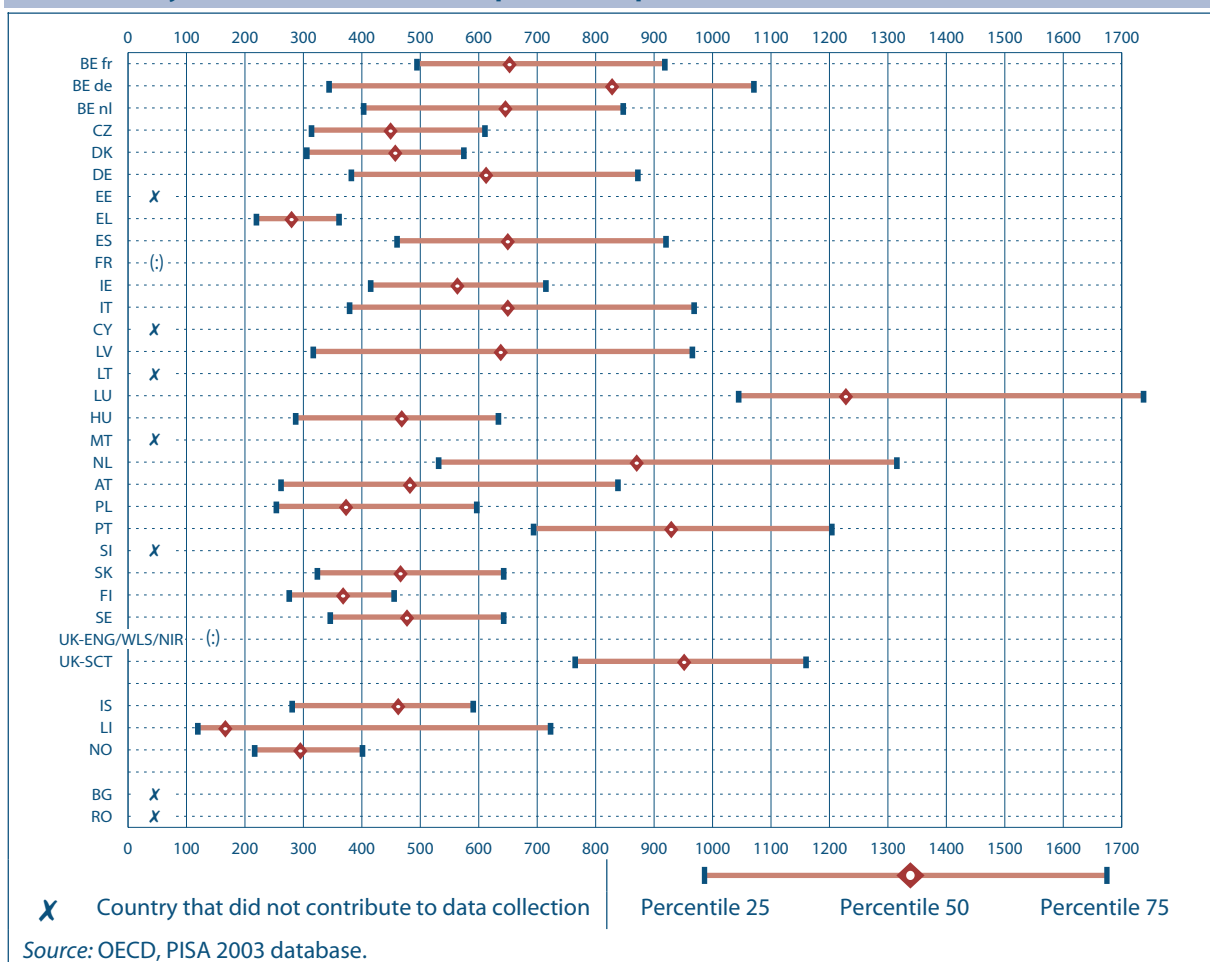
Differences in the size of schools attended by pupils in the fourth year of primary education appear to be very considerable in countries such as Latvia, Lithuania, Bulgaria and Romania. Some pupils are at schools with a total enrolment of less than 100 and others at schools with over 1 000 pupils. At the other extreme, in Greece, France, Cyprus and the United Kingdom (England and Scotland), and to a lesser extent, Germany and Norway, there is less variation in school size. Average sizes are also lower in these countries.

IN SECONDARY EDUCATION, SCHOOLS ARE GENERALLY LARGER THAN IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

According to the PISA 2003 survey, pupils aged 15 attend schools whose average size is between 300 and 1 500 pupils depending on the country concerned. In Greece and Finland, as well as Liechtenstein and Norway, pupils generally attend very small schools. In Luxembourg, and to a lesser extent the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland), schools are much bigger.

In some countries, such as Greece, Finland and Norway, pupil distribution is concentrated, reflecting considerable uniformity in school size. In other countries, such as Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom (Scotland), differences in the size of schools catering for 15-year-old pupils are much greater and more marked than in the case of schools enrolling pupils in the fourth year of primary education (Figure B10). However, in Latvia, the distribution is very broad in both cases. This is partly attributable to the fact that a large proportion of schools offer three levels of education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3) and therefore enrol both pupils in the fourth year of primary education and 15-year-old pupils.

Figure B11: Distribution of pupils aged 15 (in terms of the median and percentiles) by size of school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



SECTION I – STRUCTURES

Data (Figure B11)													
(P)	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
10	404	274	264	217	120	258	169	326	(:)	320	216	166	671
25	495	345	404	315	307	383	221	461	(:)	416	380	318	1 044
50	653	828	646	450	458	613	281	650	(:)	564	650	638	1 227
75	918	1 070	847	611	575	872	362	920	(:)	715	968	965	1 735
90	1 309	1 106	1 030	754	669	1 090	543	1 206	(:)	859	1 196	1 146	1 966
Ø	749	692	644	482	433	675	317	737	(:)	583	707	656	1 441
(P)	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
10	188	372	134	161	521	220	176	268	(:)	545	117	86	164
25	288	532	263	255	694	325	277	347	(:)	765	282	121	218
50	469	870	483	374	929	467	369	478	(:)	951	463	168	296
75	634	1 314	838	597	1 203	643	456	643	(:)	1 159	591	723	402
90	800	1 715	1 347	744	1 535	802	572	833	(:)	1 354	714	723	479
Ø	487	964	637	433	1 000	495	379	532	(:)	965	440	309	313

(P) Percentile; Ø Mean size
Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.
Additional notes
France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.
Luxembourg: Some schools attended by pupils aged 15 offer both general and vocational secondary education, which explains why they are large.
Netherlands: The definition of school size used by PISA differs from the national definition according to which the size of the schools is greater still.
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (p10 = 650; p25 = 829; p50 = 1060; p75 = 1387; p90 = 1548; Ø = 1097) are not shown in the Figure.
Explanatory note
School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of boys and girls attending their school. These two figures were added together to give the total school enrolment.
The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the distribution of schools by size, but the distribution of pupils by size of the school they attended. The sampling procedure adopted by the survey leads to an overrepresentation of large schools. Values derived from simply sampling schools themselves would have been slightly lower.
For further information on the PISA survey and the definition of percentile, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section. In the interests of clarity, the figure only shows values corresponding to the percentiles 25, 50 and 75 in the distribution. Values for the percentiles 10 and 90 are shown in the table under the Figure.

The provision (or otherwise) of several levels of education within a single school does indeed have a bearing on school size. In Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland), schools enrolling young people aged 15 are generally large and offer both lower and upper secondary education. By contrast, in Finland, schools attended by 15-year-olds are small and the majority of them only offer the final years of compulsory education (ISCED 2).

The schools with the highest enrolments are not necessarily in a country's biggest cities. Average-size towns and cities with a population of between 100 000 and 1 000 000, as well as smaller towns of between 15 000 and 100 000 inhabitants, may also have schools with the greatest average size (annexe, Figure B11a).

Finally, the population density of a country (annexe, Figure B11b) may in some cases also help to explain variations in school size. The average size of schools displays a positive correlation (0.55) with the number of inhabitants per km².

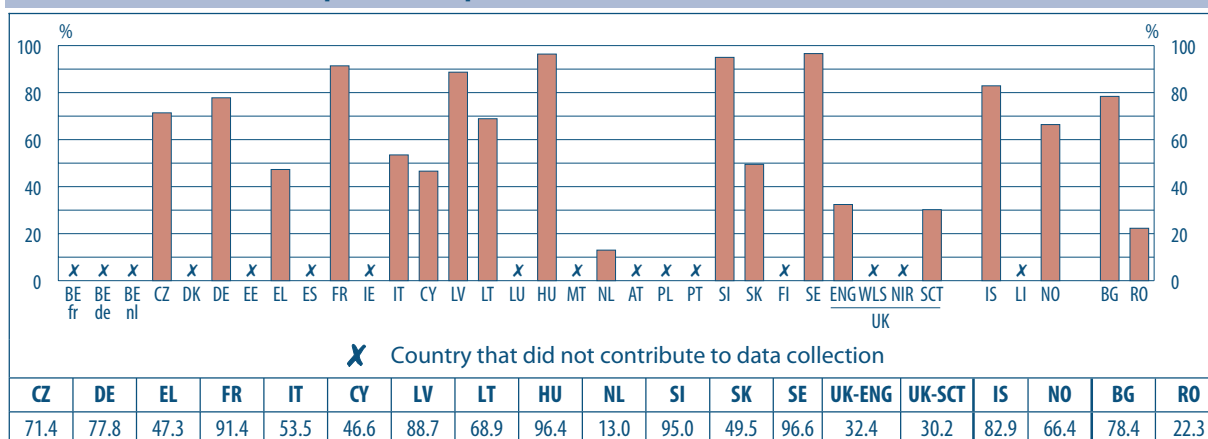
BEFORE- OR AFTER-SCHOOL CHILDCARE IS MADE AVAILABLE FOR THE MAJORITY OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

According to the results of the PIRLS 2001 survey, the existence of a childcare service in schools before and/or after lesson times is apparent everywhere, but the proportion of pupils (in the fourth year of primary education) attending a school that offers a service of this kind varies from one country to the next. In countries such as France, Hungary, Slovenia and Sweden, the great majority of fourth-year pupils (over 90 %) attend a school where they are looked after prior to or following their lessons.

It should be emphasised that in certain countries such as Slovenia or Norway, the provision of a childcare service before or after normal school hours by the municipality is mandatory. If such a service is not offered directly on school premises it is available at other premises.

The lowest percentages of pupils attending schools with childcare services on their premises before or after lesson times are recorded in Greece and Cyprus (40-50 %), the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England and Scotland) and Romania (under one third).

Figure B12: Percentages of pupils in the fourth year of primary education who attend a school offering a childcare service on school premises before or after lesson times, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA. PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether an out-of-school childcare service (before or after lessons) on school premises was offered to pupils at the school.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned.

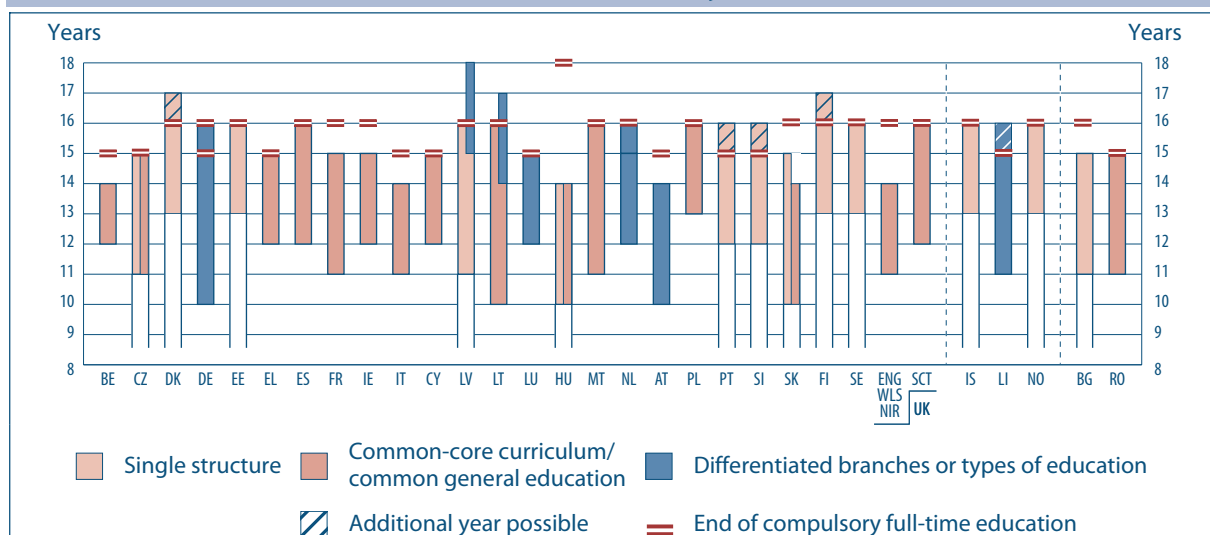
For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

THE END OF LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION OFTEN COINCIDES WITH THE END OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION

In this context, three different organisational models can be distinguished, depending on whether countries have a single structure, compulsory integrated secondary education corresponding to a 'common core' or distinct types of education (Figure B1). In some new Member States (the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary and Slovakia), several combinations of the three models exist alongside each other.

In all countries where the **single structure** is the only form of structure (Denmark, Estonia, Portugal, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden, Iceland, Norway and Bulgaria), the end of (single-structure) education coincides with the end of compulsory education except in Bulgaria where compulsory education ends one year later.

Figure B13: Age of pupils at the end of full-time compulsory education, and the structure of lower secondary education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: The end of full-time compulsory education is extended to the age of 16 for pupils who have not completed the first stage of lower secondary education. In the French and German-speaking Communities, admission to this level of education can take place at a differentiated stage (*1^{re} B* and *2^e année professionnelle*).

Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia: In parallel with the single-structure system that ends at the age of 14 or 15 depending on the country, pupils may be admitted to lower secondary school at the age of 10 or 11.

Germany: Full-time compulsory education lasts between 9 and 10 years, depending on the *Länder* concerned.

Estonia: Compulsory education continues until pupils have completed basic education (at the age of 16) or reached the age of 17.

Latvia: Pupils without a certificate of basic education by the age of 15 may take the appropriate courses up to the age of 18 within the curriculum for basic vocational education.

Lithuania: Pupils wishing to gain a vocational qualification may attend a vocational school from the age of 14.

Netherlands: Depending on the school attended, lower secondary education ends at the age of 15 (VWO, HAVO) or 16 (MAVO, VBO and VMBO). Compulsory education ends at the end of the school year when pupils turn the age of 16 and have completed 12 years of compulsory education.

Slovenia: The diagram shows the 'post-reform' situation that has applied since 1999/2000.

Romania: With effect from 2003/04, pupils complete both compulsory and lower secondary education at the age of 16.

Explanatory note

In countries where secondary education is provided within a single continuous structure, only the number of years corresponding to ISCED 2 are coloured in the Figure.

In almost half of all European countries, all pupils follow the same general curriculum (**common core**) during lower secondary education. In seven of these countries, the end of lower secondary education coincides with the end of full-time compulsory education.

In Belgium, France, Ireland, Italy, Hungary, Austria, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Bulgaria, the end of full-time compulsory education does not correspond to the end of lower secondary education. Instead, the one or more final years of compulsory education are part of upper secondary education. Thus, pupils in these countries – with the exception of Ireland and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) – have to choose between general, technical or vocational education one or two years (or four in Hungary) before the end of full-time compulsory education.

In the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Germany, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Liechtenstein, pupils may select or be streamed into **different types of provision or school** from the beginning or before the end of lower secondary education. Even though pupils in Germany attend different schools, they follow entirely compatible curricula for the first two years so that selection of an appropriate study branch can be deferred. In the Netherlands, pupils follow a common core curriculum usually for the first two years at VMBO and three years at HAVO and VWO. While its level varies depending on the type of school concerned, it specifies minimum skills that should be acquired by all pupils. The three types of lower secondary school in Liechtenstein offer the same basic common curriculum, which is supplemented by certain kinds of provision in the *Realschule* or *Gymnasium*.

LIMITING THE NUMBER OF PLACES IN TERTIARY EDUCATION: OPEN ACCESS OR CENTRALISED SELECTION

Everywhere in Europe, the minimum requirement for securing access to tertiary education is an upper secondary education certificate or its equivalent. In most countries, other admission procedures may be added to this, such as passing an entrance examination, submitting a personal record of achievement or attending an interview. Such procedures are normally used to limit the number of admissions (either because the number of candidates exceeds the capacity of the institution or because of a national *numerus clausus* system), or to assure the institution that candidates have qualifications that match the kind of education they wish to pursue (for example, artistic, technical or medical fields of study).

Selection procedures and limits on the numbers of places available contribute significantly to regulating the size of the student population. The corollary of the political will to increase the population in tertiary education is the need to address the financial repercussions of any such increase. The reasons for controlling the number of places available can of course also be related to labour market conditions, when too many – or too few – young people are graduating in particular subjects relative to the jobs available.

Selection procedures vary across Europe and according to the course chosen.

Figure B14 illustrates the three main kinds of procedure for the 2002/03 academic year, which are similar to the situation that existed in 2000:

- **A *numerus clausus* is set at national level.** In such cases, the government limits the number of places available and exercises direct control over the selection procedure. This *numerus clausus* may be determined for all courses.

- **The institutions themselves decide on selection procedures** to limit the number of places available. Institutions are free to decide to apply these procedures, with due regard for their capacity or for centrally determined criteria to limit the number of places. Limitation can apply to some or all courses. Moreover, regardless of the number of places available, institutions can decide to select students on the basis of ability. This happens particularly in certain art, technical or medical courses.
- **Access is totally unrestricted.** Only the certificate awarded on satisfactory completion of upper secondary education, or its equivalent, is required for admission to most courses, and institutions accept all applicants. A *numerus clausus* may be set for a limited number of courses.

In some countries, places are limited in all courses. In Greece, limitation and selection are decided directly at national level.

The most widespread kind of procedure is one in which selection is determined by individual institutions, with due regard for their own enrolment capacity and/or nationally specified criteria. This applies to the great majority of countries and, in particular, to all new EU Member States as well as Bulgaria and Romania. In Ireland, Finland, Sweden and Norway, the procedure also takes account of national norms or agreements between the ministry and the universities concerned, setting limits to the maximum possible number of enrolments or graduates.

In the United Kingdom, although, the overall number of students is centrally determined, universities and other tertiary education institutions decide freely which students to admit and on what criteria. Applicants apply for up to six institutions/courses via the *Universities and Colleges Admissions Service* (UCAS) which administers the process on behalf of the institutions. As applications are currently generally made before the results of final examinations are available, institutions decide whether to offer a place to a particular applicant largely on the basis of predicted grades. The offer specifies particular grades – which vary according to the particular institution and course – which the applicant must achieve. The institution confirms the offer of a place if the applicant subsequently achieves these grades.

In Ireland, there is a similar system of admissions. The institution determines the number of places and the admission requirements, and application for almost all full-time undergraduate courses is made through a Central Applications Office. In Norway, following registration by the *Samordna opptak* (the Universities and Colleges Admission Service), the higher education institution which is the applicant's first choice (out of 15) handles the application on behalf of all institutions for which he or she has expressed a preference. If admitted, applicants receive only one offer of admission – for the institution and discipline highest on their list of preferences – but with due regard for the competition and the admissions capacity of the institutions concerned.

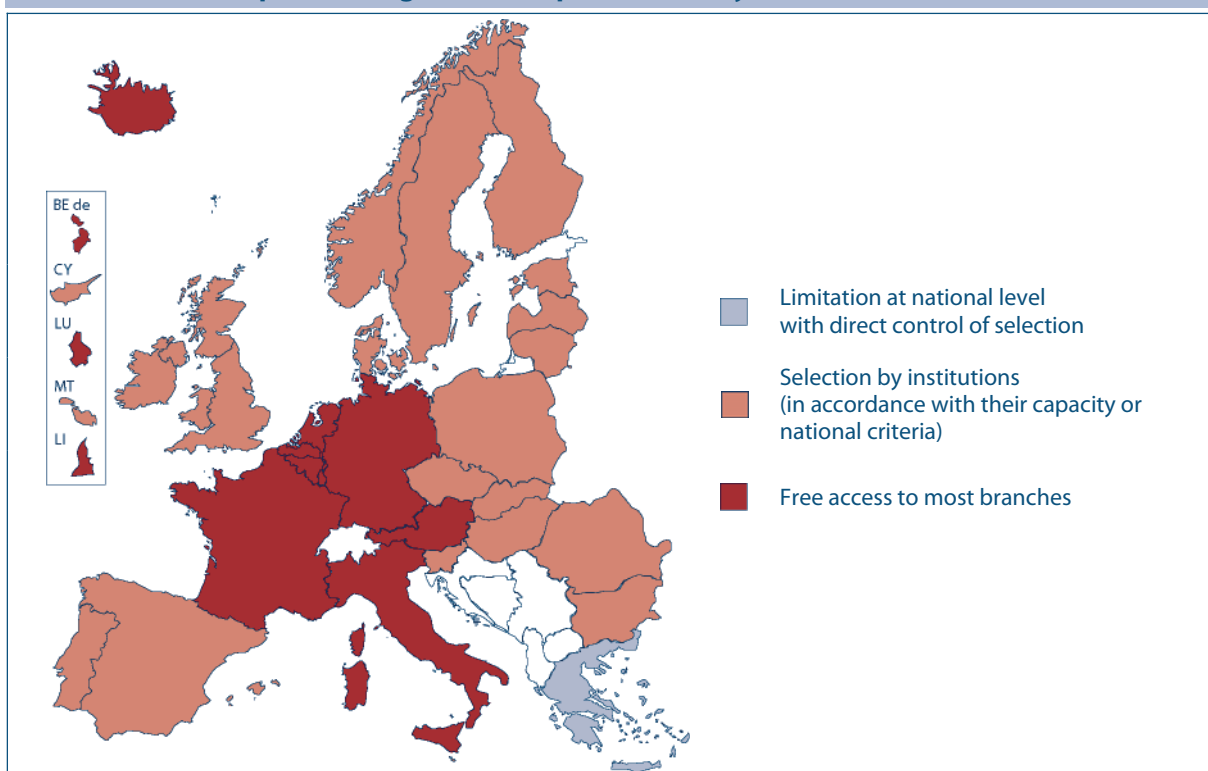
In Spain, the national university entrance examination (*Prueba de Aptitud para el Acceso a la Universidad*) is in principle not compulsory for certain university courses. However, since the capacity of the institutions is often lower than the demand for places, they give priority to those students who have passed the entrance examination.

In all the new Member States, the number of places available is limited for all courses. In Cyprus, university entrance examinations are organised by the Ministry of Education and Culture. Institutions decide on the number of places available for the different faculties. There is no limit to the number of students allowed to take the entrance examinations for a particular faculty. In Malta, Poland and Slovakia, the institutions decide on the number of places available and the selection procedures for all courses. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary, each institution decides on the number of places available and the selection procedures, but the government sets the number of places for which it provides funding. This

situation is also common in Romania. In Slovenia, the number of places available is decided by the institutions but approved by the government. The admission procedures are organised by the institutions.

In Bulgaria, each institution organises the selection of students, taking account of the national standards which limit the number of enrolments.

Figure B14: Limitation of the number of places available in most branches of public and grant-aided private tertiary education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Cyprus: The system of access to tertiary education is currently undergoing reform. At present, students must pass the examination taken at the end of upper secondary education in order to be eligible for the university entrance examination. Under the reform, it is planned that these two examinations will be replaced by just one.

Lithuania: Since 2001, a new admissions system has been introduced by 13 universities that have joined the National Association of Higher Education Institutions. The system offers a broader range of programmes. All institutions fix admission quotas for all fields of study at tertiary level.

Luxembourg: Only access to teacher education for work at pre-primary and primary levels is limited under the terms of a national decision.

Portugal: Aptitude tests are taken in some schools only.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): There are no absolute upper limits on student numbers, except in medicine, dentistry and initial teacher education.

Explanatory note

For detailed information by country, see the annexes and the publication *Focus on the Structure of Higher Education in Europe, 2004/05: National Trends in the Bologna Process*.

Finally, in nine countries there are no entrance requirements for most courses, and in particular for general university courses. In Belgium, there is a very strong tradition of free access. Students have to take an entrance examination only for courses in applied science (civil engineering), certain courses in artistic fields in the French and Flemish Communities, and medicine and dentistry in the Flemish Community. Since 2003/04, an entrance examination for veterinary science has also been organised by the French Community. In Austria, universities (except *Universitäten der Künste*) are legally obliged to admit all students who register,

although the *Fachhochschulen* and some academies are more selective. In the majority of countries where the principle of free access is largely applied, admission to certain courses of study is regulated. Depending on the course or the level of study, the conditions for admission are set either by the institutions based on their capacity (Germany, the Netherlands and Iceland) or by the government through a *numerus clausus* system (France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands).

In Italy, the universities decide which faculties will offer either open or limited access. In non-university tertiary education, access to courses is systematically based on admission procedures defined by the institutions themselves. In the Netherlands, all branches of tertiary education have open access in principle. However, the number of admissions can be limited at national level when the number of people with a qualification exceeds labour market requirements. Such a decision can also be taken by the institution when the number of applicants exceeds the places available. For some courses, the minister can impose a requirement that candidates must have studied one or two specific subjects during secondary education.



ORGANISATION

SECTION II – OBJECTIVES AND EVALUATION

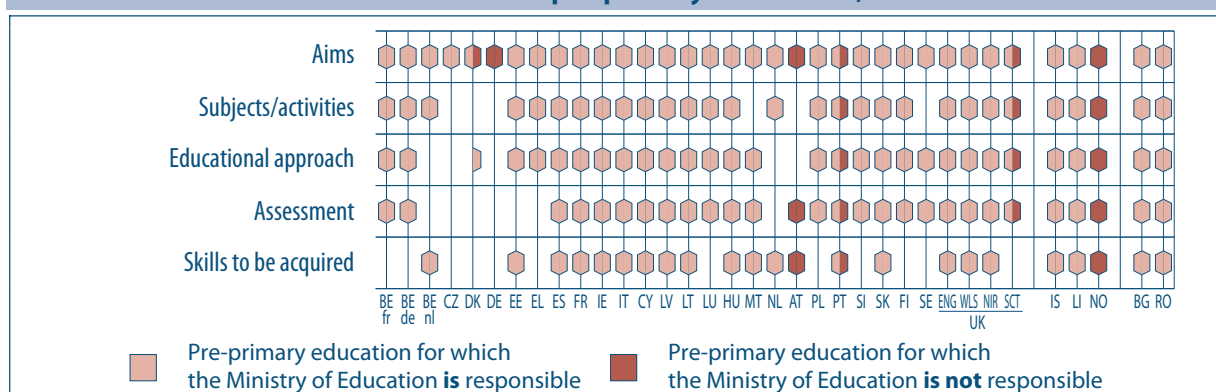
OVER HALF OF ALL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES IDENTIFY SKILLS THAT CHILDREN SHOULD POSSESS ON COMPLETION OF PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

In Europe, pre-primary education-oriented institutions for which either the ministry of education or other ministries are responsible cater for children from the ages of 3 or 4 in the majority of countries (Figure B1). While it is not generally compulsory for children to attend educational provision at this level, official documents relating to it in all countries refer either to general goals or more detailed objectives, or both. In the case of the former, the terms employed are somewhat similar everywhere and include 'development', 'autonomy', 'responsibility', 'well-being', 'self-confidence', 'citizenship', 'preparation for life at school', 'the pursuit of learning', etc.

The importance of collaborating with families is also often emphasised. Here too, the same terms often recur, such as 'communication', 'information', 'comprehension', 'collaboration', 'dialogue', 'support', 'mutual assistance', 'participation', 'involvement of parents in educational strategy and processes', 'continuity', 'consistency', etc.

A very large number of programmes state precisely what subjects should be taught or what activities should be carried out, while also specifying desirable educational approaches and methods of assessment. Furthermore, skills that should have been acquired by the end of pre-primary education or before embarking on compulsory education are clearly stated in two thirds of all European countries, irrespective of whether the ministry of education or another body is responsible for the institutions concerned.

Figure B15: Areas covered by official guidelines for education-oriented pre-primary institutions, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): There are no specified skills that children should possess on completion of pre-primary education. However, desirable skills that should be acquired during pre-primary education and the first two years of primary education are identified.

Czech Republic: The new Framework Educational Programme for Pre-primary Education that took effect in January 2005 includes a number of recommendations regarding skills to be acquired.

Germany: General aims are set out in the *Kinder- und Jugendhilfegesetz* at federal level and in the legislation of each *Land*. The *Vorklassen* and *Schulkindergärten* are not taken into account here.

Additional notes (Figure B15 continued)

Ireland: The official guidelines shown here apply to *Early Start units* (children aged 3-4), and to *infant classes* (those aged 4-6) in the primary school system.

Latvia: The new programme for pre-primary education that took effect in 2002 covers 'assessment' and 'skills to be acquired'.

Netherlands: The education system includes no pre-primary education in the strict sense. The Figure shows the situation in the first years of *basisonderwijs* (primary school).

Finland: National guidelines shown here apply to pre-primary education for six-year-olds.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Voluntary and private pre-primary settings (day nurseries, pre-school groups and playgroups) are considered to be education-oriented as they are required to provide an educational programme which follows government guidelines as a condition of funding.

Explanatory note

Only so-called 'education-oriented' pre-primary institutions which have to employ staff with qualifications in education are shown here. Day nurseries, playgroups and day care centres (in which the staff are not required to hold a qualification in education) are not shown.

The 'assessment' category relates to the ongoing evaluation of children's progress based primarily on observation without necessarily involving the submission of a written document and/or formal assessment of children.

The 'educational approach' category covers not just aspects of teaching, but also recommendations regarding organisation and appropriate attitudes when leading children's activities.

THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOLS PROVIDING COMPULSORY EDUCATION IS VERY WIDESPREAD

Quality evaluation in education may occur at different levels. Besides global evaluation of the education system (Figure B21), it may also be concerned with teachers, schools or local authorities, depending on the particular country.

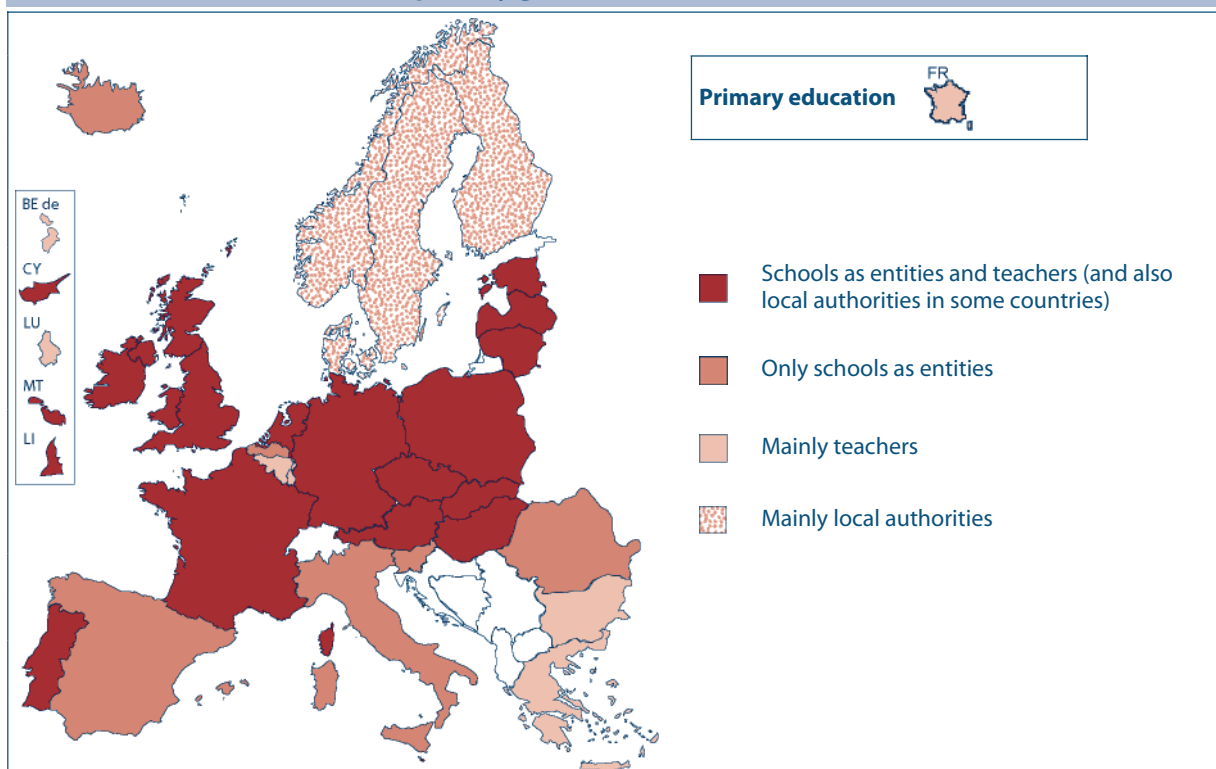
In many countries, schools are evaluated and this may or may not be supplemented by appraisal of individual teachers. Schools are evaluated both externally, generally by an inspectorate, and internally by school staff and sometimes other members of the school community. Internal evaluation is mandatory or strongly recommended. Around half of the countries concerned have drawn up lists of national criteria for external evaluation (Figure B17).

In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania and Poland, schools are also evaluated by the corresponding educational provider, as they are in the case of the United Kingdom (except Northern Ireland), where the local authorities perform this task. In Lithuania and the United Kingdom, local authorities are themselves evaluated by central government. In Italy and Malta, schools as entities are essentially the concern of internal evaluation.

In countries where not only schools are evaluated but also teachers on an individual basis, the school head is responsible for this in nearly all cases. In Cyprus and France (secondary education), teachers are evaluated regularly by the inspectorate. In Liechtenstein, the inspectorate alone evaluates them.

In the other countries where schools are evaluated, teachers are not evaluated individually as a matter of course. However, in Belgium (the Flemish Community), Spain, Italy, Slovenia and Romania, they may be evaluated in exceptional circumstances, such as when they are applying for promotion or at the end of their first year in service.

Figure B16: Components of the education system subject to evaluation, compulsory general education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE de): A 1998 decree (which is as yet not fully implemented) provides for the external evaluation of schools as entities, as well as compulsory internal evaluation.

Denmark: Since 2000/01, EVA has been responsible for evaluating all Ministry of Education schools. For this purpose, it evaluates samples of schools, and individual judgements may be made about the schools selected.

Luxembourg: In 2004/05, a new approach to the external evaluation of secondary schools by the Ministry of Education has been gradually adopted, with internal evaluation recommended.

Finland: Education providers (mostly municipalities) are responsible for evaluating the effectiveness of their provision, and have to participate in national evaluations.

Sweden: The National Agency for Education (NAE), which was primarily responsible for monitoring compliance with regulations during the 1990s, has reinforced its school evaluation activities since 2003/04.

Norway: The external evaluation of schools by municipalities is mandatory, with effect from 2004/05.

Explanatory note

The evaluation of schools as entities and of teachers considered here is carried out by external and/or internal evaluators depending on the country concerned.

In the majority of countries, two or occasionally more distinct approaches to the external evaluation of schools as entities exist, depending on the identity of the evaluator. External evaluation is conducted by evaluators who report to a local, regional or central education authority. Only those that cover a broad range of school activities are considered here.

The evaluation of schools as entities focuses on activities carried out by staff without seeking to assign individual responsibility for them to one or more members of the school concerned. Evaluation of this kind seeks to monitor or improve the performance and results of schools, and findings are presented in an overall report containing no individual appraisals. Where school heads are among the focal points of an evaluation covering all school activities (including those for which they are not responsible themselves) and findings are used with a view to improving the quality of the school concerned, this is regarded as an evaluation of the school as an entity. By contrast, cases in which school heads are evaluated solely in relation to their own personnel management or resource management activities by the school board or council are not considered here.

Explanatory note (Figure B16 continued)

Evaluation of teachers on an individual basis is a process carried out independently of the evaluation of schools as entities. It involves forming a judgement about their work in order to guide them and help them as individuals to improve. The teacher subject to observation receives personal verbal or written feedback.

Internal evaluation is carried out by members of the school community, meaning individuals or groups of people who are directly involved in school activities (such as the school head, teaching and administrative staff and pupils) or who have a direct stake in them (such as parents or local community representatives).

In two groups of countries, schools providing compulsory education are not at the heart of the evaluation system.

In Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities), Greece, France (primary education), Luxembourg (primary education) and Bulgaria, external evaluation by the inspectorate or school advisers is concerned mainly with teachers. In secondary education in Luxembourg, teachers are evaluated by the school head. While external evaluation of schools as entities exists in all these countries, it is concerned with matters relatively limited in scope. The internal evaluation of schools is not very widespread or virtually non-existent.

In the Nordic countries except Iceland, the evaluation system is centred on local authorities in that they are at one and the same time responsible for evaluating their own educational provision and are evaluated in turn by the central education authorities or a national education agency. In these countries, the municipalities are authorised to delegate their responsibility to schools. Teachers are not evaluated individually. Internal evaluation (self-evaluation) occurs everywhere to a varying extent but is not always mandatory.

The situation is changing in several countries where, in 2002/03, schools were not central to the system of evaluation. In the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg (secondary education), Sweden and Norway, the external evaluation of schools as entities (and internal evaluation in the case of Luxembourg) is assuming growing importance ⁽¹⁾.

INTERNAL EVALUATION IS SOMETIMES BASED ON THE STANDARD CRITERIA OF EXTERNAL EVALUATION

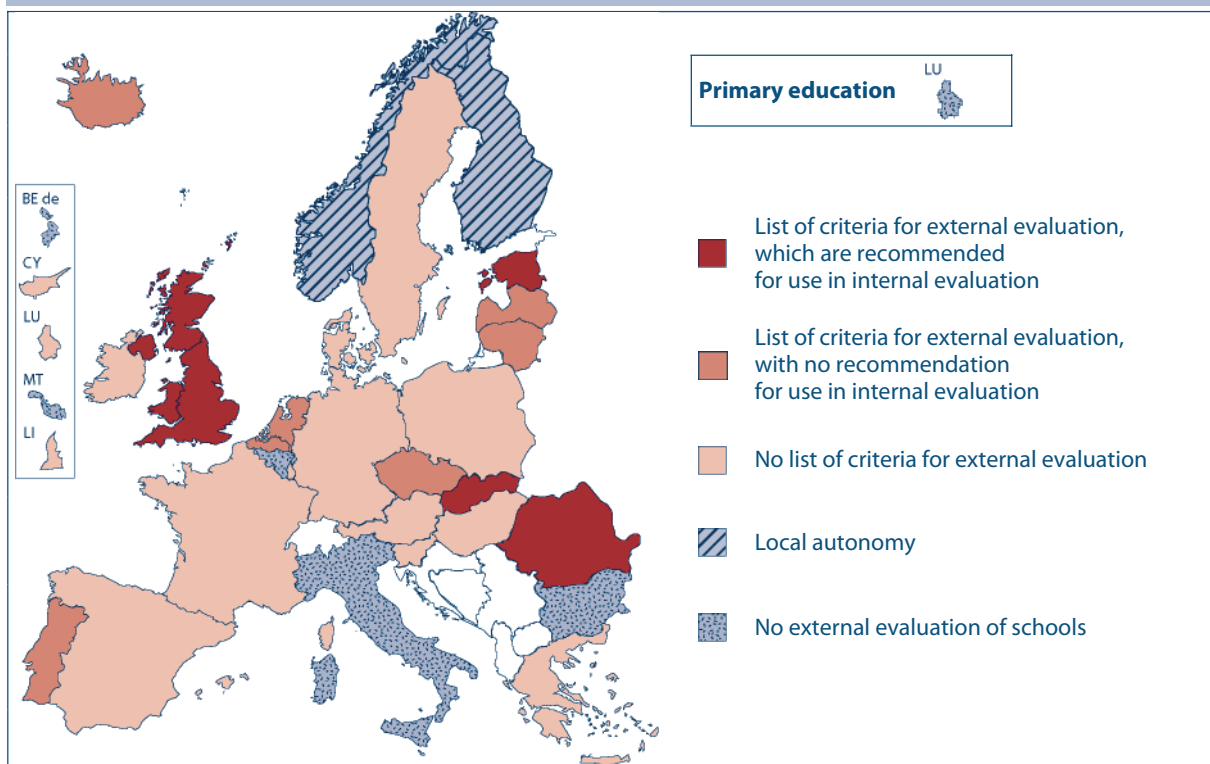
In 2002/03, 11 European countries had lists of standard criteria for the external evaluation of schools carried out by evaluators directly responsible to the central level. This process of standardisation, which for the most part got underway in the 1990s, is still continuing in some countries ⁽¹⁾. Thus, in Ireland, Poland and Sweden, lists of standard criteria have been in use since 2004/05.

In general, where central-level evaluators do not possess predetermined lists of criteria, this is because they evaluate school activities concerned with very limited specific matters such as compliance with regulations or the school development plan. By contrast, when a country broadens the range of externally evaluated school activities, it tends to produce lists of standardised criteria. This is especially apparent in Ireland, Luxembourg and Sweden (evaluation conducted by the National Agency for Education).

Evaluators who are not directly responsible to the central or top level are not obliged to use lists of criteria established in advance at central level, except in Poland since 2004/05. In general, they refer to the content of national legislation or the educational aims of their local authority in order to determine their criteria.

⁽¹⁾ Evaluation of Schools providing Compulsory Education in Europe. *Eurydice Surveys*. Brussels: Eurydice, 2004.

Figure B17: Use of standard lists of criteria for (external and internal) evaluation of schools for compulsory general education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE de): See the note in Figure B16.

Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Slovakia and United Kingdom (ENG/WLS, SCT): the references to external evaluation apply to evaluation conducted at central level.

Denmark and Sweden: This applies only in the case of evaluation by the municipalities. In Sweden, a list of standard criteria has been drawn up for evaluation conducted by the NAE. It is coming into effect in 2004/05, and has to be used for purposes of internal evaluation.

Spain: Lists of standard criteria for external evaluation exist in Andalusia, Catalonia, the Canary Islands and Castile-La Mancha. In Catalonia, external evaluation criteria have to be used for internal evaluation, and in Castile-La Mancha, the same criteria are used for internal and external evaluation.

Ireland: A set of criteria for external evaluation was developed in 2003/04, and its use is recommended for internal evaluation.

Lithuania: With effect from 2004/05, use is being made of common internal and external evaluation criteria drawn up in 2002.

Luxembourg: A list of standard criteria is being drawn up for the new approach to the external evaluation of secondary schools, which has been adopted in 2004/05.

Poland: In 2004/05, a list of standard criteria has been established for external evaluation carried out by the regional inspectorate (*kuratorium*).

Finland: See the note in Figure B16.

Iceland: A list of standard criteria has been drawn up for evaluating internal evaluation methods (meta-evaluation) but not for the evaluation of schools.

Norway: The external evaluation of schools by municipalities is mandatory with effect from 2004/05.

Romania: The Figure relates to evaluation criteria produced by the inspectorate and not the evaluation criteria drawn up by the national commission for evaluation and accreditation of pre-university education.

Explanatory note (Figure B17)

In the majority of countries, two or occasionally more distinct approaches to the external evaluation of schools as entities exist, depending on the identity of the evaluator. External evaluation is conducted by evaluators who report to a local, regional or central educational authority. Only approaches to external evaluation conducted by evaluators covering a broad range of school activities are considered here.

Internal evaluation is carried out by members of the school community, meaning individuals or groups of people who are directly involved in school activities (such as the school head, teaching and administrative staff and pupils) or who have a direct stake in them (such as parents or local community representatives).

A criterion is used to form the judgement. It consists of two components, namely the parameter (or measurable aspect of a task that is evaluated), and the required standard (benchmark, norm, regulation or standard of proficiency) with respect to which the parameter is evaluated.

Standard lists of criteria are drawn up at the central (or top-level) authority for education, either by inspectorial management staff, or by ministerial or administrative departments responsible for education.

Where lists of external evaluation criteria are also used for internal evaluation, this is generally on the basis of a recommendation issued by the central (or top-level) authorities for education.

In some countries, lists of criteria are subject to frequent revision. Thus, the Czech Republic and the United Kingdom (Scotland) published new lists of criteria in 2002. Following the law on the inspection of schools and education in the Netherlands (the *Wet op het Onderwijstoezicht*, or WOT, which came into force in 2002), a new supervisory framework known as *Toezichtkader* has redefined the criteria used by inspectors. In Latvia, lists of criteria used were concerned with different kinds of regulation and varied depending on the focus of evaluation. They have been replaced in 2004/05 by a single more detailed list of criteria. In the United Kingdom (England), new criteria became effective from 2003; they were revised again as part of a more fundamental reform of the system of school inspection effective from September 2005.

Besides standardising external evaluation criteria on the basis of national lists, Estonia, Slovakia, the United Kingdom and Romania recommend that these lists should be used for the internal evaluation of schools. This is being made compulsory in Lithuania, Slovakia and Sweden, with effect from 2004/05. Internal evaluation criteria are therefore also undergoing standardisation to some extent.

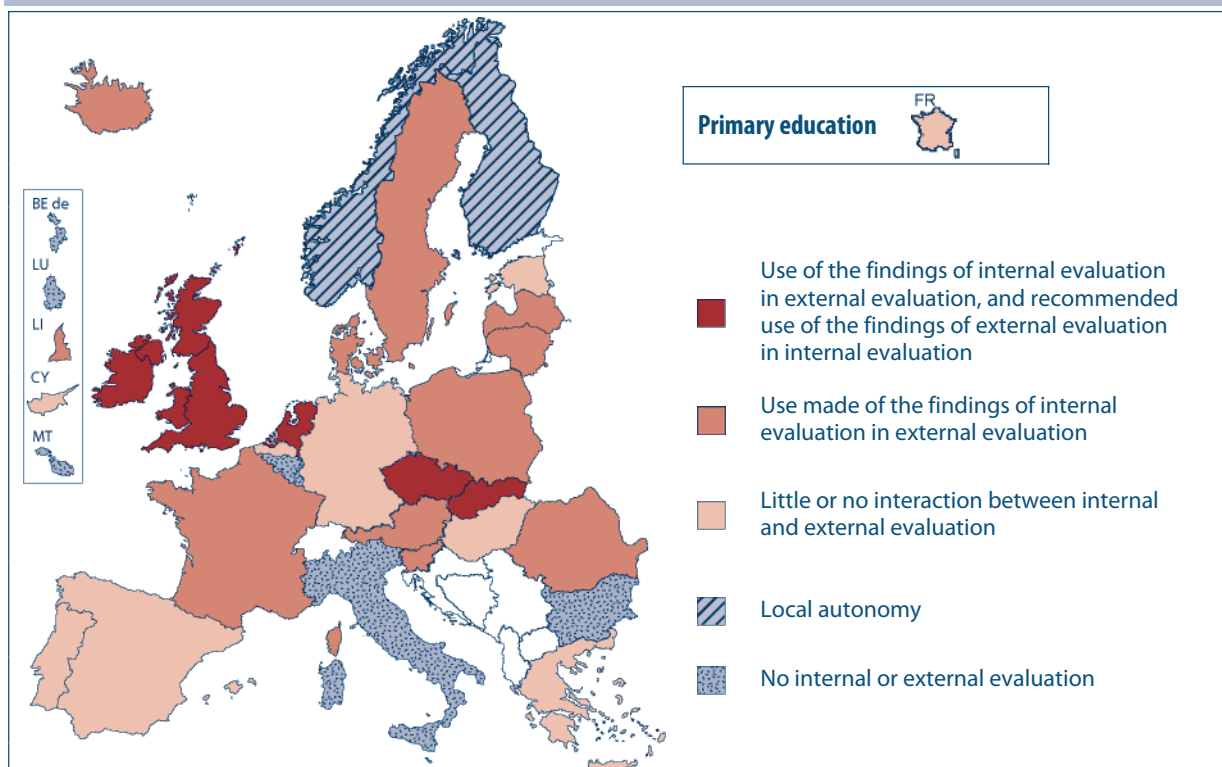
The use of external evaluation criteria during internal evaluation enables the consistency between these two forms of evaluation to be strengthened. This consistency is particularly meaningful where external evaluation draws on the findings of internal evaluation (Figure B18). This applies to countries that recommend or prescribe the use of external evaluation criteria for internal evaluation, with the exception of Estonia.

THE FINDINGS OF INTERNAL EVALUATION ARE GENERALLY USED TO CARRY OUT EXTERNAL EVALUATION

The coexistence of a twofold evaluation of schools – internal and external – is now widespread throughout Europe. Interaction between these two forms of evaluation may or may not occur depending on the country concerned. Where it does occur, two main types of interaction may be distinguished, namely the reciprocal use of findings or use of the findings of internal evaluation in external evaluation.

In a first group of countries, the findings are used reciprocally. Internal evaluation reports generally constitute just one element in the prior analysis that external evaluators undertake before visiting a school, enabling them to become familiar with its specific circumstances. In the Netherlands, internal evaluation is the main focus of external evaluation. At the same time, schools in these countries are asked to take the findings of external evaluation into account when carrying out their internal evaluation processes. These findings are forwarded to them in the form of inspection reports in the Czech Republic, Ireland, Slovakia and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

Figure B18: Relations between the internal and external evaluation of schools as entities, compulsory general education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE de): See the note in Figure B16.

Belgium (BE nl): Since 2003/04, inspectors have made increasing use of the findings of internal evaluation, although not in accordance with the terms of any specific regulation.

Czech Republic and Slovakia: This applies solely in the case of external evaluation by the inspectorate.

Denmark and Sweden: This applies solely in the case of evaluation by the municipalities. With effect from 2004/05 in Sweden, the NAE is making use of the findings of internal evaluation.

Germany: In some of the *Länder* where internal evaluation is mandatory, internal evaluation findings are used for external evaluation.

France: The Figure refers to relations between internal evaluation conducted by the school head and external evaluation of the school head (lower secondary education).

Latvia: Following the reform of evaluation (2004/05), all judgements formed in the process of external evaluation are to be used for internal evaluation.

Luxembourg: In 2002/03, primary schools were not evaluated and there was no internal evaluation in secondary education. It is planned to make reciprocal use of findings from the external and internal approaches to evaluation adopted in 2004/05.

Hungary: The Figure relates solely to internal evaluation focused on the teaching programme, and compulsory external evaluation by the municipalities, which is concerned with management aspects.

Finland: See the note in Figure B16.

Norway: Only internal evaluation occurred in 2002/03. The external evaluation of schools by municipalities is mandatory with effect from 2004/05.

Explanatory note

In the majority of countries, two or occasionally more distinct approaches to the external evaluation of schools as entities exist, depending on the identity of the evaluator. External evaluation is conducted by evaluators who report to a local, regional or central education authority. Only approaches to external evaluation conducted by evaluators covering a broad range of school activities are considered here.

Internal evaluation is carried out by members of the school community, meaning individuals or groups of people who are directly involved in school activities (such as the school head, teaching and administrative staff and pupils) or who have a direct stake in them (such as parents or local community representatives).

In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland), the findings of external evaluation are sent to schools in a somewhat different form corresponding to so-called *kwaliteitskaarten* (quality cards) and records of performance prepared by the inspectors for each secondary school, respectively. Both types of document contain certain judgements by the inspectorate about individual schools in particular but also data on pupil attainment, which are considered in relation to the performance of groups of schools with similar characteristics, or the results of all schools.

In a second group of countries, external evaluators use the results of internal evaluation (recorded in documents produced by the school), but schools are not advised to refer to the findings of external evaluation when they evaluate themselves. In Austria and Iceland (in the case of external evaluators under contract to the ministry of education), internal evaluation is the focus of external evaluation. This is commonly referred to as 'meta-evaluation'.

Finally, in a few countries, the interaction between internal and external evaluation is very weak, or non-existent. In Belgium (the Flemish Community), Germany (in the majority of *Länder*), Estonia, Greece, Spain, Cyprus, Hungary and Portugal, there are neither regulations nor centralised recommendations concerning use of the findings of one form of evaluation by another. This situation may be attributable to the fact that internal evaluation is not yet fully developed, or that internal and external evaluation are concerned with different school activities (for example, teaching as opposed to management). In the Flemish Community of Belgium, the situation is changing.

In each of the three foregoing groups of countries, interaction between internal and external evaluation may also be reflected in the use of evaluation criteria. Some countries recommend that schools use the centrally determined list of standard (external) evaluation criteria for purposes of self-evaluation, or make it compulsory for them to do so (Figure B17).

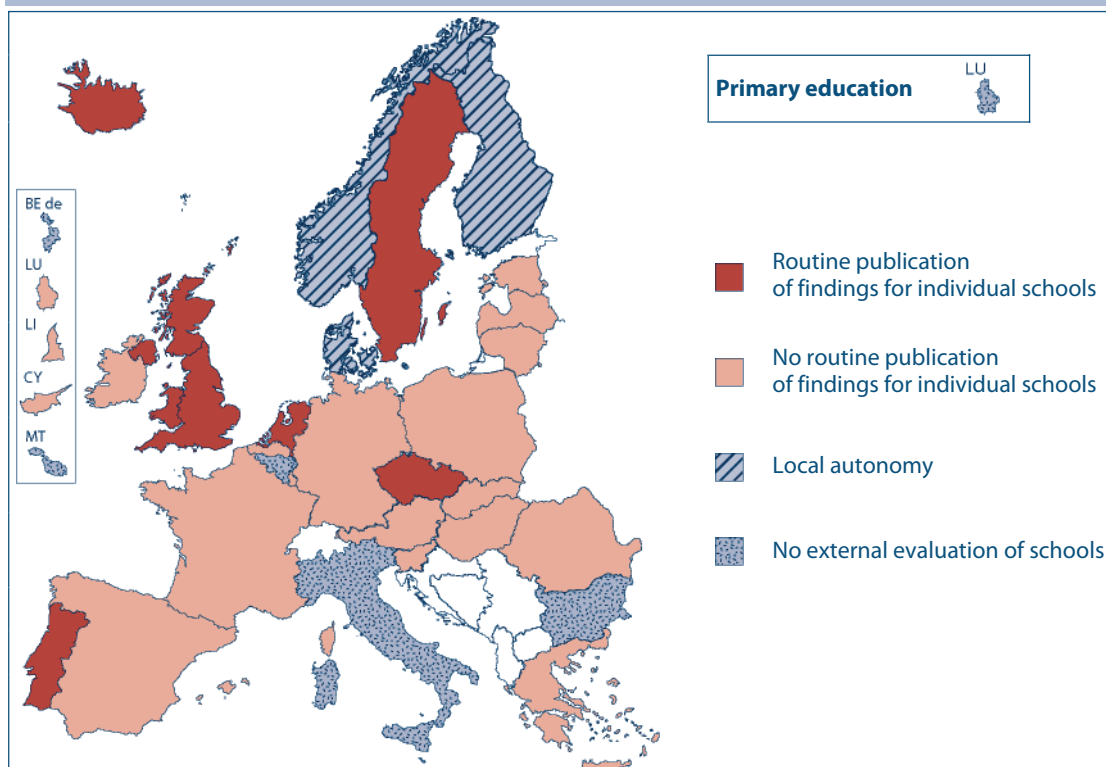
PUBLICATION OF SCHOOL EVALUATION FINDINGS IS NOT COMMON PRACTICE

The routine publication of findings from the external evaluation of schools, as recorded in evaluation reports, is a fairly recent practice and not very widespread in Europe. In general, it dates from the end of the 1990s, although it was already established in the United Kingdom (England) in the 1980s.

In the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland, findings from the external evaluation of schools are published as a matter of course when evaluation is carried out by external evaluators (in most cases inspectors) responsible to the central authorities. In Sweden and Iceland, the results of evaluation conducted at local level are also published on a regular basis. In Hungary and Poland, the decision is taken at local and regional levels, respectively, and publication sometimes occurs.

Except in Portugal, the findings of school evaluation conducted at central level are published on the website of the inspectorate or ministry of education. The Netherlands and the United Kingdom also attach special importance to ensuring that this information reaches parents. The same is true for Portugal. Each school in the Netherlands enables parents to consult its *kwaliteitskaart*, a sort of standard fact sheet containing different types of information, some of which is taken from the inspectorate evaluation report. In Portugal and the United Kingdom, inspection reports are sent to all parents and anyone else who formally requests them.

Figure B19: Publication of findings from the external evaluation of schools as entities, compulsory general education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl) and **Slovakia**: The results are not published but may be consulted on request.

Czech Republic, Estonia, Slovakia and **United Kingdom (ENG/WLS, SCT)**: The Figure relates solely to external evaluation carried out at central level. There are no central regulations on publication of the findings of evaluation carried out by the local authorities. The situation may vary.

Spain: The map relates to evaluation in Andalusia, Catalonia, the Canary Islands, the Basque Country and Castile-La Mancha.

Latvia: The results of the inspection in 2003, to check that schools functioned in compliance with the operational standards required to obtain the status of *gymnasium*, were the subject of a publication.

Lithuania: The findings of evaluation by the inspectorate are published solely when schools fail to comply with the regulations applicable to them.

Luxembourg: Primary schools are not externally evaluated. Findings from the external evaluation of secondary schools introduced in 2004/05 are not published.

Finland: See the note in Figure B 16.

Iceland: The map relates solely to the external evaluation of schools as entities. Findings from the appraisal of internal evaluation methods are not published.

Norway: The external evaluation of schools by municipalities is mandatory with effect from 2004/05, with routine publication of its findings.

Explanatory note

In the majority of countries, two or occasionally more distinct approaches to the external evaluation of schools as entities exist, depending on the identity of the evaluator. External evaluation is conducted by evaluators who report to a local, regional or central education authority. Only approaches to external evaluation conducted by evaluators covering a broad range of school activities are considered here.

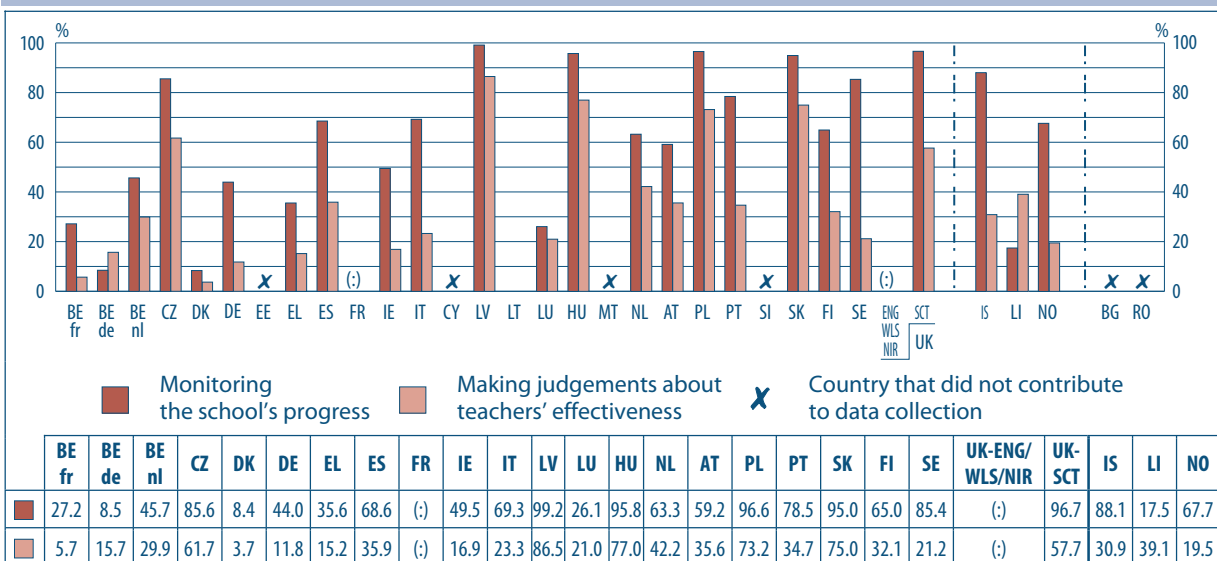
Publication of the results of the external evaluation of schools refers to publication of the findings for each individual school.

PUPIL ASSESSMENT DATA ARE OFTEN USED FOR SCHOOL SELF-EVALUATION

According to school heads, taking account of pupils' results is a very widespread practice during the school's internal evaluation. Over half of the 15-year-old pupils covered by the PISA 2003 survey attended schools to which this applies.

In the Czech Republic, Latvia, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Iceland, the proportion of schools that use assessments of their pupils for purposes of self-evaluation is particularly high and affects at least 85 % of 15-year-old pupils. These high proportions may be attributable to the importance which is attached to the performance of pupils in the internal evaluation of schools, and which is similarly emphasised by the central education authorities in some of these countries.

Figure B20: Percentage of pupils aged 15 attending a school which, according to the school head, uses their performance to monitor its own progress or evaluate its teachers, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (monitoring the school's progress = 97.3; evaluating the effectiveness of teachers = 88.5) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether the assessment of 15-year-old pupils was used in the school to monitor its progress from one year to the next, or to form a judgement on the effectiveness of teachers. As a result, the assessment of pupils considered here relates either to examinations administered by the school, or externally organised examinations. Results are analysed within the school. Evaluation of the effectiveness of teachers may focus on them as individuals or on teachers as a whole. It may relate to practices regulated by the education authorities, such as an annual appraisal of each teacher by the school head, or more informal practices developed within the school.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In the United Kingdom (Scotland), during internal evaluation, schools are strongly advised to refer to indicators they receive from the education authorities on the performance of pupils in national examinations. Similar recommendations exist in Latvia, though on a lesser scale. In Sweden, the National Agency for Education recommends that schools consider pupil performance in the quality reports they produce on the completion of evaluation. In Iceland, the education authorities provide schools with indicators based on the performance of pupils in national examinations, for purposes of internal evaluation. In the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia, on the other hand, the central and regional education authorities do not provide schools with any such indicators for internal evaluation, so that schools using pupil assessment for this purpose would do so entirely on their own initiative. In Hungary, the internal evaluation of schools may be based on the results of pupils in tests prepared by experts for certain subjects.

In all these countries, pupil performance was used far less frequently to make judgements about the effectiveness of teachers than about the performance of schools as such. In just four countries (Latvia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia), over 70 % of pupils aged 15 attended schools which used their performance to make judgements about the effectiveness of teachers. As a whole, therefore, in these countries importance is attached to pupil performance in school-level evaluations, whether this means evaluating the progress of schools or the effectiveness of their teachers. In other countries (Spain, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway), the relatively limited use of pupil performance to evaluate teachers – as reported by school heads – is attributable to the fact that the individual evaluation of teachers by schools is not mandatory under public-sector legislation.

In the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein, assessments of less than a third of the 15-year-old pupils covered by the survey are used to monitor the progress of schools. School internal evaluation procedures may account for this finding. In the French Community of Belgium, the internal evaluation of schools is uncommon, whereas in Luxembourg it was being introduced in secondary education in 2002. In the German-speaking Community of Belgium and in Denmark, internal evaluation was not compulsory in 2002/03. In all these countries, the use of pupil performance to evaluate the effectiveness of teachers is relatively limited.

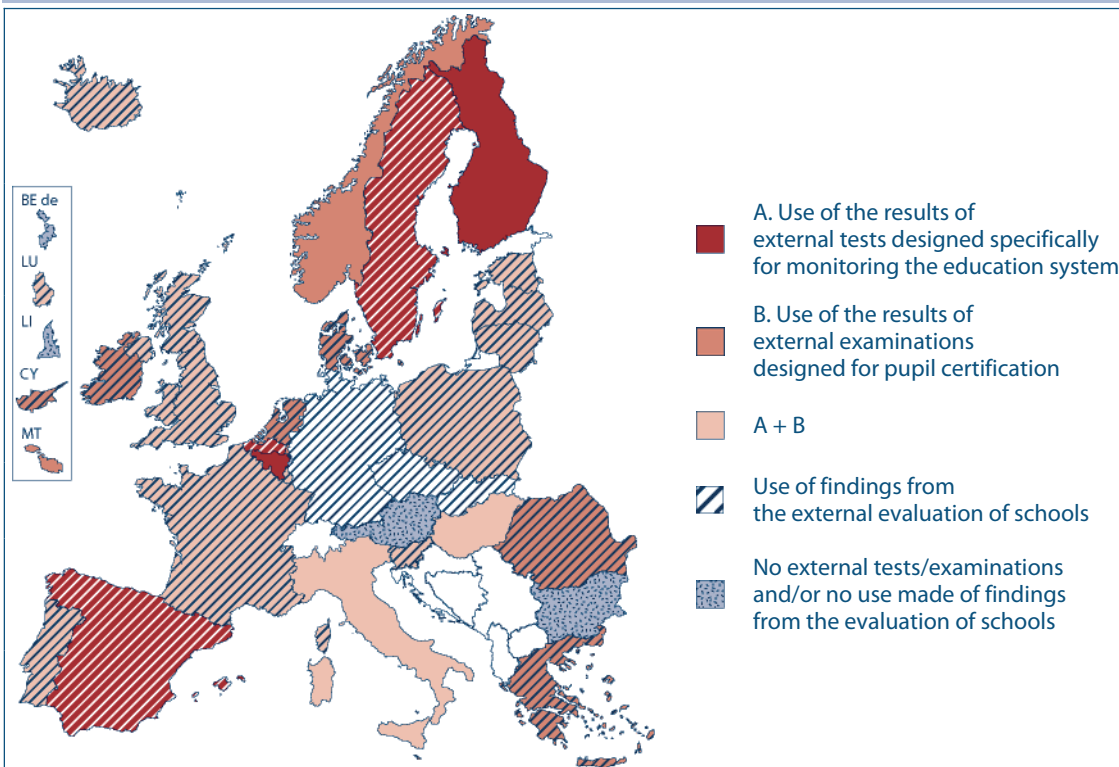
A VARIETY OF INFORMATION SOURCES ARE USED TO MONITOR EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Whenever an education system is monitored, it may be assumed that the standards and goals it should strive to achieve are clearly defined, as well as the regulatory mechanisms enabling it to adjust as appropriate.

Such monitoring has several aims, which include that of examining the system closely, reporting on its quality and enabling it to adjust so as to improve its performance. It may take place at school level (Figure B16), or at local, regional or national levels. Different reference criteria may be used depending on the level concerned, as well as the particular country. They may relate to school development (or action) plans, the results of school self-evaluation, external examinations, specially prepared performance indicators, the definition of competence thresholds or final requirements, national or international evaluations (including PIRLS, TIMSS, PISA, etc.), or reliance on experts or a special authority (for example, a council set up to monitor a reform).

A majority of countries take action of this kind, whatever its precise form, and many of them have established special bodies in order to do so.

Figure B21: Use made of findings from the evaluation of pupils and schools for monitoring education systems at primary and secondary level, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl): External tests that measure pupil attainment with respect to attainment targets set for the end of primary and secondary education in different subjects, were introduced in May 2002.

Lithuania: In 2001/02, external tests designed for monitoring the education system were introduced in mathematics, Lithuanian language and, from 2002/03 onwards, in natural and social sciences. They are administered alternately for distinct years of compulsory education (for example years 4 and 8 tested in Spring 2005).

Luxembourg: In 2002/03, external tests designed for monitoring the education system were introduced in German, French and mathematics in the third year of general and technical secondary education.

Hungary: In 2001, external tests designed for monitoring the education system were introduced in reading and mathematics. They are administered alternately for distinct years of compulsory education (for example years 6, 8 and 10 tested in 2004).

Malta: External tests designed for monitoring the education system are not used on a regular basis. However, as part of a national literacy survey, such tests were administered in March 1999 and March 2003 on the same cohort of pupils, in the second and fifth years of primary education respectively.

Poland: In 2001/02, external tests at the end of primary education and external examinations for certified assessment on completion of compulsory education were introduced. In May 2005, an external *matura* examination for purposes of certified assessment is being introduced at the end of upper secondary education.

Slovenia: Pupils' knowledge of Slovenian and mathematics on completion of the first three-year stage of compulsory education was assessed for the first time using national tests in 2002/03. Their knowledge of these two subjects and foreign languages will be assessed following completion of the second stage in 2005/06.

Norway: Since the spring of 2004, the administration of external tests on basic skills (in reading, writing, mathematics and English) has got underway in all primary and secondary schools (on completion of the fourth, seventh and final year of compulsory education, as well as the first year of upper secondary education).

Bulgaria: The National Institute for Education is in the process of drawing up a methodology to assess pupil attainment in Bulgarian language and literature and mathematics in years 1, 2, 5, 9 (using external tests designed for monitoring the education system) and in years 4 and 8 (on the basis of external qualifying examinations).

Romania: In 2002/03, a report was prepared on the state of pre-university education, which included the results of pupils in examinations for certified assessment at the end of lower secondary and upper secondary education.

Explanatory note (Figure B21)

‘Use of the results of external tests designed specifically for monitoring the education system’ refers to the use of national-level data on the average results obtained by all pupils (or a representative sample of pupils) from a given age group in an external assessment. This assessment may be in the form of ‘diagnostic’ tests taken at the start of the year, or standard national tests. In most cases, the results obtained are compared with the skills or knowledge that should have been acquired at a given stage of education.

‘Use of the results of external examinations designed for pupil certification’ refers to the use of national-level data on the average results obtained by all pupils when they sit external examinations to mark the satisfactory completion of a given stage of education. External examinations’ results which are used solely to evaluate schools and are published only by the school or local authority, are not considered here.

Tests undertaken for the purpose of international evaluation projects are not considered here.

In order to **monitor their education systems at central or national level**, Estonia, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and Iceland rely on the three sources of information examined here. These sources are national data on the results of pupils in external tests designed specifically for monitoring the education system; national data on their results in external examinations used for certified assessment (Figure B22); and, finally, reports on findings from the external evaluation of schools. The majority of countries use at least two of these sources.

In over half of the countries, the results of **external examinations for certified assessment** are used to carry out an overall investigation into the state of the education system at a particular time and they sometimes result in comparisons between – and the classification of – schools. In general, such examinations are held at the end of either compulsory education or upper secondary education. Only Malta holds an external examination at the end of primary education, enabling pupils to enter the *Junior Lyceums*. Organisation methods for certified assessment in secondary education as well as the years and courses concerned vary from one country to the next (Figures E27 and E28).

Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, the Netherlands, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Norway and Romania use both external examinations for certified assessment at the end of compulsory or lower secondary education and those held at the end of upper secondary education. Denmark and Poland use only the external examinations at the end of compulsory education, whereas Greece, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Hungary only use the results of external examinations for certified assessment held on completion of upper secondary education.

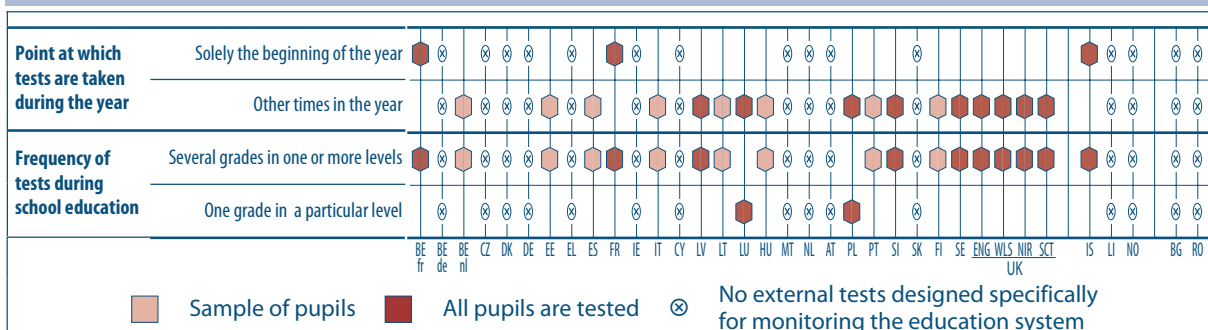
Findings from the external evaluation of schools are very frequently used to monitor the education system as a whole in countries where such evaluation occurs on a regular basis (Figure B16). The only exceptions are Austria, Hungary and Liechtenstein. In all the other countries, the findings of school evaluation at central and/or local level are used to monitor the system. Evaluators responsible to the central level generally prepare an overall report which is used by the education authorities. In Cyprus, Latvia and Iceland, a national report is not produced and the education authorities draw their conclusions by looking at evaluation reports for individual schools. Where evaluators are responsible to the local or regional levels, the arrangements enabling the central education authorities to use the evaluation findings concerned vary from one country to the next. In Denmark and Sweden, the findings of evaluation by the municipalities are processed by a specialist national agency in the field of education and are then subsequently used by the central education authorities.

EXTERNAL TESTS DESIGNED SPECIFICALLY FOR MONITORING — THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ARE BECOMING INCREASINGLY WIDESPREAD —

External tests designed specifically for monitoring the education system (Figure B21) are assuming increasing importance in Europe. Since 1999/2000, seven countries (Flemish Community of Belgium, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Norway) have introduced this type of test. They enable one to measure, at several points of education, how far pupils are proficient in areas of knowledge prescribed at national level. In the majority of cases, these tests are taken by all pupils. The Flemish Community of Belgium, Estonia, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Hungary, Portugal and Finland use samples of pupils.

In three countries, external tests are held at the beginning of the school year to enable teachers to take account of the results when teaching, and their purpose is strictly 'diagnostic'. Elsewhere, they take place during or at the end of the school year and are used to judge the effectiveness of the system. In Luxembourg and Poland, tests are held only once during school education, in the third year of secondary education and the final year of primary education, respectively. In the other countries, they generally take place several times during primary and/or secondary education, or several times during single structure education. They occur either at the end of particular stages of education inside a level (Figure B1), or at key points in schooling.

Figure B22: Organisation of external tests designed specifically for monitoring the education system, primary and secondary levels, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Hungary: Each year, all pupils in the groups concerned are tested, but only the results of pupil samples per school are part of a national assessment.

Portugal: Since 2002/03, external tests have been held for samples of pupils.

Slovenia: External tests arranged on completion of the first and second stages of compulsory education may be taken by all pupils but they are not compulsory.

Norway: Since the spring of 2004, the administration of external tests on basic skills (in reading, writing, mathematics and English) has got underway in all primary and secondary schools (on completion of the fourth, seventh and final year of compulsory education, as well as the first year of upper secondary education).

Explanatory note

'Use of the results of external tests designed specifically for monitoring the education system' refers to the use of national-level data on the average results obtained by all pupils (or a representative sample of pupils) from a given age group in an external assessment. This assessment may be in the form of 'diagnostic' tests taken at the start of the year, or standard national tests. In most cases, the results obtained are compared with the skills or knowledge that should have been acquired at a given stage of education.

'Level' here refers to the subdivision of school education into primary and secondary education. Lower and upper secondary education are not considered to be two different levels here. The single structure is considered to be one level (Figure B1).

'Several grades in one or more levels' refers to the countries which tested different grades in 2002/03 as well as the countries which alternatively test one or more grades every year.



ORGANISATION

SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

ALL AREAS OF DECISION-MAKING SHOW VARIED LEVELS OF AUTONOMY FOR SCHOOLS

Six broad areas of school activity are considered here, ranging from those purely concerned with the process of teaching and learning to those concerned with the administration of schools. Each of these areas is further broken down into a number of more detailed aspects, making 44 in total.

Considerable variation is apparent across the six areas presented here. Schools are never fully autonomous across all areas, even in highly decentralised school systems such as in Hungary, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). By the same token, schools everywhere have at least some autonomy in some areas, although this is very restricted in Greece, Cyprus and Luxembourg. There is also generally very little difference in the extent of decision-making powers in primary and lower secondary education.

The degree of decision-making autonomy for schools is generally not clearly linked to the nature of the decision to be taken. In other words, matters related to teaching content and processes do not show a markedly more 'autonomous' profile compared to other aspects more related to administration, such as the use of private funds.

The extent of school autonomy may also vary considerably within one area. Education provision, for example, broadly refers to the way in which teaching and learning is organised in schools. When this is expressed in terms of the overall number of days to be spent in school per year, the result is quite striking. This is the aspect least open to school decision-making (taking all 44 aspects into account), with only four countries offering a limited degree of autonomy to schools. By contrast, the way in which subjects are timetabled over the school week is almost exclusively a matter for school decision-making, with schools in only four countries (three at secondary level) not exercising full autonomy.

Within the area of teaching content and processes, three aspects are also characterised by school autonomy almost everywhere. Teaching methods are the first of these (six countries have limited autonomy). The choice of textbooks is also a matter for which schools have at least some autonomy (only Greece, Cyprus and Luxembourg (at primary level) do not have any autonomy). There tends to be limited autonomy with respect to the content of teaching programmes, while all countries, except Germany, Latvia and Luxembourg, have at least some decision-making power with regard to pupils' continuous assessment.

Schools also have autonomy (in many cases, full autonomy) when it comes to criteria for grouping pupils together. By contrast, the criteria for selecting pupils at enrolment tends to be either entirely outside the sphere of decision-making for schools or a matter of limited autonomy (only schools in the Czech Republic, Italy and Hungary have full autonomy to decide on selection criteria).

It is perhaps in the area of human resources that differences in the extent of school decision-making process are most apparent. This may be a result of the fact that different administrative levels are responsible for employing teachers (Figure B27).

There is broader scope in several countries for schools to decide which teachers to recruit for teaching vacancies and – especially – to replace teachers on leave of absence, than there is to decide on the appointment of the school head or the number of teaching posts. In general, schools either have the same degree of autonomy or rather less (limited instead of full) when it comes to terminating a teacher's contract of employment.

Planning in-service teacher training is an aspect where school autonomy is very evident in Europe, with schools in 15 countries having full autonomy, and limited autonomy or delegation for schools in a further 15 countries.

With regard to funding, a distinction is apparent between the allocation of public funds for the overall school budget (that is, all current resources and, where applicable, capital resources) and the allocation of the budget for ongoing operational resources (that is, running costs, materials, etc.). In general, schools have less autonomy with respect to their overall budget than they do for their ongoing operational resources. Primary schools and secondary schools in the Flemish Community of Belgium and the Netherlands have full autonomy with respect to their overall budget, and schools in Estonia, Hungary, the Netherlands (at primary level) and the United Kingdom have limited autonomy. In Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Norway, decisions relating to the allocation of both types of budget can be delegated by the local authority.

While the degree of autonomy for the acquisition of movables (classroom equipment and materials) shows a mixed picture, the acquisition of computer equipment – which may be considered to form part of the school's movable resources – does not always correspond. Schools in some countries have less autonomy to acquire computers (the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Malta and Slovakia (at primary level)), while the Czech Republic and Greece have more.

Schools have no autonomy in most countries for the acquisition of immovables (buildings). There are exceptions, however. Schools in Hungary, Slovakia and Bulgaria have full autonomy on this aspect, while schools in Ireland, the Netherlands (which may be a *bevoegd gezag*), Slovenia and the United Kingdom have limited autonomy.

Finally, schools have full autonomy to seek private sources of funding in the vast majority of countries. Only schools in Greece, France, Luxembourg, Finland, Iceland and Norway do not have full autonomy in this area. However, schools may generally not take out private loans: they have full autonomy to do so only in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands (at secondary level), Bulgaria and Romania.

When it comes to the use of private funds, schools have considerable freedom to acquire operational goods and services, movables and, to a somewhat lesser extent, to employ non-teaching staff and acquire immovables (within the limits of the private funding available to them). Many education systems, however, do not allow schools the freedom to use private funds to employ teaching staff.

Figure B23: Autonomy (for 44 aspects) of public-sector schools in primary and lower secondary education, 2002/03

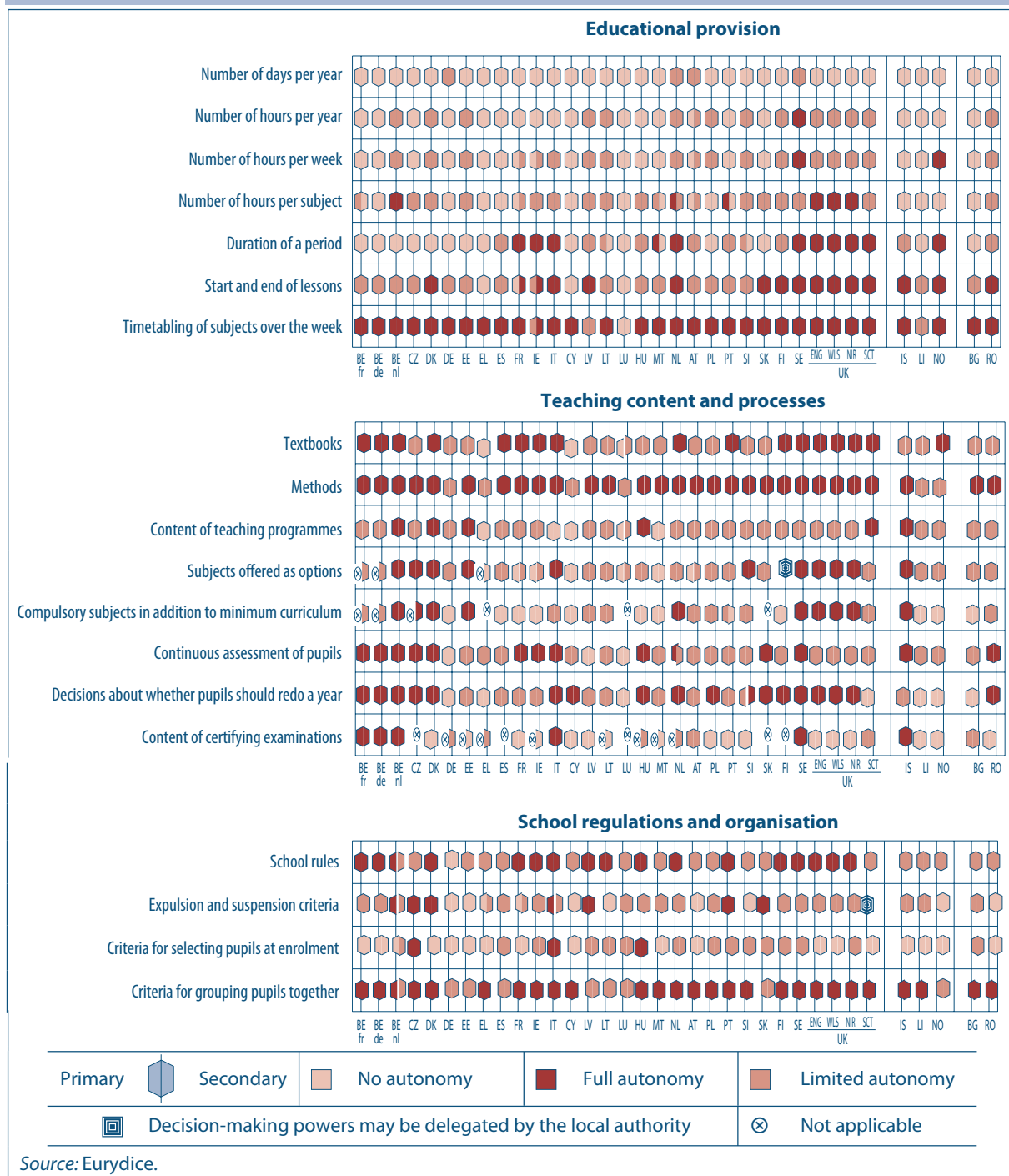


Figure B23 (continued): Autonomy (for 44 aspects) of public-sector schools in primary and lower secondary education, 2002/03



SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

Additional notes (Figure B23)

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): At primary level, the curriculum is comprised of 28 teaching periods per week (minimum number in BE fr), and there is therefore no space for optional lessons.

Belgium, Ireland and Netherlands: Most schools are in the private grant-aided sector and the data are therefore not necessarily representative of the situation in these countries (see explanatory note). Private grant-aided schools will usually have greater autonomy in these areas.

Czech Republic and Greece: There are no optional subjects at primary level.

Czech Republic, Spain, Austria, Slovakia and Finland: There are no certifying examinations in compulsory education.

Germany, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Malta and Netherlands: There are no certifying examinations in primary education.

Estonia: Reform of the way in which the overall school budget (staff, operational and/or capital resources) is allocated has resulted in limited autonomy for municipal schools from January 2001 and for state schools from January 2003.

Cyprus: Some non-teaching staff are employed directly by the parents' union for assisting in school operations.

Luxembourg: The post of school head does not exist in primary education. From 2004/05, schools may opt to manage their budgets independently, and may in this case have recourse to private funds.

Netherlands: All schools are administered and managed by a competent authority (the *bevoegd gezag*) which may be specific to one school and thus represent the school itself, or may represent several schools.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): A minority of schools (*foundation and voluntary-aided*) set their own admissions criteria but must have regard to the national code of practice on admissions. *Voluntary-aided* schools may have full autonomy for the allocation of the school budget for capital resources.

United Kingdom (NIR): Admissions criteria are set by the *board of governors* with regard to representations by the *Education and Library Board* or *Catholic Council for Maintained Schools*. Expenditure on movables over a certain limit is the responsibility of the *Education and Library Board for controlled and maintained schools*.

United Kingdom (SCT): The curriculum is non-statute, and guidelines are produced for schools and education authorities to interpret and adapt freely to suit the particular circumstances of their school and community.

Explanatory note

Given the wide variety of situations relating to management in the private sector, this indicator only looks at the situation in public-sector schools. Public-sector schools refer to those controlled and administered directly by the public or government authorities. Schools controlled by private or non-governmental authorities are excluded even where they are funded solely by the public authorities.

Schools are considered as entities represented either by their school head or their management body. The school management body is only considered if it is located at school level. It may, however, include persons outside the school, such as those who represent the local authority. Depending on circumstances, the education authority is a public, local, regional or central authority.

This indicator shows the degree of school autonomy with respect to local, regional and central educational authorities. The autonomy enjoyed by schools with respect to parents and other school partners is not shown. Similarly, the way in which decision-making internal to the school (amongst school staff) is organised is not taken into account.

'**No autonomy**' means that decisions are taken only by the education authority, although the school may be consulted at a particular stage of the process. '**Full autonomy**' means that the school alone takes decisions, within the limits set by national/local legislation or regulations. A recommendation by the education authority with no binding force does not restrict school autonomy.

'**Limited autonomy**' comprises four separate situations, namely:

- the school takes a decisions together with the education authority or forwards its proposal to it for approval;
- the school takes a decision based on a set of options predetermined by the education authority;
- the school is autonomous as regards some decisions relating to the aspect under consideration but must refer to the education authority – or is not autonomous – as far as the remainder of decisions are concerned;
- the school is autonomous in principle but is strongly encouraged to follow official recommendations.

'**Decision-making powers may be delegated by the local authority**' means that local authorities are responsible for decision-making and have discretionary powers, in law, to delegate decision-making to school level.

Detailed information with respect to individual aspects is available as follows:

Number of hours per year: Figure E1

Number of hours per subject: Figures E2 and E3

Decisions about whether pupils should redo a year: Figure E23

Content of certifying examination: Figures E25 and E27

Acquisition of computer equipment: Figures D12 and D13

Numbers of hours of teachers' presence at school: Figures D33 and D34

SCHOOL HEADS REPORT BROAD DECISION-MAKING POWERS AT SCHOOL LEVEL

As part of the PISA 2003 survey, school heads were asked to identify where the main responsibility lies in their schools in a number of areas. Their responses add an interesting counterpoint to the analysis of official regulations on school autonomy (Figure B23), although direct comparisons are not possible given that the categories and nature of the data collection differ (not least, because the PISA survey includes schools in the private sector while Figure B23 refers to public-sector schools only).

The main distinction is between the proportion of responses which state that certain areas of school activity are 'not a main school responsibility' and the others, which break down the nature of responsibility amongst that held by a school governing board, the school head, the head of a department within the school and teachers themselves.

The results show that school heads in the PISA countries tend to identify most of the areas considered as being within the school's sphere of decision-making. Indeed, in Hungary and the Netherlands, almost all decisions are reported to take place at this level. The few exceptions to this correspond to centralised education systems, and even here, the picture is not clear-cut, with one or more areas of activity remaining within the school's domain to some extent.

Teacher recruitment and dismissal are the areas of activity most commonly reported as not being a main school responsibility. This is the case in Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria and Portugal. These are all countries where teachers are employed by the top-level authority for education (Figure B27). The few school heads who report school involvement in these countries most likely belong to the private sector. Responses in the United Kingdom (Scotland) show less school involvement in teacher dismissal. By contrast, teacher recruitment and dismissal is almost exclusively the responsibility of school heads in the Czech Republic, Latvia, Poland, Slovakia, Sweden and Iceland.

The response in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium shows a high level of involvement for school heads (especially with respect to teacher recruitment). This differs from data on official regulation (Figure B23). In principle, public-sector schools have no autonomy with respect to teacher recruitment and limited authority for their dismissal. The high proportion of schools in the private grant-aided sector, surveyed in PISA, where teacher recruitment and dismissal is a matter for the schools themselves, may account for this difference.

Decisions on school enrolments are reported to be up to school heads in almost all countries, although this is sometimes also the responsibility of authorities outside school (Austria, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Norway) or the school board (Spain, Ireland and Hungary). In Portugal and Liechtenstein, it is entirely a matter for the school board. Again, this information differs from data derived from official regulations (Figure B23) for some countries.

School heads commonly attribute responsibility for pupil disciplinary policies to themselves, although this is also sometimes a matter for teachers (especially in Poland) or, more frequently, for the school board (in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary and Austria).

SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

Figure B24: Breakdown of pupils aged 15 according to the persons or authorities identified by the school head as having main decision-making responsibilities in six areas, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

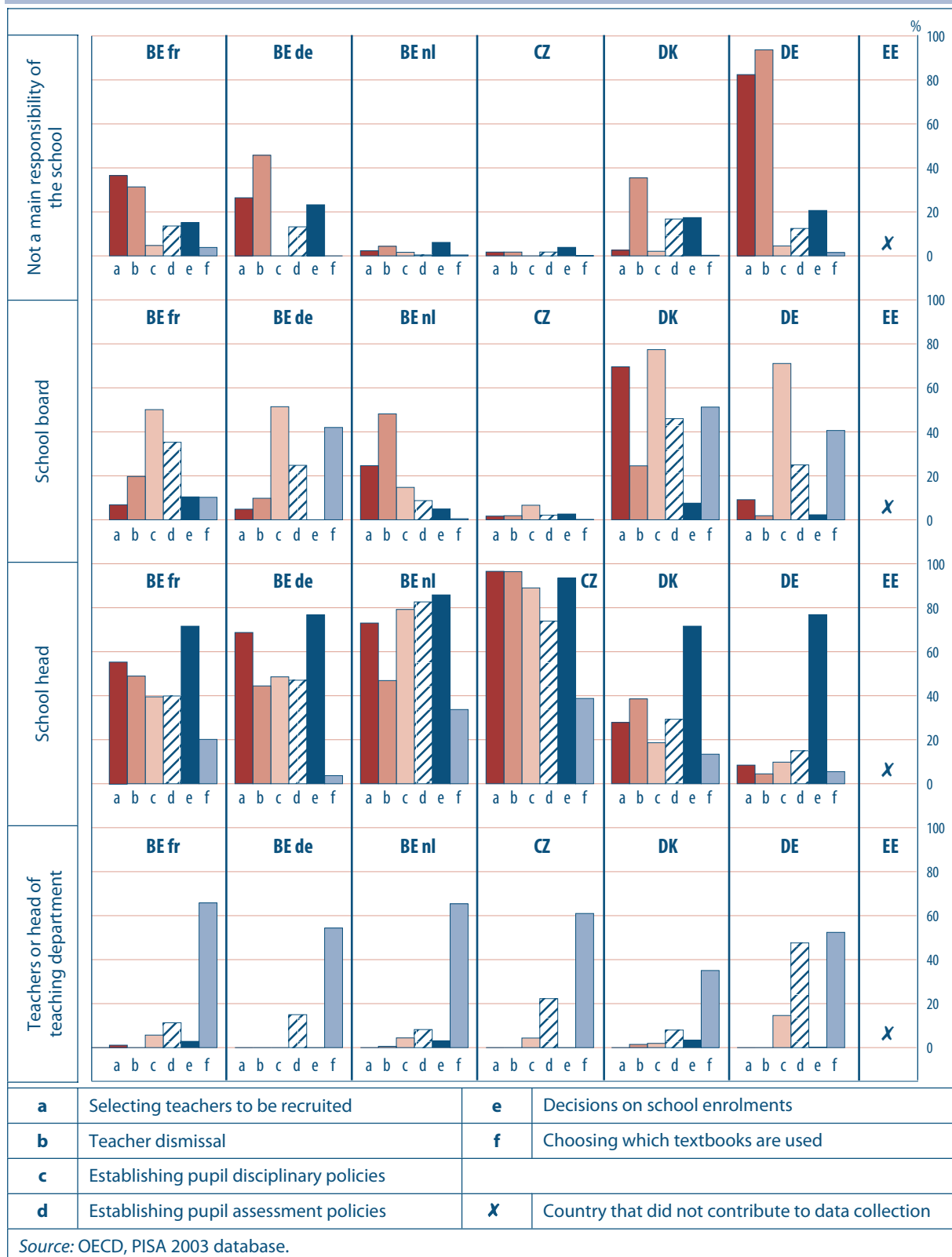
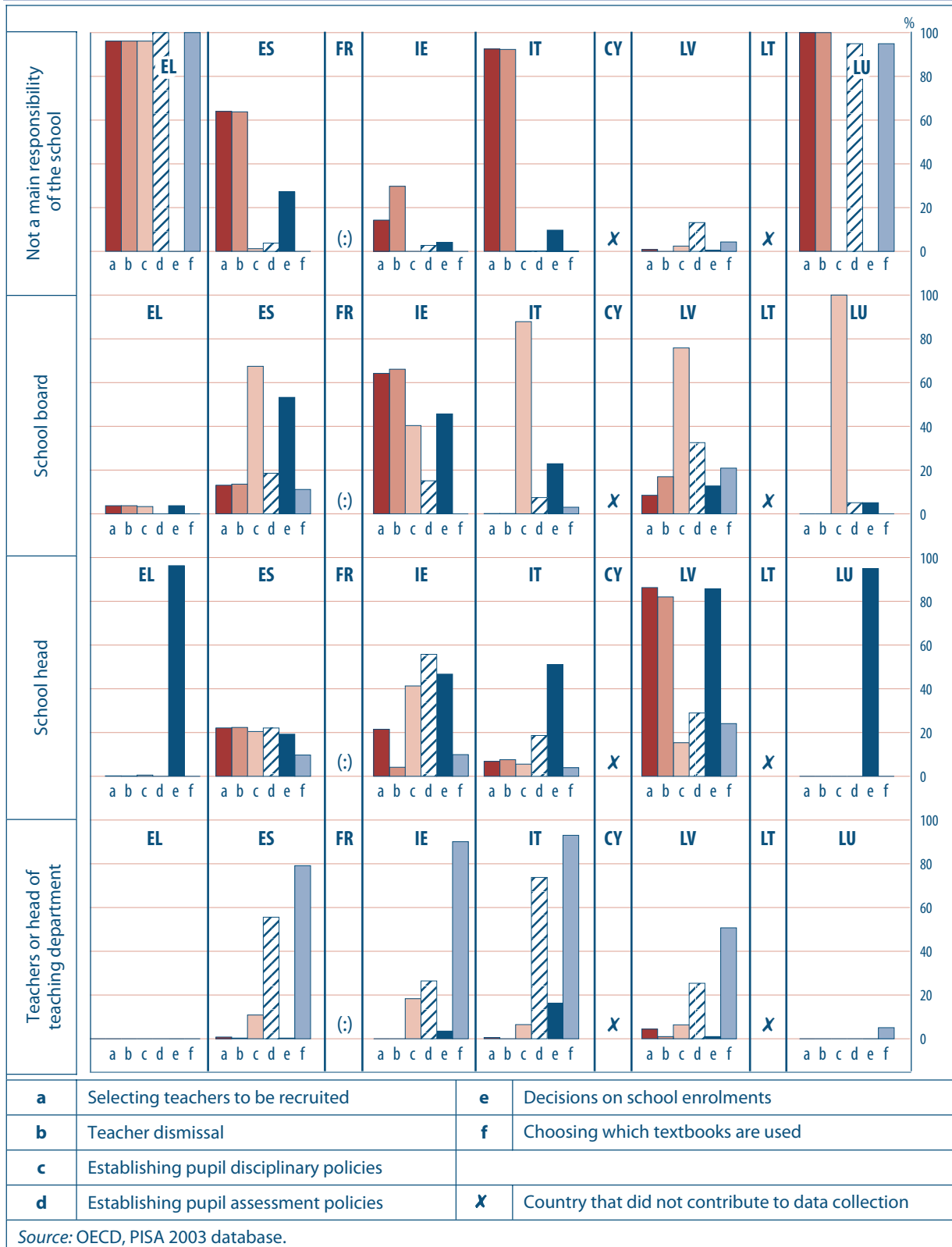
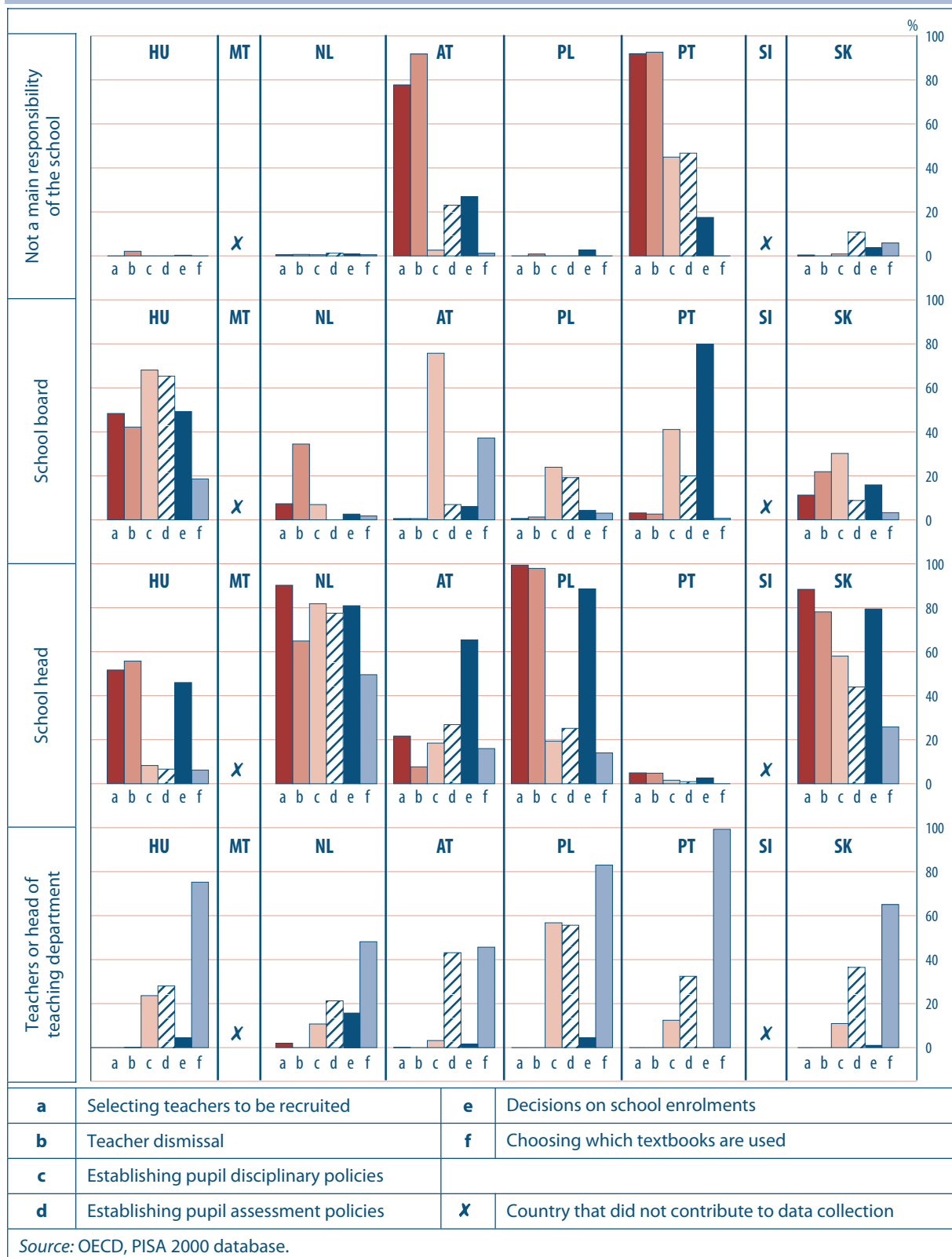


Figure B24 (continued): Breakdown of pupils aged 15 according to the persons or authorities identified by the school head as having main decision-making responsibilities in six areas, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

Figure B24 (continued): Breakdown of pupils aged 15 according to the persons or authorities identified by the school head as having main decision-making responsibilities in six areas, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03





ORGANISATION

Figure B24 (continued): Breakdown of pupils aged 15 according to the persons or authorities identified by the school head as having main decision-making responsibilities in six areas, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

Data (Figure B24)

Not a main responsibility of the school																											
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT					
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI			SE	IS	LI	NO	
a	36.5	26.4	2.3	1.7	2.6	82.4	96.1	64.0	(-)	14.3	92.5	0.8	100.0	0.0	0.5	77.8	0.0	91.9	0.4	30.1	0.5	(-)	13.5	0.0	18.6	35.8	
b	31.4	45.8	4.4	1.7	35.5	93.7	96.1	63.8	(-)	29.8	92.3	0.0	100.0	2.1	0.7	91.8	0.8	92.6	0.0	64.5	17.0	(-)	85.8	0.4	18.6	53.9	
c	4.7	0.0	1.6	0.0	2.1	4.5	96.1	1.2	(-)	0.0	0.1	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.5	2.6	0.0	44.9	0.9	0.1	0.0	(-)	1.1	0.0	0.0	12.6	
d	13.6	13.2	0.4	1.7	16.8	12.5	100.0	3.8	(-)	2.7	0.2	13.2	94.9	0.0	1.2	23.1	0.0	46.7	10.8	1.0	2.6	(-)	3.5	0.0	13.6	38.1	
e	15.1	23.2	6.1	3.9	17.4	20.6	0.0	27.2	(-)	4.1	9.7	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.8	26.9	2.6	17.5	3.7	28.9	36.9	(-)	53.4	19.4	29.3	76.0	
f	3.8	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.3	1.5	100.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	4.3	94.9	0.0	0.5	1.2	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.4	0.0	1.7	
School board																											
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT					
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI			SE	IS	LI	NO	
a	6.8	4.8	24.6	1.7	69.6	9.1	3.7	13.1	(-)	64.2	0.1	8.5	0.0	48.3	7.3	0.6	0.6	3.1	11.2	13.0	3.7	(-)	9.4	12.1	76.3	12.1	
b	19.7	9.8	48.1	1.9	24.5	1.9	3.7	13.6	(-)	66.1	0.1	17.0	0.0	42.2	34.4	0.6	1.3	2.6	21.9	15.4	12.9	(-)	3.8	18.4	76.3	5.5	
c	50.1	51.4	14.7	6.6	77.4	71.1	3.3	67.5	(-)	40.4	87.9	75.9	100.0	68.1	6.9	75.7	23.9	41.1	30.2	20.2	8.4	(-)	5.2	1.0	7.7	35.4	
d	35.2	24.8	8.7	2.1	46.0	25.0	0.0	18.6	(-)	15.1	7.4	32.5	5.1	65.3	0.0	6.9	19.2	20.0	8.8	15.7	5.5	(-)	1.6	0.1	13.3	6.2	
e	10.4	0.0	4.9	2.6	7.6	2.3	3.7	53.2	(-)	45.7	22.9	12.8	5.1	49.2	2.6	6.1	4.3	79.9	15.9	2.5	6.5	(-)	1.2	12.7	65.7	3.5	
f	10.2	42.0	0.5	0.2	51.2	40.6	0.0	11.1	(-)	0.0	3.0	20.9	0.0	18.6	1.8	37.2	3.0	0.7	3.2	2.8	1.1	(-)	0.0	0.0	95.0	29.2	
School head																											
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT					
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI			SE	IS	LI	NO	
a	55.5	68.7	73.1	96.6	27.8	8.4	0.2	22.1	(-)	21.5	6.8	86.3	0.0	51.7	90.2	21.7	99.4	4.9	88.4	56.4	95.3	(-)	77.1	87.9	5.0	52.1	
b	48.9	44.5	46.9	96.4	38.6	4.5	0.2	22.3	(-)	4.1	7.6	82.0	0.0	55.7	64.9	7.7	97.9	4.8	78.1	19.5	70.2	(-)	10.4	81.3	5.0	40.5	
c	39.5	48.6	79.2	89.0	18.6	9.8	0.5	20.5	(-)	41.3	5.6	15.3	0.0	8.3	81.8	18.5	19.3	1.6	58.0	58.3	69.7	(-)	87.7	93.9	60.7	35.0	
d	39.9	47.1	82.7	73.9	29.3	15.0	0.0	22.1	(-)	55.8	18.7	28.9	0.0	6.6	77.5	26.8	25.2	0.9	44.0	47.4	40.6	(-)	73.0	82.3	35.2	33.0	
e	71.6	76.8	85.8	93.5	71.6	76.9	96.3	19.3	(-)	46.7	51.1	85.7	94.9	46.0	80.9	65.4	88.6	2.6	79.4	68.2	54.8	(-)	45.4	67.6	5.0	18.6	
f	20.1	3.7	33.7	38.8	13.4	5.5	0.0	9.7	(-)	9.9	3.9	24.1	0.0	6.2	49.6	16.0	14.0	0.0	25.8	28.5	8.2	(-)	2.1	30.3	5.0	28.8	
Teachers or head of teaching department																											
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT					
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI			SE	IS	LI	NO	
a	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	(-)	0.0	0.6	4.4	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
b	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.3	(-)	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
c	5.7	0.0	4.4	4.4	1.9	14.6	0.0	10.9	(-)	18.3	6.5	6.4	0.0	23.6	10.7	3.2	56.8	12.4	10.9	21.4	22.0	(-)	6.1	5.1	31.7	17.1	
d	11.3	15.0	8.2	22.3	8.0	47.6	0.0	55.6	(-)	26.4	73.8	25.4	0.0	28.0	21.3	43.2	55.7	32.4	36.5	35.8	51.2	(-)	21.9	17.6	37.9	22.7	
e	2.8	0.0	3.1	0.0	3.4	0.2	0.0	0.3	(-)	3.5	16.3	1.0	0.0	4.5	15.7	1.6	4.5	0.0	1.0	0.3	1.8	(-)	0.0	0.3	0.0	1.9	
f	65.8	54.4	65.4	61.0	35.1	52.4	0.0	79.1	(-)	90.1	93.0	50.7	5.1	75.2	48.2	45.7	83.0	99.3	65.1	68.8	90.6	(-)	97.9	69.3	0.0	40.3	
a	Selecting teachers to be recruited													d	Establishing pupil assessment policies												
b	Teacher dismissal													e	Decisions on school enrolments												
c	Establishing pupil disciplinary policies													f	Choosing which textbooks are used												

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.**United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR):** The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why data (Not a school responsibility: a = 0.0; b = 2.0; c = 0.0; d = 0.0; e = 30.8; f = 0.0; School board: a = 58.7; b = 83.4; c = 55.8; d = 28.0; e = 33.0; f = 0.7; School head: a = 38.9; b = 14.0; c = 41.2; d = 62.6; e = 33.9; f = 0.3; Teachers or head of teaching department: a = 2.3; b = 0.6; c = 3.0; d = 9.4; e = 2.3; f = 99.0) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note (Figure B24)

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate, for a number of decision-making areas falling within school responsibility, who has main responsibility (teachers, the head of teaching department, the school head or the school board). Where school heads indicated two responses for the same area – for example, the school board and the school head – only the higher decision-making authority is shown (in the example given, this would be the school board). The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned. For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

Teachers, or the head of a teaching department, are reported to have main responsibility for choosing textbooks in almost all countries, and sometimes very much so, such as in Spain, Ireland, Italy, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland). They are also reported to have an important decision-making role in establishing pupil assessment policies (Italy and, to a lesser extent, Spain and Poland). Thus, it might be inferred that for a number of countries (for example, Spain and Italy), school autonomy in these areas refers more specifically to teacher autonomy. Once more, however, these results are not entirely consistent with official regulations on school autonomy (Figure B23).

School heads in some countries report very limited responsibilities attributed to the school board, often in favour of the school head. The responses show this situation in the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Iceland.

In Spain, Italy, Portugal and Liechtenstein, the school head is perceived to have almost no decision-making powers in any of the six areas of activity. These countries tend to report clear-cut divisions of responsibilities between the other decision-making parties (such as in Italy, where pupil enrolment is the only area in which responsibility is reported as being shared between several decision-making authorities).

SCHOOL-LEVEL BODIES WITH PARENT REPRESENTATIVES ARE NOT OFTEN INVOLVED IN DECISION-MAKING

The role of parents in decision-making at school level depends on whether parents are included on school administrative councils or management bodies. Where this is the case, their sphere of influence across a range of areas may vary considerably. They may have decision-making power or exercise a consultative function, or enjoy neither of these. In Finland, Sweden, and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom (Scotland), the powers given to school-level bodies with parent representatives depend on the school concerned.

In the Czech Republic, Greece and Iceland, parents generally have very little power via school-level bodies, whether of a decision-making or consultative nature, while in Slovakia, Bulgaria and Romania, they only have powers with respect to two areas. By contrast, school-level bodies which include parents have powers in almost all areas in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Norway.

Overall, school-level bodies which include parents are least likely to have decision-making powers in the area of teacher recruitment, the termination of teaching contracts and in matters regarding teaching content. They are most likely to be involved in deciding upon the school plan and drawing up rules for everyday school activity.

Parent representatives contribute to establishing the school educational plan or school action plan in almost all countries, either with decision-making powers (eight countries), or – more commonly – with a consultative function (15 countries). Only in Denmark, France, Cyprus and Portugal do parent representatives have no say in this area.

By contrast, parents do not have any formal influence on decisions with respect to the expulsion or suspension of pupils in just over half of European education systems, and they have a consultative function in only three (Belgium (German-speaking Community), Estonia and Austria). Seven countries give parent representatives access to full decision-making powers in this area.

With respect to rules governing everyday school activity, the situation is quite mixed. There are decision-making powers for parents on school-level bodies in nine education systems and a consultative function in eleven others. And in the Czech Republic, Greece, France, Cyprus, Portugal, Slovenia and Slovakia, there are neither decision-making powers nor a consultative function in this area.

The recruitment of teachers and termination of teaching contracts is not commonly a matter for school-level bodies with parent representatives (Figure B23). Only Belgium (the Flemish Community), France, Portugal and the United Kingdom have decision-making power in this area. There is a consultative function in Norway. These types of arrangement are mirrored almost exactly with respect to powers on termination of teachers' employment, with only a few differences.

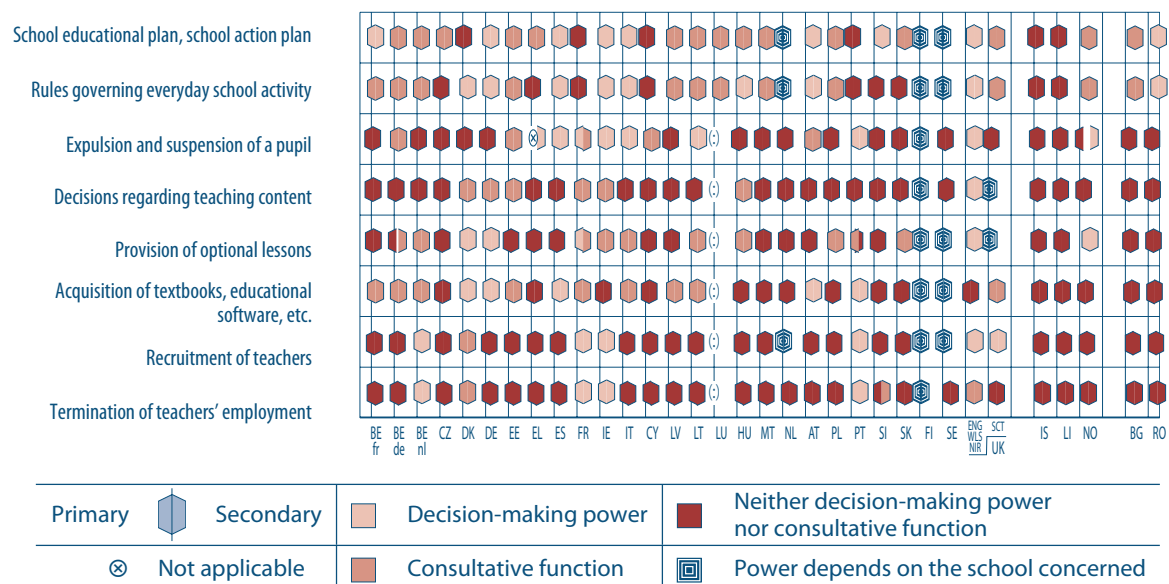
Similarly, decisions regarding teaching content are very rarely a matter for school-level bodies with parent representatives. Only Germany, Estonia, France and Hungary offer a consultative function and only the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Norway offer decision-making powers.

The picture is rather more mixed with respect to whether school bodies with parent representatives contribute to deciding which optional lessons are to be provided in the school, with some variation between educational levels as well (the German-speaking Community of Belgium, France and Portugal). There are no consultative or decision-making powers in 13 countries. A decision-making power exists in Germany, France (primary level), the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Norway, while parents have a

consultative function in Belgium (Flemish Community), Italy, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Portugal (primary level) and Slovakia.

Although schools have extensive autonomy to acquire textbooks (Figure B23), bodies which include parents do not participate in decision-making in this respect. Germany, Spain, Austria, Portugal and Norway are exceptions, in that bodies which include parent representatives do have decision-making powers in relation to choice of textbook, while in Belgium, the three Baltic states, France, Italy and the United Kingdom (Scotland) bodies including parents have a consultative function in this regard.

Figure B25: Power exercised in eight areas, by school council/boards with parent representatives, compulsory education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl): Parents on school bodies in the private grant-aided sector do not have decision-making or consultative powers with respect to the recruitment of teachers and the termination of their employment.

Greece: Pupils in primary education may not be expelled or suspended.

Italy: The expulsion and suspension of pupils at secondary level is decided by a school-level body. The participation of parents in this body depends on internal school regulations. At primary level, expulsion and suspension is not regulated and rarely occurs in practice.

Slovenia: Complaints concerning disruptive pupils may be made to the school council, which has decision-making power concerning the transfer of these pupils.

Slovakia: The powers of school councils with at least four parent representatives were extended by legislation in 2003 on state administration and self-government in education which came into force on 1 January 2004.

Sweden: As from 2003, schools are no longer obliged to present local school plans.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The school governing body establishes the general principles for rules governing everyday activity. Such rules are enforced by the headteacher. The governing body has overall responsibility for staffing matters but normally delegates the recruitment of staff, outside the leadership group, to the school head. New regulations in this regard came into force in England in September 2003. In England and Wales, the decision to suspend or expel a pupil is made by the school head, but must be approved by the governing body. In Northern Ireland, the decision to expel is made by the board of governors in all categories of schools except *controlled schools*.

United Kingdom (SCT): The responsibility for appointing senior teachers is shared with the Local Authority.

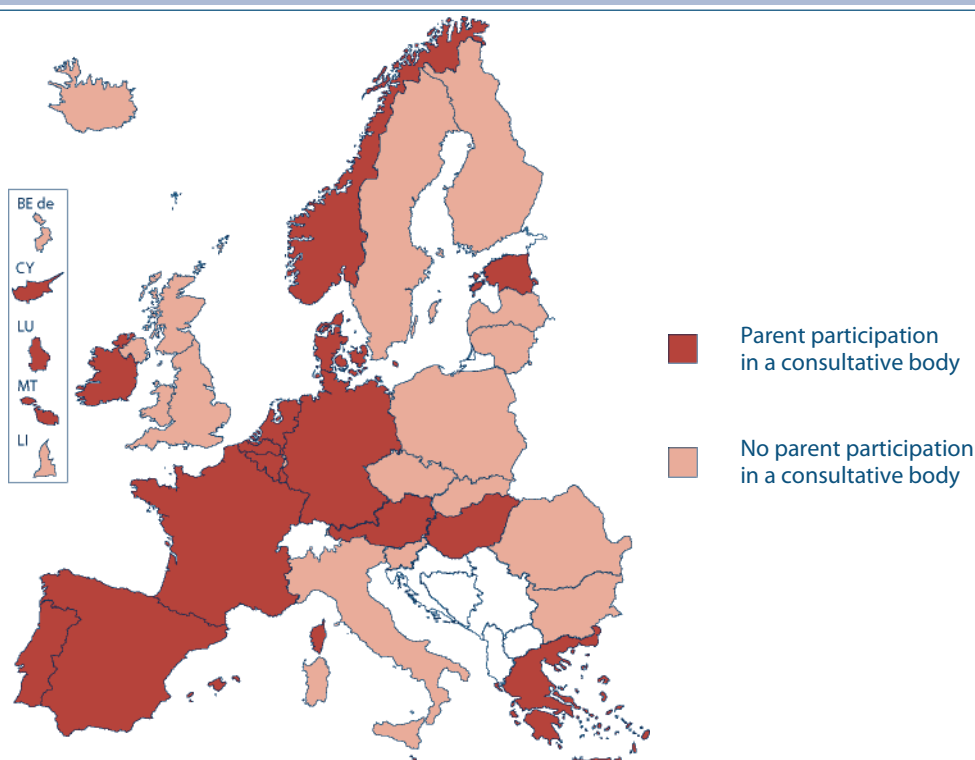
PARENT CONSULTATION VIA PARTICIPATORY BODIES AT CENTRAL LEVEL IS FAIRLY WIDESPREAD

In most of the EU-15 countries and in Norway, there is at least one national or central participatory body that includes parents alongside representatives of other players in the education system. Where such bodies exist, they act in a consultative capacity and do not have decision-making responsibilities.

By contrast, in the majority of the new EU member countries, as well as in Romania and Bulgaria, there is no national-level council with parent representation. This is also the case in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Liechtenstein.

In Italy, a consultative body exists at central level but does not include parents.

**Figure B26: Parent participation in consultative bodies,
compulsory education, 2002/03**



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: The situation varies from one *Land* to the next. School legislation and administration of the education system are the responsibility of the *Länder*.

Poland: A national council including parents is provided for in the law of 1991 but has not yet been set up.

Explanatory note

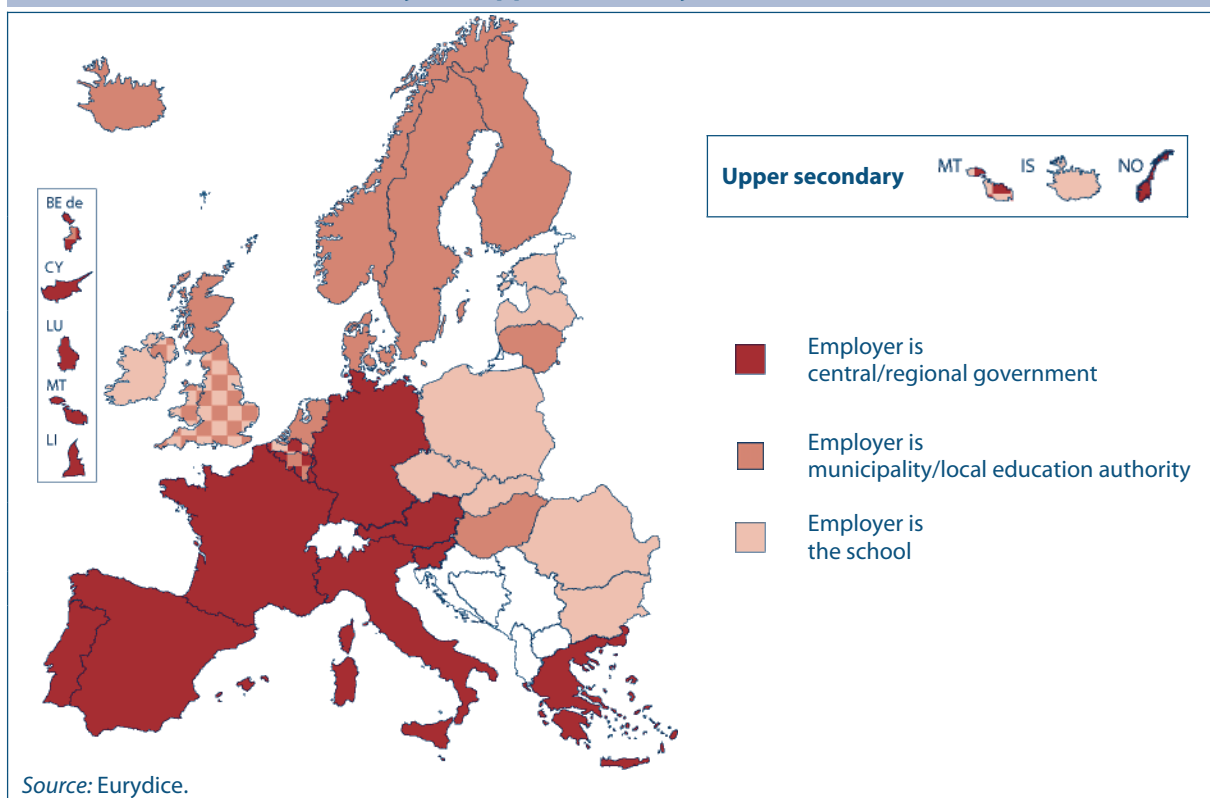
Associations consisting solely of parents are not shown.

TEACHERS' EMPLOYERS TEND TO BE THE SAME AT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS OF EDUCATION

The administrative level at which teachers are employed is closely bound up with their employment status (Figure D29). Teachers who are career civil servants are employed by central or regional authorities where these correspond to the top-level authority for education. This is the case in Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria and Portugal. In the Nordic countries as well as in Lithuania and the United Kingdom, the employer is the local authority (although not at upper secondary level in Iceland and Norway and not in all schools in England, Wales and Northern Ireland). Teachers working in public-sector schools in the Netherlands are employed by the municipal executive known as the *bevoegd gezag*. Schools are responsible for employing teachers in most of the new EU countries (with the exception of Lithuania, Cyprus and Malta) as well as in Ireland and in some categories of schools in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

The extent to which schools are involved in the decision-making process with respect to teacher recruitment (Figure B23) also has a close bearing on this information, because the employer is taken to mean the authority who has responsibility for appointing the teacher. Schools may nonetheless have full autonomy to recruit their teachers even where the employer is not located at school level (in Lithuania, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) for some categories of schools). This means that they are free to select their teachers themselves although a higher authority has formal responsibility for the teaching appointment.

Figure B27: Administrative level with responsibility for employing teachers in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education, 2002/03



Additional notes (Figure B27)

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): Teachers working in public-sector schools may be employed either by their respective Communities (which is the top level of education) or by the municipalities or provinces. Teachers working in the grant-aided private sector are employed by their competent authority. This latter situation is not shown on the Figure.

Belgium (BE nl): Public-sector teachers used to be employed by the *Autonome Raad voor het gemeenschapsonderwijs* (ARGO), an autonomous public body. Now, the 28 school groups at regional level employ teachers. Teachers may also be employed at local level when they work in schools organised by the municipalities, while teachers working in the grant-aided private sector are employed by the competent authority (the school board).

Czech Republic and Slovakia: From January 2003, all schools must be legal entities and are therefore responsible for employing teachers.

Germany: With respect to the minority of teachers who are not career civil servants, the contracting party may either be the *Land* or the municipality.

Italy: Teachers are employed by the CSA (*Centri Servizi Amministrativi*), carrying out administrative functions of the Regional School Office at provincial level.

Malta: At upper secondary level, the central authority is responsible for employing teachers in schools that fall under the Education Division, while the employer is the school where these are autonomous entities.

Netherlands: Teachers are employed by the competent authority (the *bevoegd gezag*), which is the municipal executive for public education and administrative body governed by private law for private grant-aided education.

Austria: Teachers working at primary level and in the *Hauptschulen* are employed by the *Länder*. Teachers working in the *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen* are employed by the *Bund* (central government).

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): In England and Wales, the *governing body of foundation and voluntary aided schools* is the employer and has the power to enter into contracts for the employment of teachers. In *community and voluntary controlled schools* the local education authority (LEA) is the employer. In Northern Ireland, the *Education and Library Board*, *Council for Catholic Maintained Schools*, or board of governors is the employer, depending on the category of school.

Explanatory note

The term 'employing authority' refers to the authority with direct responsibility for appointing teachers, specifying their working conditions (in collaboration with other partners, if appropriate) and ensuring that these conditions are met. This includes ensuring payment of teachers' salaries, although funds for this purpose may not necessarily derive directly from the authority's budget. This should be distinguished from the responsibility for managing resources within the school itself, which lies (to a greater or lesser extent) with the school head or the school management board.

The central government is the top-level authority for education in most countries. In three cases, however, decision-making occurs at a different level, namely that of the governments of the Communities in Belgium, the *Länder* in Germany and the governments of the Autonomous Communities in Spain.

In most cases, the level of education at which a teacher is employed has no bearing on the body responsible for employing them. The only exceptions are at upper secondary level, where in Malta (in some cases) and Iceland the employer is the school. In Austria, all teachers at upper secondary level are employed at central level, while in Norway, the authority responsible for employing upper secondary teachers is the County Education Committee.

IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION, THE OVERALL LEVEL OF EXPENDITURE ON TEACHING STAFF TENDS TO BE CENTRALLY DETERMINED

In most countries, decisions regarding the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for schools providing compulsory education are made by central and/or local government according to the category of resource (Figure D10). In some countries, however, these bodies only decide on the overall amounts for educational expenditure, while decisions relating to specific categories of resource are taken at school level. Depending on circumstances, the amount of funding for a particular resource is established either in terms of a lump sum to be shared out optimally among schools, or by means of a formula which, when applied to each school individually, gives the total level of funding required. No distinction is made here, however, between these two different procedures.

The overall level of public expenditure earmarked for teaching staff is decided at the level of central government and/or the top-level authority for education in over half of the European countries concerned, most of them in southern Europe.

In the Nordic countries, Hungary, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Bulgaria, the level of public expenditure on teaching staff is the responsibility of the local authorities. In Latvia, Poland, Slovenia and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), expenditure is partly centrally, partly locally determined.

Decision-making procedures concerned with the overall level of public expenditure to be earmarked for non-teaching staff, operational resources and movables may be examined together. In general, these decisions are taken at local level or are shared out between central and local levels. However, they remain centralised in Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Ireland, Cyprus, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal and Slovakia.

In several countries, decision-making is shared between the local and central levels. In general, decisions are shared in accordance with the following principle: those relating to the resources intended for some or all teaching equipment and materials (including computers, which come under the 'movables' heading) are taken centrally, whereas the remainder are taken locally. Depending on the country concerned, the share of centrally determined resources varies very widely. In some of the countries in this group, school textbooks are always centrally produced and distributed.

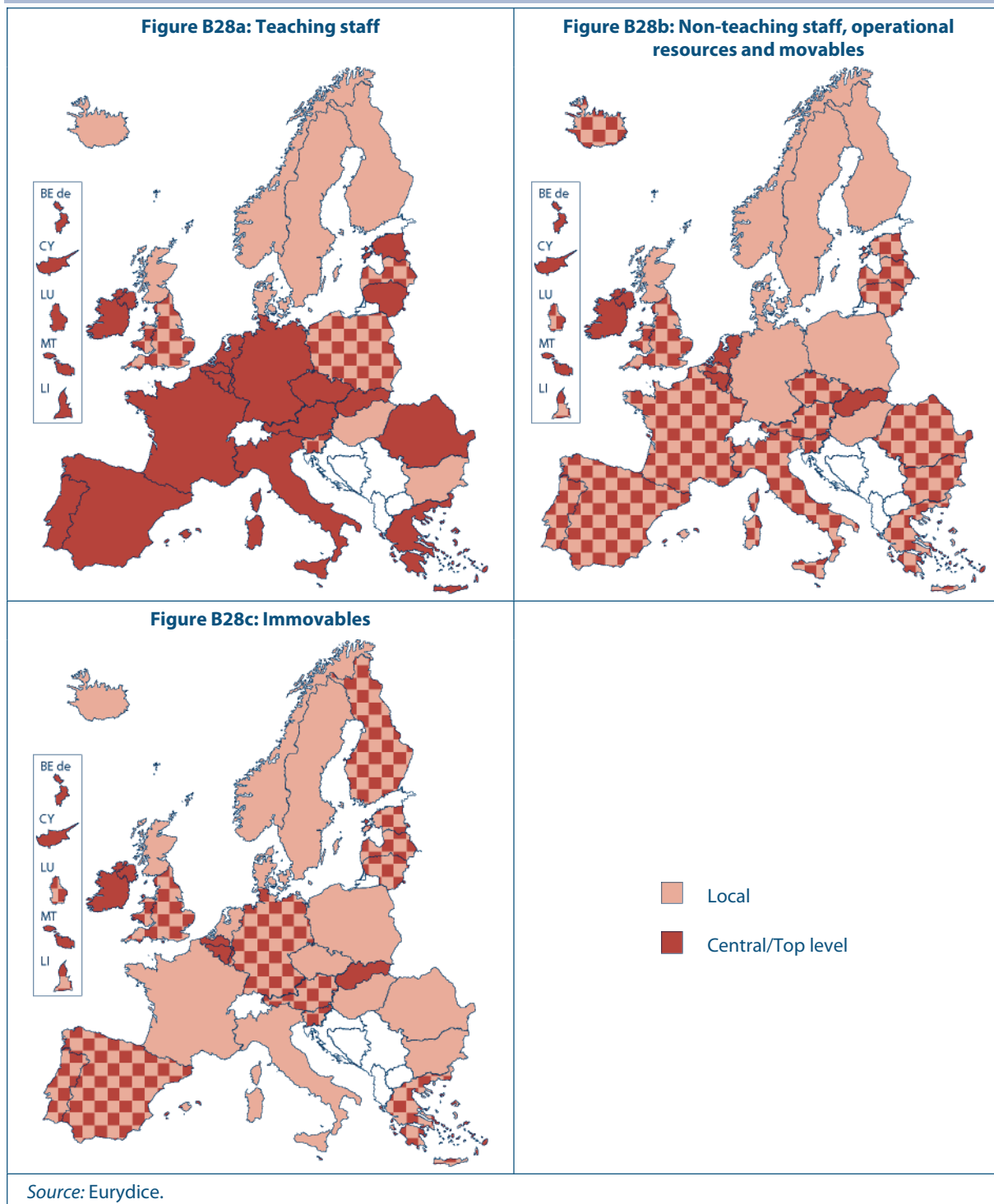
In the United Kingdom, the final amount of public expenditure allocated to schools is determined at local authority level, following central government guidelines (except in Northern Ireland where the decision is taken by central government). Decisions on how the school budget is distributed with respect to staffing, operational resources and movables are taken at school level.

In the majority of cases, the administrative levels responsible for determining the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for fixed capital assets (immovables) are also those that determine amounts for operational resources and movables (excluding teaching equipment and materials). However, several countries constitute exceptions to this rule. In Germany (responsibility of the *Länder*), Luxembourg (primary education), Slovenia, Finland, and in secondary education in Liechtenstein, the top-level authority is wholly or partially involved in fixing the amounts to be earmarked for immovables but not for operational resources.

It should be noted that the opposite may also apply. In the Netherlands, the amount a municipality receives from central government for buildings is fixed on the basis of a number of criteria. However, municipalities can use this amount at their discretion and merge it with other budgets. As a result, they effectively determine the overall amount allocated to capital expenditure, whereas the government determines the overall amount for other resources. Finally, in the Czech Republic, France, Italy, Iceland, Bulgaria and Romania, responsibility for determining the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for operational resources in the broad sense is shared between the local and central levels, while immovables are the sole preserve of the former.

From a comparison of the maps, it is clear that, on the one hand, there is a tendency for decisions relating to the financing of teaching staff to be taken by the central government or regional entity fully responsible for education and, on the other, for decisions concerned with the financing of operational resources (in the broad sense) to be shared with the local authorities. When the way decisions are shared between different administrative levels is analysed, it is also clear that, for each of the main resource categories (staff, operational resources and capital), there is a greater general tendency to decentralise decisions for determining the overall amounts to be allocated to resources not directly related to teaching.

Figure B28: Location of decision-making authority to determine the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for schools providing compulsory education, public sector or equivalent, 2002/03



Additional notes for Figures B28a, B28b and B28c

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): In the case of schools administered by the municipalities and provinces, the latter may decide whether or not to earmark a budget specifically for operational resources and movables, in addition to the grants allocated by the Communities (Figure B28b).

Czech Republic, Greece, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Iceland, Bulgaria and Romania: Amounts earmarked for books and/or audio-visual equipment or computers, if not all teaching materials and equipment, are fixed at central level (Figure B28b).

Czech Republic: The central level is responsible for determining the amount allocated for non-teaching staff, while the local level is responsible for other operational resources and movables (Figure B28b).

Germany: The *Länder* (the top decision-making level) issue their school development plans according to which the local level allocates funds for immovables (Figure B28c).

Estonia: The state allocates resources to specific schools through the National Investment Programme and the local level makes allocations of a similar nature from its own budget. These two processes are not interdependent (Figure B28c).

Greece: Responsibility for immovables is shared between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Economic Affairs (central level) and the Prefectures (local level) (Figure B28c).

Spain: In primary education, the local level is responsible for some of the resources related to Figure B28b. Responsibility for capital resources is shared between the Autonomous Community and local levels whereas, at secondary level, it lies solely with the Autonomous Community concerned (Figure B28c).

France: In lower secondary education, the central level is responsible for non-teaching staff resources (Figure B28b).

Italy: The local level is responsible for providing some operational resources (for example, textbooks for primary schools) out of their own budget (Figure B28b).

Latvia: The central level specifies the amount and the procedures for payment of salaries, and local level allocates earmarked subsidies from the national budget and supplements this from local incomes (Figure B28a). Similarly, both central and local levels share the overall amount of expenditures regarding immovables (Figure B28c).

Lithuania: A new system of financing which is based on a per capita model has been in force since 2002 for teaching and administrative staff, social pedagogues and librarians, textbooks and other teaching aids (Figures B28a and b). Funds are allocated by central government. The other resource categories (other non-teaching staff, operational resources, movable and immovable goods) remain the responsibility of the municipalities.

Luxembourg: The local level is responsible for resources relating to Figures B28b and c in primary education and the central level has responsibility for secondary education.

Hungary: Local governments get block grants (already divided between staff, operational and capital expenditure) from the central government for all services they provide, including educational services, and determine the amounts to be allocated to education. In the case of teaching staff, they determine the amount in accordance with central regulations. They then allocate funds to each school in the form of a block grant. Schools determine the final amounts to be allocated to the various categories of resources, and may pay higher wages to staff.

Austria: In primary education and in the *Hauptschulen* and *Polytechnische Schulen*, the local level is responsible for non-teaching staff resources, operational resources and capital (Figures B28b and c); in the case of *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen*, it lies with the central level.

Poland: In determining the level of resources for teaching staff, local authorities have to apply legislation relating to salaries, class size and pupil/teacher ratios, but they may supplement the amount from their own income (Figure B28a).

Portugal: The local level is responsible for operational resources and movables (Figure B28b) and capital resources (Figure B28c) in schools offering the first stage of *ensino básico*.

Slovenia: The local level provides funding for immovables with some assistance from the central level. The Ministry of Education runs a tender and approves local investment programmes upon the announced priority criteria (Figure B28c).

Finland: In order to receive government financing for investments in immovables, the project must be approved by the Ministry of Education as part of the national financing plan in accordance with the budget (Figure B28c).

SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

Additional notes for Figures B28a, B28b and B28c (continued)

Sweden: Between 2001 and 2006, the central government is providing the municipalities which satisfy certain conditions with a special allocation for employing school staff. From 2006 onwards, this allocation will be part of the general government allocation to each municipality (Figures B28a and b).

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): Local education authorities establish the overall amount to be spent on compulsory education in their area (using central government grants and local taxes, and taking into account central government guidelines).

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): A general budget is delegated to individual schools which are free to allocate its distribution to cover staff costs, operational expenditure, and movables. Additionally, schools receive some direct funding from central government for specific educational priorities (Figures B28a and b). The majority of capital funding is allocated to schools and LEAs on a formula basis (Figure B28c).

United Kingdom (NIR): The Department of Education provides a block grant to *Education and Library Boards*.

Liechtenstein: In primary education, the local level is responsible for resources relating to Figure B28b with responsibility shared between local and central levels for capital resources, whereas it lies with the central level in the case of secondary education (Figure B28c).

Explanatory note

The resource categories considered are as follows: teaching staff, non-teaching staff, operational resources required for teaching, other operational resources, movables and immovables. The gathering of financial data groups these six categories into three main ones, namely current expenditure on staff, other current expenditure and capital expenditure. However, from the standpoint of administrative decision-making, it is more helpful to adopt a different set of categories distinguishing between a) teaching staff, b) non-teaching staff, operational resources and movables and c) immovables.

Current expenditure covers goods and services that are used during the ongoing year and have to be annually renewed. Capital expenditure covers assets that last longer than a year. It refers to construction, renovation or major repairs to buildings (immovables) as well to equipment, furniture and computers (movables). However, minor expenditure under a certain fixed amount is included in operational expenditure.

Resources for schools with target populations corresponding to specific programmes of support (such as education action zones, programmes for pupils from ethnic minorities, etc.) are not included in this Figure.

The central government is the top-level authority for education in most countries. In three cases, however, decision-making occurs at a different level, namely that of the governments of the Communities in Belgium, the *Länder* in Germany and the governments of the Autonomous Communities in Spain.

Only schools in the public sector are considered. However, in the case of three countries (Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands), grant-aided private schools are included as they enrol a substantial proportion of pupils and are regarded as equivalent to schools in the public sector.

DECISIONS ON DETERMINING AMOUNTS AND DISTRIBUTING RESOURCES TEND TO BE TAKEN AT THE SAME LEVEL

In most countries, the authority that fixes the overall level of public expenditure earmarked for compulsory education (Figure B28) also decides how resources will be distributed to schools. This authority can be located at central, regional or local level depending on the country concerned.

In Ireland and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), central government determines the overall amount of resources with respect to all categories, whilst local authorities decide on how these resources are to be distributed to schools. A similar situation exists in Estonia for teaching staff and in the Czech Republic for all staff as well as for operational resources. In Latvia, local authorities decide how to distribute resources determined by the central government for everything except non-teaching staff and immovables, while in Greece, they take decisions on all resource categories with the exception of teaching staff.

In other cases, the central government determines the amount of resources but relies on geographically decentralised administration (a department of the ministry of education or a locally situated branch of central government) to distribute them among schools. This situation is found in Slovakia for all resource categories, as well as in France, Italy, Cyprus, Poland, Portugal, Austria (especially for *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen*) and Romania for some categories. Immovables are almost never subject to this type of arrangement (the only exceptions being Portugal and Slovakia).

Figure B29: Position of the decision-making level responsible for distributing resources among schools in relation to the level that determines the overall amount of public expenditure on compulsory education, public sector or equivalent, 2002/03

	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	ENG/ WLS, SCT	NIR	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
								(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)							(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)					(a)	(b)					
A																																
B																																
C																																
D																																
E																																

A = Teaching staff B = Non-teaching staff C = Operational resources D = Movables E = Immovables

Decisions concerning the distribution of resources among schools are taken:

- at the same level as decisions concerning the amounts of resources (Figure B28)
- at a lower level which reports directly, however, to the level responsible for deciding the amounts of resources
- at a lower level unrelated to the level responsible for deciding the amounts of resources

Source: Eurydice.

SECTION III – DECISION-MAKING LEVELS AND PROCESSES

Additional notes (Figure B29)

Germany, Finland and Liechtenstein: Both the top-level and local authorities are involved in determining overall resources for immovables, but only the local authorities actually distribute them among schools.

Greece: Resources determined for non-teaching staff, operational costs and movables are managed at local level by the municipalities (by the Municipal Education Committee). The resources determined for immovables are managed by the Prefectorial authorities (local level).

France: a) primary education; b) secondary education.

Ireland: a) All schools, except *vocational schools* and *community schools*; b) *Vocational schools* and *community schools* responsible to the *Vocational Education Committees*.

Cyprus: The local school board, which is responsible to the Ministry, distributes some non-teaching staff resources, operational resources and resources for movables.

Hungary: Local governments allocate funds to each school in the form of a block grant. Schools determine the final amounts to be allocated to the various categories of resources.

Austria: a) *Volksschulen*, *Hauptschulen* and *Polytechnische Schulen*; b) *allgemein bildende höhere Schulen*.

Portugal: a) first stage of *ensino básico*; b) second and third stages of *ensino básico*.

Slovakia: The distribution of all resources except books is geographically decentralised.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): Separate capital funding is provided by LEAs and central government.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): A general budget is allocated to individual schools to cover staff costs, operational expenditure and movables. Schools are free to decide how to spend these funds.

United Kingdom (NIR): a) *Grant-maintained integrated schools* and *voluntary grammar schools*; b) *Controlled and maintained schools*. Separate capital funding is provided by the *Boards* to *controlled schools* and by central government to *maintained schools*, *grant-maintained integrated schools* and *voluntary grammar schools*.

Romania: The distribution of resources for staff and school textbooks is geographically decentralised.

Explanatory note

The resource categories considered are as follows: teaching staff, non-teaching staff, operational resources required for teaching, other operational resources, movables and immovables. The gathering of financial data groups these six categories into three main ones, namely current expenditure on staff, other current expenditure and capital expenditure. However, from the standpoint of administrative decision-making, it is more helpful to adopt a different set of categories distinguishing between a) teaching staff, b) non-teaching staff, operational resources and movables and c) immovables.

Only schools in the public sector are considered. However, in the case of three countries (Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands), government-dependent private institutions are included as they enrol a substantial proportion of pupils and are regarded as equivalent to schools in the public sector.



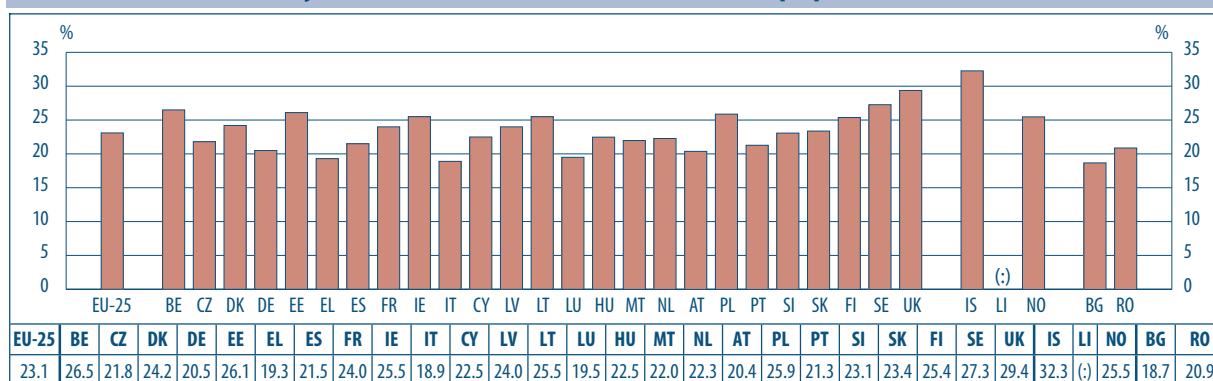
PARTICIPATION

ALMOST A QUARTER OF THE POPULATION IN EUROPE ARE IN SCHOOL OR STUDYING

The proportion of pupils and students in the total population is between 20 and 25 % in the majority of European countries. It is over 25 % in Belgium, Estonia, Ireland, Lithuania, Poland, the United Kingdom and the Nordic countries (except Denmark). Iceland shows a markedly higher proportion at over 30 %. By contrast, the proportion of pupils and students in Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and Bulgaria is below 20 %.

National demographic structures have a bearing on participation rates, as younger population groups are more likely to be enrolled in education. The general situation in Europe is that the 0 – 9 age group is the least numerous, followed by the 10 – 19 age group. There are proportionally more young people aged between 20 and 29. Iceland shows the highest proportion of young people overall, together with Ireland (Figure A2).

Figure C1: Proportion of pupils and students from pre-primary education to tertiary education (ISCED 0 to 6) in the total population, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions and include education for 'social advancement'.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: Data exclude ISCED 6.

Greece: Population data are provisional.

France: Data exclude *Départements d'outre mer*.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part.

Cyprus: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included in the enrolment data but are included in the population data. Thus the indicator is underestimated.

Luxembourg: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included. Also many students at ISCED 1, 2 and 3 study abroad and are not included.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

The data collection on enrolments covers national education systems regardless of ownership. All regular education programmes are included, as well as all adult education with a subject content similar to regular education programmes or leading to qualifications which are similar to corresponding regular programmes. All special education is included regardless of the needs of students and educational institutions. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based education or training for which no formal education authority has oversight. Full-time and part-time students are included.

Each student enrolled during the school year is counted only once even if enrolled in multiple programmes.

The European average is calculated from the data available (population data for 2001 are used to calculate the 2002 average for the United Kingdom).



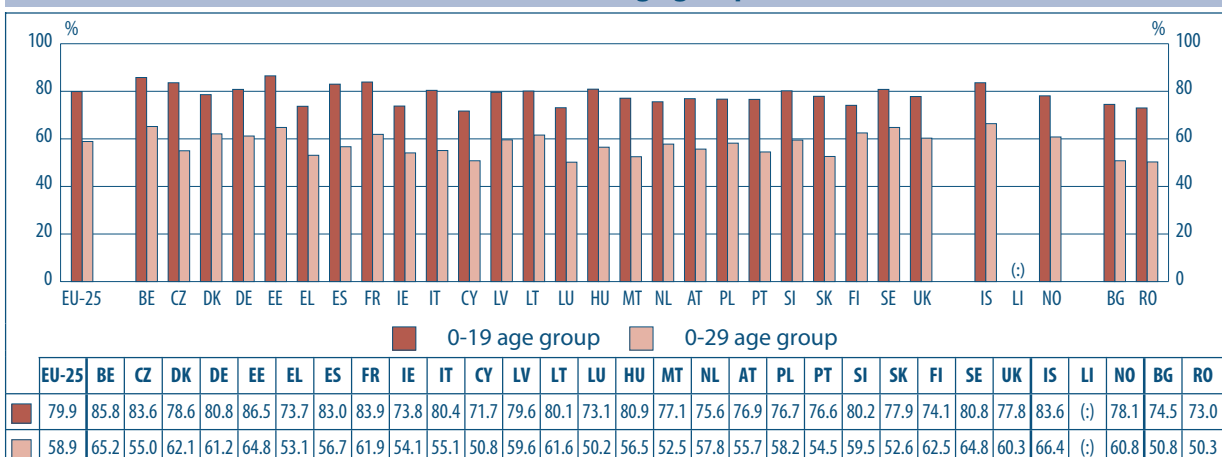
PARTICIPATION

PARTICIPATION RATES DROP CONSIDERABLY AFTER THE AGE OF 19

A comparison of participation rates for young people in the 0–19 and 0–29 age groups shows a considerable drop in enrolment throughout Europe in the 0–29 age group, averaging around 20 percentage points in the majority of European countries but extending to over 25 percentage points in the Czech Republic, Spain and Italy. By contrast, the decrease is much less marked in Finland, with a drop of only 12 percentage points between the participation rates of the two age groups.

This means that significantly fewer young people are active in education after the age of 19, irrespective of the type of education programme followed. The average in the European Union is below 60 % for the 0–29 age group (and just below 80 % for the 0–19 age group). This decline in participation rates is clearly related to the end of compulsory schooling (Figure C10). Only a few countries (Belgium, Estonia, Sweden and Iceland) have participation rates of around 65 % for the 0–29 age group.

**Figure C2: Proportion of pupils and students
in the 0–19 and 0-29 age groups, 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions and include education for 'social advancement'.

Germany, Slovenia, Romania: Data exclude ISCED 6.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part.

Cyprus: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included in the enrolment data but are included in the population data. Thus the indicator is underestimated.

Luxembourg: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included. Also many pupils at ISCED 1, 2 and 3 study abroad and are not included in enrolment but in population data, therefore all participation rates by age are underestimated. In ISCED 5, data by age are missing.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

All pupils and students at all ISCED levels in public and private institutions aged 0-19 and 0-29 years are included in the numerator. The student numbers are divided by the numbers in the population in the corresponding age groups. Population data refer to 1 January 2002.

The data collection on enrolments covers national education systems regardless of ownership. All regular education programmes are included, as well as all adult education with a subject content similar to regular education programmes or leading to qualifications which are similar to corresponding regular programmes. Pre-primary education is included (ISCED 0). Pre-primary education designed to meet the educational and development needs of children at least 3 years of age. Special education is included regardless of normal or special needs of students and the educational institutions. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based education or training for which no formal education authority has oversight.



TRENDS IN THE PROPORTION OF PUPILS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATED SEPARATELY SHOW NO CLEAR PATTERN

Provision for pupils with special educational needs (SEN) in all countries across Europe includes education in special classes or schools (separate provision) as well as in mainstream settings. The distribution of pupils identified as having SEN in mainstream and separate provision is determined by the systems and methods of identifying and assessing pupils' needs. Therefore, the percentages of SEN pupils in separate provision may reflect differences in assessment procedures and funding arrangements rather than differences in the actual incidence of SEN across countries.

Within the special needs education field, the desired situation is generally agreed to be inclusion of pupils with SEN within compulsory mainstream education, although this is not universally agreed to be appropriate for all SEN pupils. It is therefore important to bear in mind that the issue of quality in education is not addressed by only considering developments in the proportion of SEN pupils who are educated separately. Placement in an inclusive setting does not necessarily guarantee quality provision; conversely, placement in a separate setting does not result in inappropriate educational provision for some pupils.

The level of separate provision over the 1996 – 2004 period reflects different national policies in SNE (special needs education). Within the total compulsory school-aged population, SEN pupils in separate provision make up:

- less than 1 % in Greece, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Portugal, Iceland and Norway;
- between 1 and 3 % in thirteen other education systems;
- more than 3 % in the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Latvia, Hungary, Slovakia and Finland.

Given that the way in which SEN is defined and consequently the types of provision that have been developed in relation to SEN are different for each country, it is not appropriate to make direct comparisons between countries of the percentages of pupils in separate provision. However, the trends in the proportion of pupils educated separately are a useful indication of developments towards inclusion for SEN pupils between 1996 and 2004. With very few exceptions, these trends show only very moderate change, and no clear pattern emerges in Europe. The number of countries showing an increase in the proportion of SEN pupils in separate provision is similar to those showing a decrease, with several countries showing no, or almost no, changes in these proportions over this time period.

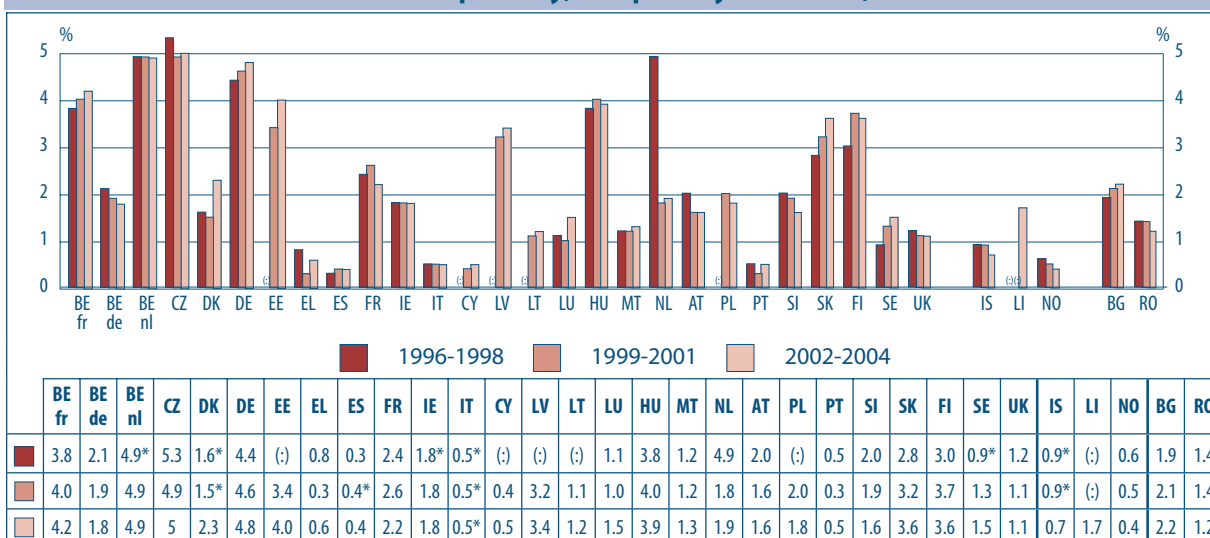
Germany and Ireland report an increase in the overall number of pupils identified as having SEN. In both countries, there has been an increase in the number of pupils with SEN in inclusive settings. The increase shown in Figure C3 in the percentage of German SEN pupils educated separately is explained by the fact that the overall school population has been decreasing in Germany.

From 1993 onwards, parents in Austria have had the legal right to inclusive education for their children, with the result that increasing numbers of pupils with SEN are included in mainstream provision and the percentage of children in segregated provision has dropped. There has been a constant increase of pupils with SEN in this country since 1993, although there has been a (slight) decrease in numbers of school starters as a result of the permanent decline in birth rates in Austria.



PARTICIPATION

Figure C3: Trends in the percentage of pupils with special needs in the total school population who are educated separately, compulsory education, 1996 – 2004



* data are estimates

Source: European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl) and Ireland: The previously published data for 1996/98 are 3.8 % in BE nl and 1.2 % in IE, but these data included post compulsory school age pupils.

Denmark: Data for 1996 – 1998 and 1999 – 2001 include post compulsory school age pupils.

Greece: Data for 1999 – 2001 cover all schools including post-compulsory education.

France and Finland: Data for 1996 – 1998 refer to the 1994/95 school year.

Netherlands: The marked decline in the percentage of pupils in separate settings is due to changes in legislation and regulations in 1998. Separate schools for pupils with mild learning disabilities and intellectual impairments are now part of the mainstream school system. These schools catered for about 74,000 pupils. Data about the division of these pupils over separate and inclusive provision are not available.

Explanatory note

In this indicator, the percentage of SEN pupils within compulsory education who are educated in separate settings is calculated as a percentage of the total compulsory school age population. The data show public and private grant-aided provision from ministry of education statistics but exclude pupils educated in private non-grant-aided schools.

As statistical data on SEN differ, the indicator does not show set years of reference, but rather three time periods, within which national representatives submit the data that are available to them.

Although national definitions of 'separate (sometimes also referred to as 'segregated') provision' differ, the definition applied here is that the pupil spends most of the school week in a non-mainstream (separate) school or class. Legal definitions of SEN within each country are available from the National Overviews of Special Education on the National Pages of the European Agency website at <http://www.european-agency.org>.



PARTICIPATION

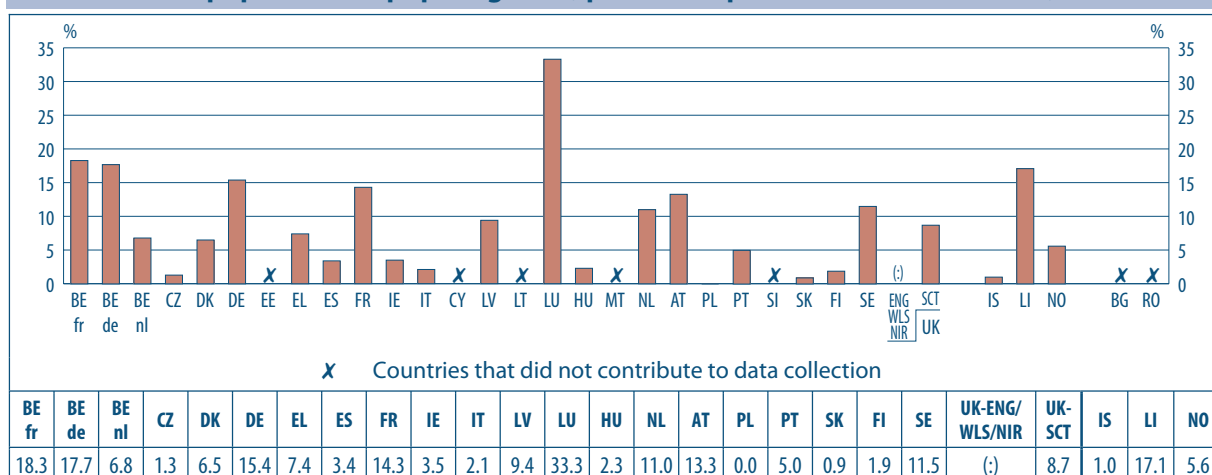
THE PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS WITH AN IMMIGRANT BACKGROUND IN THE TOTAL 15-YEAR-OLD SCHOOL POPULATION IS MORE THAN 15 % IN SOME COUNTRIES

According to the PISA 2003 survey, 15-year-old pupils whose parents were both born abroad constitute between 10 % and 20 % of the school population of this age in Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities), Germany, France, the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden and Liechtenstein. The proportion of pupils with an immigrant background reaches over a third of the total 15-year-old school population in Luxembourg.

Other countries for which data are available show a considerably lower proportion of pupils aged 15 with an immigrant background, with less than 5 % in most cases.

These participation rates are consistent with demographic data showing the proportion of young foreigners in the total population (Figure A4) and reflect historic trends in immigration (¹).

**Figure C4: Proportion of pupils with an immigrant background
in the total population of pupils aged 15, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03**



Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional note

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (proportion of immigrant pupils = 7.9) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

In the pupils' questionnaires, pupils were asked to state their place of birth as well as that of their parents. The category of pupils with an immigrant background was constructed by grouping together all those pupils who indicated that their parents were born abroad irrespective of the pupil's place of birth.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

(¹) For more detailed information on this subject, see Chapter 2 of the survey entitled Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe. *Eurydice Surveys*. Brussels: Eurydice, 2004.



PARTICIPATION

THE PARTICIPATION OF 4-YEAR-OLDS IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IS INCREASING BUT IS STILL SUBJECT TO SOME VARIATION

Educational provision at pre-primary level is available everywhere in Europe. Enrolment in pre-primary education is almost always voluntary. Only two countries have made education compulsory for four-year-old children: Luxembourg and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland). The notional age of entry into educational pre-primary provision for all education systems varies from one country to another (Figure B1).

Participation rates in pre-primary education are dependent on the provision that is available. Trends in participation rates for four-year-old children reflect differing levels of provision. Although data are only available from 1999/2000 for those countries that joined the EU on 1 May 2004, the general tendency almost everywhere in Europe is an increase in the number of 4-year-olds enrolled in pre-primary education.

In 2001/02, all 4-year-old children were enrolled in pre-primary education in Belgium, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Belgium, France and the Netherlands have traditionally had full enrolment at this age, while data for Spain (especially) and the United Kingdom show a steep increase in participation rates since 1979/80.

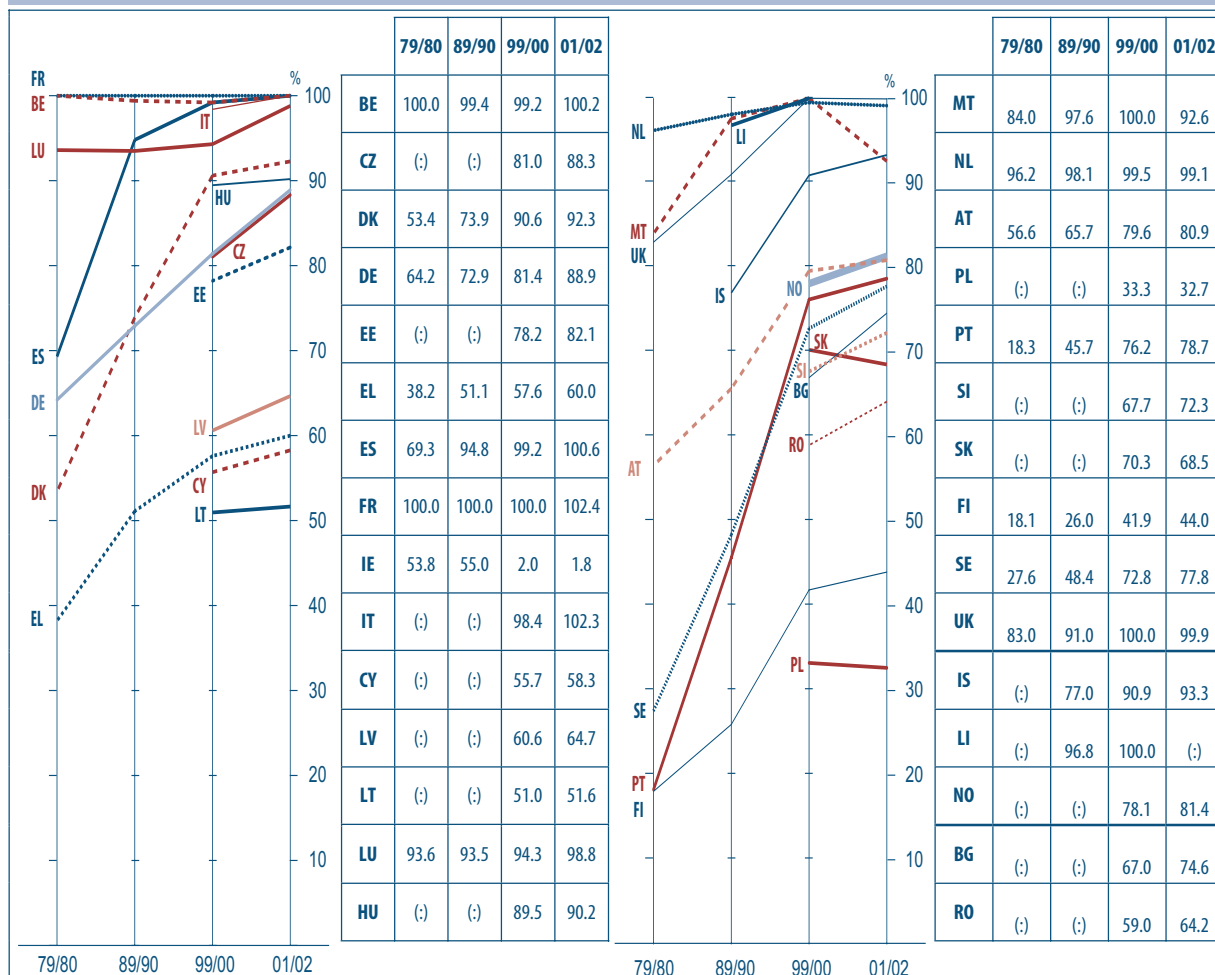
Denmark, Hungary, Malta, Iceland and Liechtenstein have almost full participation rates at over 90 %. Amongst this group of countries, increases in participation are especially marked in Denmark, where participation rates were just over 50 % in 1979/80.

In all the other countries, with the exception of Poland and Finland, over two-thirds of 4-year-olds were enrolled in pre-primary education in 2001/02. In this group of countries, Portugal and Sweden show the biggest increase in enrolment, from just over 18 % in 1979/80 to 78.7 % and 77.8 % respectively in 2001/02. By contrast, less than half of 4-year-olds were enrolled in pre-primary education in Poland and Finland in 2001/02 (around a third of Polish children of this age and 44 % of Finnish 4-year-olds).

Finally, in Ireland, many 4-year-old children are already in primary education.

PARTICIPATION

Figure C5: Changes in the participation rates of 4-year-olds in pre-primary education (ISCED 0), from 1979/80 to 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions.

Germany: Data for 1979/80 and 1989/90 refer to the Former Territory of the Federal Republic.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part. The time-series break is caused by the introduction of ISCED 97 programmes that were classified as pre-primary in ISCED 76. (The typical duration is one year).

United Kingdom: Population data for 2001/02 refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

Pre-primary education (ISCED 0) is designed to meet the educational and development needs of children at least 3 years of age. Pre-primary education must recruit staff with specialised qualifications in education. Day nurseries, playgroups and day care-centres where staff are not required to hold a qualification in education are not included.

The indicator is calculated by dividing the number of 4-year-olds in pre-primary education by the number of 4-year-olds in the population.

For some countries, enrolment rates appear to exceed 100 %. This is because they are calculated on the basis of two data sets (population and education) derived from different surveys carried out at different dates in the year. The figure has been proportionally rounded down to show 100.

Population data refer to 1 January of the reference year.



PARTICIPATION

PRE-PRIMARY ENROLMENT INCREASES WITH THE AGE OF CHILDREN

One year before the beginning of compulsory primary education, approximately three-quarters of all children are enrolled in pre-primary education in the European Union and EFTA/EEA countries. This proportion is slightly higher in the EU-15 countries.

The age at which children may begin to attend pre-primary education varies between countries. Provision is generally available from at least 3 or 4 years of age (Figure B1). Over half of European countries have mass participation (over 80 %) in pre-primary education from this age.

In Greece, Portugal, Slovakia and Romania, most children begin pre-primary education at the age of 5, while most Polish, Finnish and Swedish children enrol for a year of pre-primary education only at the age of 6. In a small number of countries (Latvia, Lithuania and Bulgaria), mass participation in pre-primary education does not occur, and around a quarter of children will enter the school system for the first time at primary level.

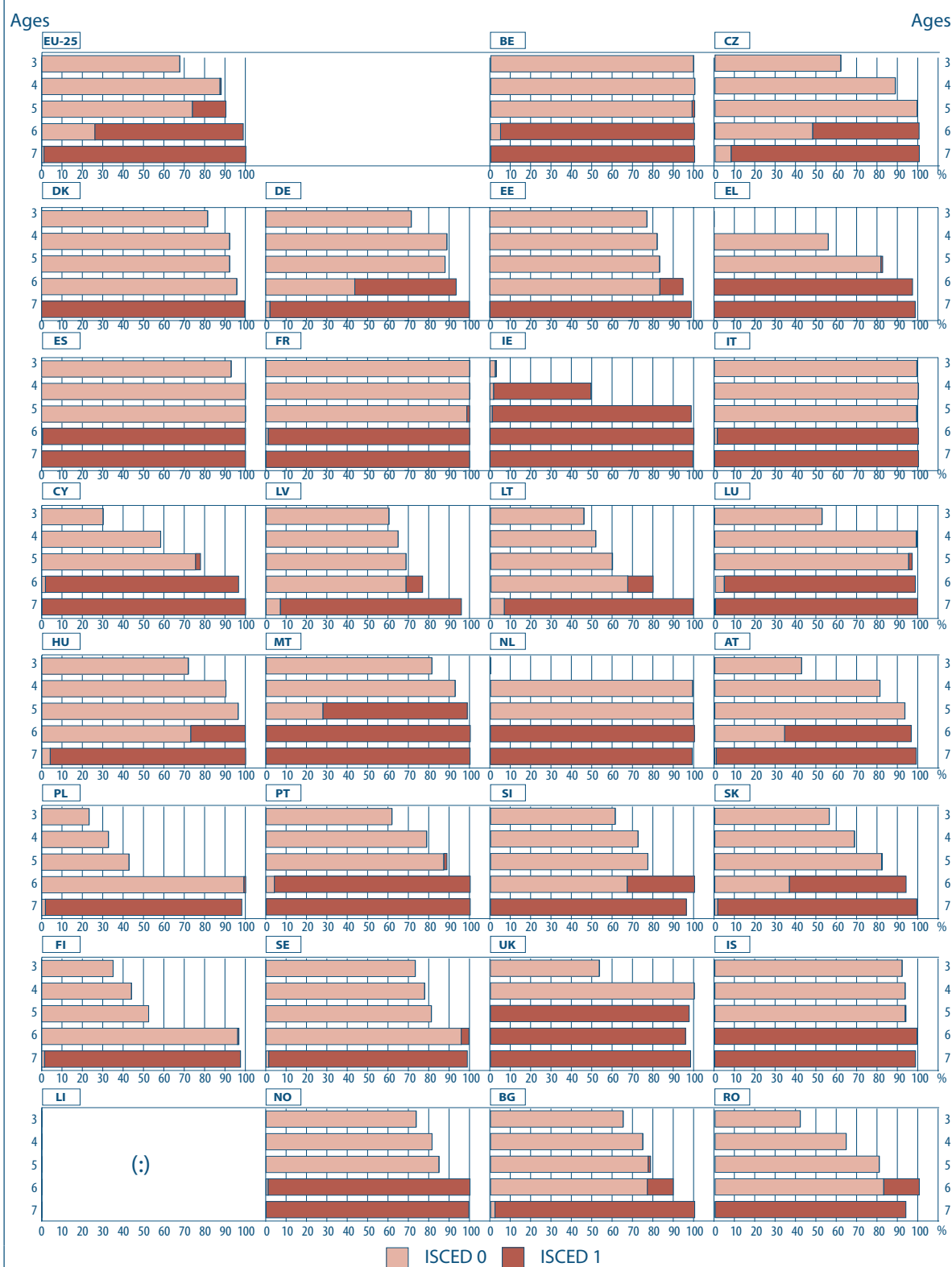
The transition to primary school occurs at the age of 6 for most children in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Portugal, Iceland and Norway. Participation rates thus coincide with the theoretical entry age for primary education in these countries, with the exception of Belgium, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Portugal, where a few 6-year-old children (around 4 %) remain in pre-primary education. In Germany, Austria and Slovakia, around 40 % of 6-year-olds are still in pre-primary provision. In Ireland, half of all children are already enrolled in primary education at the age of 4; this increases to almost full enrolment for 5-year-olds. All 5-year-old children in the United Kingdom and around 70 % of those in Malta are also already enrolled in primary education.

Entry into primary school occurs at the age of 7 for most children in the three Baltic states, as well as Denmark, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia (pre-reform curricula), Finland, Sweden, Bulgaria and Romania. However, some 7-year-old children remain in pre-primary education in the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary. In the case of the Czech Republic and Hungary, this may be explained by the requirement that children born after a given date must wait a year before entering compulsory education. In the Czech Republic, this may also be due to the fact that compulsory schooling is postponed (at the request of parents and on the decision of the school head) for approximately 20 % of the children. In Latvia and Lithuania, this may be due to deferred entry on the grounds of lack of maturity (Figure B4).



PARTICIPATION

**Figure C6: Participation rates
in pre-primary and primary education (ISCED 0 and 1) by age, 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.



PARTICIPATION

Additional notes (Figure C6)

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part.

Slovenia: The post-reform curricula allowed schools to enrol children in compulsory education from the age of 6. In 2000/01 schools could decide to adopt either the pre- or the post-reform curricula.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

Detailed data are contained in the annexes.

Pre-primary education (ISCED 0) is designed to meet the educational and development needs of children at least 3 years of age. Pre-primary education must recruit staff with specialised qualifications in education. Day nurseries, playgroups and day-care centres where staff are not required to hold a qualification in education are not included. Primary education (ISCED 1) programmes are designed to give the basic education in reading, writing and mathematics along with an elementary understanding of other subjects.

This indicator gives the participation rates in ISCED 0 and 1 for single years from ages 3 to 7 and shows the enrolment pattern in education at the early ages.

For some countries, enrolment rates appear to exceed 100 %. This is because they are calculated on the basis of two data sets (population and education) derived from different surveys carried out at different dates in the year. The figure has been proportionally rounded down to show 100.

Population data refer to 1 January 2002.

MOST YOUNG PEOPLE ARE ENROLLED IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION BY THE AGE OF 16

The path through school and into tertiary education for young people aged 15 to 19 reflects the different organisational structures of European education systems (Figure B1). In some countries, the duration of ISCED 2 is significantly longer with a more progressive transition to higher educational levels. In other countries, entry into ISCED 3 and successive levels generally takes place at a younger age.

On average, around half of young people in the European Union are enrolled in ISCED 2 at the age of 15. By the age of 19, participation rates show just under half in ISCED 3, with the other half enrolled in ISCED 5. In most of the countries of Europe, the transition to ISCED 3 takes place for all or almost all young people at the age of 16. In Belgium, Italy, Cyprus, Austria and Slovenia, this transition is already almost entirely complete at 15, while in the United Kingdom all 15-year-olds are enrolled in ISCED 3.

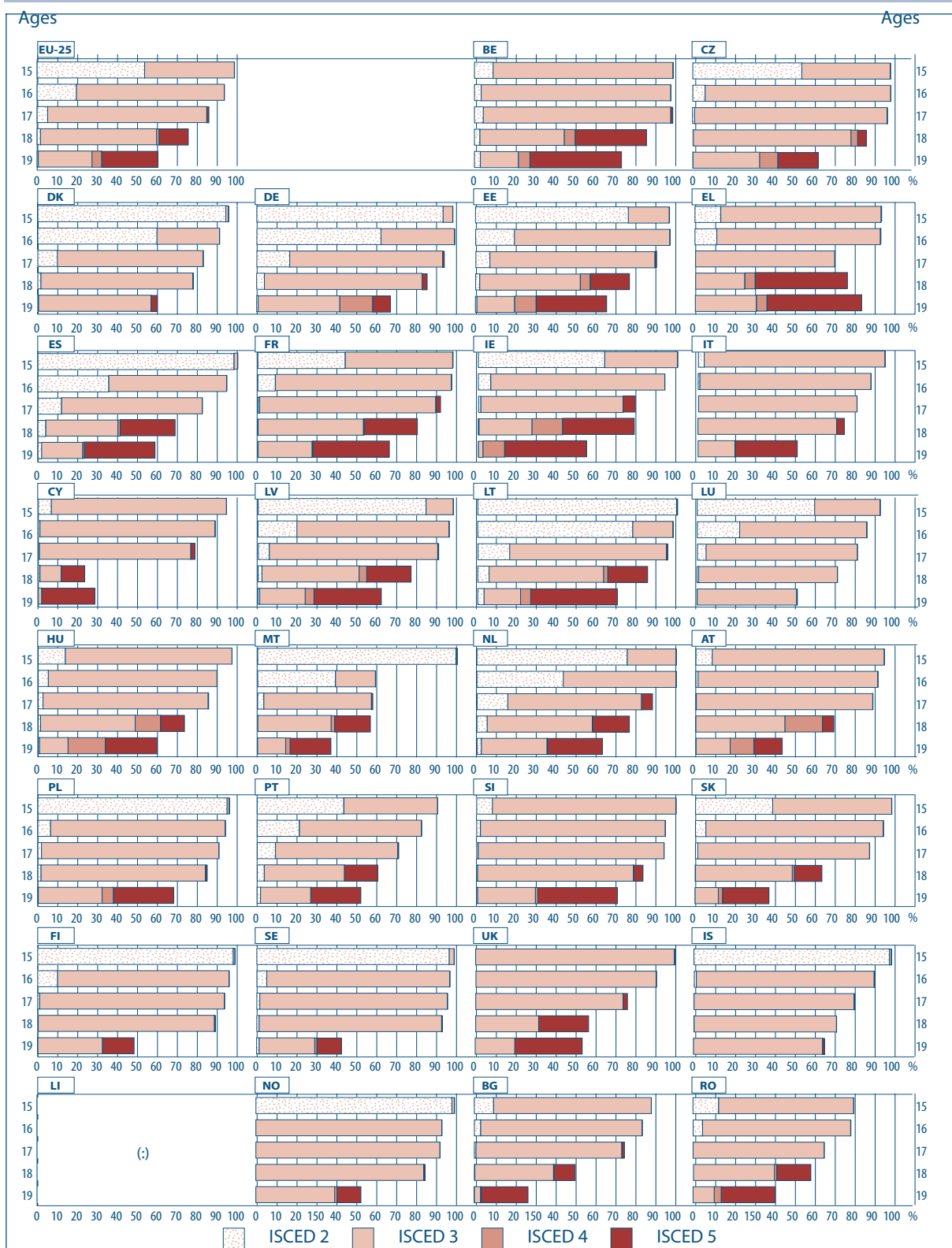
In some countries, the transition from ISCED 2 takes place at an older age. Participation rates at the age of 15 in ISCED 2 are above 90 % in Denmark, Germany, Spain, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway. Around 10 % of pupils are still enrolled in ISCED 2 at the age of 17 in Denmark, Germany, Spain, Lithuania and Portugal. This is due to the length of lower secondary education in these countries (lasting until the age of 16, or 17 in Denmark in some cases) and/or to the fact that pupils may be required to repeat a year if they fall short of attainment levels.

In Belgium, Luxembourg, Hungary and – especially – the Netherlands, a number of pupils are also in ISCED 2 at the age of 17 although the notional duration of this level of education is usually shorter in these countries, ending at 14 (Belgium, Hungary) or 15 (Luxembourg). In the Netherlands, ISCED 2 lasts until the age of 15 for all pupils except those enrolled in VMBO (age 16), MBO *Assistentopleiding* (17), or *Praktijkonderwijs* (18). In all of these countries, repetition of a school year is possible (Figure E23) and pupils may have repeated one or more years.



PARTICIPATION

**Figure C7: Participation rates by age
in lower secondary education to tertiary education (ISCED 2 to 5), 2001/02**





PARTICIPATION

Additional notes (Figure C7)

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions and include education for 'social advancement'.

Cyprus: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included in the enrolment data but are included in the population data. Thus the indicator is underestimated.

Luxembourg: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included. Also many pupils at ISCED 1, 2 and 3 study abroad and are not included in enrolment but in population data, therefore all participation rates by age are underestimated. In ISCED 5, data by age are missing.

Austria: ISCED 3 17-year-olds are included in ISCED 4.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

Detailed data are contained in the annexes.

The data collection on enrolments covers national education systems regardless of ownership. All regular education programmes are included, as well as all adult education with a subject content similar to regular education programmes or leading to qualifications which are similar to corresponding regular programmes. All special education is included regardless of normal or special needs of students and educational institutions. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based education or training for which no formal education authority has oversight.

Each student enrolled during the school year is counted only once even if enrolled in multiple programmes.

For some countries, enrolment rates appear to exceed 100 %. This is because they are calculated on the basis of two data sets (population and education) derived from different surveys carried out at different dates in the year. The figure has been proportionally rounded down to show 100.

Population data refer to 1 January 2002.

Some countries are characterised by a particularly long duration of ISCED 3, occupying almost all young people enrolled in education between the ages of 15 or 16 and 19. This is the case in Italy, Luxembourg and the Nordic countries. In Denmark, entry into ISCED 3 is more progressive, but almost all young people are still enrolled at this level at the age of 19. By contrast, in Belgium, Hungary, Austria and Slovenia, entry into ISCED 3 generally occurs early (at the age of 15) and is followed by relatively early entry into ISCED 4 and 5, in which most young people are enrolled by the age of 19.

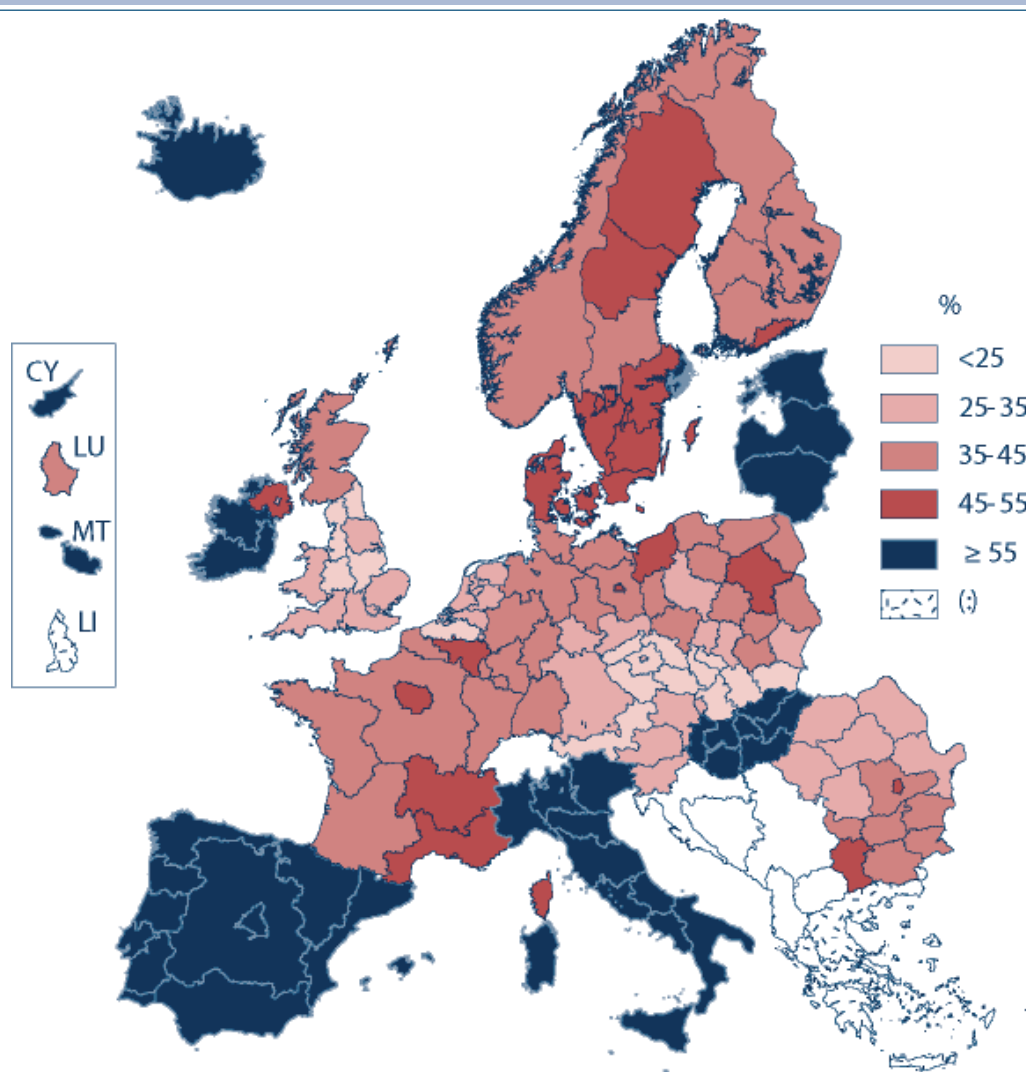
Throughout Europe, with the exception of Germany and Austria, more students are enrolled in ISCED 5 than in ISCED 4 at the ages of 18 or 19. There is, however, no specific provision for ISCED 4 at this age in a number of countries (Denmark, Cyprus, the Netherlands, Finland, Iceland and Liechtenstein) (Figure B1).

ENROLMENT IN GENERAL EDUCATION IS COMPARABLE AT REGIONAL LEVEL FOR MOST COUNTRIES

Although there is considerable variation between countries with respect to the percentage of students enrolled in general (including pre-vocational) upper secondary education (Figure C9), the distribution of these students is fairly uniform across regions at national level. In other words, high national participation rates generally translate into high regional rates and vice-versa. The lowest disparity across regions is to be found in Hungary (with percentages varying from 90 % in Közép-Magyarország to just over 85 % in Közép-Dunántúl).

Belgium, Germany, the United Kingdom and Bulgaria are exceptions to this general picture. The greatest disparity is found in Belgium, where percentages in the regions range from 24 % in Flanders to 54 % in Brussels Capital region. In Germany, the percentages in the regions range from 30.5 % (Bayern) to 48 % (Berlin), while in the United Kingdom, a greater proportion of students in Northern Ireland (50 %) and in Scotland (37.5 %) are enrolled in general rather than vocational secondary education than is the case in the rest of the United Kingdom. Finally, in Bulgaria, 36 % of students are enrolled in general upper secondary education in Severen Tsentralen and 52 % of students in Yugozapaden.

Figure C8: Percentage of upper secondary (ISCED 3) students following general education programmes by NUTS regions, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions. Students in 'social advancement' education in the French Community are not included, as a result the percentage of general upper secondary students is slightly overestimated.

United Kingdom: ISCED 4 is included in ISCED 3 vocational.

Explanatory note

This indicator shows the number of students, full-time and part-time, enrolled in general and pre-vocational upper secondary education as a proportion of all students in upper secondary education in the region.

All regular education programmes are included, as well as all adult education with a subject content similar to regular education programmes or leading to qualifications similar to corresponding regular programmes. All special education is included. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based education or training for which no formal education authority has oversight.

The NUTS 1 level is used in all EU-15 countries with the exception of Ireland, Portugal, Finland and Sweden. In these countries, and in the new Member States, the NUTS 2 level is used.

The regions are defined in accordance with the NUTS classification (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).



PARTICIPATION

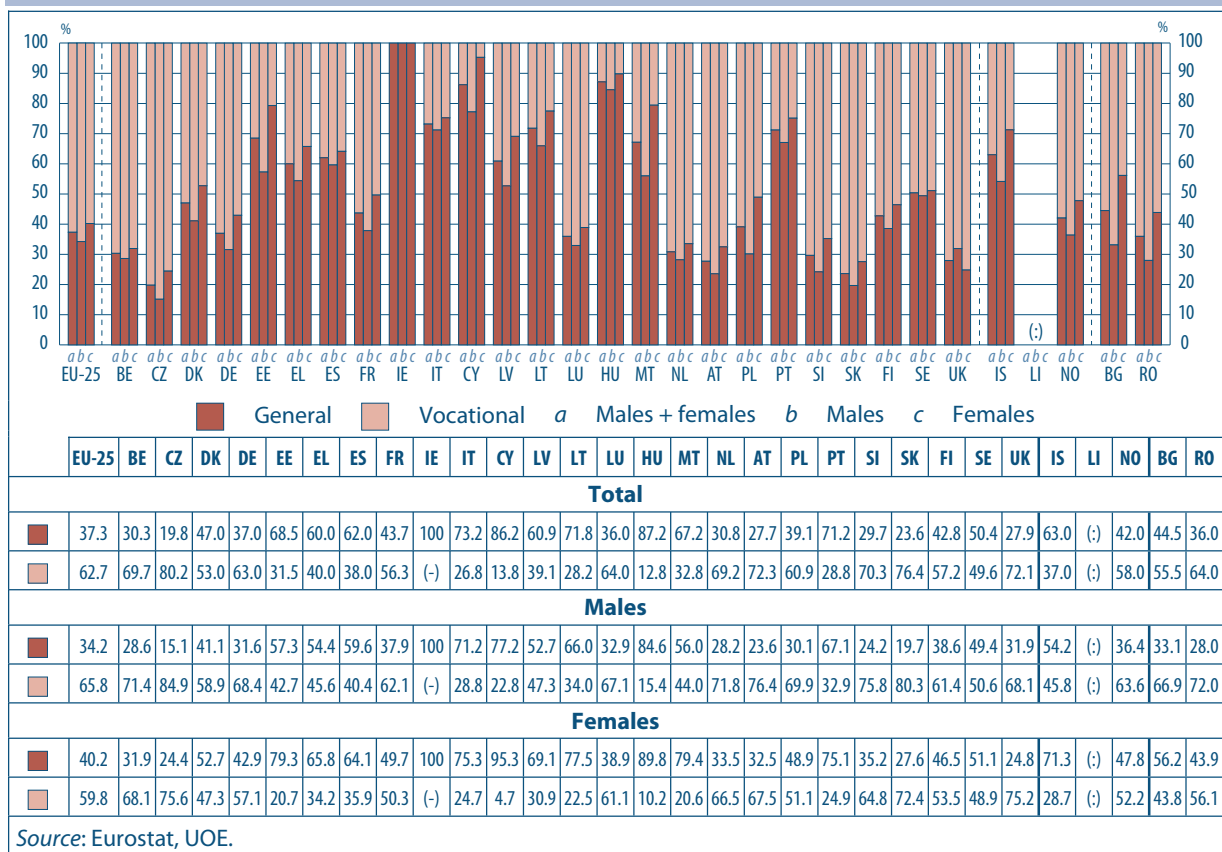
AT UPPER SECONDARY LEVEL, THERE ARE MORE STUDENTS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION THAN IN GENERAL EDUCATION

The most usual situation in Europe is that there are more students in vocational education than in general education at upper secondary level (pre-vocational is included with general). This is not the case, however, in 13 countries. In Estonia, Greece, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, Malta, Portugal and Iceland, a higher proportion of students are enrolled in general education. In Ireland, all students are in general education as no separate vocational stream exists, whereas in Sweden, and to a lesser extent Denmark, the respective proportion of students enrolled in the two streams is almost equal.

Exceptionally high participation rates in vocational upper secondary education (more than two-thirds of all students) are found in Belgium, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia, Slovakia and the United Kingdom.

When participation rates are broken down by sex, this pattern is seen to be particularly marked for young men. Male enrolment rates in vocational streams are universally higher, with almost all countries showing a difference of at least 10 percentage points between the participation of young men compared to women in vocational streams. The situation in Cyprus is especially striking, with over five times as many young men as women enrolled in vocational upper secondary education (although the overall participation rate is still very low compared to enrolment in general education). Only Belgium, Spain, Italy and Sweden show a relatively balanced distribution by sex, with a difference amounting to less than 5 percentage points.

Figure C9: Distribution of upper secondary (ISCED 3) students by programme orientation (general or vocational) overall and by sex, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.



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Additional notes (Figure C9)

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions and include education for 'social advancement'.

United Kingdom: Pre-vocational is included in vocational. ISCED 4 is included in ISCED 3 vocational.

Explanatory note

This indicator shows the number of males and females enrolled in general and vocational upper secondary education as a proportion of all students in upper secondary education (ISCED 3). Pre-vocational education is included in general education.

The data collection on enrolments covers national education systems regardless of ownership. All regular education programmes are included, as well as all adult education with a subject content similar to regular education programmes or leading to qualifications which are similar to corresponding regular programmes. All special education is included. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based education or training for which no formal education authority has oversight.

Vocational education covers education that prepares participants for direct entry, without further training, into specific occupations. General programmes are not designed for a specific class of occupations, and less than 25 percent of the programme content is vocational or technical. Pre-vocational programmes have at least 25 percent vocational or technical content, but are mainly designed to introduce participants to the world of work and do not lead to a relevant vocational or technical qualification.

Both full-time and part-time students are included; the table shows head-counts.

AT THE END OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, MALE PARTICIPATION RATES DECLINE FASTER IN MOST COUNTRIES

Compulsory education generally comes to an end with completion of the lower secondary level or during the upper secondary level. The upper age limit for compulsory education varies from one country to another (Figure B1) and should be kept in mind when analysing the participation rates which are shown in total and by gender at four different points in time: one year before the end of compulsory education, at the end of compulsory education and one and two years after the end of that period.

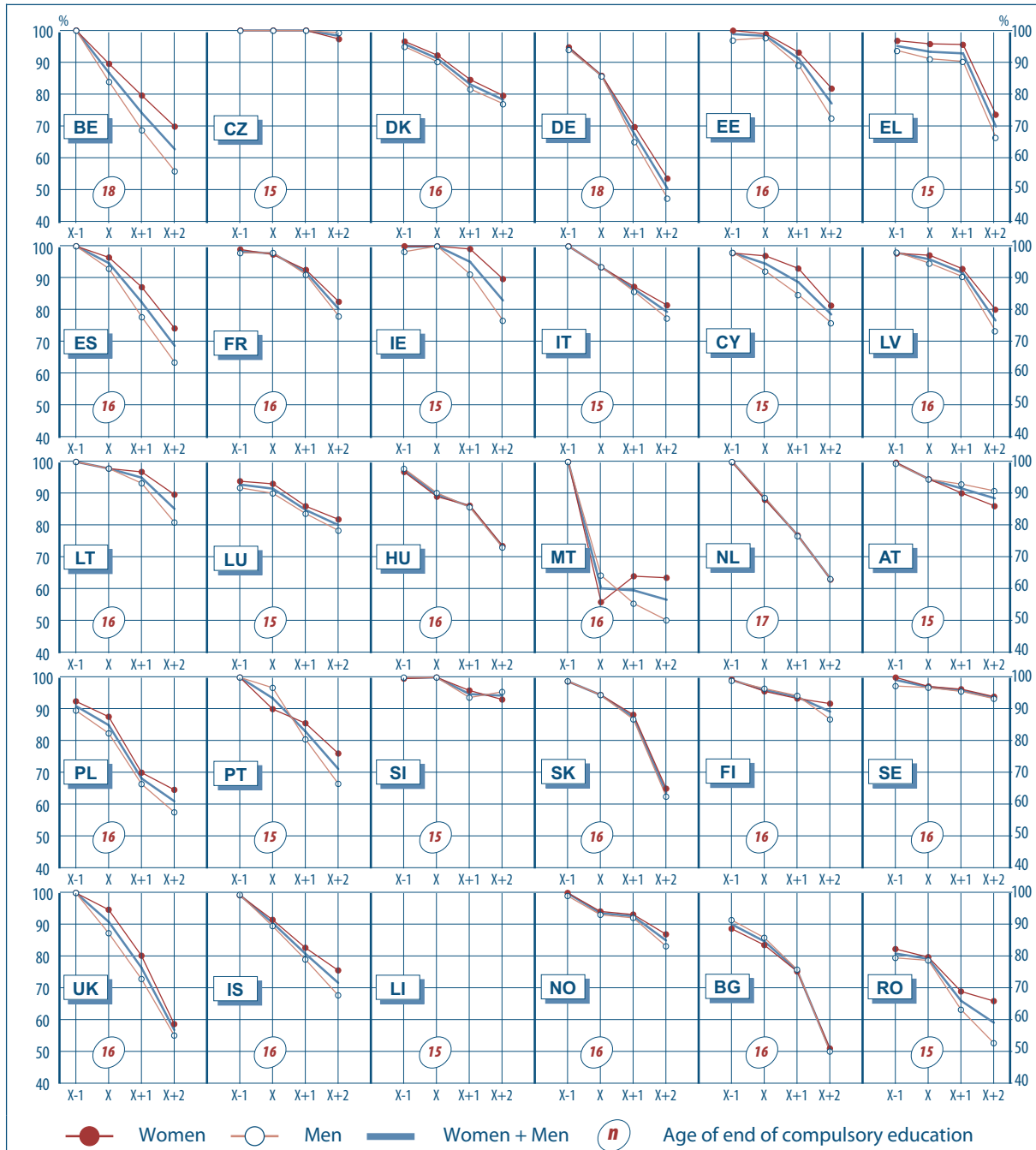
In the 29 European countries for which data are available, participation rates decline progressively at the end of compulsory education. The extent of the decrease varies, however, from one country to another. Participation rates decline particularly slowly in the Czech Republic, France, Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Austria, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden and Norway: in these countries, they still exceed 80 % in the second year after the end of compulsory education. By contrast, in Germany and Bulgaria, only 50 % of young people are still enrolled in education by that second year.

In most countries, young women stay in education longer than young men. This trend is particularly marked in Belgium, Spain, Ireland, Malta, Portugal and Romania, where two years after the end of compulsory schooling, female participation rates are around ten percentage points or more than those of young men. The exceptions are the Czech Republic and Austria, where male participation rates are slightly higher than those of young women. In Hungary and the Netherlands, participation rates are similar for both sexes.



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Figure C10: Participation rates, overall and broken down by sex, subsequent to compulsory education, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.



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Additional notes (Figure C10)

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions and include education for 'social advancement'.

Ireland: The ending age for compulsory education was increased to 16 following the Education Welfare Act 2000, with effect from 5 July 2002.

Cyprus: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included in the enrolment data but are included in the population data. Thus the indicator is underestimated.

Luxembourg: Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included. Also many pupils at ISCED 2 and 3 study abroad and are not included in enrolment but in population data, therefore all participation rates by age are underestimated. In ISCED 5, data by age are missing.

Hungary: Compulsory schooling for pupils who have begun school on 1 September 1998 or later will last until the end of the school year in which they turn 18 years of age.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

Detailed data are contained in the annexes.

This indicator shows the enrolment rates in education (all ISCED levels) for each country, at the end of compulsory education. Both full-time and part-time students are included; the table shows head-counts.

The data collection on enrolments covers national education systems regardless of ownership. All regular education programmes are included, as well as all adult education with a subject content similar to regular education programmes or leading to qualifications which are similar to corresponding regular programmes. All special education is included. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based education or training for which no formal education authority has oversight.

Reference date for population data is 1 January 2002.

OVER HALF OF 15 – 24 YEAR-OLDS ARE ENROLLED IN SOME FORM OF EDUCATION OR TRAINING

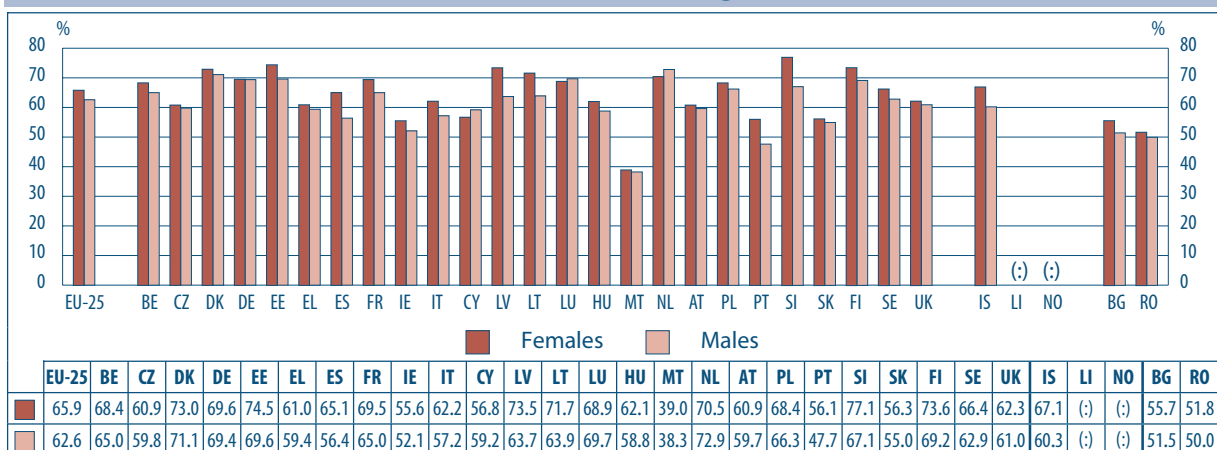
Everywhere in Europe, with the exception of Malta, at least half of all young people aged between 15 and 24 are enrolled in some form of education or training. In Denmark, Estonia, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Finland, this proportion reaches more than 70 %.

In the European Union, an average of around 66 % of women in this age group are in education or training, compared to 62 % of men. Only three countries (Cyprus, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) show a slightly greater percentage of men than women for this age group. The difference in enrolment rates by sex is generally not high, however, except in the case of Spain, Latvia and Slovenia, where it is around 10 percentage points.



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Figure C11: Percentage of young people aged 15 – 24 in education and training, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

France: The reference period for participation is one week.

Cyprus: Students usually living in the country but studying abroad are not yet covered by the survey.

Norway: The data are not shown because only data concerning education or training important for the present or future job are collected (i.e. excluding initial education etc.).

Explanatory note

A **person in education or training** has received some kind of education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey. The data collected refer to all education or vocational training whether or not relevant to the respondent's current or future employment and any kind of education and training.

ON AVERAGE, SCHOOL EXPECTANCY IS 17 YEARS

School expectancy is an estimate of the number of years a typical 5-year-old child can expect to be enrolled in the education system during his or her lifetime if current enrolment patterns remain unchanged. School expectancy may be used to predict future enrolment patterns in accordance with the patterns for people currently in the education system, and is a means of cross-country comparison of education system participation rates.

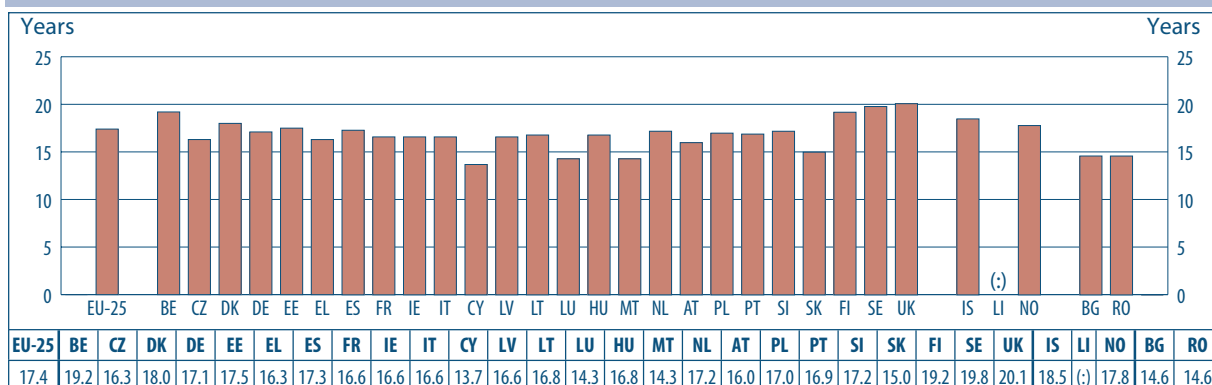
The number of years of education that a 5-year-old child can expect to receive during his or her lifetime ranges from around 14 in Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta (although many young people from these countries study abroad and are not included in the data) to 19 in Belgium, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland. School expectancy is highest in the United Kingdom and, on average, around one year less in the new EU Member States (EU-25) compared to the EU-15 countries.

These data should be interpreted with reference to the duration of compulsory education (Figures B1 and B13), the tendency of people to remain in education (Figure C11), the extent to which pupils or students redo particular years of school or study, the proportion of part-time enrolments and the provision of some types of adult education programmes.



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Figure C12: School expectancy for 5-year-olds (ISCED 0 to 6), 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data exclude independent private institutions.

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: Advanced tertiary education research programmes (ISCED level 6) are excluded.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part.

Luxembourg: Most students in tertiary education study abroad and are not included. Many people enrolled at other ISCED levels also study abroad and are thus included in population data but not in enrolment data. In the case of ISCED level 5, data by age are lacking.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

School expectancy is an estimate of the number of years a typical 5-year-old child can expect to be enrolled in the education system during his or her lifetime if current enrolment patterns remain unchanged.

Adding single-year net enrolment rates (expressed in years) gives us an estimate of the number of years of school expectancy for the period covering those ages. Adding the single-year enrolment rates for all ages gives us an estimate of the expected number of years of education over a lifetime. This type of estimate will be accurate if current patterns of enrolment remain unchanged. Estimates are based on head-count data, meaning that there is no distinction between part-time and full-time studies.

The net enrolment rates are calculated by dividing the number of pupils or students of a particular age or age group (corresponding to ISCED 0 to 6) by the number of persons of the same age or age group in the population. For students whose age is 'unknown', the net enrolment rate has been estimated by dividing these students by the total population aged 5-64 and multiplying by 60 (years).

IN THE EUROPEAN UNION, OVER 15 % OF THOSE ENROLLED IN EDUCATION SYSTEMS ARE STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

In 2002, over 16 million students were enrolled in tertiary education in the European Union, or a little over 15 % of the total number of pupils and students enrolled in the education system.

In Greece, Spain, Slovenia and Finland, the number of students in tertiary education in relation to all pupils in the education system is over 20 %, whereas it accounts for less than 10 % in Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta. The position of Cyprus and Luxembourg is largely attributable to the fact that the majority of students in these countries study abroad (Figure C20). In the other countries, the percentage of students varies around the EU average, between 12.1 % (Slovakia) and 19.7 % (Latvia).

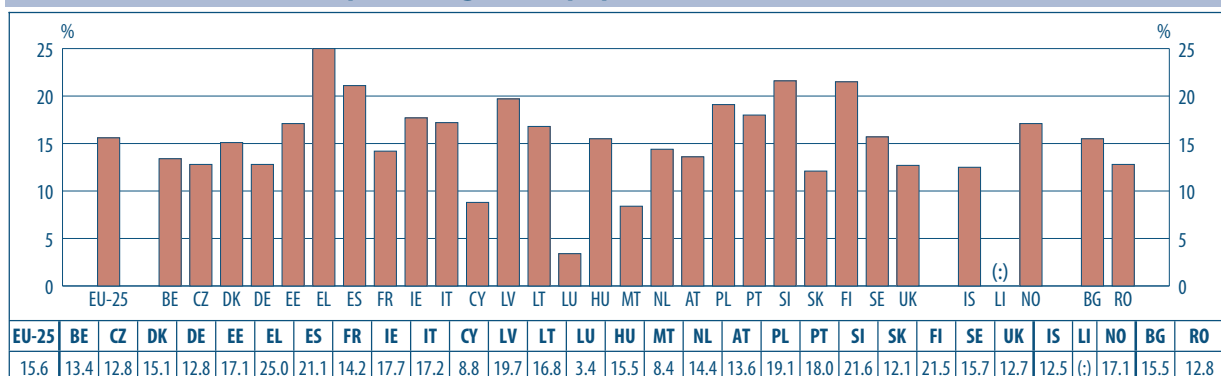
In interpreting this indicator, it is important to take account of the various factors specific to each national context. Of particular relevance here are demographic variations (Figures A2 and C14), the structure of education (for example, the provision of pre-primary education, the variable duration of compulsory



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education and tertiary education, Figure B1), the number of places available in tertiary education institutions, and possible restrictions on admission (Figure B14).

**Figure C13: Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6)
as a percentage of all pupils and students, 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: Most students study abroad and are not included.

Explanatory note

All (full-time and part-time) students at ISCED levels 5 and 6 are included. The denominator consists of all pupils and students enrolled in the education system of each country (ISCED 0-6).

THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION IS CONTINUING TO GROW

During the period from 1998 to 2002, the number of students in tertiary education in the European Union grew steadily. The annual growth rate for the number of EU-25 students was over 2 % throughout that period. In all, the number of students in the European Union in those years grew by 16 %.

The new Member States, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Sweden, Iceland and Romania recorded a very significant rise in the number of students between 1998 and 2002. In all these countries, their numbers grew at a rate above the EU-25 average rate. The increase exceeded 50 % in Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland and Romania. In the other countries in this group, it was over 20 %.

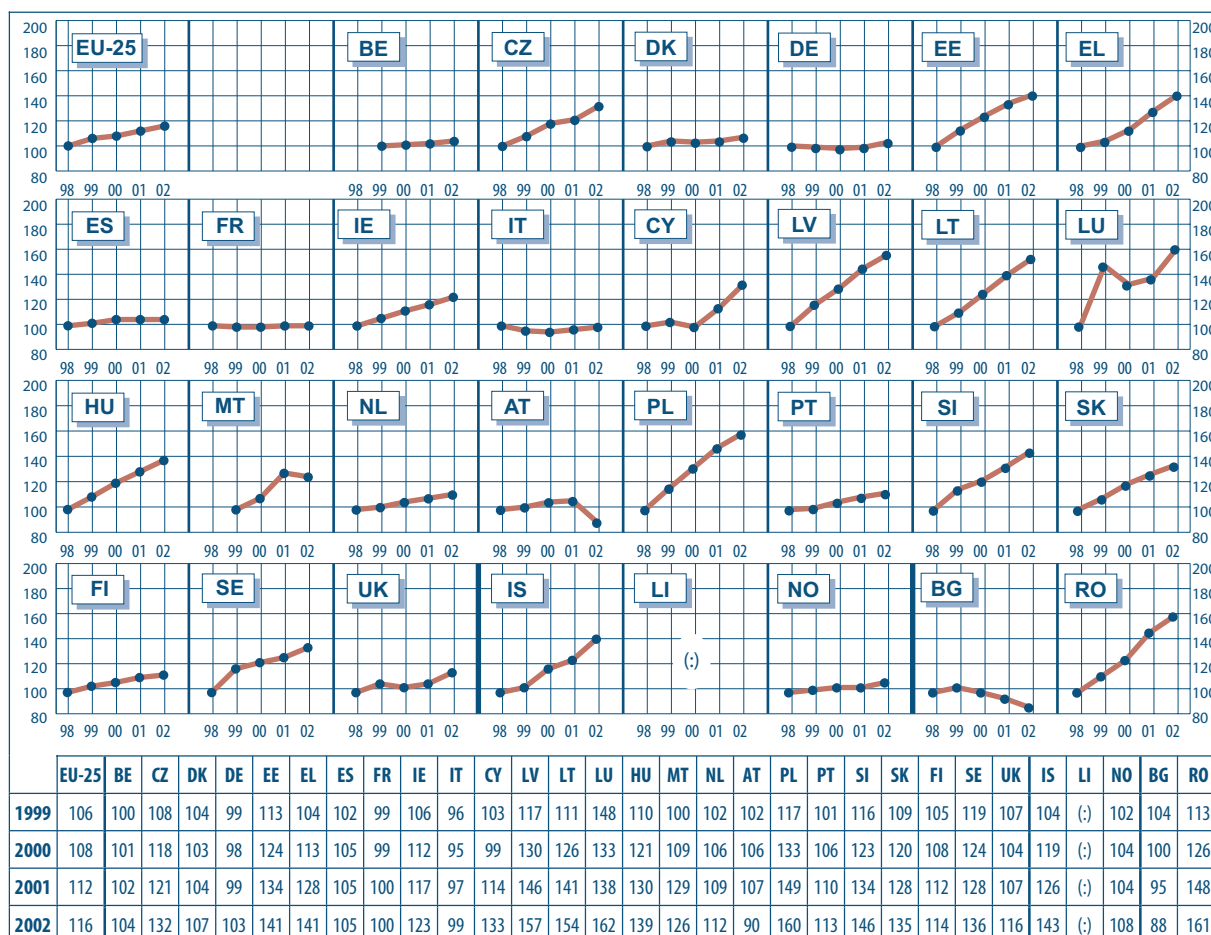
The increase in the number of students was more contained in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Portugal, Finland, the United Kingdom and Norway. In these countries, it was not more than 16 % between 1998 and 2002, but it may have been higher previously in several of them. In France and Italy, student enrolment levels tended to remain unchanged.

Austria and Bulgaria experienced an absolute decrease in their student population between 1998 and 2002. In Austria, this is the result of a sudden fall in student numbers in 2002 following the introduction of tuition fees in tertiary education in 2001/02. This sudden drop was preceded by several years of steadily increasing student numbers from 1998 to 2001. The situation in Bulgaria was different; the drop in enrolment began in 1999 and continued steadily until 2002.



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Figure C14: Trends in the index, compared to 1998, for the number of students in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 1998-2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

EU-25: 1998 includes 1999 data for Belgium and Malta.

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: Most students study abroad and are not included.

Explanatory note

The annual growth index is calculated by dividing the number of students for the year concerned by the number of students in 1998, and multiplying the result by 100.

1998 = 100 except in the case of Belgium and Malta (1999).

All (full-time and part-time) students at ISCED levels 5 and 6 are included.

THE DENSITY OF THE STUDENT POPULATION IN SOME REGIONS IS STRIKING

Within the EU-25, the percentage of students enrolled in tertiary education compared to the total number of pupils/students differs markedly from one region to the next (Figure C15a).

The high density of the student population in some regions becomes apparent when the proportion of students in tertiary education within a particular region is compared with the proportion of the total population in the same region. From the comparison it is clear that some regions attract a proportion of

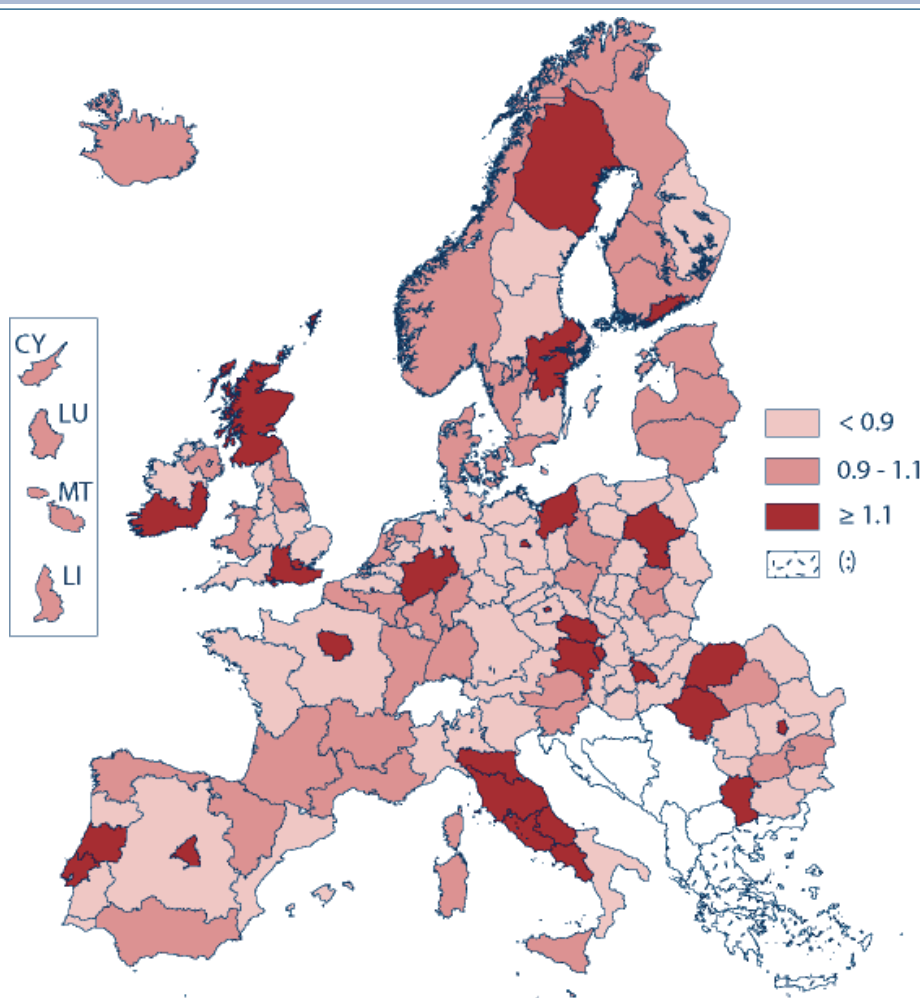


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students that is far greater than the regional share of the total population, whereas in others the corresponding proportion is very modest compared to the demographic strength of the region concerned. The indicator is derived from data on where students are studying, and not on where they come from or live. Consequently regions with universities and other tertiary education institutions – often in big towns or cities – invariably score over 1. This is strongly indicative of the uneven regional distribution of the tertiary education infrastructure and its corollary, interregional student mobility.

In several countries, some regions have relatively very few students indeed compared to the relative size of their population. In the Czech Republic (Střední Čechy which belongs to the catchment area of Prague), Finland (Ahvenanmaa/Aaland), and Bulgaria (Severozapaden), the regional proportion of students is at least a third of the regional share of the total population. At the other extreme, some regions containing extensive urban areas or – more often than not – capital cities attract students in very large numbers. In Belgium (Brussels), the Czech Republic (Prague), Slovakia (Bratislava) and Romania (Bucharest), the proportion of the student population in the regions indicated in brackets is over twice as high as their share of the total population.

Figure C15: Ratio of the proportion of tertiary education students (ISCED 5 and 6) to the proportion of the population, by NUTS regions, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.



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Additional notes (Figure C15)

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included, except with respect to regional data in the French Community.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

France, Italy, Portugal, Finland and United Kingdom: Population for 2001.

Cyprus: Most students in tertiary education study abroad and are not counted in the enrolment data but are included in the population data. The ratio is thus an underestimate.

Explanatory note

In this indicator 'the proportion of the country's tertiary education students (ISCED 5 and 6) enrolled in the region' is divided by 'the proportion of the country's population in the region'. A region will therefore score more than 1 if it is over-represented in terms of its student population and below 1 if it is under-represented, in either case with respect to the regional share of the total population.

All (full-time and part-time) students at ISCED levels 5 and 6 are included. Enrolment data relate to the 2001/02 academic year, and population data to 1 January 2002. As a result, the indicator tends more to reflect the uneven distribution of tertiary education institutions across the regions than regional differences in participation in tertiary education.

The NUTS 1 level is used in all EU-15 countries except Ireland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the new Member States, in which the NUTS 2 level is used.

The regions are defined in accordance with the NUTS classification (see the definition of statistical tools in the Glossary).

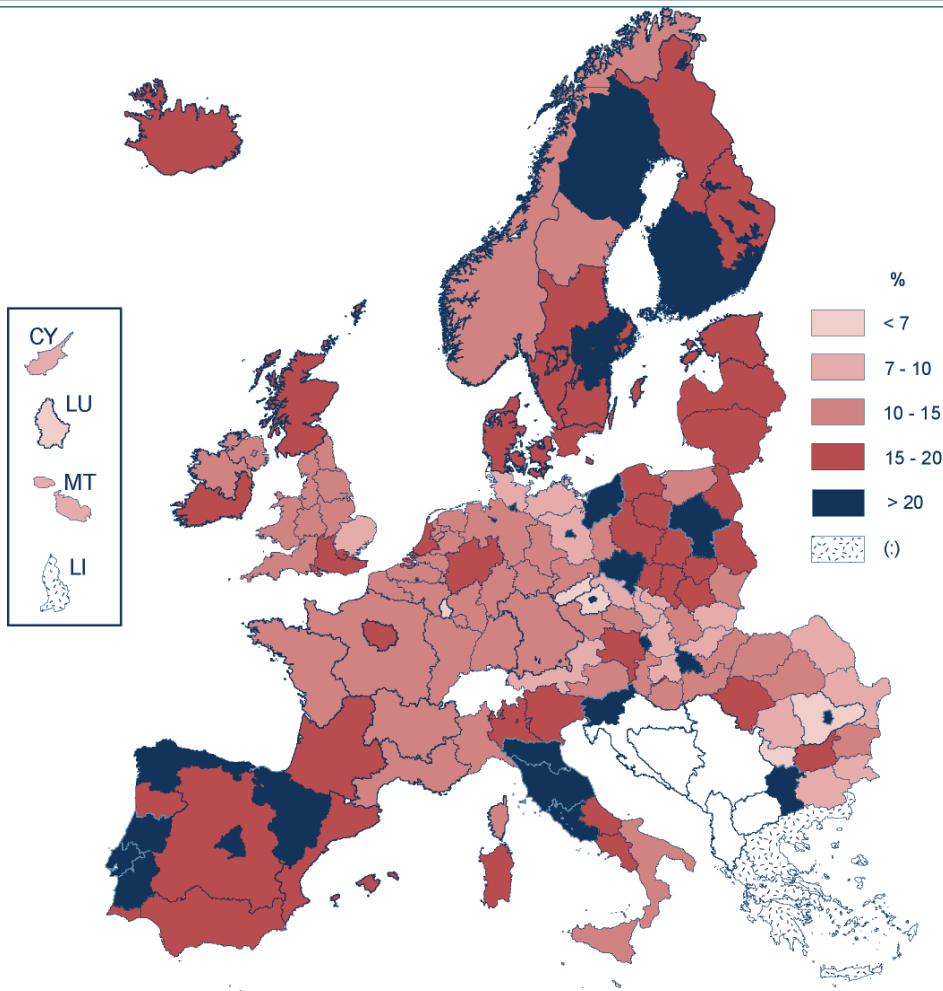
AN UNEVEN REGIONAL BREAKDOWN OF STUDENTS

Within the European Union, the proportion of students enrolled in tertiary education as a percentage of all pupils and students varies very widely from one region to the next. The indicator is based on data on where students are studying, and not on where they come from or live. Consequently regions with universities and other tertiary education institutions – often in big towns or cities – record high percentages. As a result, the indicator tends more to reflect the uneven distribution of tertiary education institutions across the regions and the resulting concentration of students in some regions (Figure C15) than regional differences in participation in tertiary education.

At regional level, the highest proportions of students (over 25 %) occur in Belgium (Brussels Capital region), the Czech Republic (Praha), Italy (Emilia Romagna), Hungary (Közép-Magyarország), Poland (Mazowieckie), Portugal (Lisboa e vale do tejo), Slovakia (Bratislavský kraj), Bulgaria (Yugozapaden) and Romania (Bucuresti).

By contrast, some regions have particularly low student percentages. Thus the proportion of students is under 7 % in the Czech Republic (Střední Čechy and Severozápad), in France (the Overseas *départements*), Portugal (Madeira), Finland (Åhvenanmaa/Åland), Bulgaria (Severozapaden) and Romania (Sud). Most of these regions have little, if any, tertiary education infrastructure.

Figure C15a: Tertiary education students (ISCED 5 and 6) as a percentage of all pupils and students by NUTS regions, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students enrolled in educational provision for 'social advancement' in the French Community are not included in the regional data.

Czech Republic: Only full-time students are included

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Ireland: There is no public-sector provision at ISCED level 0. Many children follow a pre-primary curriculum in private institutions but data are lacking for the most part.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: Most students in tertiary education study abroad and are not included.

United Kingdom: Only pupils enrolled in schools are included in ISCED level 0.

Explanatory note

The indicator is calculated by dividing the number of students enrolled in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) in a region by the total number of pupils and students enrolled in the region's education system (ISCED 0-6). All (full-time and part-time) students are included.

All formal education programmes are included. All adult education programmes whose purpose is exactly the same as that of formal education programmes, or which lead to similar qualifications, are included as is all special education. Apprenticeship programmes are included, but not entirely work-based training or training for which no formal education authority has oversight.

The NUTS 1 level is used in all EU-15 countries except Ireland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the new Member States, in which the NUTS 2 level is used.

The regions are defined in accordance with the NUTS classification (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).



PARTICIPATION

THE TERTIARY EDUCATION PARTICIPATION RATE FOR EITHER SEX IS HIGHEST IN THE 20-24 AGE GROUP

In Europe, the tertiary education participation rate is highest for students in the 20-24 age group. However, there are different patterns in the breakdown by age of students depending on the country concerned, which serves to underline national differences in terms of the age of young people when they transfer from ISCED level 3 to ISCED level 5, and the duration of studies at ISCED 5.

Peaks in participation rates thus occur at different ages and their values then decrease more or less sharply, depending on particular ages and countries.

In the majority of countries, the highest participation rate occurs when students are aged 20. In some countries, the participation rate peaks at higher ages – 22 in Germany, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, and 24 in Denmark. This is a reflection of the different ages for admission to tertiary education in the various countries. In eight countries (Belgium, France, Ireland, Cyprus, Malta, Slovakia, the United Kingdom and Romania) the participation rate drops off sharply, by 60 % or more, four years after it peaks. In these countries; the participation rate for those aged 26 is under 10 %. In other countries (Germany, Estonia, Greece, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway), the rate drops off more slowly; it remains at 10% or above six years after it peaks. In Germany, the participation rate drops by only 25 % between the ages of 22 and 26.

Generally speaking, with respect to age, changes in participation rates for men and women in tertiary education follow a similar pattern in most countries. Almost everywhere, with the exception of Germany, Cyprus, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland and Portugal, the rates for young men and women reach their highest levels at the same age. In these six countries, participation among men peaks two years later than for women. This is partly because men are obliged to complete their military or civil service (except in the Netherlands where neither exists).

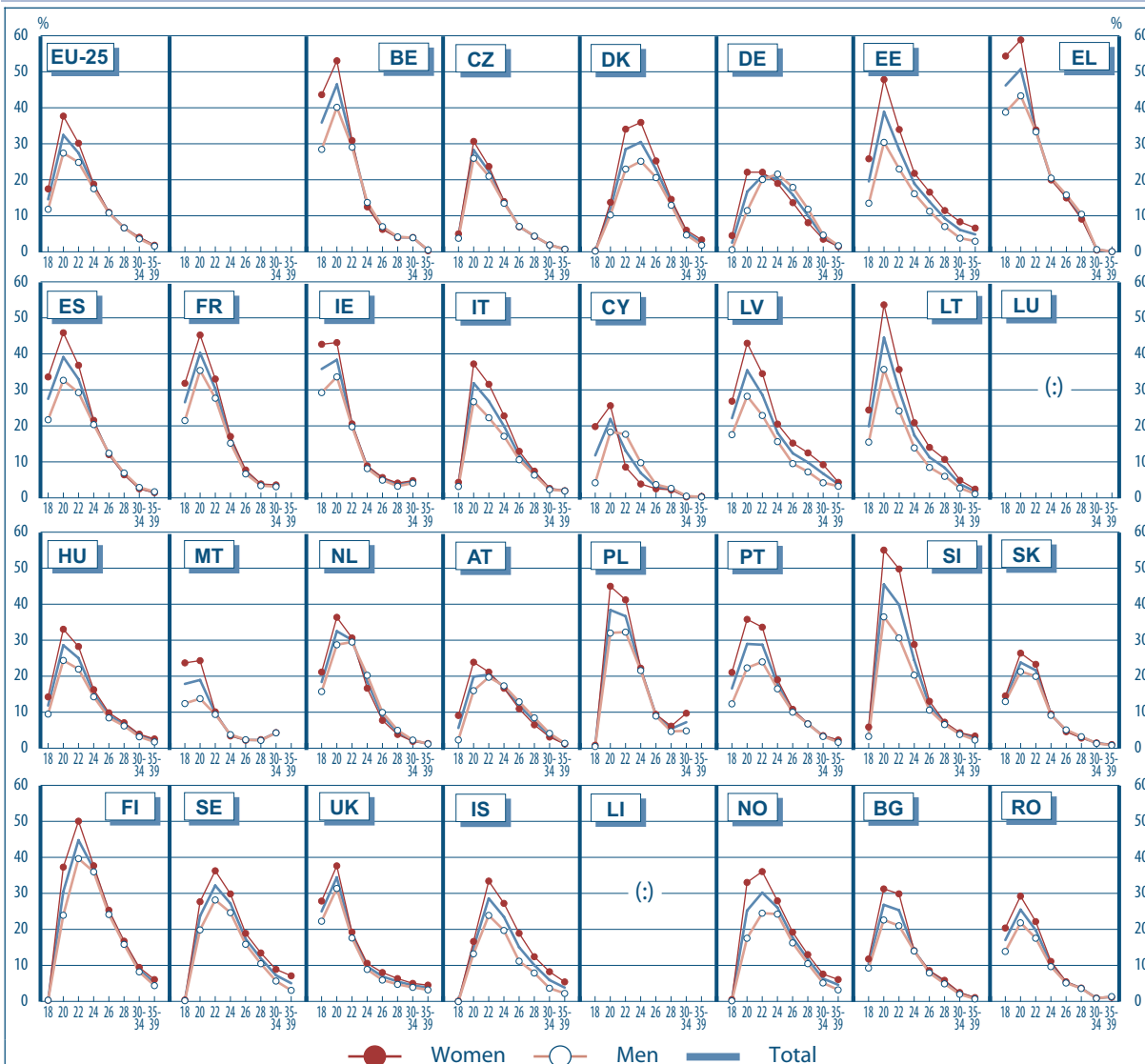
Participation rates for women are usually higher than those for men, a difference that is especially marked in almost half of all countries, namely Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia, Finland, Iceland and Norway. Since the 1970s, the number of women enrolled in tertiary education has been higher than that of men (except in Germany. In Ireland this has only been the case since 1995/96). This trend was maintained between 1998 and 2002 (Figure C16a).

Differences in participation rates between men and women decrease with age to a point where they become virtually non-existent. In some countries, the participation rate among men is higher than the rate for women after the age of 24, particularly in Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, Cyprus, the Netherlands and Austria.



PARTICIPATION

**Figure C16: Participation rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6)
by age and by sex, 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. All students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Greece: The high participation rate is partly attributable to the number/high proportion of Cypriot students in Greece.

Ireland: The 30-34 age group includes those aged 35 and over.

Cyprus: Most students in tertiary education study abroad and are not counted in the enrolment data but are included in the population data. The ratio is thus an underestimate.

Luxembourg: Most students study abroad and are not included. The breakdown by age and sex of those who study in Luxembourg is not available.

United Kingdom: Population data refer to 2001.

Explanatory note

The numbers of men and women students at specific ages or in specific age groups are divided by the numbers of men and women at the corresponding age or in the corresponding age groups in the total population. All (full-time and part-time) students at ISCED levels 5 and 6 are included. Population data relate to 1 January 2002.



WOMEN OUTNUMBER MEN IN TERTIARY EDUCATION IN ALMOST ALL COUNTRIES

Between 1998 and 2002, the number of women enrolled in tertiary education for every 100 men grew by 7 % in the European Union. This increase corresponded to further development of the trend apparent since the mid-1970s. Since that period, the growth of enrolment among women has been greater than among men and female enrolment rates by age is generally higher than those of men (Figure C16). In the European Union, therefore, women on average enrol for tertiary education in greater numbers.

Estonia, Malta, and Romania experienced a sharp increase of over 15 % in the number of women enrolled for every 100 men between 1998 and 2002. In Spain, France, Lithuania and Finland, this ratio changed very little. It fell sharply in Bulgaria and to a lesser extent in Cyprus and Latvia (solely during 2001 and 2002).

Yearly changes stood in greater contrast without compromising the general trend. Thus the ratio rose steadily in half of all European countries throughout the period. In the other half, the number of women enrolled for every 100 men increased (except in Cyprus and Bulgaria) even though the increase was not continuous.

In 2002, therefore, more women than men enrolled in tertiary education in all countries except Germany. In the European Union, on average 119 women enrolled in tertiary education for every 100 men. Their numerical superiority was greatest in Iceland in which almost 172 women were enrolled for every 100 men. The Baltic countries also recorded a much higher proportion than the EU average with almost 160 women for every 100 men enrolled in Estonia and Latvia and 153 in Lithuania. In Belgium, the Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Spain, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovakia, Finland, Bulgaria and Romania, the ratios were lower than the EU average.

The fact that more women than men enrol in tertiary education may be attributable to the increased professional activity of women and labour market qualifications requirements. But other factors of an educational nature may also be relevant. The participation rate of girls one or two years after the notional age for the completion of compulsory education is higher than in the case of boys in many countries (Figure C10), exceptions being the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia, Finland and Bulgaria. In all countries (except the United Kingdom), the percentage of boys who receive vocational upper secondary education qualifying them for the labour market (and who are thus less likely to embark on tertiary education) is higher than in the case of girls (Figure C9).

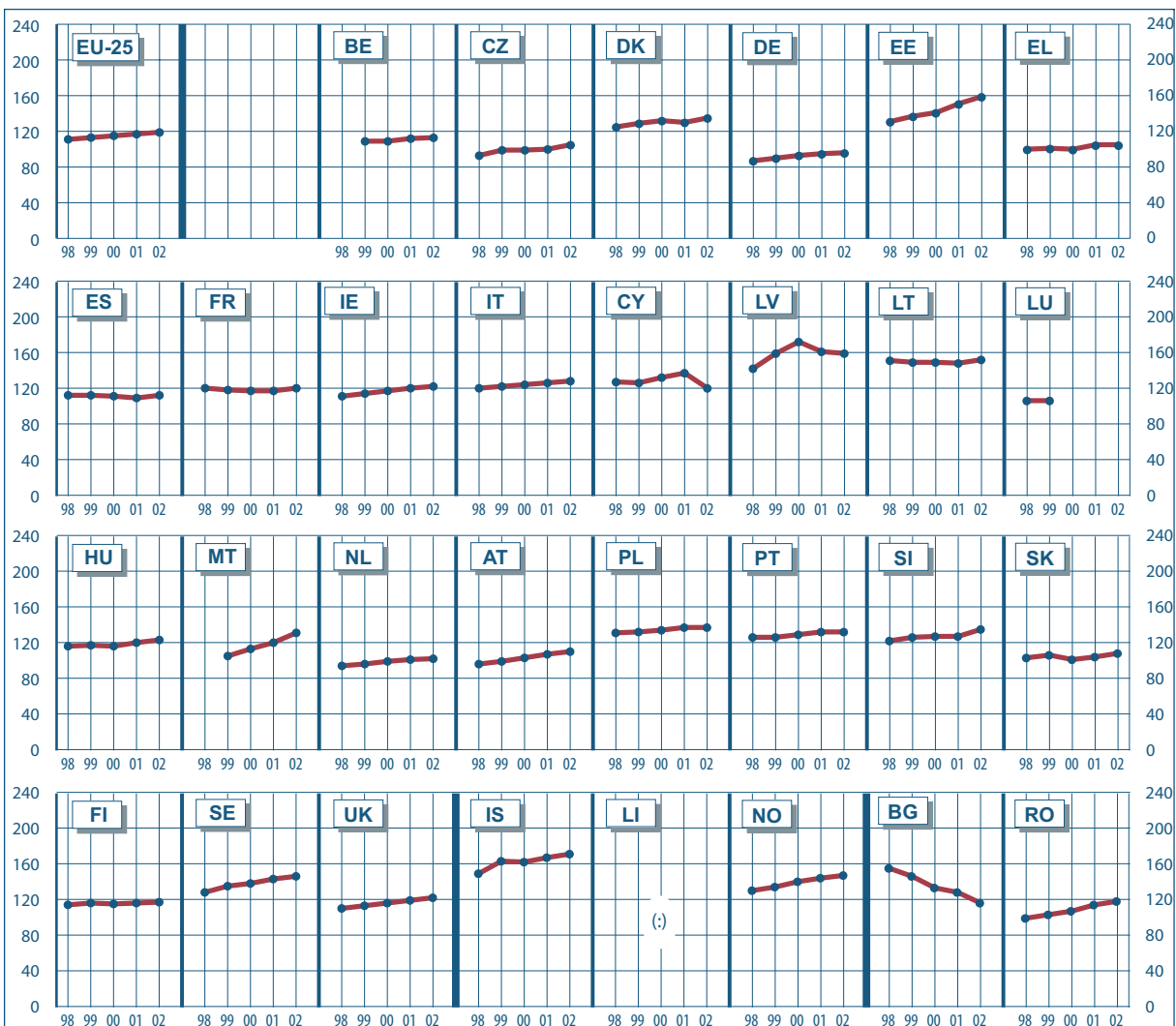
The number of girls with general upper secondary education qualifications is higher than that of boys in all European countries (Figure F3). In 1998 and 2002, the numerical superiority of girls with general upper secondary education qualifications compared to boys was even more striking than their superiority in terms of enrolment in tertiary education in all countries except Ireland, Lithuania, Sweden and Iceland.

The majority representation of women in tertiary education clearly has an impact on the number of women graduates for every 100 men (Figure F7).



PARTICIPATION

Figure C16a: Trends in the number of women per 100 men enrolled in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 1998-2002



	EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
1998	111	(.)	93	125	87	131	100	113	121	112	121	128	143	152	107	117	(.)	95	97	132	127	123	104	115	129	111	150	(.)	131	156	100
1999	113	109	99	129	90	137	101	113	119	115	123	127	160	150	107	118	106	97	100	133	127	127	107	117	136	114	164	(.)	135	147	104
2000	115	109	99	132	93	141	100	112	118	118	125	133	173	150	(.)	117	114	100	104	135	130	128	102	116	139	117	163	(.)	141	134	108
2001	117	112	100	130	95	151	105	110	118	121	127	138	162	149	(.)	121	121	102	108	138	133	128	105	117	144	120	168	(.)	145	129	115
2002	119	113	105	135	96	159	105	113	121	123	129	121	160	153	(.)	124	132	103	111	138	133	136	109	118	147	123	172	(.)	148	117	119

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: Most students study abroad and are not included.

Explanatory note

All (full-time and part-time) students at ISCED levels 5 and 6 are included. The ratio of the number of women for every 100 men enrolled in tertiary education has been calculated by dividing the number of women students enrolled by the corresponding number for men students and multiplying the result by 100.

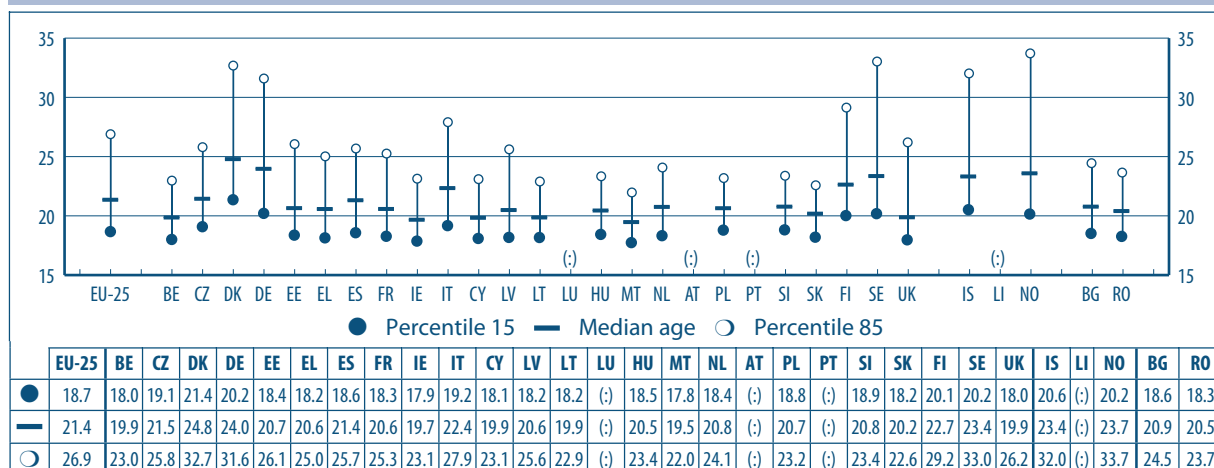


PARTICIPATION

THE BREAKDOWN OF THE STUDENT POPULATION BY AGE VARIES VERY WIDELY THROUGHOUT EUROPE

In 2002, half of the full-time students in tertiary education in Europe were older than 21 ½. The median age for students ranges from 19 ½ in Malta to almost 25 in Denmark. The distribution of tertiary education students by age varies very widely. In some countries, the age range is fairly limited and most students are relatively young (Belgium, Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and Romania), whereas in other countries the spectrum is much broader and may include much higher age groups. This pattern is typical of the Nordic countries and Germany. When part-time students are taken into account (Figure C16), the age spectrum in tertiary education becomes even more marked.

**Figure C17: Distribution by age of full-time students
in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Cyprus: Most students study abroad and are not included.

Explanatory note

The median age is the age that divides the student population precisely into two halves. The age corresponding to percentile 15 of the population is the age that divides students into two groups such that 15 % of them are younger than that age and 85 % of them are older.

The countries where the age distribution is generally broadest and includes the oldest full-time students are usually those where the median age is highest. In the Nordic countries and Germany, students aged under 20 account for only 15 % of students in tertiary education. In Finland, over 15 % of students are aged over 29. In Denmark, Germany, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, 15 % of students are aged over 31 whereas in Belgium, Ireland, Cyprus, Malta and the United Kingdom, half of all students are under 20.

There are several possible reasons for age differences among full-time students in various countries. They include the fact that secondary education is completed at different ages, the length of tertiary education programmes (Figure B1), the customary financial independence of students, which is encouraged by public policies for financial assistance (Figure D18) and which often leads them to pursue part-time study⁽²⁾, the

⁽²⁾ Financial support for students in higher education in Europe. Trends and debates. *Key Topics in Education, Volume 1*. Brussels: Eurydice, 1999.



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existence of active policies to encourage those who have acquired professional experience (and who are thus typically older than most students) to enrol for tertiary education, the time given over to experience abroad and, finally, the obligation to do military service.

WOMEN STUDENTS EASILY OUTNUMBER MEN IN 'EDUCATION', 'HUMANITIES AND ARTS' AND 'HEALTH AND WELFARE'

Overall, women are in the majority in tertiary education (Figure C16a) but the breakdown in enrolments by sex varies considerably with the field of study concerned. In the European Union on average, three fields are noteworthy for the strong representation of women (over 66 % of those enrolled), namely 'education', 'humanities and arts' and 'health and welfare'. In these three fields in all countries for which data are available, women far outnumber men. Although women are in the majority in the fields of 'social sciences, business and law' (except Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands), they are less strongly represented than in the three foregoing fields.

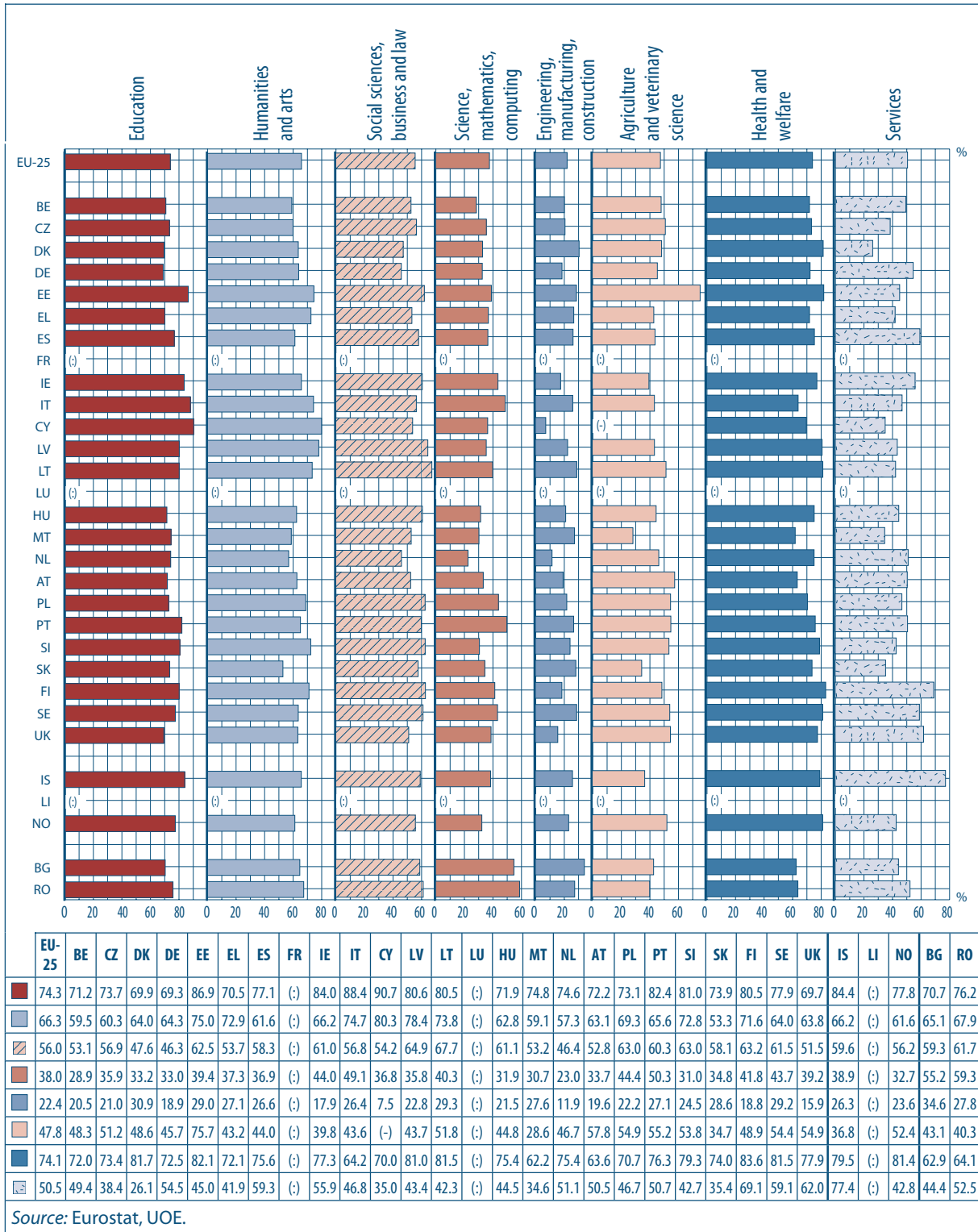
At the other extreme, over 77 % of those enrolled in the field of 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' are men. In Cyprus and the Netherlands, the proportion of men in this field is over 88 %. The proportion of women in the same field, although a minority, is highest in Denmark, Estonia, Lithuania, Sweden at around 30 %, and in Bulgaria at even 35 %. Male students are also in a clear majority in 'science, mathematics and computing', in which they account for 62 % of enrolments. Only in Portugal, Bulgaria and Romania are women in a slight majority in this field, whereas in Italy, men and women are equally represented.

On average in the European Union, men and women in tertiary education are enrolled in almost exactly the same proportions in the field of 'services', and men are only in a very slight majority in 'agriculture and veterinary science'. Some countries differ markedly from the European average with respect to these subjects. For example, only a quarter of those enrolled in the field of 'services' in Denmark are women, whereas women account for almost 76 % of those enrolled in 'agriculture and veterinary science' in Estonia.



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Figure C18: Percentage of women students enrolled in different fields of study, in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.



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Additional notes (Figure C18)

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Cyprus: Most students study abroad and are not included.

Explanatory note

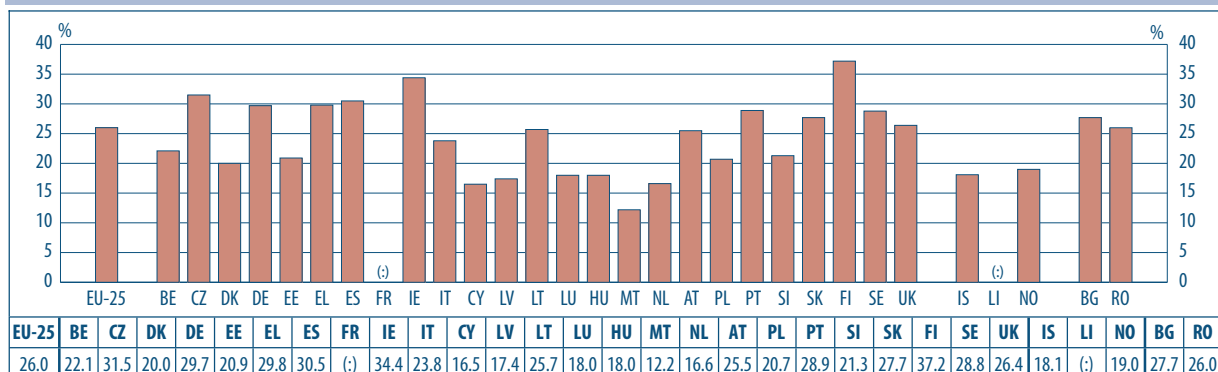
This indicator is calculated by dividing the number of women enrolled in a given field of study by the total number of those enrolled in the same field, and then multiplying the result by 100.

A QUARTER OF ALL STUDENTS ARE AIMING FOR A CAREER IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

In the European Union, an average of just over a quarter of all students are enrolled in the fields of 'science, mathematics and computing' and 'engineering, manufacturing and construction'. This proportion ranges from 12 % in Malta to 37 % in Finland.

In four countries (the Czech Republic, Spain, Ireland and Finland), the proportion of enrolments in these fields is over 30 %, while in eight countries (Cyprus, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, the Netherlands, Iceland and Norway) the proportions are under 20 %. These enrolment rates are also reflected in the medium term in the number of graduates in science and technology for every 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29 (Figure F10).

Figure C19: Percentage of students enrolled in 'science, mathematics and computing' and 'engineering, manufacturing and construction', ISCED 5 and 6, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: Most students study abroad and are not included.

Explanatory note

This indicator is calculated by dividing the number of students in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) enrolled in the fields of 'science, mathematics and computing' and 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' by the total number of students in tertiary education (excluding those in the 'unknown' category), and then multiplying the result by 100.



PARTICIPATION

THE PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION WHO STUDY IN ANOTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRY REMAINS LIMITED

Across the European Union, between 1998 and 2002, around 2 % of those enrolled in tertiary education studied for at least a year in another EU Member State, a candidate country or one of the EFTA/EEA countries. The proportion of students studying abroad increased by 5 % over this period. The statistics only include those enrolled for at least a year in a foreign university and are based exclusively on the nationality of students. This means that foreign students permanently resident in a host country are counted here as foreign students even though they have not moved abroad to study at tertiary level. Figure C20, therefore, provides no information about student mobility in the broad sense and should be interpreted with caution. Indeed, in the case of most countries, the data shown here do not take into account students who were involved in a European mobility programme.

In 2002, the most 'mobile' students in Europe were those from Cyprus and Luxembourg, the majority of whom study abroad because of the limited provision for tertiary education in their own country. Over 10 % of Maltese and Icelandic students also study abroad in an EU country. Conversely, Polish and UK students are the least likely to study in another European Union or EFTA/EEA country, with no more than 1 % doing so.

From 1998 to 2002, Czech, French, Maltese, Slovak and Bulgarian students studied in other European countries in increasing numbers. The proportion of Bulgarian students who completed their courses in another European country increased by a factor of three, that of Slovak students by two and a half, and that of Czech, French and Maltese students by a factor of around one and a half. The corresponding proportion of Slovenian, Swedish and UK students abroad remained virtually unchanged during the same period. Conversely, the proportion of Greek, Irish, Cypriot, Luxembourg and Icelandic students who went abroad to study was far lower than previously. This trend was partly attributable to the high increase in the total number of students in these countries (Figure C14) combined with increased provision for tertiary education (in Greece, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Iceland).

Explanatory note (Figure C20)

Students undertaking short periods of study (less than a full academic year) at tertiary education institutions in other countries and who remain enrolled in their home country institution and/or continue to pay their fees to it are not regarded as foreign students in the host country.

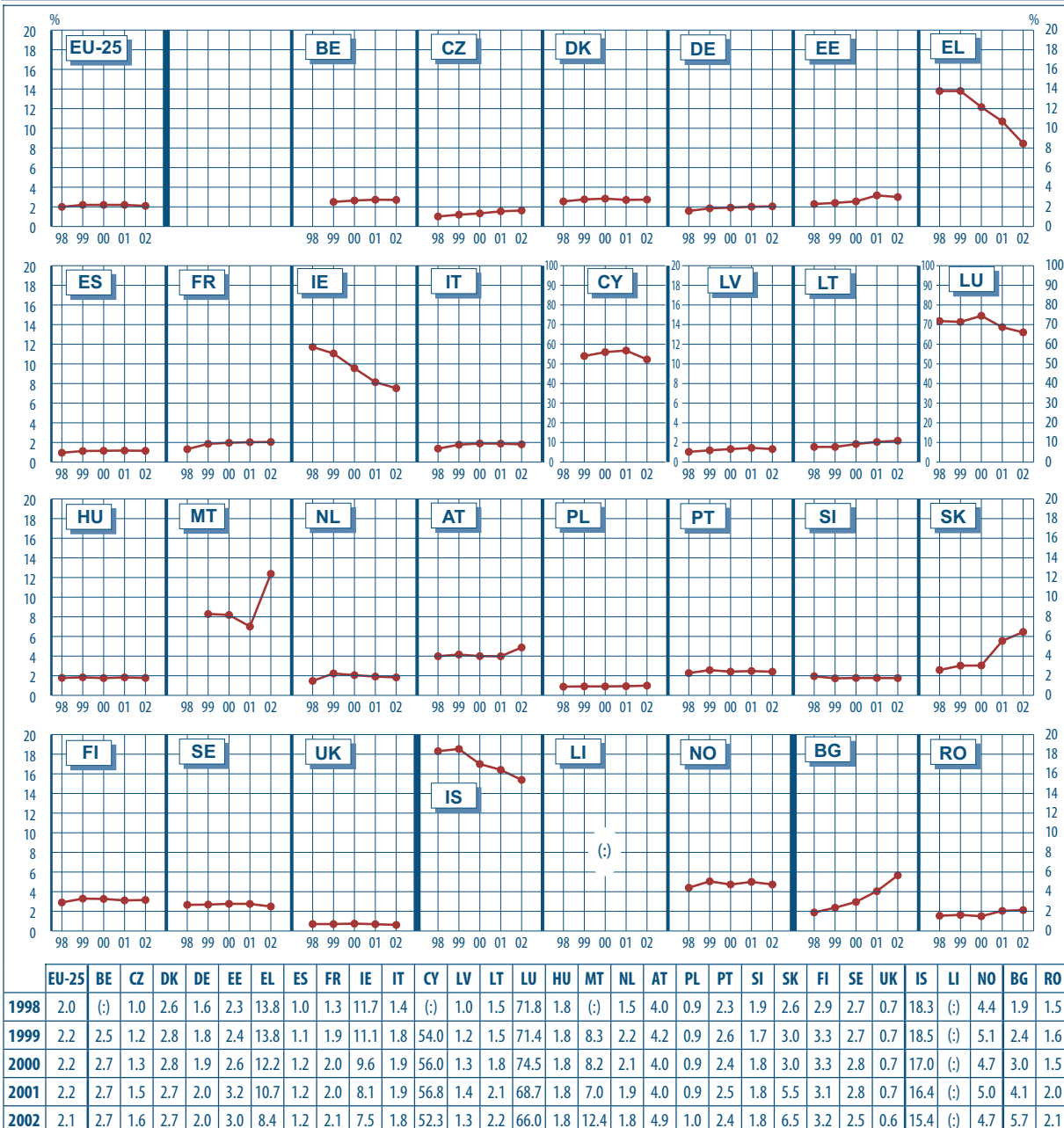
For a given nationality, the number of students abroad is calculated by adding up the data provided for this nationality by the host countries. This number is then divided by the total number of students of this nationality (including those studying in their own country). The lack of data on the distribution of students by nationality in some countries leads to underestimates in the values for certain countries.

Data on foreign students relate to citizenship. This means that permanent residents in a (host) country with citizenship of another country are counted and reported as foreign students in the data collection.



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Figure C20: Percentage of tertiary education students (ISCED 5 and 6) studying in another EU Member State, candidate country or EFTA/EEA country, 1998-2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Independent private institutions are not included. Students in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Germany, Slovenia and Romania: ISCED level 6 is not included.

Greece: In the case of 2002, foreign students at ISCED level 5B are not included. In the case of 1998-2001, data on foreign students are unavailable.

Ireland: Only full-time foreign students are included.

Cyprus: In the case of 1999-2001, national data relating to Cypriot students in Greece are included, as data from Greece are unavailable.



RESOURCES

SECTION I – INVESTMENT AND EQUIPMENT

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

— REPRESENTS 5-6 % OF GDP IN ALMOST HALF OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES —

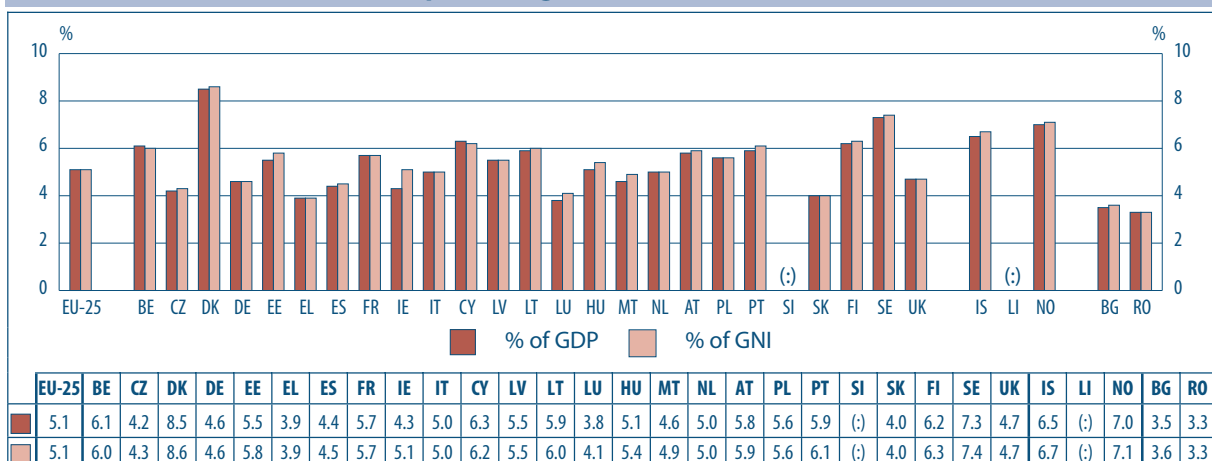
Overall, the share of GDP in the EU-25 earmarked for education remained stable throughout the period from 1995-2001. The amount that Europe continued to invest in education thus remained in constant proportion to its increasing wealth. This stability at European level concealed differences between individual countries. Some of them underwent striking changes during the foregoing period and annual variations of over 10 % occurred in many countries (Figure D1a).

Total public expenditure on education derives from a major collective effort in all European countries. It may be measured in terms of the share of total public expenditure on education in GDP. The share of total public expenditure on education in GDP in the EU-25 stood at 5.1 % in 2001.

In almost half of all countries, the share of total public expenditure on education varies between 5 % and 6 %. However there are major differences between some countries where, as a proportion of GDP, it varies by a factor of up to two. In Denmark and Sweden, this proportion stands at over 7 %, while it is no more than 3.5 % in Bulgaria and Romania.

By taking account of Gross National Income, it is possible to gain a more accurate picture of the share of total public expenditure on education in very open economies such as Estonia, Ireland, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta and Iceland. It is in these countries that the share of total public expenditure on education in GNI is much higher than the corresponding share in GDP. Elsewhere it is very similar. Total public expenditure on education represents between 3.3 % of GNI in Romania and 8.6 % of GNI in Denmark.

**Figure D1: Total public expenditure on education (ISCED 0 to 6)
as a percentage of GDP and GNI, 2001**



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.



RESOURCES

Additional notes (Figure D1)

Denmark: Expenditure on ISCED 4 is not included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED 5 and 6 is not included.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

United Kingdom: The adjustment in GDP is based on the financial year from 1 April to 31 March.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

In general, the public sector finances educational expenditure by assuming direct responsibility for the current and capital expenditure of schools (direct public financing of schools) or by offering financial support to pupils/students and their families (public-sector grants and loans) and by subsidising the education or training activities of the private business sector or non-profit organisations (transfers to households and firms). Direct public funding for educational institutions and transfers to households and firms are included in total public educational expenditure.

Total public expenditure on education is related to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income (GNI). The result is multiplied by 100.

The difference between Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income (GNI) is increasingly significant in small open economies because of the scale of and increase in the repatriation of profits by foreign businesses that have established manufacturing plants on their territory (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

THE PERCENTAGE OF GDP EARMARKED FOR EDUCATION HAS UNDERGONE SUBSTANTIAL ANNUAL VARIATIONS IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Trends in the share of GDP earmarked for education may be used to assess whether or not the share of national wealth devoted to educational investment is rising over time and whether the drive to invest is changing in proportion to national wealth.

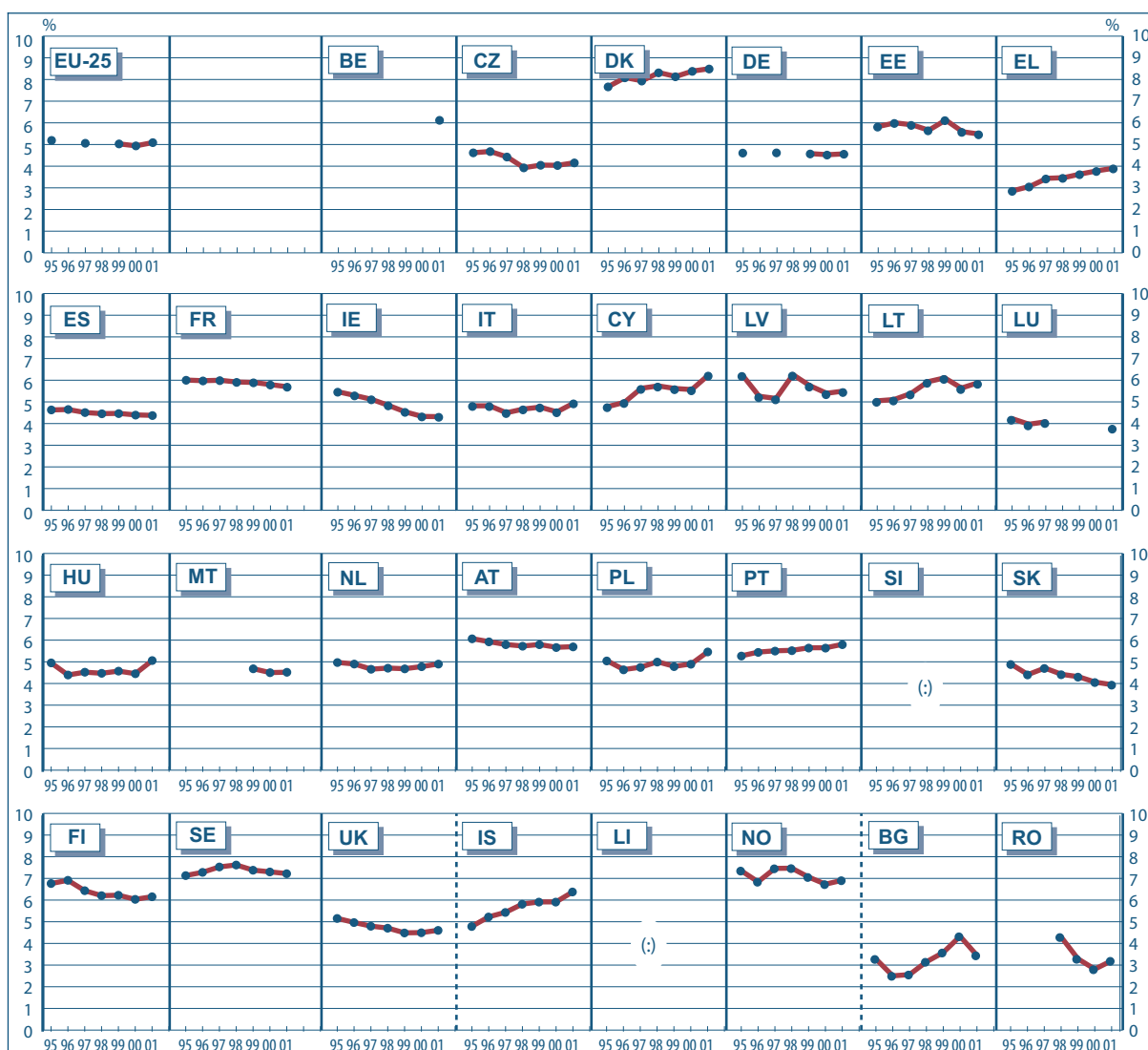
Overall, the share of GDP in the EU-25 allocated to education remained almost unchanged in the period from 1995 to 2001. This stability conceals variations among countries. Some of them experienced marked fluctuations during this period. Annual variations of more than 10 % in the share of expenditure on education in the GDP occurred in many countries. In 2001, the share of total public expenditure on education in the GDP varied between 5 % and 6 % in almost half of all countries (Figure D1).

There was an especially big fall in the share of total public educational expenditure in the GDP in Ireland and Slovakia, where it reached over 18 %. The Czech Republic, Latvia, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom each recorded decreases of around 10 %. In other countries (Estonia, Spain, France, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and Norway), the relative decrease in the drive to invest in education was less marked. However, the situation in several of these countries (Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Finland) is subject to qualification because of the steady growth in their GDP during the 1995-2001 period.

Conversely, Greece, Cyprus, and Iceland experienced more than 30 % growth in the share of total public educational expenditure in their GDP, while Denmark, Lithuania and Portugal recorded corresponding increases greater than or close to 10 %.

SECTION I – INVESTMENT AND EQUIPMENT

Figure D1a: Changes in total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP by country, 1995-2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

	EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
1995	5.2	(:)	4.6	7.7	4.6	5.8	2.9	4.7	6.0	5.5	4.9	4.8	6.3	5.1	4.3	5.0	(:)	5.1	6.2	5.1	5.4	(:)	5.0	6.8	7.2	5.2	4.9	(:)	7.4	3.4	(:)
1996	(:)	(:)	4.7	8.1	(:)	6.0	3.1	4.7	6.0	5.3	4.9	5.0	5.3	5.1	4.0	4.5	(:)	5.0	6.0	4.7	5.5	(:)	4.5	7.0	7.4	5.1	5.3	(:)	6.9	2.6	(:)
1997	5.1	(:)	4.4	7.9	4.6	5.9	3.4	4.5	6.0	5.2	4.5	5.7	5.2	5.4	4.1	4.6	(:)	4.8	5.9	4.8	5.6	(:)	4.8	6.5	7.6	4.9	5.5	(:)	7.5	2.6	(:)
1998	(:)	(:)	3.9	8.3	(:)	5.7	3.5	4.5	5.9	4.9	4.7	5.8	6.3	6.0	(:)	4.6	(:)	4.8	5.8	5.1	5.6	(:)	4.5	6.3	7.7	4.8	5.9	(:)	7.6	3.2	4.4
1999	5.0	(:)	4.0	8.1	4.6	6.1	3.6	4.5	5.9	4.6	4.8	5.7	5.8	6.1	(:)	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.9	4.9	5.7	(:)	4.4	6.3	7.5	4.6	6.0	(:)	7.2	3.7	3.4
2000	4.9	(:)	4.0	8.4	4.5	5.6	3.8	4.4	5.8	4.4	4.6	5.6	5.4	5.7	(:)	4.5	4.6	4.9	5.8	5.0	5.7	(:)	4.1	6.1	7.4	4.6	6.0	(:)	6.8	4.4	2.9
2001	5.1	6.1	4.2	8.5	4.6	5.5	3.9	4.4	5.7	4.3	5.0	6.3	5.5	5.9	3.8	5.1	4.6	5.0	5.8	5.6	5.9	(:)	4.0	6.2	7.3	4.7	6.5	(:)	7.0	3.5	3.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: In 2001, expenditure on administration operation (offices) for ISCED level 0 to 5B is not included.

Denmark: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is not included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Ireland: In 2001 expenditure from the *National Training Agency* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.



RESOURCES

Additional notes (Figure D1a continued)

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED levels 5 and 6 is not included.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

United Kingdom: The adjustment in GDP is based on the financial year from 1 April to 31 March.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

In general, the public sector finances educational expenditure by assuming direct responsibility for the current and capital expenditure of schools (direct public financing of schools) or by offering financial support to pupils/students and their families (public-sector grants and loans) and by subsidising the education or training activities of the private business sector or non-profit organisations (transfers to households and firms). Direct public funding for educational institutions (all levels of education combined) and transfers to households and firms are included in public educational expenditure.

Total public expenditure on education is related to Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The result is multiplied by 100.

The difference between Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income (GNI) is increasingly significant in small open economies because of the scale of and increase in the repatriation of profits by foreign businesses which have established manufacturing plants on their territory. It is of interest to compare total public expenditure on education to Gross National Income (GNI). These data are given for the 1995-2001 period in the annexes.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION WAS SUSTAINED OVERALL IN THE PERIOD FROM 1995-2001

In the EU-25, total public expenditure on education increased slightly between 1995 and 2001. Within the European Union, the share of total public expenditure on education compared to total public expenditure registered a growth rate of 9.5 %.

In nearly all countries for which data are available, the financial contribution of the public authorities to education (as a proportion of total public expenditure) grew between 1995 and 2000. In Denmark, Greece, Lithuania, Sweden and Iceland, it even grew by around 20 % or over, enabling these countries either to maintain a high level of public investment in education (Denmark, Lithuania, Sweden and Iceland), or to raise it from a relatively low level at the outset (Greece).

Latvia and Slovakia are exceptions to the foregoing trend. In these three countries, the share of total public expenditure on education in total public expenditure fell between 1995 and 2001. The rise in total public expenditure was thus greater than that of total public expenditure on education.

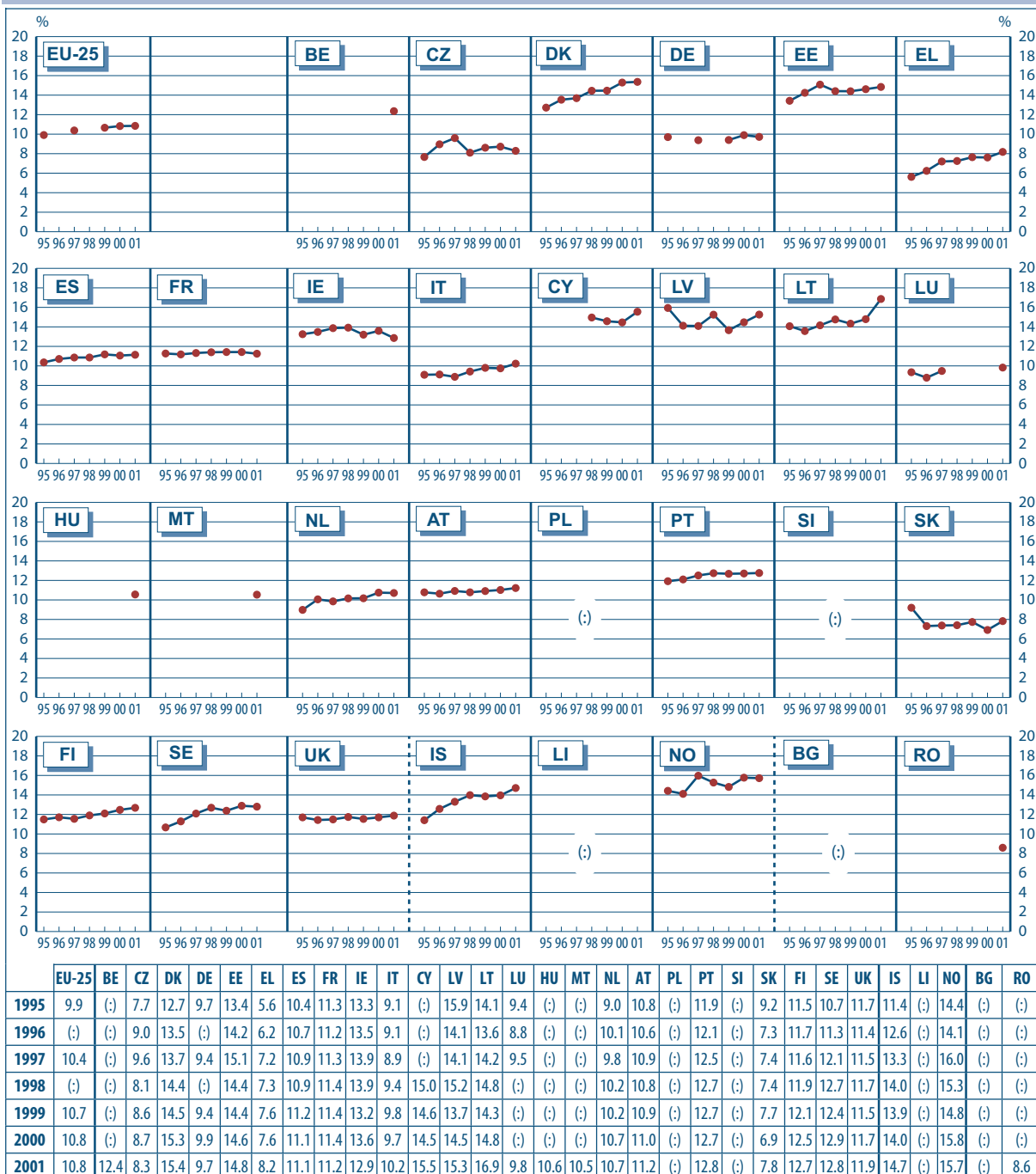
The share of total public investment in education remained at around the same level in most other European countries, in spite of relatively significant annual variations in some countries between 1995 and 2001.

In some countries, these variations appear to be more attributable to national budgetary restrictions arising from their commitment to economic and monetary union than to big variations in the education budget.

In 2001, on average, investment in education represented over 10 % of public expenditure in the great majority of countries. In a few countries (the Czech Republic, Greece, Slovakia and Romania) the situation was less encouraging, with around 8 % of public expenditure earmarked for education (Figure D2a).

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Figure D2: Changes in total public expenditure on education (ISCED 0 to 6) compared to total public expenditure by country, 1995-2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: In 2001 expenditure on administration operation (offices) for ISCED level 0 to 5B is not included.

Denmark: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is not included.

Germany: Total public expenditure for 1995 without the one-off effect of the dissolution of the *Treuhand*.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Ireland: In 2001 expenditure from the *National Training Agency* is not included.

Additional notes (Figure D2 continued)

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED levels 5 and 6 is not included.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

United Kingdom: The adjustment in total public expenditure is based on the financial year from 1 April to 31 March.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

Total public expenditure on education (all educational levels combined) includes direct public funding for educational institutions and transfers to households and firms. Expressed as a percentage of total public expenditure, it indicates the share of educational expenditure in the total budget for all administrative levels combined (i.e. central, regional and local levels as well as the social security system).

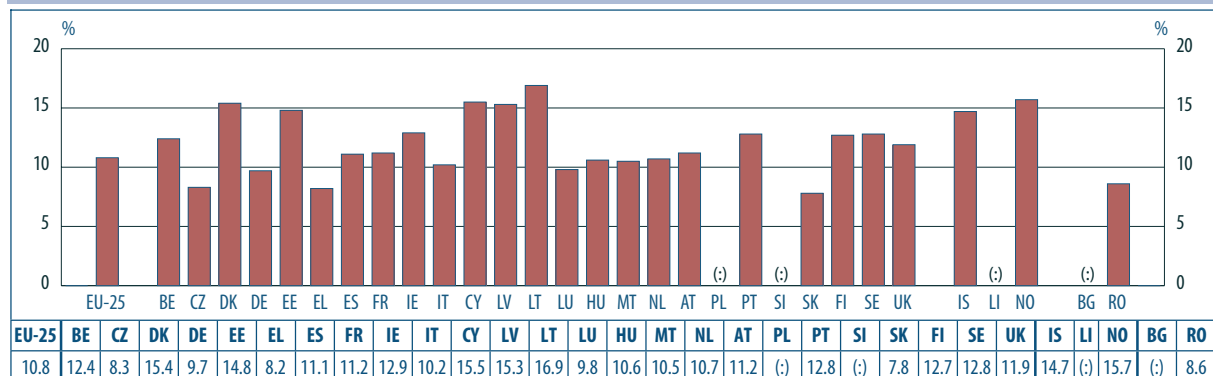
Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

ON AVERAGE, 10 % OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE IS EARMARKED FOR EDUCATION

In 2001, total public expenditure on education represented on average over 10 % of all total public expenditure in the great majority of European countries. In the EU-25, this share increased slightly between 1995 and 2001 (Figure D2).

The proportion of total public expenditure on education in total public expenditure is at its highest in Denmark, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania and Norway, where it is over 15 %. In a few countries (the Czech Republic, Greece, Slovakia and Romania), the corresponding proportion is much smaller, at around 8 %.

Figure D2a: Total public expenditure on education as a share of total public expenditure, ISCED 0-6, 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: In 2001, expenditure on administration operation (offices) for ISCED level 0 to 5B is not included.

Denmark: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is not included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Ireland: In 2001 expenditure from the *National Training Agency* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED levels 5 and 6 is not included.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

United Kingdom: The adjustment in GDP is based on the financial year from 1 April to 31 March.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 0 is not included.

Explanatory note (Figure D2a)

Total public expenditure on education (all educational levels combined) includes direct public funding for educational institutions and transfers to households and firms. Expressed as a percentage of total public expenditure, it indicates the share of educational expenditure in the total budget for all administrative levels combined (i.e. central, regional and local levels as well as the social security system).

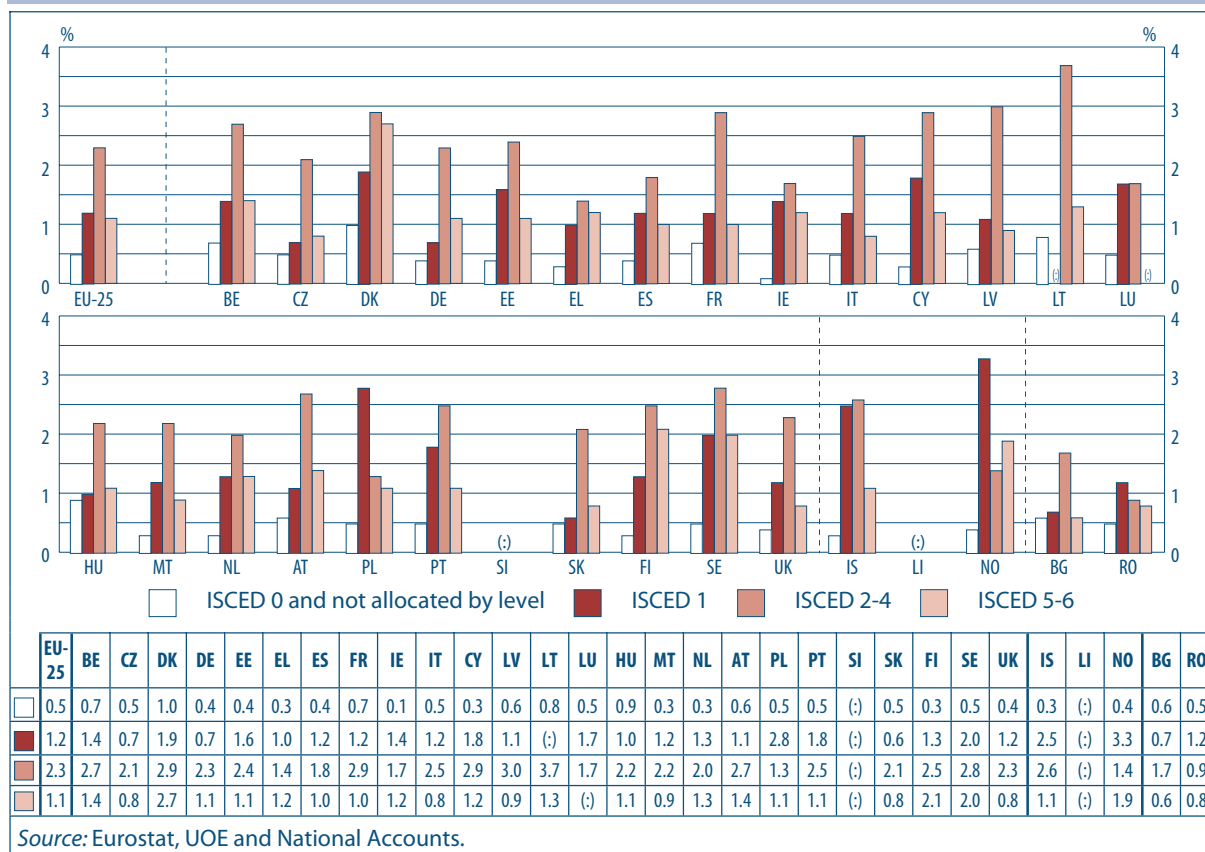
Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

OVER A THIRD OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IS EARMARKED FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

In all European countries, total public expenditure on secondary education represents a greater proportion of GDP than does expenditure on other levels of education. Secondary education receives between 34 % and 63 % of total funding for education in all European Union countries. In the Czech Republic, Germany, France, Italy, Latvia and Slovakia, this level of education accounts for 50 % or more of total public funding for education. The share of public funding for secondary education differs from one country to the next depending on its notional duration (Figure B1) and pupil participation rates (Figure C7).

The situation in Greece, Lithuania, Poland, Iceland, Norway and Romania should be interpreted with caution as total public expenditure on education cannot always be broken down appropriately by level of education.

**Figure D3: Total public expenditure on education
by level of education (ISCED 1, 2-4 and 5-6) as a percentage of GDP, 2001**



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.



RESOURCES

Additional notes (Figure D3)

Denmark: Expenditure on ISCED 4 is not included.

Greece: Expenditure on ISCED 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Lithuania: Expenditure on ISCED 1 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 2-4.

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1 in the case of public-sector schools and in the expenditure for ISCED 2 in the case of government-dependent private institutions.

Poland and Romania: Expenditure on ISCED 2 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

United Kingdom: The adjustment in GDP is based on the financial year from 1 April to 31 March.

Iceland: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is not included. Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is partially included in the expenditure for ISCED levels 5 and 6.

Norway: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 and 2 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

Explanatory note

In general, the public sector finances educational expenditure by assuming direct responsibility for the current and capital expenditure of schools (direct public financing of schools) or by offering financial support to pupils/students and their families (public-sector grants and loans) and by subsidising the education or training activities of the private business sector or non-profit organisations (transfers to households and firms). Direct public funding for educational institutions and transfers to households and firms are included in total public educational expenditure.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

Primary education (ISCED level 1) accounts for the second largest share of the total educational budget in half of all European countries. In Denmark and Greece, secondary and tertiary education receive an almost equivalent proportion. In Belgium, the Netherlands and Sweden, total public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP is the same at primary and tertiary levels. In the remaining countries, tertiary education occupies the second largest share of the education budget.

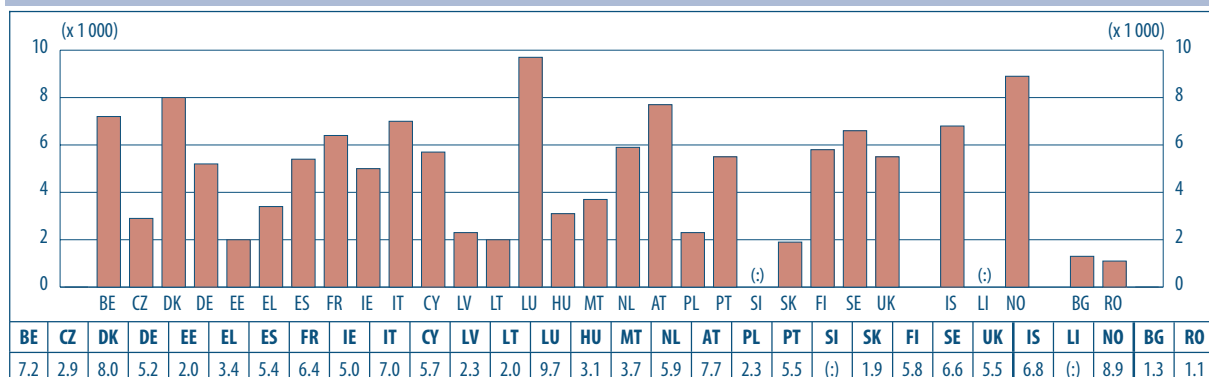
UNIT COST PER PUPIL IS LOWER IN THE NEW EU MEMBER STATES THAN IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

The overall annual unit cost per pupil or student varies very widely from one country to the next. Expenditure per pupil/student in public educational institutions is lower in the new EU Member States (with the exception of Cyprus and Malta) than in other countries.

Within these two groups of countries, variations in annual unit cost remain considerable. In the EU-15 countries, the annual unit cost of a pupil or student varies by a factor of between roughly 1 and 3, ranging from PPS EUR 3 359 in Greece to PPS EUR 9 664 in Luxembourg.

In the new Member States (except Cyprus and Malta), the variations in terms of these annual unit costs are more limited and do not reach a ratio of two to one: one pupil/student costs PPS EUR 3 052 a year in Hungary as opposed to PPS EUR 1 917 in Slovakia.

Figure D4: Annual expenditure in public-sector institutions (ISCED 0 to 6) per pupil/student (PPS EUR), in thousands, 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Denmark and Italy: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is not included.

Estonia: Private expenditure is only partially included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Latvia, Netherlands and United Kingdom: The Figure shows expenditure for public and private institutions.

Lithuania: The Figure shows public expenditure for public and private institutions.

Luxembourg: Expenditure related to ISCED 5 and 6 is not included.

Malta and Portugal: The number of full-time equivalent enrolments is an estimate based on the assumption that it equals the number of full-time enrolments plus half the number of part-time enrolments.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included. Pupils at ISCED level 0 are not included.

Iceland: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

Annual expenditure per pupil/student in public-sector institutions measures how much central, regional and local administration, households and other private entities (the business sector and non-profit organisations) spend per pupil or student. Annual expenditure includes expenditure on staff, as well as current and capital expenditure.

The indicator has been calculated by dividing total annual expenditure by the number of full-time equivalent pupils/students.

Annual expenditure has been expressed in terms of the purchasing power standard, or PPS (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section) in order to eliminate distortion caused by differing national price levels. The PPS is based on the euro.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

UNIT COSTS PER PUPIL INCREASE WITH THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION

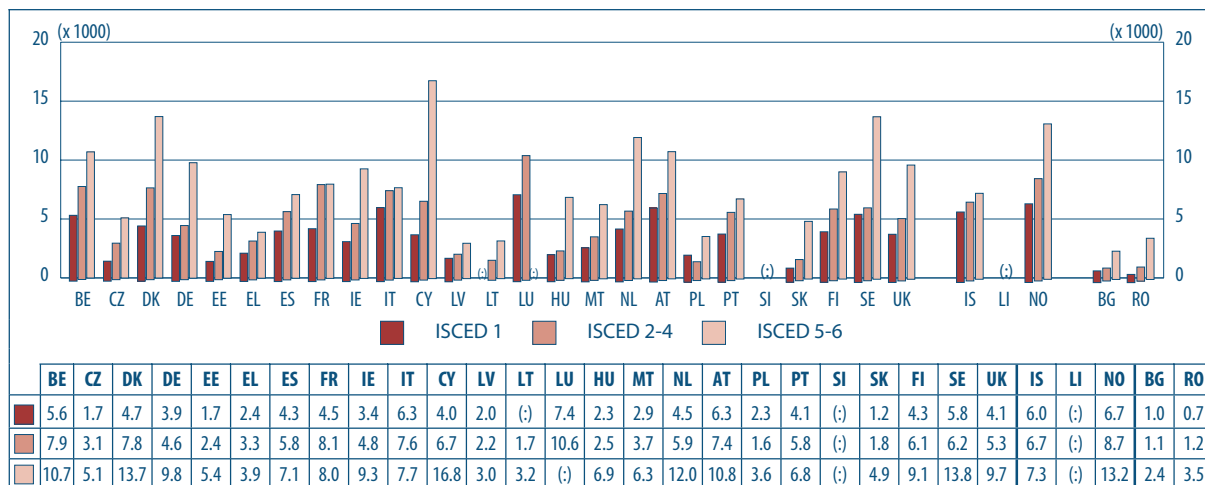
On analysing annual expenditure per pupil/student by educational level, the same differences are observed between countries in terms of amounts spent as in the case of total expenditure per pupil/student (Figure D4). The EU-15 countries generally spend more annually per pupil/student than the new Member States, regardless of the educational level concerned.

The breakdown of annual expenditure per pupil/student by educational level points to two findings, namely that unit cost rises with the level of education in most countries, and that variations among countries are increasing. In Cyprus, the high level of annual expenditure per student in tertiary education is partly due to the building of the University of Cyprus. The situation in Greece, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Norway and Romania should be interpreted with caution as total public expenditure on education cannot always be broken down appropriately by level of education.

The annual cost per pupil in secondary education (ISCED 2-4) is higher than in primary education (ISCED 1) in all countries except Poland. It is almost twice as high as in primary education in the Czech Republic and France.

When comparing the annual cost of a student in tertiary education with that of a pupil in primary education by using a ratio, it is clear that the annual cost of the former is between 1.2 times (Italy and Iceland) and over 5 times (Romania) that of the second (Figure D5a).

Figure D5: Annual expenditure in public-sector institutions by pupil/student and level of education (ISCED 1, 2-4 and 5-6), in PPS EUR (thousands), 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Denmark and Italy: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is not included.

Estonia: Private expenditure is only partially included.

Greece and Luxembourg: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Latvia, Netherlands and United Kingdom: The Figure shows expenditure for public and private institutions.

Lithuania: The Figure shows public expenditure for public and private institutions. Expenditure related to ISCED 1 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 2-4.

Malta and Portugal: The number of full-time equivalent enrolments is an estimate based on the assumption that it equals the number of full-time enrolments plus half the number of part-time enrolments.

Poland, Norway and Romania: Expenditure related to ISCED 2 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

Iceland: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is partially included in the expenditure for ISCED 5 and 6.

Explanatory note

Annual expenditure per pupil/student in public-sector institutions measures how much central, regional and local administration, households and other private entities (the business sector and non-profit organisations) spend per pupil or student. Annual expenditure includes expenditure on staff, as well as current and capital expenditure.

The indicator has been calculated by dividing total annual expenditure by the number of full-time equivalent pupils/students at each level of education.

Annual expenditure has been expressed in terms of the purchasing power standard, or PPS (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section) in order to eliminate distortion caused by differing national price levels. The PPS is based on the euro.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

A STUDENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION COSTS EACH COUNTRY FAR MORE THAN A PUPIL IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

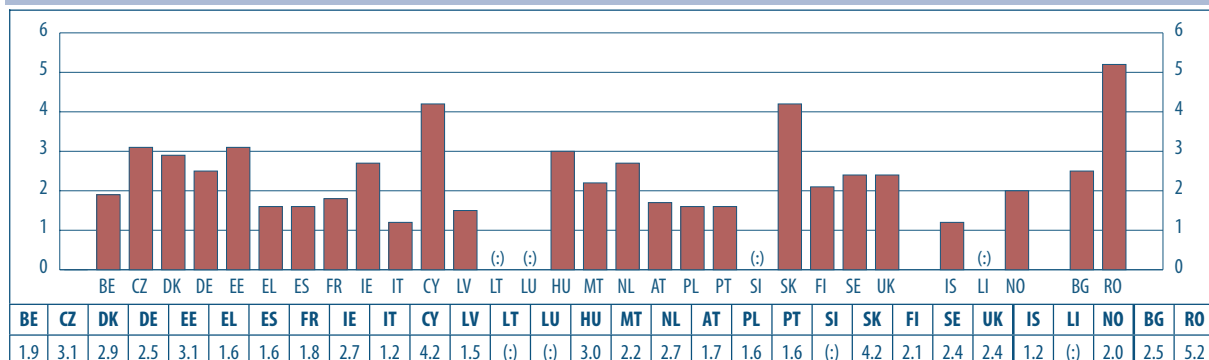
Differences between tertiary and primary education in unit costs per student/pupil are greater than in the case of other levels of education (Figure D5). By using a ratio to compare annual expenditure per student in tertiary education with annual expenditure per pupil in primary education, it is possible to summarise differences between these two educational levels in terms of cost.

The annual cost of a student in tertiary education is between 1.2 times (Italy and Iceland) and over 5 times (Romania) the annual cost of a pupil in primary education.

The countries in which differences in the foregoing annual unit costs for tertiary and primary education are highest are Cyprus, Slovakia and Romania and, to a lesser extent, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Hungary. In these countries, the cost of a student in tertiary education is at least three times as high as that of a pupil in primary education. This is partly attributable to the fact that, in these same countries, funding for primary education is especially low (Figure D5). In Cyprus, the building of the University of Cyprus partly explains the high level of annual expenditure per student in tertiary education and thus the difference in cost per student/pupil between tertiary and primary education.

In the other countries, the cost differential between tertiary and primary education are more limited, although they remain substantial. Thus in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Malta, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom, a student in tertiary education costs at least twice as much as a pupil at primary level.

Figure D5a: Ratio of annual expenditure per student in public-sector institutions (ISCED levels 5 and 6) to annual expenditure per pupil at ISCED level 1, 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Estonia: Private expenditure is only partially included.

Greece: Expenditure on ISCED level 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED level 1.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Latvia, Netherlands and United Kingdom: The Figure shows expenditure for public and private institutions.

Malta and Portugal: The number of full-time equivalent enrolments is an estimate based on the assumption that it equals the number of full-time enrolments plus half the number of part-time enrolments.

Poland, Norway and Romania: Expenditure on ISCED level 2 is included in the expenditure for ISCED level 1.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is partially included in the expenditure for ISCED levels 5 and 6.



RESOURCES

Explanatory note (Figure D5a)

Annual expenditure per pupil/student in public-sector institutions measures how far central, regional and local administration, households and other private entities (the business sector and non-profit organisations) spend per pupil or student. Annual expenditure includes expenditure on staff, and current and capital expenditure.

The indicator has been calculated by dividing total annual expenditure in public-sector institutions by the number of full-time equivalent pupils/students.

Annual expenditure has been expressed in terms of the purchasing power standard, or PPS (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section) in order to eliminate distortion caused by differing national price levels. The PPS is based on the euro.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

THE SHARE OF PER CAPITA GDP EARMARKED FOR EDUCATION RISES WITH EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Comparing educational expenditure per pupil/student with per capita GDP is one way of refining the evaluation of resources earmarked for education in relation to the wealth of a country, with due regard for the size of its school and student population compared to the total population (Figure C1).

It is clear that the high percentages recorded in certain countries (Denmark, Sweden and Norway) may be attributed to significant public investment (Figure D1) but also to needs arising from the relative size of the school population. When educational expenditure per pupil/student is compared to per capita GDP, the ratios observed in these countries are comparable to those in others. Conversely, in Cyprus and Portugal where the share of GDP earmarked for education is relatively more modest, public investment per pupil represents over one-third of per capita GDP (Figure D6a).

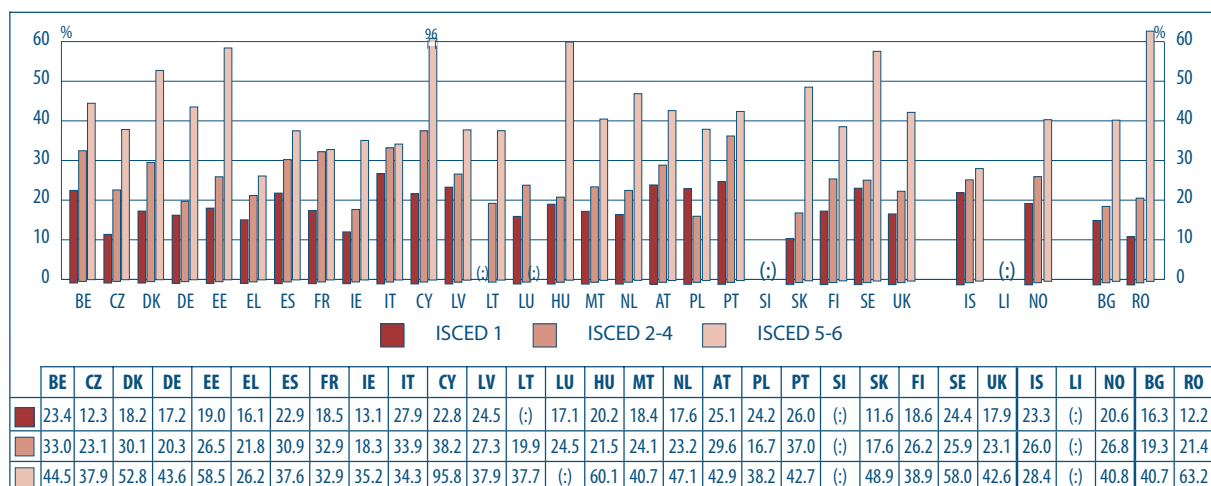
Furthermore, in most countries, the share in per capita GDP of expenditure per pupil/student by public educational institutions increases with the level of education.

Educational expenditure per pupil in primary and secondary education as a proportion of per capita GDP varies roughly by a factor of between one and two in all European countries. In the case of primary education, these proportions range from 12 % (in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Romania) to 28 % (in Italy), and in secondary education from 18 % (in Ireland and Slovakia) to 38 % (Cyprus).

Differences between countries become more marked in the case of tertiary education. Greece is the country that records the lowest share of educational expenditure as a proportion of per capita GDP, with just 26 %, while Cyprus registers an unusually high proportion of 96 % (because of expenditure on building the University of Cyprus).

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Figure D6: Annual expenditure in public-sector institutions by pupil/student compared to per capita GDP, by level of education (ISCED 1, 2-4 and 5-6), 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Denmark and Italy: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is not included.

Estonia: Private expenditure is only partially included.

Greece and Luxembourg: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Latvia, Netherlands and United Kingdom: The Figure shows expenditure for public and private institutions.

Lithuania: The Figure shows public expenditure for public and private institutions. Expenditure related to ISCED 1 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 2-4.

Malta and Portugal: The number of full-time equivalent enrolments is an estimate based on the assumption that it equals the number of full-time enrolments plus half the number of part-time enrolments.

Poland, Norway and Romania: Expenditure related to ISCED 2 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

United Kingdom: Expenditure has been adjusted using the (2001/2000) GDP deflator to align the financial year from 1 April to 31 March with the calendar year.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED 4 is partially included in the expenditure for ISCED 5 and 6.

Explanatory note

The present indicator, which shows annual expenditure on education per pupil/student in public-sector institutions relative to per capita GDP, also relates resources earmarked for education through the funding of public-sector institutions (including expenditure on staff and other current and capital expenditure) to total national wealth.

By using per capita GDP it is possible to compare the activity levels of different-sized economies.

The indicator has been calculated by dividing total annual expenditure by the number of full-time equivalent pupils/students. The result has been divided by the per capita GDP and then multiplied by 100.

Annual expenditure has been expressed in terms of the purchasing power standard, or PPS (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section) in order to eliminate distortion caused by differing national price levels. The PPS is based on the euro.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).



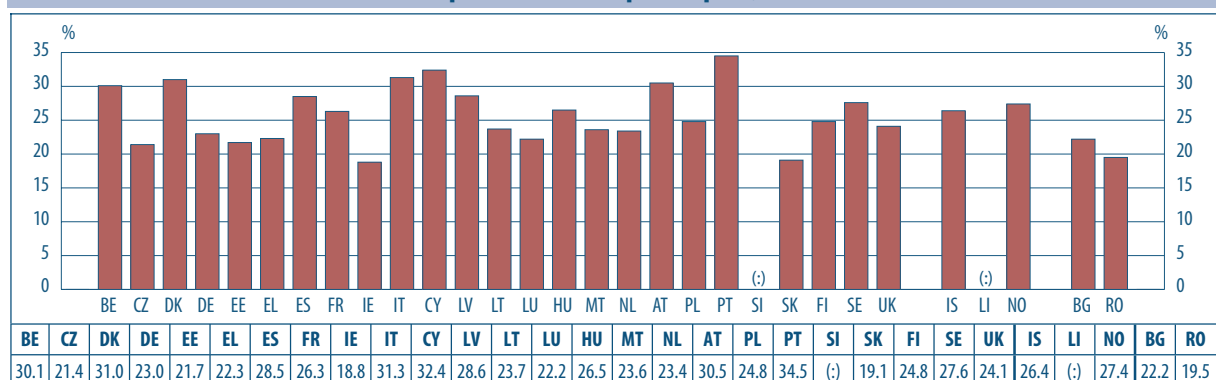
RESOURCES

EXPENDITURE IN PUBLIC-SECTOR INSTITUTIONS PER PUPIL/STUDENT REPRESENTS

— OVER 20 % OF GDP PER CAPITA IN ALMOST ALL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES —

Comparing educational expenditure per pupil/student to GDP per capita is a way of refining the estimate of resources allocated to education with respect to the wealth of a country. When educational expenditure per pupil/student is related to GDP per capita, Denmark, Sweden and Norway record ratios comparable to those of other countries.

Figure D6a: Annual expenditure in public-sector institutions per pupil/student, compared to GDP per capita, 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Additional notes

Denmark and Italy: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is not included.

Estonia: Private expenditure is only partially included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Latvia, Netherlands and United Kingdom: The Figure shows expenditure for public and private institutions.

Lithuania: The Figure shows public expenditure for public and private institutions.

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED levels 5 and 6 is not included.

Malta and Portugal: The number of full-time equivalent enrolments is an estimate based on the assumption that it equals the number of full-time enrolments plus half the number of part-time enrolments.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included. Pupils at ISCED level 0 are not included.

United Kingdom: Expenditure has been adjusted using the (2000/2001) GDP deflator to align the financial year from 1 April to 31 March with the calendar year.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

The present indicator, which shows annual expenditure by pupil/student on public-sector institutions relative to GDP per capita, also relates resources earmarked for education through the funding of public-sector institutions (including expenditure on staff and other current and capital expenditure) to total national wealth.

By using GDP per capita it is possible to compare the activity levels of different size economies.

The indicator has been calculated by dividing total annual expenditure by the number of full-time equivalent pupils/students. The result has been divided by the GDP per capita and then multiplied by 100.

Annual expenditure has been expressed in terms of the purchasing power standard, or PPS (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section) in order to eliminate distortion caused by differing national price levels. The PPS is based on the euro.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

In all countries except Ireland, Slovakia and Romania, expenditure on education by pupil or student (all educational levels combined) represents over 20 % of GDP per capita. Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Cyprus, Austria and Portugal are the countries that, proportionally, spend the most per pupil or student. In them, the



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share of unit expenditure on education corresponds to over 30 % of GDP per capita. In most countries, expenditure per pupil or student by public sector institutions as a proportion of per capita GDP increases with the level of education (Figure D6).

PRIVATE FUNDING OF EDUCATION OCCURS ON JUST A MARGINAL SCALE

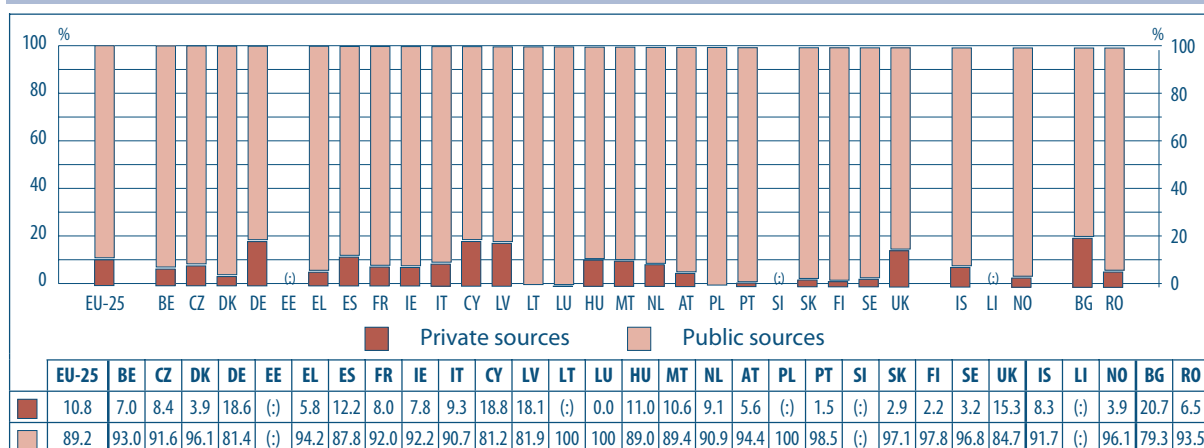
Educational expenditure is funded from two distinct sources, public and private. Public expenditure includes all direct purchase of educational services by the public sector (irrespective of the administrative level concerned) whereas private expenditure includes the payment of tuition fees (and all other payments) mainly by households, the business sector and non-profit organisations.

Expenditure on education is mainly funded from public sources. Indeed, in almost all countries, at least 80 % of educational expenditure (all levels of education combined) is borne by the public purse.

The share of public funding in expenditure on education is slightly lower than the EU average (89.2 %) in Germany, Spain, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, the United Kingdom and Bulgaria. The situation is perhaps similar in other countries where not all data relating to private sources are available and the share of private funding is underestimated (see the 'additional notes' to Figure D7). In these countries, therefore, the share of private funding is biggest. Such funding accounts for around 20 % of educational expenditure in Germany, Cyprus, Latvia and Bulgaria. The proportion of private funding also depends, among other things, on whether or not admission to education-oriented pre-primary provision is free of charge (Figure D8), the existence (or otherwise) of enrolment and tuition fees for students in tertiary education (Figure D19) and, where applicable, the amount of these fees (Figure D20).

The relative share of (public and private) funding of education is also related to the freedom of schools to engage in fund-raising, the types of resources for which schools providing compulsory education can allocate these funds (Figure B23), and methods for funding grant-aided private schools (Figure D9) in each country.

Figure D7: Proportions of educational expenditure (ISCED 0 to 6) from private and public sources, 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark, Greece, Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal, Slovakia, Iceland, Norway, Bulgaria and Romania: Payments made to institutions by bodies of the category 'other private entities' (i.e. private businesses and non-profit organisations) are not included.

Denmark: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is not included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Luxembourg: Expenditure related to ISCED 5 and 6 is not included.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

Iceland: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

The indicator shows the share of public and private expenditure earmarked for (public and private) institutions. The proportion of final public or private expenditure corresponds to the percentage of direct educational expenditure by public and private 'consumers' of educational services. Final public expenditure includes direct purchase of educational resources by the public sector, and transfers to educational institutions and other private entities. Final private expenditure includes tuition fees and all other payments made to institutions.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

INSTITUTIONS FOR PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION OFTEN RECEIVE CONTRIBUTIONS FROM PRIVATE SOURCES

In the majority of countries, education-oriented pre-primary institutions tend to be fee-paying, regardless of whether they are run by the public authorities or private bodies.

Belgium and Luxembourg are the only countries where admission to pre-primary education is free of charge for everyone. In a few countries (Greece, France, Ireland, Italy, Bulgaria and Romania), public-sector provision is free, whereas enrolment fees are payable in the private sector. In the United Kingdom, public-sector provision is free. In the private sector, provision may also be free when it is wholly government-funded, otherwise it is fee-paying.

In six countries, admission to public-sector pre-primary education-oriented institutions is sometimes free and sometimes involves payment of a fee (the amount of which may be means-tested). The private sector may require a financial contribution from parents as a matter of course (as in the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia), or in certain cases depending on the institution concerned (as in Spain, Lithuania and Portugal).

There would appear to be no direct relation between free pre-primary education and participation rates (Figures C5 and C6). High participation rates are apparent in some countries where admission is fee-paying, and relatively low in some where it is free (at least in the public sector).

Figure D8: Fee-paying and free pre-primary provision offered in education-oriented institutions, 2002/03

		BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
Free	Public	●	●				●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	⊗			●	●		●	●		●		●		●	●
	Private	●						●						●	⊗	●	●	⊗			●			●		●					
Fee-paying	Public		●	●	●	●		●				●		●				⊗	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●		
	Private		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	⊗	●	●	⊗	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

⊗ There are no pre-primary education institutions of this kind

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Spain: In the first stage of (public or grant-aided private) pre-primary education, parents never pay enrolment fees. However, payments for meals, extra-curricular activities, teaching materials, etc. may be considerable.

Ireland: Only pupils in the publicly funded Early Start units (catering for very small numbers) are considered to receive public pre-primary provision.

Luxembourg: All pre-primary education institutions are in the public sector.

Malta: In the private sector, admission is free in institutions which are government dependent.

Netherlands: From the age of 4 onwards, pupils are catered for in the first years of *basisonderwijs* (primary school).

Austria: In one of the nine *Länder*, pre-primary education is provided free of charge in the morning.

Finland: Provision for six-year-olds, whether it is organised by private or public institutions, is free of charge.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Voluntary and private pre-primary settings (day nurseries, pre-school groups, playgroups) are considered here to be education-oriented as they are required to provide an educational programme which follows government guidelines as a condition of funding. These settings are funded to provide five two-and-a-half-hour sessions per week free of charge. They may also offer additional hours on a fee-paying basis.

Explanatory note

Only so-called 'education-oriented' pre-primary institutions, in which staff have to hold qualifications in education, are shown here. Day-care centres, day nurseries and playgroups (in which the staff are not required to hold a qualification in education) are not shown.

Primary schools catering for very young pupils counted in ISCED level 0, from the ages of either 4 or 6, have not been included. Fee-paying admission to a pre-primary institution relates to the enrolment fee requested from parents for their children to take part in its programme and not to the payment for meals or certain (specific or additional) optional extra-curricular provision.

Public-sector institutions are directly or indirectly administered by a public education authority. Private institutions (whether grant-aided or not) are directly or indirectly administered by a non-governmental organisation (church, trade union, a private business concern or other body).

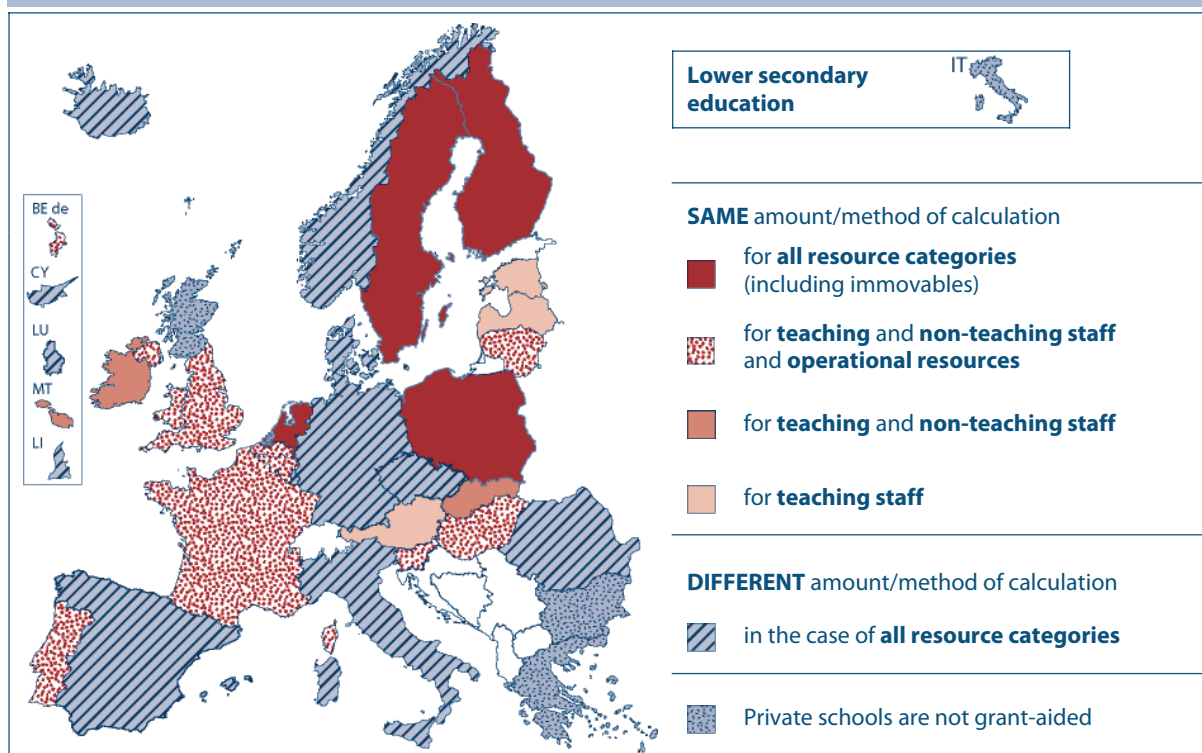
IN SOME COUNTRIES, PRIVATE EDUCATION IS FUNDED TO THE SAME LEVEL AS PUBLIC EDUCATION

In some countries, schools in the grant-aided private sector receive the same funding as those in the public sector, in terms of the amounts involved. Thus, in the Netherlands, Sweden and Poland, there is no difference between the subsidy for schools administered by the public authorities and the amount allocated to grant-aided private schools. Similarly, in Finland, the same principles apply to the funding of schools in the public and grant-aided private sectors.

Some EU countries (the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy – for primary schools – Cyprus and Luxembourg), the three EFTA/EEA countries and Romania offer subsidies to grant-aided private schools. The amounts of these subsidies and the methods of calculation differ from those applicable to public-sector schools, regardless of the resource category involved. In certain cases, the subsidy is equivalent to a fixed percentage of the allocation for public-sector schools.

Finally, in the remaining countries, private schools receive a subsidy whose amount or method of calculation is exactly the same as in the case of some public-sector school resources (teaching staff, or all staff and/or operational resources).

Figure D9: Public funding of grant-aided private schools for primary and lower secondary education compared to public-sector schools (in terms of amounts or the method used to calculate them), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Grant-aided private institutions may use their allocation for operational resources to remunerate their non-teaching staff in the same way as schools administered by the provinces and municipalities and in contrast to Community-administered schools, which receive more resources for non-teaching staff.

Germany: Either the *Länder* allocate a flat-rate subsidy with due regard for certain statistical data and the type of school concerned or, alternatively, schools may itemise their financial requirements and receive a subsidy to cover a certain proportion of them in return.

Italy: Private secondary schools receive grants for projects or if they are attended by pupils with special needs.

Lithuania: A new funding system based on a per capita model has existed since 2002 in the case of staff and some operational resources (Figure B28). Only resources included in this model receive subsidies that are the same as those in the public sector.

Portugal: The figure shows the situation of grant-aided private schools with partnership contracts. Grant-aided private schools with sponsorship contracts receive subsidies that are sometimes less than in the case of public-sector schools, regardless of the category of resources.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Grant-aided schools receive recurrent funding on the same basis as public-sector schools. In England and Wales, there are differences in allocation (both amount and method/formula) for capital projects, and grant-aided schools have to contribute a small proportion of these costs. In Northern Ireland, grant-aided schools have to contribute a small proportion of capital costs except where they have entered into a capital funding agreement with the Department of Education.

Explanatory note

Public-sector schools are directly or indirectly administered by a public education authority. Private schools (whether grant-aided or not) are directly or indirectly administered by a non-governmental organisation (church, trade union, a private business concern or other body). Private schools that get no direct public funding have not been considered.

In Ireland and the United Kingdom, schools known as private or independent schools are not grant-aided. The grant-aided private schools shown in the figure for Ireland and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) are considered to be part of the public sector in both countries.

In general, grant-aided private schools receive direct central government funding. This means that the source of funding differs in all countries where the local authorities contribute to the funding of one or more particular categories of public-sector school resources (Figure B28). However, certain exceptions should be noted. In Estonia, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the local authorities are responsible for the funding of both grant-aided private schools and public-sector schools. In the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), the *Education and Library Boards* fund one category of grant-aided private school, whereas the others are directly financed by the central government. In the Netherlands, grant-aided private schools and public-sector schools are funded by the same public authorities.

REGIONS PLAY ONLY A LIMITED ROLE IN FUNDING EDUCATION

Different administrative levels are involved in the funding of education. Thus the central, regional and local administrative authorities redistribute some of the funds they have accumulated by making them available to other (generally decentralised) administrative levels that become their ultimate users. By comparing the initial funds available by administrative level and the administrative levels that finally use them, it is possible to identify the levels that contribute to these financial transfers.

In almost all countries, funding earmarked for education is directly used by either the central or local levels. The management of financial resources tends to be centralised in Greece, France, Ireland, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Slovakia where over 70 % of resources are made available and then used at central level.

The regions tend to be the main source and users of the education budget in just three countries, namely Belgium, Germany and Spain, where over 70 % of funds allocated to education are raised and spent at regional level (the Communities in Belgium, the *Länder* in Germany and the Autonomous Communities in Spain), which in each case constitutes the top-level authority for education.

In Austria, the situation is a little more complex in that around 73 % of resources are provided by the central level which spends only 50 % of the sums available. In Finland, almost 57 % of all resources come from the central administrative authorities although they only use some 32 %.

The financing of education is more decentralised in almost half of the new EU Member States (the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland), as well as in the United Kingdom, Iceland, Bulgaria and Romania. In these countries, it is the local level that supplies and uses most financial resources allocated to education. This is attributable to the organisational structure of the education system in these countries and the fact that the regions play no part in funding procedures (except in the Czech Republic and Poland).

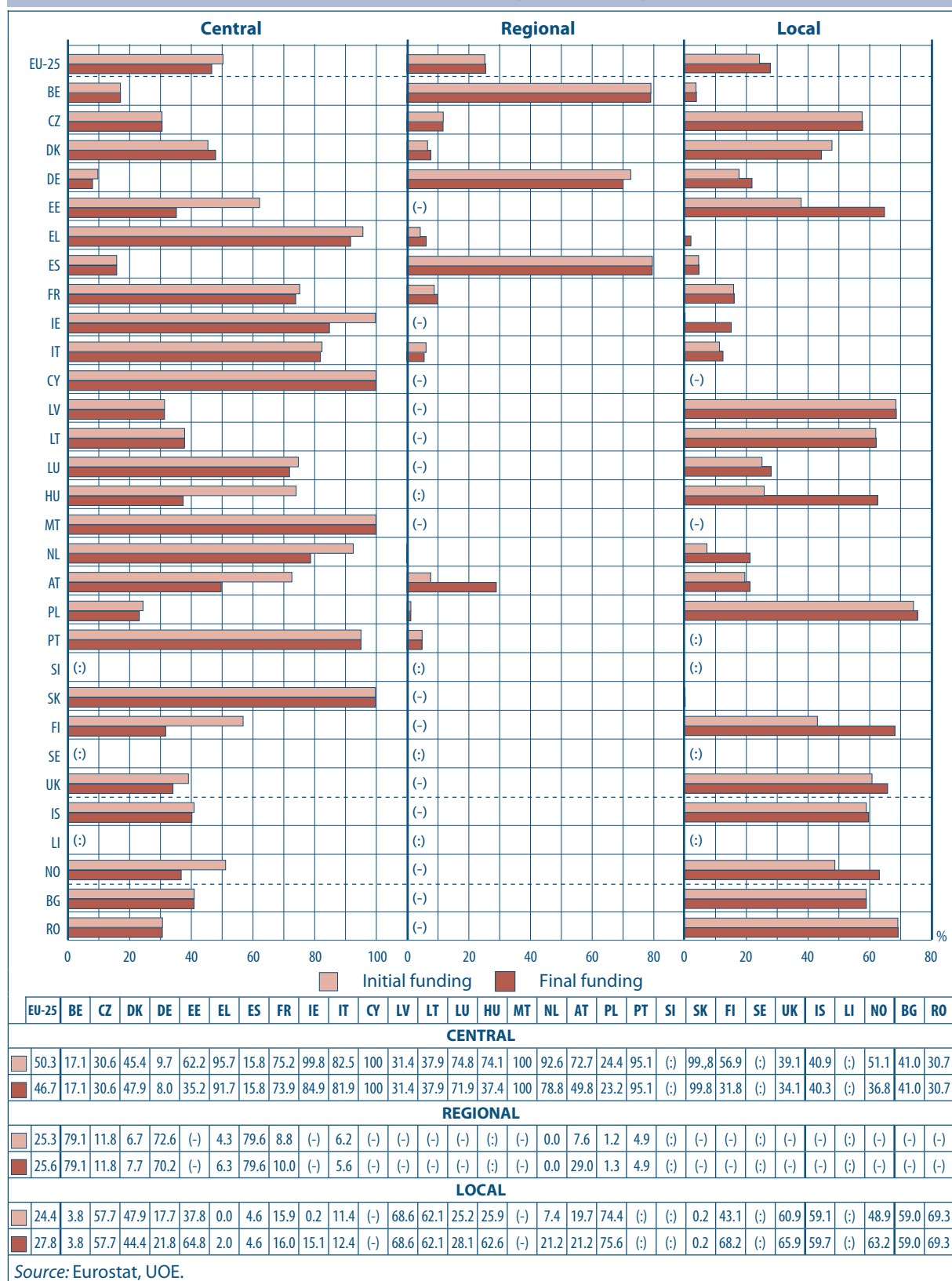
In Belgium, the Czech Republic, Spain, Lithuania, Portugal and Slovakia, as well as in Bulgaria and Romania, no net transfers are reported between the different administrative levels.

All other countries for which data are available report transfers of resources from the central administrative authorities to regional or local levels (with the exception of Denmark in which the local level provides almost 48 % of public resources and uses only 44 %). In Germany and Italy, net budgetary transfers from the central administrative authorities and the regions are used solely by the local level, whereas in all the remaining countries, the central authorities are the net contributors, while the regions and local level are the net beneficiaries of budgetary transfers.



RESOURCES

Figure D10: Sources of public funding of education by administrative level before and after transfers (ISCED 0 to 6), 2001



Additional notes (Figure D10)

Denmark: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is not included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Latvia: Budgetary transfers between central and local levels for purposes of educational expenditure are included in local expenditure.

Luxembourg: Expenditure related to ISCED 5 and 6 is not included.

Hungary: Regional administrative expenditure is included in local administrative expenditure.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included.

Sweden: It is not possible to break down expenditure related to ISCED 0, 1 and 2-4 by administrative level.

Iceland: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is not included.

Explanatory note

Funds earmarked for education are transferred between central, regional and local administrative levels. The net flows are shown here. Initial funding represents the share of total educational resources made available by each administrative level. Final funding represents the share of total expenditure directly undertaken by each level. The two types of funding cover direct public expenditure and transfers to the private sector.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

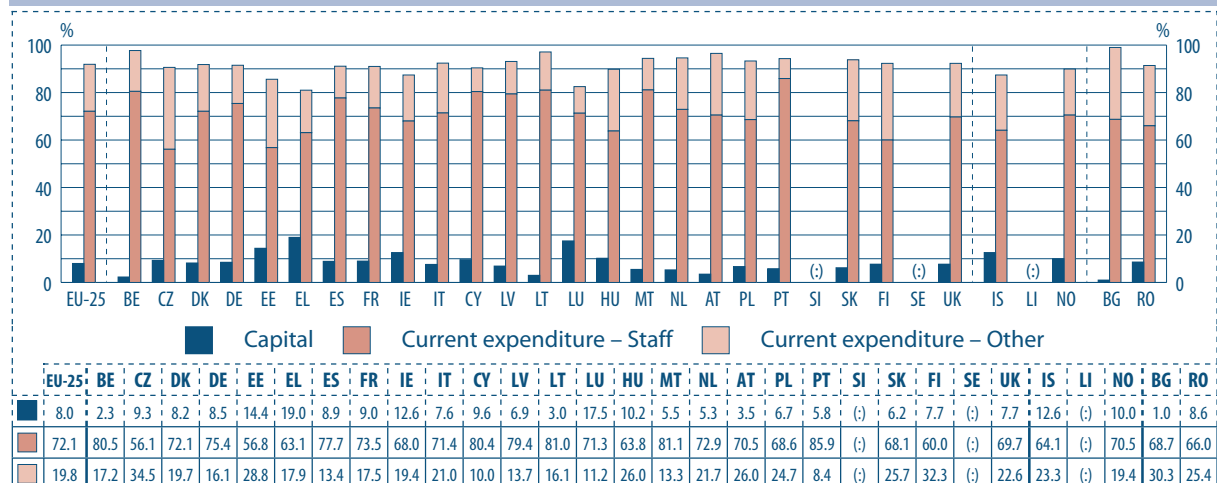
STAFF COSTS REPRESENT THE LARGEST SINGLE ITEM IN THE BUDGET

Public-sector school and institutional expenditure come under two main headings, namely current and capital expenditure. Current expenditure includes staff remuneration and staff associated costs and 'other current expenditure' such as on building maintenance, school equipment and materials and operational goods and services. It is clear from examining these headings that expenditure on staff is easily the foremost category.

Current expenditure accounts for over 85 % of total expenditure by public-sector institutions in the great majority of countries, the exceptions being Greece and Luxembourg where share of current expenditure is slightly higher than 80 %. In all countries, staff costs account for the largest share of total educational expenditure, representing on average 72 % of annual expenditure in the EU-25. Their proportion is higher than 80 % in Belgium, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta and Portugal.

However, there are still big differences between countries in their share of capital expenditure. Some countries such as Belgium, Lithuania and Bulgaria allocate almost all their resources to current expenditure so that capital expenditure is limited to 3 % or less of total expenditure. At the other extreme, the proportion of capital expenditure reaches almost 20 % in Greece and stands at 17.5 % in Luxembourg.

Figure D11: Distribution of total annual expenditure in public-sector institutions across major expenditure categories (ISCED 0 to 6), 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Estonia: Private expenditure is only partially included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Lithuania: Breakdown by category of public expenditure on public-sector and private institutions.

Netherlands: Breakdown by category of expenditure on public-sector and private institutions.

Sweden: Current and capital expenditure cannot be identified separately.

Explanatory note

Total expenditure by schools and other institutions may generally be broken down into current and capital expenditure. Current expenditure may itself be broken down into two categories, namely staff costs and other current expenditure. The breakdown of expenditure varies depending on the level of teacher salaries and the pupil or student/teacher ratio but also on whether institutions own or lease their premises, or supply their pupils or students with textbooks or services (meals, boarding facilities) that supplement their educational provision.

Percentages for each category of expenditure are all calculated with respect to total annual expenditure.

COMPUTER FACILITIES IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS ARE BETTER IN COUNTRIES WHERE THESE SCHOOLS ARE LARGELY FUNDED BY TUITION FEES

Computer facilities are an indicator of school resources. The number of computers reported by school heads in the PISA 2003 survey reveals that, in half of all countries, computer facilities vary depending on whether a 15-year-old pupil attends a public-sector or private school.

The differences point to slightly better facilities (around one and a half times more extensive) for pupils in public-sector schools than in the case of grant-aided private schools in the German-speaking and Flemish Communities of Belgium, Spain, Ireland and Austria.

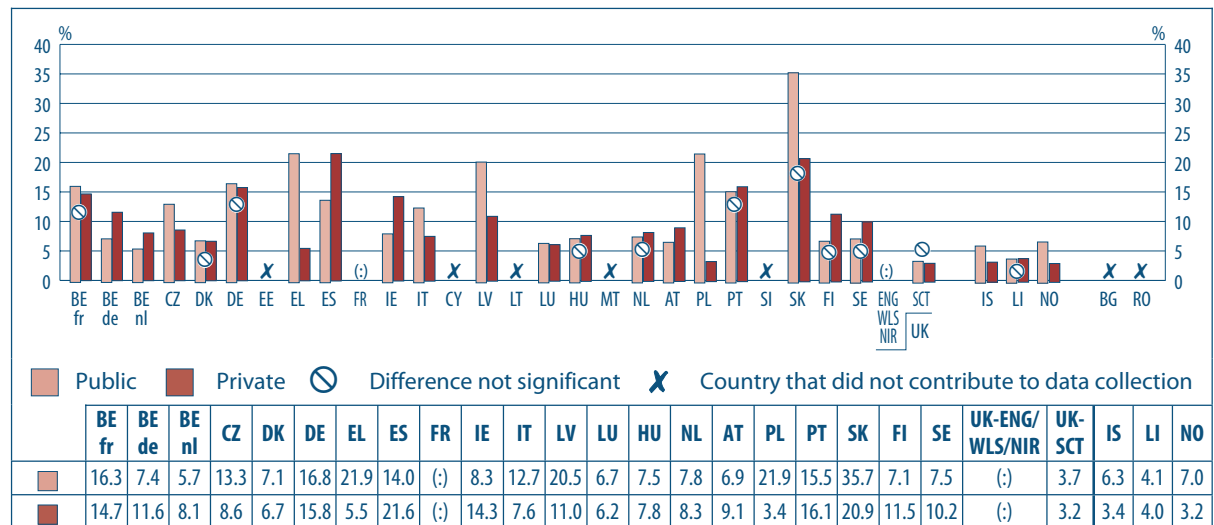
In seven other countries, differences that are statistically significant are indicative of better facilities for pupils in private schools. However, it should be noted that, in the great majority of these countries, private education represents a very small proportion indeed of educational provision and that it is very modestly subsidised if at all. The schools concerned are funded from tuition fees.

In 11 countries, the differences observed are not statistically significant, so it cannot be concluded that facilities in the two sectors are different.

SECTION I – INVESTMENT AND EQUIPMENT

A comparison of the 2003 data with those for 2000 reveals considerable changes in the computerisation of schools in European Union countries that three years earlier had relatively low computerisation rates, namely Greece, Latvia, Poland and Portugal. All have now achieved a level of around one computer for every 20 pupils and one for every 15 pupils in the case of Portugal. In the majority of EU countries, the current level is one computer for every ten – or even every five-pupils.

Figure D12: Average number of pupils per computer in public-sector or private schools attended by pupils aged 15, 2002/03



Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Average number of pupils per computer in public-sector schools

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT
2000	16.4	X	7.5	20.2	8.5	22.8	X	61.6	21.0	12.2	13.0	15.6	X	33	X	9.8	12.1	X
2003	16.3	7.4	5.7	13.3	7.1	16.8	X	21.9	14.0	(:)	8.3	12.7	X	20.5	X	6.7	7.5	X

	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	UK-SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
2000	(:)	10.0	29.1	64.8	X	X	9.1	8.8	8.3	X	6.9	5.6	10.7	7.4	6.6	46.9	51.4
2003	7.8	6.9	21.9	15.5	X	35.7	7.1	7.5	(:)	(:)	(:)	3.7	6.3	4.1	7.0	X	X

Average number of pupils per computer in private schools

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT
2000	18.2	X	11.5	11.2	7.8	20.7	X	13.5	27.0	12.2	16.6	10.4	X	14.7	X	8.0	10.1	X
2003	14.7	11.6	8.1	8.6	6.7	15.8	X	5.5	21.6	(:)	14.3	7.6	X	11.0	X	6.2	7.8	X

	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	UK-SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
2000	(:)	10.6	10.0	110	X	X	15.3	12.3	6.9	X	6.8	3.5	8.7	3.1	2.9	4.6	14.5
2003	8.3	9.1	3.4	16.1	X	20.9	11.5	10.2	(:)	(:)	(:)	3.2	3.4	4.0	3.2	X	X

Source: OECD, PISA 2000 and 2003.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

Netherlands: The response rate in 2000 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (public-sector schools = 8.7; private schools = 11) are not shown in the Table. A study carried out in this country after the publication of the PISA findings showed that, despite its low response rate, the sample remained representative.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (public-sector schools = 5; private schools = 6.2) are not shown in the Table.

Explanatory note (Figure D12)

Public-sector schools are directly or indirectly administered by a public education authority. Private schools (whether grant-aided or not) are directly or indirectly administered by a non-governmental organisation (church, trade union, a private business concern or other body).

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of computers in their school.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size.

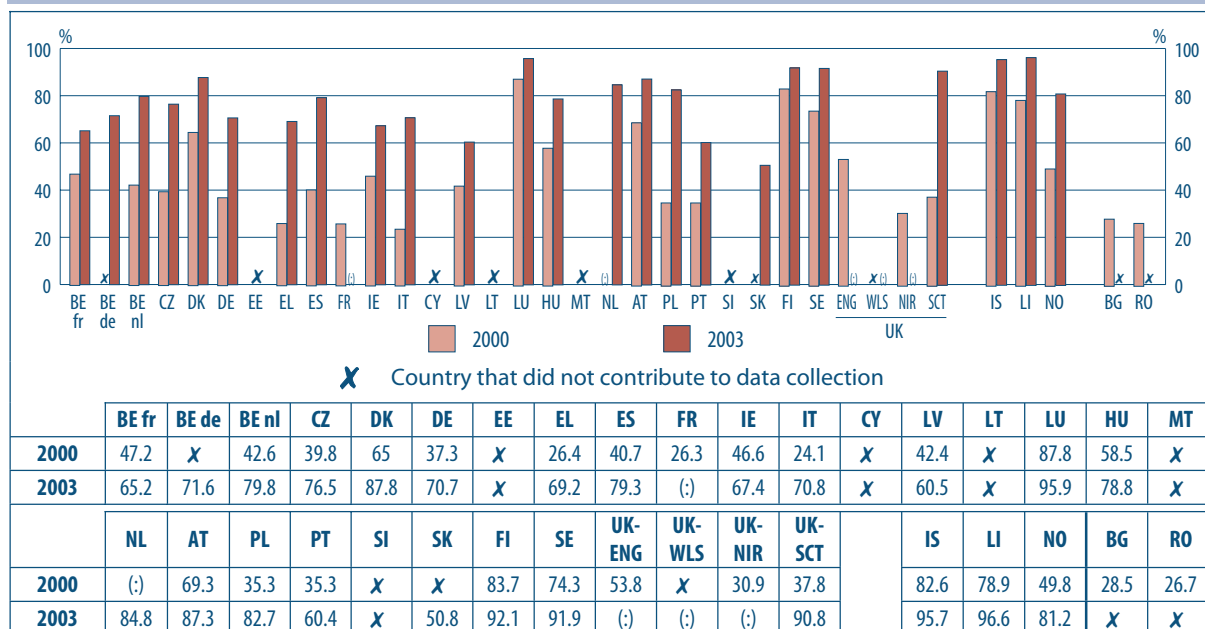
The difference between computerisation rates in public-sector and private schools is significant in the German-speaking and Flemish Communities of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Austria, Poland, Iceland and Norway. The scale of the standard error (see the annexes) related to the low proportion of private schools means that the difference observed in the other countries is insignificant in statistical terms.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

THE NUMBER OF COMPUTERS WITH INTERNET CONNECTIONS IS INCREASING

The average proportion of computers with Internet connections is a further indicator of school resources over and above the number of pupils per computer (Figure D12), as it provides some insight into the quality of computerisation.

Figure D13: Changes in average proportions of computers with Internet connections in schools attended by pupils aged 15, public and private sectors combined, 2000 and 2003



Source: OECD, PISA 2000 and 2003.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

Netherlands: The response rate in 2000 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (average proportion = 45.1) are not shown in the Figure. A study carried out in this country after the publication of the PISA findings showed that, despite its low response rate, the sample remained representative.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (average proportion = 89.6) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note (Figure D13)

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the proportion of computers in their school with Internet connections. The Figure shows the average of these proportions by country.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In countries that took part in the PISA 2003 survey, on average at least 60 % of the computers noted in schools had Internet connections. This average rose to 90 % or over in Luxembourg, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland), as well as in Iceland and Liechtenstein.

There were significant changes between 2000 and 2003 in all countries. These changes were very substantial, with virtually twice the proportion of computers with Internet connections by 2003 compared to 2000 in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany, the Czech Republic and Spain, and between twice and three times the proportion in Greece, Italy, Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

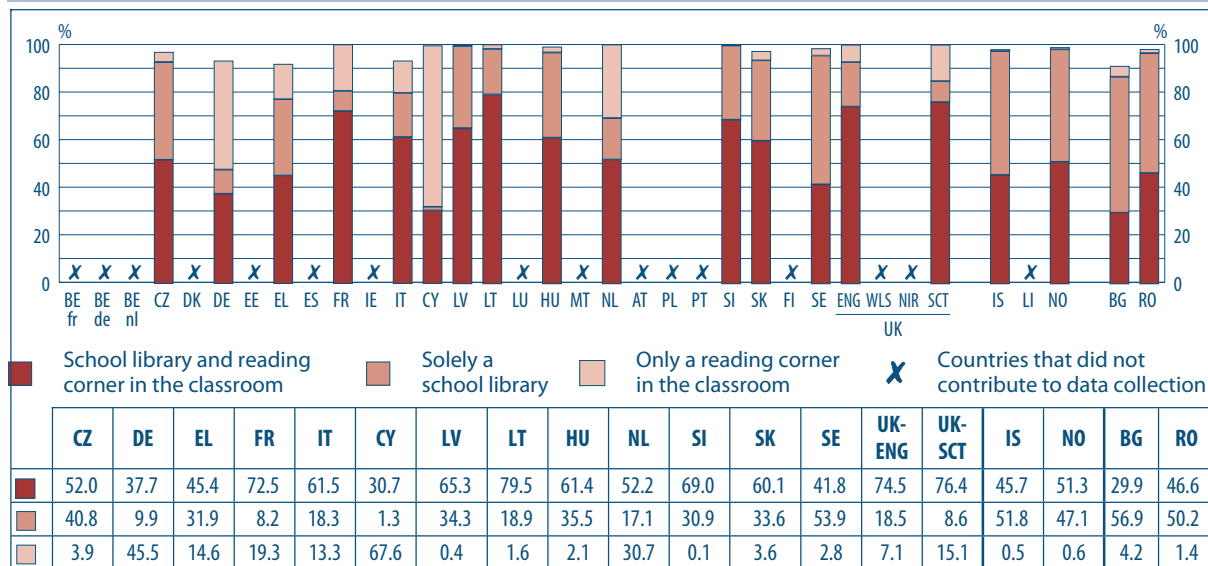
MOST PRIMARY SCHOOLS HAVE LIBRARIES

According to replies by teachers in the PIRLS (2001) survey, the proportion of pupils in the fourth year of primary education who attend a school with a library (with or without a classroom reading corner) is close to 100 %. However, proportions in a few countries were close to 80 %. Germany and Cyprus were unusual in reporting relatively low proportions (lower than 40 %). However, this relatively limited level of school library provision does not mean that there is no similar service elsewhere. For example, the local authorities in Germany run numerous libraries which include sections for children.

The presence of a library in a school is an indicator of school resources that has to be considered in relation to the existence or otherwise of a reading corner in the classroom. In general, schools without libraries do have classroom reading corners. The percentage of pupils who, according to teachers, have no library either in the school or in their classroom is close to zero in most countries. In Germany, Greece, Italy and Bulgaria, it varies between 7 % and 9 %.

In Germany, Cyprus and, to a lesser extent, the Netherlands, it is far more common than in other countries to supply classes with books rather than provide a school library. The proportions of pupils attending schools with only a classroom reading corner are very high.

Figure D14: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary school who, according to the teacher, have access to a school library and/or a classroom library or reading corner, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate, first, whether or not there was a library in the school and, secondly, whether the classroom had a library or reading corner.

The question of whether the school has a library is also raised in the questionnaire sent to school heads. In most countries, analysis of the replies from school heads yields exactly the same data as in the replies from teachers. The differences observed in the case of Greece, Italy and Cyprus conform roughly to this pattern in that school heads report a slightly lower level of provision than teachers.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then the pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

A WIDE RANGE OF READING MATERIALS FOR TEACHING READING

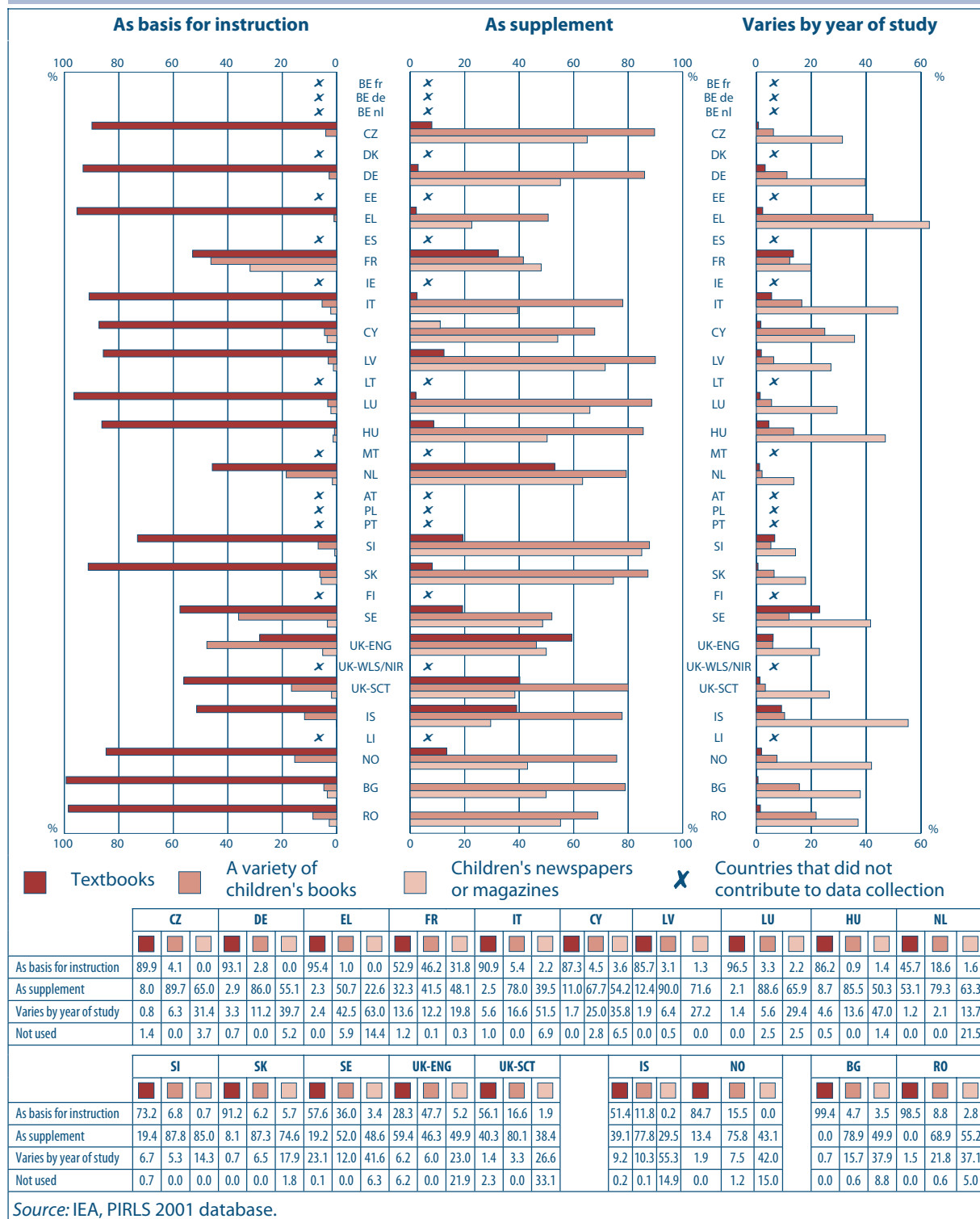
A diversity of written materials to develop reading proficiency among pupils is a common feature of virtually all schools in countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey. Most pupils in Europe appear able to access this kind of material at school, whether in the form of textbooks, children's books, newspapers or magazines.

However, the availability of such teaching resources in a school does not necessarily dictate the use to which they are put. As a general rule, textbooks are used as a basic resource for teaching reading, whereas children's books serve more as additional material. Children's newspapers or magazines also appear to play a supplementary role but in fewer schools. According to school heads, proportionally more newspapers or magazines are used in ways that vary depending on the year of study, than in the case of the other two types of material.

A few countries seem to be exceptions to this. France, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland rely less exclusively on textbooks as basic teaching materials; teachers in these countries make more use of children's books and, in the case of France, children's newspapers and magazines.

SECTION I – INVESTMENT AND EQUIPMENT

Figure D15: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education classified in accordance with the use made of different reading materials, as reported by the school head, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01





RESOURCES

Explanatory note (Figure D15)

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether the different reading materials (textbooks, children's books and newspapers or magazines for children) used in reading lessons for pupils in the first four years, provided basic resources for teaching itself, or served as additional material or as resources whose use might vary according to year of study.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then the pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not show directly the proportions of school heads who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose school heads gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS CONSTITUTES A SIGNIFICANT SHARE OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

Public systems of financial support for pupils and students have been established in all countries, but their nature, the conditions governing the award of support and the levels of education at which it is available vary from one national system to the next (Figures D17 and D18). Direct public support not only provides financial assistance for the families of pupils enrolled in compulsory education but may also encourage young people to continue their study beyond this stage. Direct public financial support for students thus represents a component of public investment in education, which is conducive to equality of opportunity. On average, EU countries earmark almost 5 % of their public expenditure for direct support to pupils and students (Figure D16a).

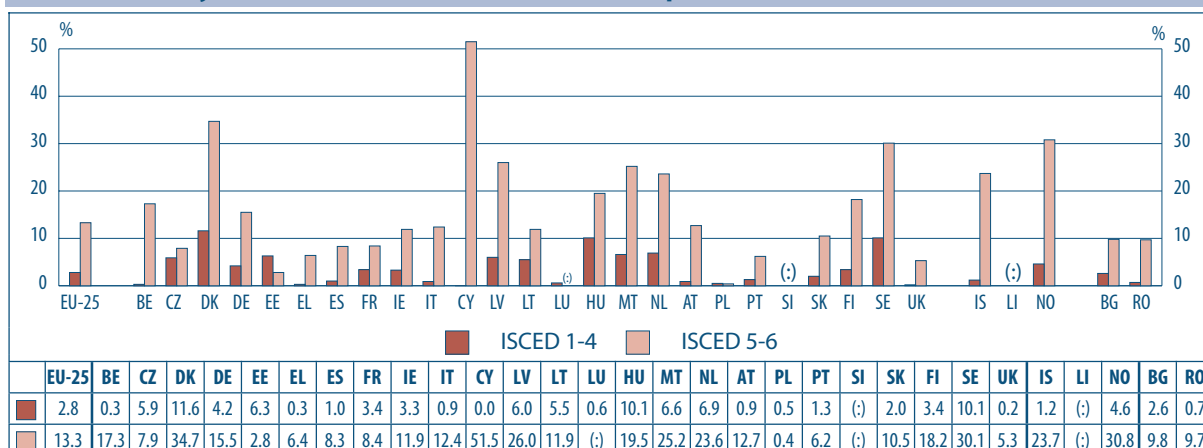
However, this support is not spread evenly across the different levels of education. When the share of direct financial support allocated to pupils in primary, secondary and post-secondary education combined is compared to the support earmarked for students in tertiary education, very marked inequalities become apparent. The European average for the proportion of direct support at tertiary level is over 13 %, whereas the average for support allocated to pupils in primary and secondary education does not reach 3 %.

A marked difference in expenditure allocation in accordance with the two major levels of education (ISCED 0-4 and ISCED 5 and 6) is observed in all countries except Poland. Almost everywhere, direct support for students represents a share of total public expenditure on education at this level that is greater than the corresponding proportion for primary and secondary education. By contrast, in Estonia, those at school receive a share that is twice as great. In Poland, the share of financial support for both major levels is almost the same.

At primary and secondary levels combined, direct support for pupils is less than 7 % of expenditure on education in almost all European countries. Denmark records the highest proportion with 11.6 %. At the other extreme, some EU Member States (Belgium, Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Austria, Poland and the United Kingdom) record levels of less than 1 %.

In tertiary education, the proportion is generally above 10 % of total expenditure. Estonia and Poland have lower levels at 2.8 % and 0.4 % respectively. Denmark, Cyprus, Sweden and Norway devote a share of 30 % or more of their public expenditure on tertiary education to direct financial support for students.

Figure D16: Direct public support (grants and loans) to pupils or students as a percentage of total public expenditure on education, by educational level (ISCED 1 to 4 compared to ISCED 5 and 6), 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Poland, United Kingdom, Bulgaria and Romania: Student loans from public sources do not exist.

Denmark: Expenditure related to ISCED 4 is not included.

Greece: Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Luxembourg: Expenditure related to ISCED 5-6 is not included. Expenditure related to ISCED 0 is included in the expenditure for ISCED 1-4.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included. Student financial support from regional administrative authorities is not included.

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is partially included in expenditure for ISCED levels 5-6. Study grants do not exist.

Explanatory note

Financial support to students (all educational levels combined) corresponds to transfers funded by the public sector in the form of study grants, loans, and family allowances dependent on the status of the pupil or student concerned. The present indicator does not fully measure the assistance offered to pupils and students, as the latter may also receive financial support as loans from private banks. They may further benefit from particular social services (such as subsidised catering, as well as transport, health and accommodation facilities) or from tax relief. Financial support for pupils or students varies from one country to the next because of differences in education systems.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

PUBLIC FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR PUPILS AND STUDENTS IS A MAJOR COMPONENT OF PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

Systems of public financial support have been established in all countries but their precise nature, the conditions governing the award of support and the educational level at which it is awarded vary from one national system to the next (Figures D17 and D18).

Direct public support to pupils/students corresponds to financial assistance for the families of children undergoing compulsory education but may also constitute a factor encouraging pupils to continue their education beyond that stage. Direct public support for students is thus an aspect of public expenditure on education, which is conducive to equal opportunities.

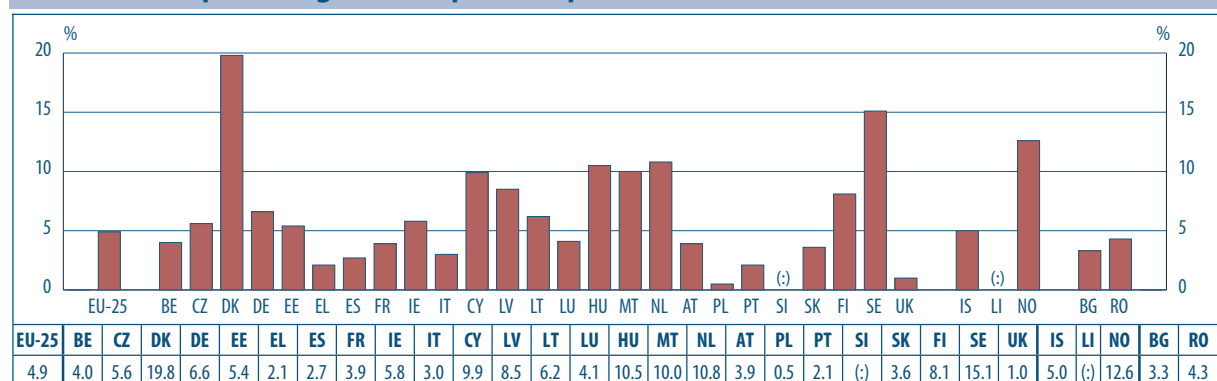
On average, the EU countries earmark almost 5 % of their total public expenditure on education for direct support to pupils and students but the amount of support varies with the different levels of education (Figure D16).



RESOURCES

Not all countries earmark the same share of total public expenditure on education for support to pupils and students. While Denmark and Sweden devote almost 20 % and 15 %, respectively, of their public educational expenditure to such support for pupils/students, almost half of all European countries earmark a proportion that is lower than the EU-25 average. These differences call for some qualification, as national data concerning public support are not fully comparable because of differences between national systems. Amounts examined here relate solely to direct public support for pupils which, of itself, does not fully measure the real level of obtainable support. Data on expenditure also include study grants and other allowances paid to pupils and households as well as, in some cases, public loans to students. On the other hand, tax relief (Figure D18) has not been taken into account.

Figure D16a: Total direct public support (grants and loans) to students/pupils as a percentage of total public expenditure on education, ISCED 0-6, 2001



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Poland, United Kingdom, Bulgaria and Romania: Student loans from public sources do not exist.

Denmark: Expenditure on ISCED level 4 is not included.

France: The overseas *départements* are not included.

Cyprus: Financial support for Cypriot students abroad is included.

Luxembourg: Expenditure on ISCED levels 5 and 6 is not included.

Portugal: Expenditure at local level is not included. Student financial support from regional administrative authorities is not included

Iceland: Expenditure on ISCED level 0 is not included. Study grants do not exist.

Explanatory note

Financial support to students (all educational levels combined) corresponds to transfers funded by the public sector in the form of study grants, loans, and family allowances dependent on the status of the pupil or student concerned. The present indicator does not fully measure the assistance offered to pupils and students, as the latter may also receive financial support as loans from private banks. They may further benefit from particular social services (such as subsidised catering, as well as transport, health and accommodation facilities) or from tax relief.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR THE PARENTS OF CHILDREN IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION IS AVAILABLE EVERYWHERE IN EUROPE

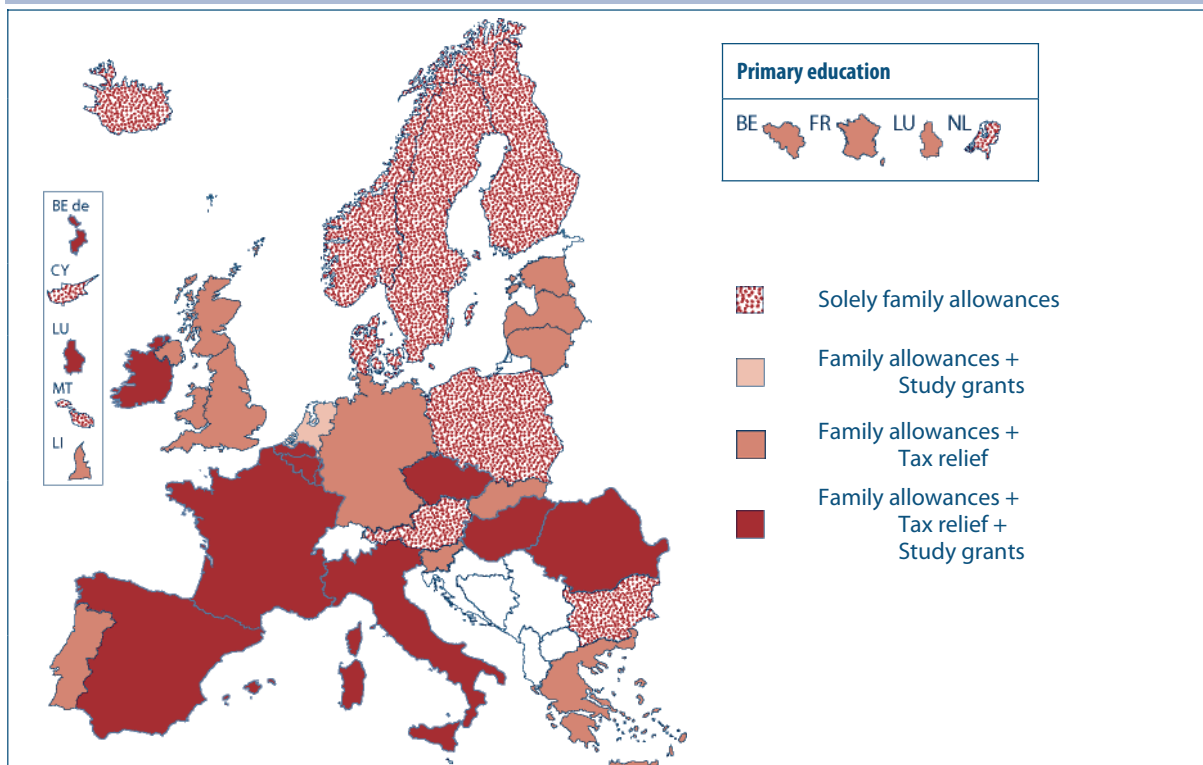
Family allowances exist in all European countries without exception. In general, they are awarded when children are born and paid up to the end of compulsory education (see Figure D18 for information on support for students in tertiary education).

In all cases, the amounts awarded vary depending on the number and ages of the children concerned and, as a rule, they are awarded to everyone and not means tested. However, amounts are proportional to family income in the Czech Republic, Italy, Portugal, Slovakia, Iceland and Bulgaria. Furthermore, families above a certain income level do not receive support in Spain, the Czech Republic, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia.

Tax relief exists in most countries with the exception of the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and Malta. Unlike family allowances, it is generally granted irrespective of the number or age of children. A few countries are exceptions to this rule. In Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg and Romania, the number of children is taken into account, while in Estonia these benefits are only available on the birth of the third child.

Study grants for children in the compulsory school age range exist only in a few countries. In four of them (Belgium, France, Luxembourg and the Netherlands), they are only available from lower secondary education onwards and they are always family means tested.

**Figure D17: Types of financial support for parents with children
in primary and lower secondary education, 2002/03**



Source: Eurydice.

[Additional notes](#)

Malta: Families receive tax reductions only for tuition fees payable at private schools.

United Kingdom: *Child Tax Credit* is income-linked.

[Explanatory note](#)

The indicator does not cover support for pupils who study abroad.



STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION EVERYWHERE GET GRANTS OR LOANS TO COVER THE COST OF LIVING

Three types of financial support for students in tertiary education are considered here. These are, firstly, study grants and/or loans to cover the cost of living, secondly, assistance for the parents of students (in the form of tax relief and family allowances), and, thirdly, support for the payment of registration or tuition fees (exemption, reductions or grants or loans for the payment of fees). The last form of support is only applicable in countries where students pay tuition fees (Figures D19 and D20).

These different types of assistance in combination result in four main models of financial support for students on courses leading to a first qualification in a public tertiary education institution or its equivalent.

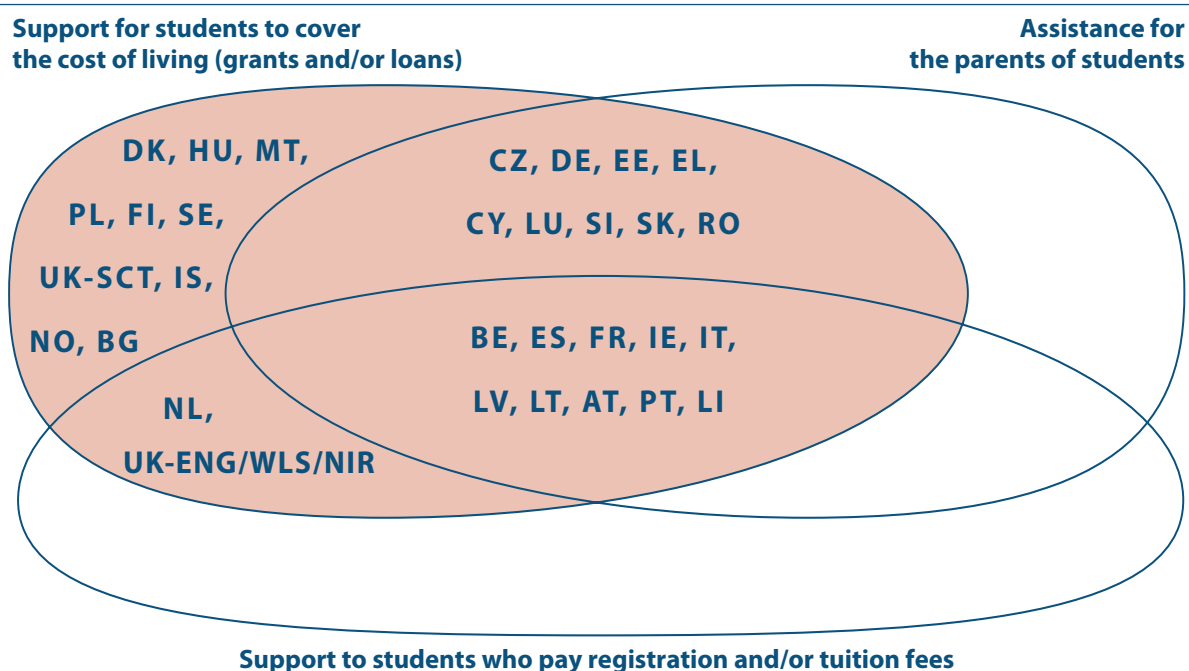
The first is found in the Nordic countries and the United Kingdom (Scotland). Tertiary education in these countries is free of charge; students pay no tuition fees and receive support to cover the cost of living (in the form of grants and/or loans). The same model also exists in Hungary, Malta and Poland in the case of the majority of full-time students attending daytime courses for a first qualification. In all of these countries, students are regarded as financially independent and in none of them are their parents the recipients of support. A variant of this model exists in Iceland and Bulgaria, where students pay registration fees but receive no special support to cover the amounts involved (Figure D20).

The second model exists in the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Greece, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Slovakia and Romania. It differs from the first essentially in that it includes financial assistance for the parents of students, in addition to grants and loans. This assistance consists of both family allowances and tax relief. Depending on the country concerned, grants or loans to cover the cost of living are awarded directly to students or parents.

The third model is the least widespread and exists in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (except Scotland), where students pay tuition fees. This model is characterised by financial support to cover tuition fees as well as the cost of living. Their parents receive no special form of support. In the Netherlands, the amount of support awarded to students under certain circumstances is calculated to cover a portion of their tuition fees. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the amount due in fees is means tested.

The fourth model includes three types of support and is to be found in Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Austria, Portugal and Liechtenstein. In all these countries, tertiary education institutions charge registration and/or tuition fees. The support consists mainly of family means-tested study grants for students, family allowances (except in Italy and Liechtenstein), tax relief for the parents of students and, finally, assistance with the payment of registration and/or tuition fees. Assistance with the payment of fees may take the form of total or partial exemption from payment, special grants, or a loan intended to cover both tuition fees and the cost of living. In Latvia and Lithuania, students without a state-subsidised place in a tertiary education institution, who pay relatively high tuition fees (Figure D20), may receive a loan enabling them, among other things, to pay these fees.

Figure D18: Financial support for full-time students in tertiary education attending daytime courses for a first qualification in the public sector or equivalent, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: Family allowances are means tested. Families whose income is over three times as high as the minimum subsistence level do not receive them.

Estonia and Romania: Students without a state-subsidised place who contribute to the cost of their education do not receive special assistance for the payment of fees.

Latvia and Lithuania: Students with a state-subsidised place pay no tuition fees (only relatively modest registration fees). Students with no subsidised place pay for their education and may receive financial assistance.

Luxembourg: Most students study abroad. The financial support they receive covers registration fees that may be payable in their host country.

Explanatory note

Registration fees are taken to mean fees related to the registration and/or certification of each student. The expression 'tuition fees' covers differing concepts from one country to the next. In some countries, it refers solely to the amounts paid by students. In others, it refers to the costs of education borne by tertiary education institutions, which may be paid on behalf of all or a majority of students by a public authority. The Figure relates only to the first situation. The second is considered here as equivalent to education being free of charge.

In several countries, the number of places available in public-sector tertiary education institutions is limited. Students thus have to turn to private institutions and pay tuition fees. Although they may receive financial assistance in order to do so in certain cases, such situations are not discussed here.



IN A THIRD OF ALL COUNTRIES, STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION PAY NO REGISTRATION OR TUITION FEES

In a first group of countries, students on courses for a first qualification do not contribute to the cost of tertiary education and pay no special compulsory contribution. Admission to tertiary education may therefore be regarded as free of charge. This applies to the Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta and the United Kingdom (Scotland), as well as to Hungary and Poland where students pay only certification fees. In some of these countries, provision for most students enrolled for a first qualification is free of charge, although a minority are required to pay. In Poland and Malta, only daytime provision is free and evening courses have to be paid for.

In Finland, Sweden and Norway, students pay no more than contributions either to their student organisation, or to bodies that offer students support usually in the form of subsidised services (accommodation, meals, cultural services, etc.).

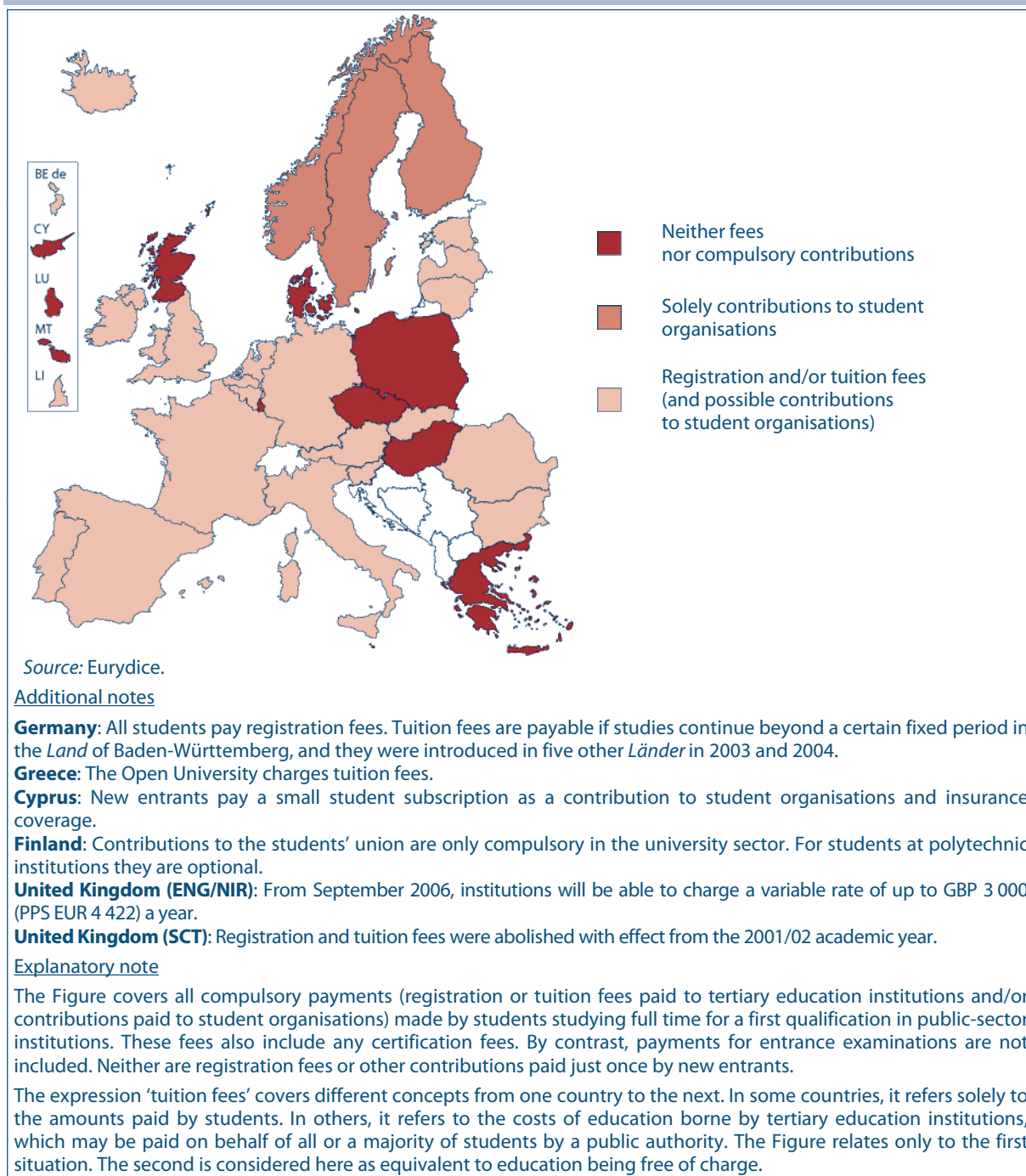
In all other countries, students pay registration or tuition fees to their tertiary education institution and, in some cases, contributions to their student organisation as well. The amounts involved may vary depending on the country and, within a given country, on the sector of education or the particular programme.

In Belgium, Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Liechtenstein, these registration or tuition fees may be relatively high (Figure D20). In some of these countries the amount is fixed by the government and, in others, by the tertiary education institution concerned. However, all these countries offer financial assistance to students for the payment of fees (Figure D18). Assistance of this kind is targeted at particular groups of students and is means tested (resulting in partial or total exemption from payment, or payment of a specific income-linked amount fixed at the outset).

In Germany, Slovenia, Slovakia, Iceland and Bulgaria, all students pay relatively low registration fees (Figure D20).

In Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, students with a state-subsidised place do not pay tuition fees and may pay low registration fees. In all four countries, however, a certain number of students have to pay particularly high tuition fees. Most of them have not secured a state-subsidised place or study for longer than a certain fixed period.

Figure D19: Tuition or registration fees and contributions payable by full-time students attending daytime courses for a first qualification in the public sector or equivalent, 2002/03





HIGH TUITION FEES FOR THOSE WHO PROLONG THEIR STUDIES

The amounts paid on registration by full-time students in tertiary education attending daytime courses for a first qualification depend on the type of contribution concerned (Figure D19). The financial support awarded to students for the payment of these contributions is greater the higher the amounts involved. In several countries, arrangements for fee payment and the conditions governing student financial support reflect a desire on the part of the education authorities to limit the period spent studying.

In the three countries (Finland, Sweden and Norway) where only contributions for student organisations are payable by students, the amounts paid are relatively low (PPS EUR 20-90).

In three other countries (Germany, Slovenia and Slovakia), minor registration fees of under PPS EUR 150 are required from all students. Tertiary education institutions may require some students to bear the costs of their education when they study beyond a certain length of time, in Germany (though, in 2002/03, solely in the *Land of Baden-Württemberg*) and Slovakia.

In the Czech Republic, where there are no registration fees, tertiary education institutions may also require students to contribute to the cost of their studies if they study for longer than a certain fixed period. In Poland, where students pay certification fees only, institutions may require a contribution from those who redo a year.

In Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, students with a state-subsidised place pay tertiary education institutions registration fees of under PPS EUR 150. In all three countries, the remainder of students bear the full costs of their education, and in Romania, students pay fees every time they retake an examination. In Estonia, tuition fees are required of students without a state-subsidised place or who study for over a year longer than the specified notional period.

In a last group of countries, registration fees are fixed not on the basis of the time taken to complete courses, but on parental income. The maximum amounts vary between PPS EUR 200 and PPS EUR 1650. In general, exemptions and/or reductions are granted to students in financial difficulty (Figure D18). In the Netherlands, the financial support offered to the majority of students in the form of grants and loans is calculated to cover a portion of their tuition fees. In some countries, many students receive their education free of charge. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), for example, contributions paid by students to tertiary education institutions (up to a quarter of the costs of their education) are income-linked and many students are not required to make any contribution. In most countries, this support is dependent on students satisfactorily completing their courses.

Additional notes (Figure D20)

Belgium (BE fr): Fees are higher in the final year (shorter and longer tertiary) to cover certification costs. Financial support is available to students on a means-tested basis.

Czech Republic: Students who study for longer than a certain fixed period are required to pay monthly contributions. The Figure shows an amount corresponding to nine months of additional study.

Germany: All students pay registration fees. Tuition fees are payable if studies are continued beyond a certain fixed period in the *Land* of Baden-Württemberg, and were introduced in five other *Länder* in 2003 and 2004.

Italy: Amounts vary from one institution to the next.

Finland: Contributions to the students' union are only compulsory in the university sector. For students at polytechnic institutions they are optional.

Sweden: Amounts of contributions are fixed by the student unions and vary from one institution to the next. The Figure shows an average amount.

United Kingdom (ENG/NIR): From September 2006, institutions will be able to charge a variable rate of up to GBP 3000 (PPS EUR 4422) a year.

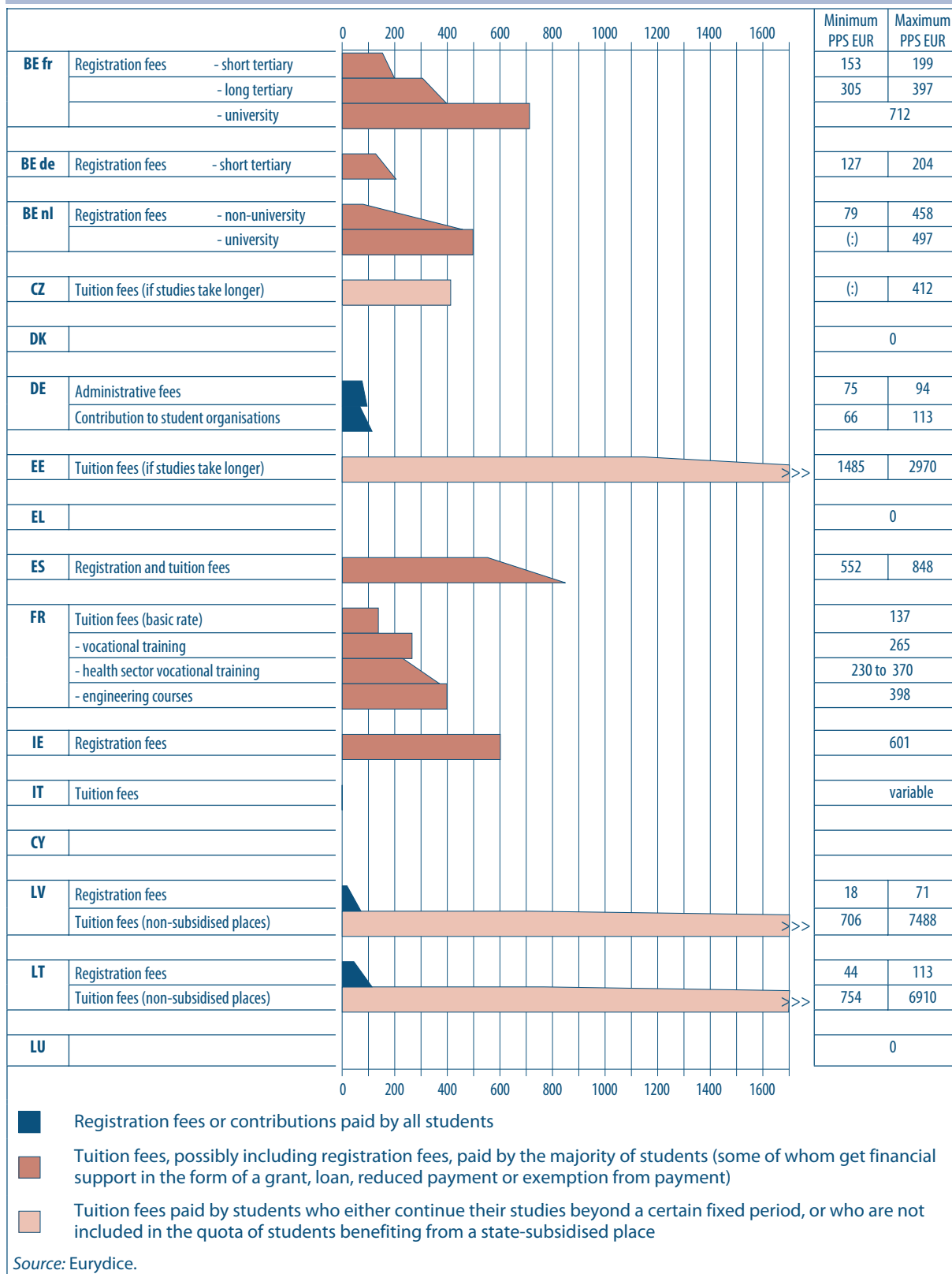
Romania: Each university is free to establish the amount of fees requested. At the University of Bucharest, registration fees range from PPS EUR 32 to PPS EUR 127, and tuition fees (for non-subsidised places) from PPS EUR 1 109 to PPS EUR 1 273; and students pay PPS EUR 9 each time they retake an examination.

Explanatory note

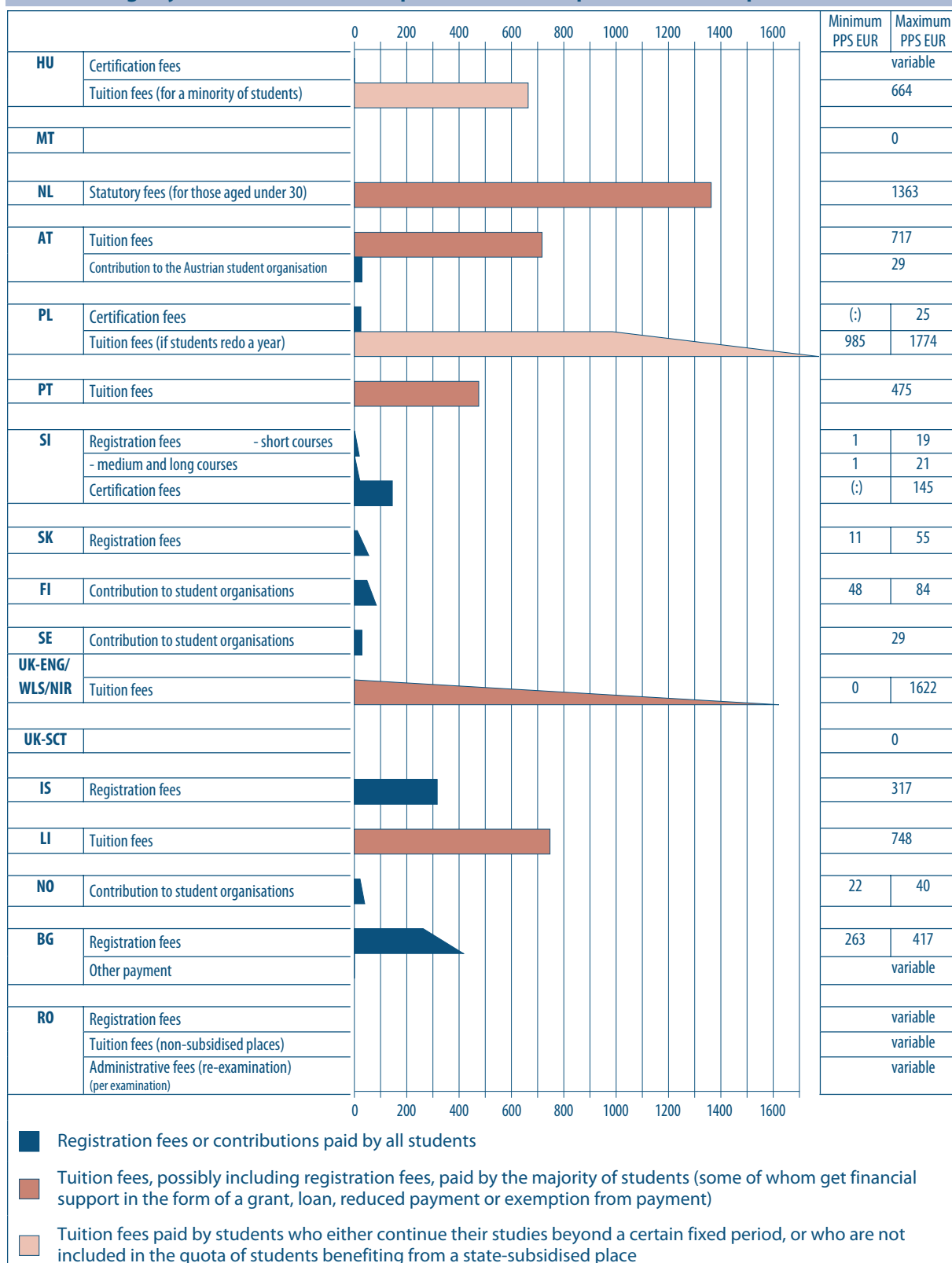
The Figure covers all compulsory payments (registration or tuition fees paid to tertiary education institutions and/or contributions paid to student organisations) made by students studying full-time for a first qualification on daytime courses in public-sector institutions. These fees also include any certification fees, as well as amounts paid by students who study for longer than a certain fixed period or who redo a year. Payments for entrance examinations, registration fees or other contributions paid just once by new entrants, or special contributions for additional services such as transport and health insurance, etc., have not been included.

The amounts have been converted into 'purchasing power parities' (PPP) based on the value of the euro. This means that national currencies are converted into an artificial but common currency (the purchasing power standard, or PPS) establishing the purchasing power of the various national currencies at the same level. The amounts in national currency are given in an annexe. For a definition of PPP and PPS, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

Figure D20: Annual fees and other contributions (in PPS EUR) paid by full-time students attending daytime courses for a first qualification in the public sector or equivalent, 2002/03



SECTION I – INVESTMENT AND EQUIPMENT

Figure D20 (continued): Annual fees and other contributions (in PPS EUR) paid by full-time students attending daytime courses for a first qualification in the public sector or equivalent, 2002/03

Source: Eurydice.



RESOURCES

SECTION II – TEACHERS

TEACHER EDUCATION FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION IS OFTEN PROVIDED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE CONCURRENT MODEL

In Europe, the great majority of prospective teachers, regardless of the level at which they are intending to work, undergo their initial teacher education at tertiary level, either in university or in non-university tertiary education programmes (Figures D22-D25). University-level education becomes increasingly the norm as the level at which they are to teach rises. For over a century, all prospective teachers for upper secondary education in Europe have received such education.

Teacher education usually includes a general and a professional component. The general component is the part given over to courses covering general education and study of the one or more specific subjects to be taught. The professional component involves courses devoted to the required teaching skills and school teaching placements. This theoretical and practical professional training may be given either at the same time as the general courses (the **concurrent model**) or after them (the **consecutive model**). The upper secondary school leaving certificate is the qualification required to undertake training in accordance with the concurrent model as well as, in some cases, a certificate of aptitude for tertiary education. In the consecutive model, students who have received tertiary education in a particular field at university then move on to post-graduate professional teacher training. In the concurrent model, students decide to become teachers right at the start of their studies, whereas in the consecutive model this decision is taken after a first stage of higher education.

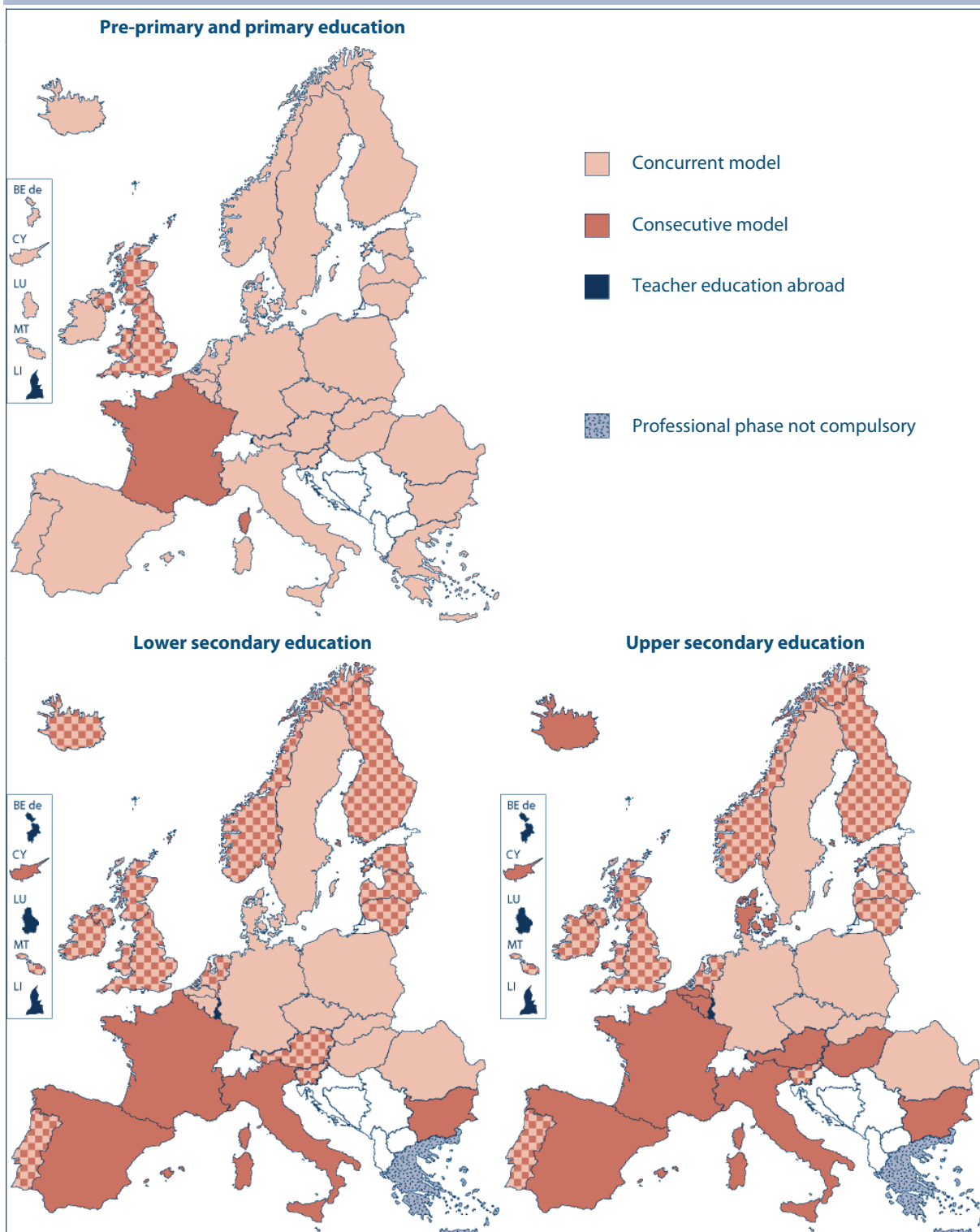
In virtually all European countries, teachers at the **pre-primary** and **primary** levels of education are trained in accordance with the concurrent model. However, in France, all such teachers undergo a consecutive form of training. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) the consecutive route has become increasingly common.

For general **lower secondary** education, the concurrent model is still the most widespread and exists either as the only possible option or alongside the consecutive model. In Latvia, Malta and Iceland, the concurrent model is the most widespread model for this level of education. In five countries of southern Europe (Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus and Bulgaria), the consecutive model is the only possible pattern of training for lower secondary education.

The consecutive model is more often adopted for teacher education for general **upper secondary education**. However, all teachers working at this level in Germany, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia and Romania receive university-level education provided in accordance with the concurrent model. This has also been the case in Sweden since 2001. In Ireland, Malta, Portugal and the United Kingdom, some teachers in upper secondary education are trained in accordance with this model.

In Finland, Lithuania and Slovenia, the majority of lower and upper secondary teachers are trained in accordance with the concurrent model.

Figure D21: The structure of initial teacher education for pre-primary, primary and general secondary education, 2002/03





SECTION II – TEACHERS

Additional notes (Figure D21)

Belgium (BE de): Initial teacher education for secondary level is provided outside the German-speaking Community. Most teachers are trained in the French Community of Belgium.

Greece: The provision of professional teacher training for secondary education depends on the institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers intend to specialise.

Luxembourg: For secondary education, only the final qualifying phase is provided within the country.

Austria: In the case of prospective teachers in *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen* (secondary level), the consecutive system is in a transitional phase that is becoming increasingly similar to the concurrent model. Prospective *Hauptschule* teachers are trained in accordance with the concurrent model.

United Kingdom: The most common training route is the consecutive route, although the concurrent route is also widely available, particularly for intending primary teachers. In England and Wales, other routes to *Qualified Teacher Status* are also available, including part-time, flexible and employment-based training.

Liechtenstein: Prospective teachers are trained in Austria or Switzerland.

Norway: For the upper secondary level, both models have existed since 2002.

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING COMPONENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION FOR PRE-PRIMARY PROVISION IS GENERALLY SUBSTANTIAL

In Europe, initial teacher education for **pre-primary provision** occurs in most cases at tertiary level. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, this kind of teacher education takes two forms, one provided at upper secondary level and the other at university level. In Austria, it is provided either at upper secondary level or non-tertiary post-secondary level. In Malta, prospective teachers for pre-primary education are trained solely at upper secondary level.

In France, Cyprus and the United Kingdom, teacher education for those intending to specialise in pre-primary education is similar to or the same as initial teacher education for primary teachers. The situation is similar in Ireland and the Netherlands, where a distinct, school-based pre-primary level does not exist (Figure B1).

In most cases, the length of initial teacher education for pre-primary education is three or four years (including any final on-the-job qualifying or induction phase). However, the corresponding provision is longer (five years) in France, Poland (one of several possible routes) and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), whereas in Malta it is shorter (two years). In Austria, the period of teacher education depends on the level at which it is provided. It lasts two years at post-secondary level and five years at upper secondary level.

Initial teacher education consists of general education and professional training that includes a theoretical and practical part devoted to teaching as such. Some countries provide a compulsory final 'on-the-job' qualifying or induction phase which is considered here to be part of initial teacher education. In the case of teacher education for pre-primary provision, a compulsory minimum period for professional training is stipulated in almost all countries. Institutions are totally free to decide the time to be spent on it solely in Belgium (the Flemish Community), the Czech Republic (at university level), Portugal, Slovakia and Bulgaria. Elsewhere, the time earmarked for professional training varies very considerably, from a compulsory minimum period of around six months in Poland, to the equivalent of over two and a half years in Luxembourg.



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The time spent on professional training is partly linked to the level at which teacher education is provided. For example, when it is offered in upper secondary education (ISCED 3), professional training always corresponds to over 50 % of the total time allocation and sometimes even to the whole course, as in Malta. When it is provided at non-university tertiary level (ISCED 5B), the proportion of professional training is never less than 30 % and often at least 50 % (as in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and Slovenia). Conversely, at university level (ISCED 5A), the proportion of professional training is often less than 50 %, except in Greece, Ireland, Hungary, Finland and Iceland. The longer teacher education lasts at this level, the smaller the proportion of time devoted to professional training (as in France and Poland). In all countries providing teacher education in accordance with the concurrent model, the proportion of professional training is always over 30 %, except in Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

Explanatory note relating to Figures D22-D23-D24-D25

When determining the proportion of professional training in the full period of initial teacher education, only the compulsory minimum curriculum for all prospective teachers is taken into account. Within this compulsory minimum curriculum, a distinction is drawn between general and professional training.

General teacher education: General courses and mastery of the subject(s) that trainees will teach when qualified. The purpose of these courses, therefore, is to provide trainees with thorough knowledge of one or more subjects and good general knowledge.

Professional training: Provides prospective teachers with both a theoretical and practical insight into their future profession. In addition to courses in psychology and teaching methodology, it includes short and (usually) unremunerated in-class placements (supervised by the teacher in charge of the class concerned, with periodic assessment by teachers at the training institution).

The figures show only the compulsory minimum length of initial teacher education and, where applicable, include the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

The length of initial teacher education is expressed in years. For countries where the corresponding period is expressed in credits or modules, the equivalent in years has been calculated.

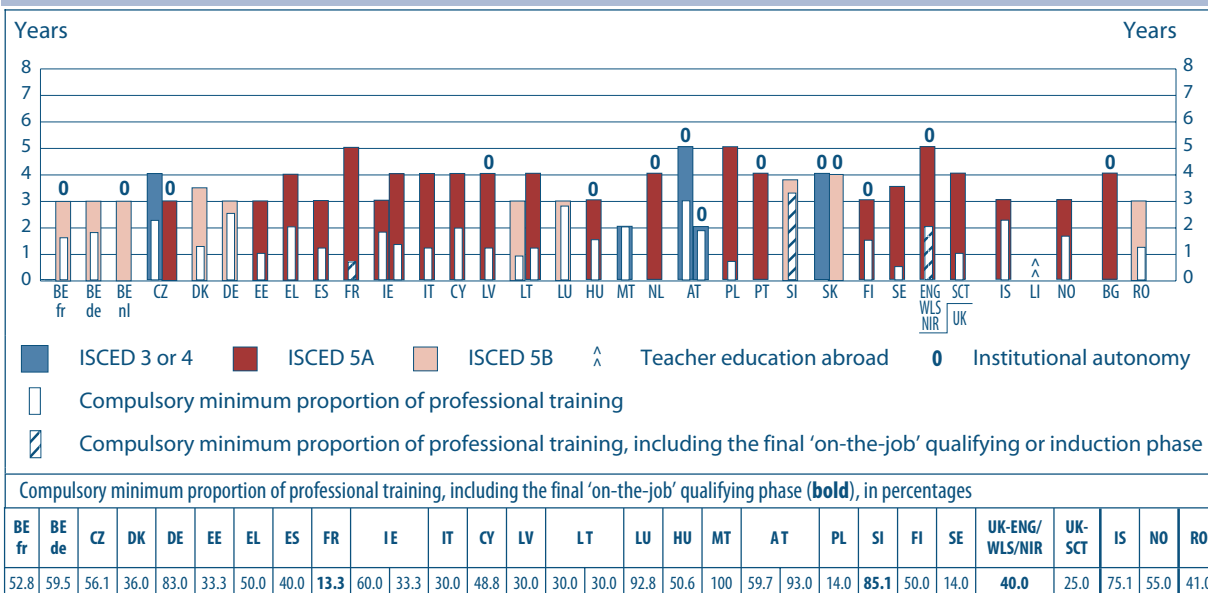
Final 'on-the-job' qualifying or induction phase: A compulsory period of transition between the initial education of teachers and their professional life as fully fledged teachers. It is treated here as the final phase of initial teacher education. This induction phase includes an important supportive and supervisory dimension, as well as a formal evaluation of teaching skills. During this period, teachers are still not fully qualified and are usually regarded as 'candidates' or 'trainees'. They spend a significant amount of time in a real working environment (a school) in which they carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on fully qualified teachers, and are remunerated for their activity.

In some countries, the amount of time in initial teacher education to be devoted to specifically professional training may be decided by the individual institution. The **autonomy of institutions** may be total (meaning that no minimum amount of time is required). In these cases, only the symbol **0** has been added. However, autonomy may also be limited. In such instances, institutions have to set aside a minimum amount of time for professional training as determined by the central/top-level authorities but may also increase the share of it if they wish. Here, the minimum proportion is shown, and the possibility institutions have of increasing it is also indicated by the symbol **0**.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

Figure D22: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education for pre-primary level, and the compulsory minimum proportion of time devoted to professional training, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: The minimum period of professional training includes summer teaching practice.

Germany: The information refers to qualified youth or community workers (*Erzieher*), who do not have the status of teachers.

Estonia: Until 2002, students were also admitted to a course at ISCED 5B. Since 2004/05, graduates have been obliged to complete a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*kutseasta*) lasting one year.

Greece: The relative proportion of specifically professional training is an estimate not applicable to all universities.

France: The final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasts one year.

Ireland and Netherlands: Children aged between 4 and 6 attend primary schools. The diagram relates to initial teacher education for this level.

Latvia: The professional training part shown relates solely to the practical school placement. Teacher education may last five years depending on the institution concerned.

Malta: Since October 2003, initial teacher education has consisted solely of professional training.

Austria: Initial teacher education provided at upper secondary level (ISCED 3) is the most widespread.

Poland: There are several routes to qualified teacher status. The most widespread model is shown here.

Portugal: The period of professional training may not exceed 60 % of the full period of initial teacher education.

Slovenia: The 10-month final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase is compulsory and entirely devoted to professional training, but is not part of initial teacher education.

Slovakia: Institutions may decide on the amount of professional training, but the practical school placement lasts between three and five weeks.

Finland: Within the framework of national regulations, universities decide on the content and structure of their degrees, and variations in the percentage exist as a result.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Information provided is for the consecutive route. The concurrent route is also common. In England and Wales, part-time, flexible and employment-based training routes are also available. The professional component is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than duration, although all trainees are required to spend a minimum period in schools. Newly qualified teachers must complete an induction year (as from 2003 in Wales).

Bulgaria: Teacher education may last five years depending on the institution providing it. It also lasts three years in a very limited form of provision at ISCED level 5B.

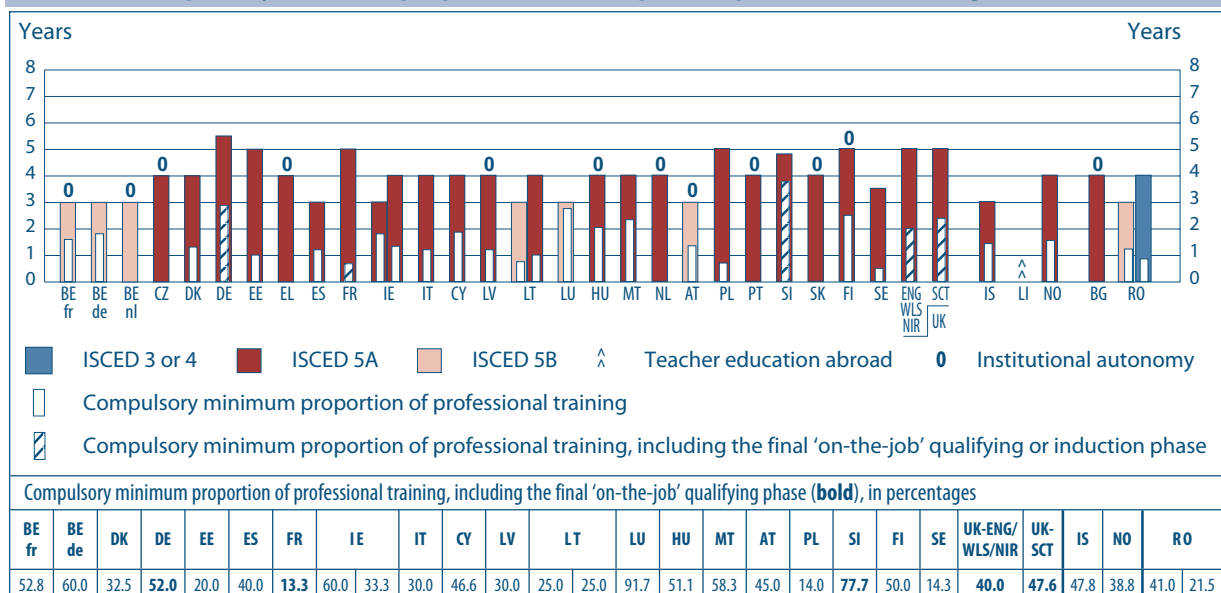
Explanatory note, see 'Explanatory note relating to Figures D22-D23-D24-D25'

UNIVERSITY-LEVEL EDUCATION FOR PRIMARY TEACHERS INCLUDES LESS PROFESSIONAL TRAINING THAN NON-UNIVERSITY COURSES

In the majority of European countries, initial teacher education for the **primary level** occurs at university level (ISCED 5A). In Belgium, Luxembourg, Austria and Romania, it occurs at non-university tertiary level (ISCED 5B). In Lithuania and Portugal, university and non-university tertiary provision exist side by side. A teacher education programme at upper secondary level is still provided in Romania.

The length of initial teacher education for primary school and the proportion of time spent on specifically professional training depend on the level of provision. Three years is the norm in countries where teacher education is provided in non-university tertiary education (ISCED 5B) and, except in Lithuania, over 40 % of this period is spent on professional training. This applies to Belgium (the French and German-speaking Communities) and Romania. In Luxembourg, the proportion even reaches 90 %. University-level training (ISCED 5A) for primary teachers usually lasts four years, with the part earmarked for professional training varying between 13-70 %, the highest percentages existing in Ireland, Hungary, Malta, Finland and Slovenia. In general, the longer training lasts, the lower the share of professional training (as in France and Poland). Germany is an exception in that the proportion of professional training is 52 % in a total period of five and a half years. Institutions are totally free to decide how much time should be spent on professional training in Belgium (the Flemish Community), the Czech Republic, Greece, the Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia and Bulgaria. In several other countries, only a minimum amount of professional training can be indicated and provision may vary between institutions.

Figure D23: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education for the primary level, and the compulsory minimum proportion of time spent on professional training, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: Teacher education may last four to six years.

Germany: Seven semesters of university-level tertiary education are followed by two years of a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*Vorbereitungsdienst*).

Estonia: Since 2003/04, graduates have had to complete a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*kutseaasta*) lasting one year.

France: Professional training constitutes the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasting one year.

Additional notes (continued)

Latvia: The professional training part shown relates solely to the practical school placement. Teacher education may last five years depending on the institution concerned.

Netherlands: In 2001, an optional final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase was introduced. It lasts five months when full time or ten months if part time.

Poland: There are several routes to qualified teacher status. The most widespread model is shown here. For teachers of foreign languages, a three-year training course is also provided (with 19 % of it devoted to professional training).

Portugal: The information shown here corresponds to teacher education for the first stage of *ensino básico*. The time devoted to professional training may not exceed 60 % of the total period of initial teacher education.

Slovenia: The 10-month final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase is compulsory and entirely devoted to professional training, but it is not part of initial teacher education.

Slovakia: Courses last five years for the second stage of the *základná škola*. Institutions may decide on the amount of professional training, but the practical school placement lasts between three and five weeks.

Finland: Within the framework of national regulations, universities decide on the content and structure of their degrees, and variations in the percentage exist as a result. This information relates mainly to teachers in the first six years of the *perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*.

Sweden: This information relates to teachers in the first seven years of *grundskola*.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Information provided is for the consecutive route. The concurrent route is also common. In England and Wales, part-time, flexible and employment-based training routes are also available. The professional component is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than duration, although all trainees are required to spend a minimum period in schools. Newly qualified teachers must complete an induction year (as from 2003 in Wales).

United Kingdom (SCT): The final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase may last up to two years.

Norway: At the *Universitet*, teacher education may last from four to seven years depending on the subject chosen.

Bulgaria: Teacher education may last five years depending on the institution. It also lasts three years in a very limited form of provision at ISCED 5B.

Romania: Teacher education at ISCED 3 has been reintroduced to combat shortage.

Explanatory note, see 'Explanatory note relating to Figures D22-D23-D24-D25'

INDUCTION PERIODS ARE MORE FREQUENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION FOR WORK AT SECONDARY LEVEL

In all countries, initial teacher education for the **lower secondary level** is provided in tertiary education and in most cases leads to a university-level qualification (ISCED 5A). However, in Belgium and Austria (in the case of *Hauptschulen*), teachers enter the teaching profession on completion of non-university tertiary education. In a growing number of countries, a compulsory final 'on-the-job' qualifying or induction phase follows initial education or forms part of its last stage.

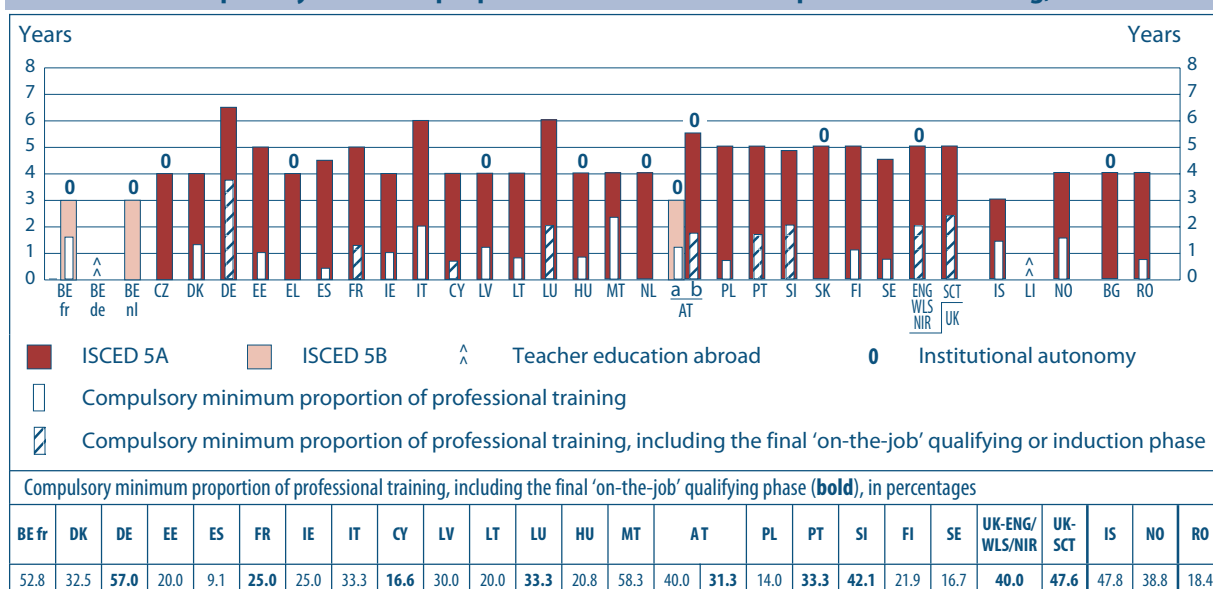
Irrespective of the level at which it is provided, initial teacher education for lower secondary level generally lasts between four and five years, except in Belgium, Austria (in the case of *Hauptschule* teachers) and Iceland, where it lasts three years. In Germany, it lasts six and a half years. Teacher education for this level is often provided in accordance with the concurrent model (Figure D21). Routes which follow the consecutive model tend to be longer as in Italy and Luxembourg.

Where teacher education conforms to the concurrent model, the proportion of time earmarked for professional training is generally greater, often higher than 30 %, as in Denmark, Austria (*Hauptschule* teachers), Slovenia and Norway. The proportion is over 50 % solely in the French Community of Belgium, Germany and Malta. By contrast, in the consecutive model it never exceeds 40 %, except in the United Kingdom (Scotland).

In some countries, initial teacher education for lower secondary level is provided in accordance with both models. In Austria (teachers in *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen*), Iceland and Slovenia, teacher education based on the consecutive model lasts longest, but the proportion of professional training is greater in the concurrent model. By contrast, in Ireland and Lithuania, the relative proportion of professional training within initial teacher education does not depend on the particular model of provision.

Generally speaking, the amount of time spent on professional training is greater within the concurrent model than within the consecutive one. In some countries, institutions are completely free to organise the time earmarked for different components of teacher education as they wish. However, many national policies lay down certain specific minimum periods in this respect. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) for example, all trainees are required to spend a minimum period in schools.

Figure D24: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education for general lower secondary level, and the compulsory minimum proportion of time devoted to professional training, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers in lower secondary education may teach in the first three years of general secondary school.

Czech Republic: Teacher education may last from four to six years.

Germany: University-level teacher education lasts between seven and nine semesters (three and a half and four and a half years) and is followed by two years of a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*Vorbereitungsdienst*).

Estonia: Since 2003/04, graduates have to complete a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*kutseasta*) lasting one year.

Greece: The provision of professional training depends on the institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers intend to specialise.

Spain: Teacher education may also last five or six years. A new certificate of specialisation in teaching is being introduced in 2004/05. It comprises a minimum 485 hours of general education plus three months for teaching practice including 12 hours of theoretical professional training.

France: Professional training occurs in the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasting one year.

Latvia: Teacher education may last five years. The professional training part shown relates solely to the practical school placement.

Lithuania: Teacher education may last from three to five years depending on the institution and the model.

Luxembourg: The general component of teacher education has to be undertaken abroad. The length of initial teacher education does not include the period required to complete an optional research project whose length is variable. Professional training occurs during the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase and lasts at least two years.

Malta: Teacher education in accordance with the consecutive model may last four or five years. The proportion of professional training shown here applies solely to the concurrent model.

Additional notes (continued)

Netherlands: Candidates obtaining grade 2 may teach general subjects in lower secondary schools and vocational upper secondary schools only. From 2001 onwards, an optional final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase was introduced. It lasts five months when full-time or ten months if part-time.

Austria: This diagram illustrates teacher education for (a) the *Hauptschule* and (b) the *allgemein bildende höhere Schule*. In the case of the latter, it lasts four and a half years and is followed by a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasting one year. Institutions have some room for manoeuvre as regards the amount of professional training provided.

Poland: There are two possible routes at ISCED 5A, the most widespread of which is shown here. For teachers of foreign languages, a three-year course is also provided (with 19 % of it devoted to professional training).

Portugal: This diagram illustrates teacher education for the third stage of *ensino básico*. It may last four or five years, followed by a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase, lasting one year.

Slovenia: The 10-month final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase is compulsory and entirely spent on professional training, but it is not part of initial teacher education.

Finland: The information relates mainly to specialist subject teachers in the last three years of *perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*. The consecutive model lasts longer but the relative proportion of professional training does not change substantially.

Sweden: The information relates to teachers working in the final years of the *grundskola*.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Information provided is for the consecutive route. The concurrent route is also available but is much less common. In England and Wales, part-time, flexible and employment-based training routes are also available. The professional component is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than duration, although all trainees are required to spend a minimum period in schools. Newly qualified teachers must complete an induction year (as from 2003 in Wales).

United Kingdom (SCT): Teacher education lasts four or five years and is followed by up to two years of probationary service.

Iceland: The diagram illustrates the concurrent model. The consecutive model lasts four years.

Norway: At the *Universitet*, teacher education may last from four to seven years depending on the subject chosen. The relative proportion for professional training is 25 % and 14.3 % respectively.

Bulgaria and Romania: Teacher education may last five years, depending on the subject to be taught.

Explanatory note, see 'Explanatory note relating to Figures D22-D23-D24-D25'

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE UPPER SECONDARY LEVEL IS ALWAYS PROVIDED AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL

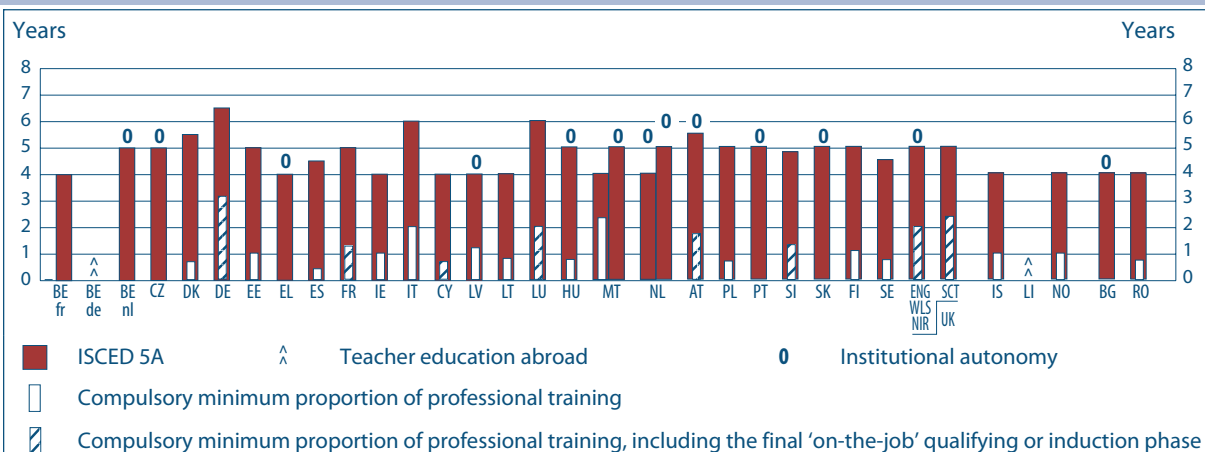
In all European countries, initial teacher education for those intending to work at **upper secondary level** is provided in university-level (ISCED 5A) institutions. It usually lasts five years, although around 10 countries offer shorter periods of training. The longest period required (six and a half years) is in Germany.

Whether teacher education for upper secondary level follows the consecutive or concurrent model (Figure D21) the proportion of theoretical and practical professional training, including any final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase, rarely exceeds 30 % (except in Germany, Malta, the United Kingdom and, a little less markedly in Italy, Luxembourg and Austria). In most countries, the percentage of time for acquiring teaching skills varies between 14 and 30 %.

Certain countries (Denmark, Spain and Poland) devote a smaller proportion of time (less than 15 %) to specifically professional training for upper secondary education. However, the proportion in Poland has been raised slightly since 2003/04. In Greece, only general education is compulsory.

In several countries, institutions are completely free to organise the time for different components of teacher education as they wish.

Figure D25: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education for general upper secondary level, and the compulsory minimum proportion of time devoted to professional training, 2002/03



Compulsory minimum proportion of professional training, including the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (**bold**), in percentages

DK	DE	EE	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	AT	PL	SI	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK-SCT	IS	NO	RO
12.3	48.0	20.0	9.1	25.0	25.0	33.3	16.6	30.0	20.0	33.3	15.2	58.3	31.3	14.0	27.2	21.9	16.7	40.0	47.6	25.0	25.0	18.4

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Subject to special dispensation, teachers trained for lower secondary education (Figure D24) may also teach in upper secondary education.

Belgium (BE fr): In 2002/03, professional training accounted for 300 hours. It may be undertaken in parallel with university studies or after them.

Czech Republic: Teacher education may last four to six years.

Germany: University-level teacher education lasting at least nine semesters (four and a half years) is followed by two years of a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*Vorbereitungsdienst*).

Estonia: Since 2003/04, graduates have to complete a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase (*kutseasta*) lasting one year.

Greece: The provision of professional teacher training depends on the institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers intend to specialise.

Spain: Teacher education may also last five or six years. A new certificate of specialisation in teaching is being introduced in 2004/05. It comprises a minimum 485 hours of general education plus three months for teaching practice including 12 hours of theoretical professional training.

France: *Professeurs agrégés* may also work in upper secondary education. Their teacher education lasts six years. Professional training occurs in the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasting one year.

Ireland and Latvia: The consecutive model lasts 5 years.

Lithuania: A five-year course in accordance with the consecutive model also exists.

Luxembourg: The general component of teacher education has to be undertaken abroad. The length of initial teacher education does not include the period required to complete an optional research project whose length is variable. Professional training occurs during the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase and lasts at least two years.

Malta: The proportion of professional training applies solely to the concurrent model.

Netherlands: Teachers who have grade 2 can obtain grade 1 by following a course. University graduates with a *doctoraal* or Master's degree can take a postgraduate teacher training course leading to a grade 1 qualification. Courses are available in part-time, full-time and dual options.

Austria: The final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasts one year.

Poland: For teachers of foreign languages, a three-year course is also provided (with 19 % of it devoted to professional training).

Portugal: The time devoted to professional training should not exceed 20 % of the total duration of training. One institution offers initial teacher education lasting six years in accordance with the consecutive model. The final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase lasts one year.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

Additional notes (continued)

Slovenia: Teacher education lasting four and a half years in accordance with the consecutive model also exists. The 10-month final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase is compulsory and entirely devoted to professional training, but it is not part of initial teacher education.

Finland: A longer course in accordance with the consecutive model also exists, but the relative proportion of professional training does not change substantially.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Information provided is for the consecutive route. The concurrent route is also available but is much less common. In England and Wales, part-time, flexible and employment-based training routes are also available. The professional component is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than duration, although all trainees are required to spend a minimum period in schools. Newly qualified teachers must complete an induction year (as from 2003 in Wales).

United Kingdom (SCT): Teacher education is followed by up to two years of probationary service.

Norway: Depending on the subject chosen, teacher education may last from four to seven years. The relative proportion for professional training ranges from 25 % in the case of a four-year course to 14.3 % for a seven-year one.

Bulgaria and Romania: Teacher education may last five years.

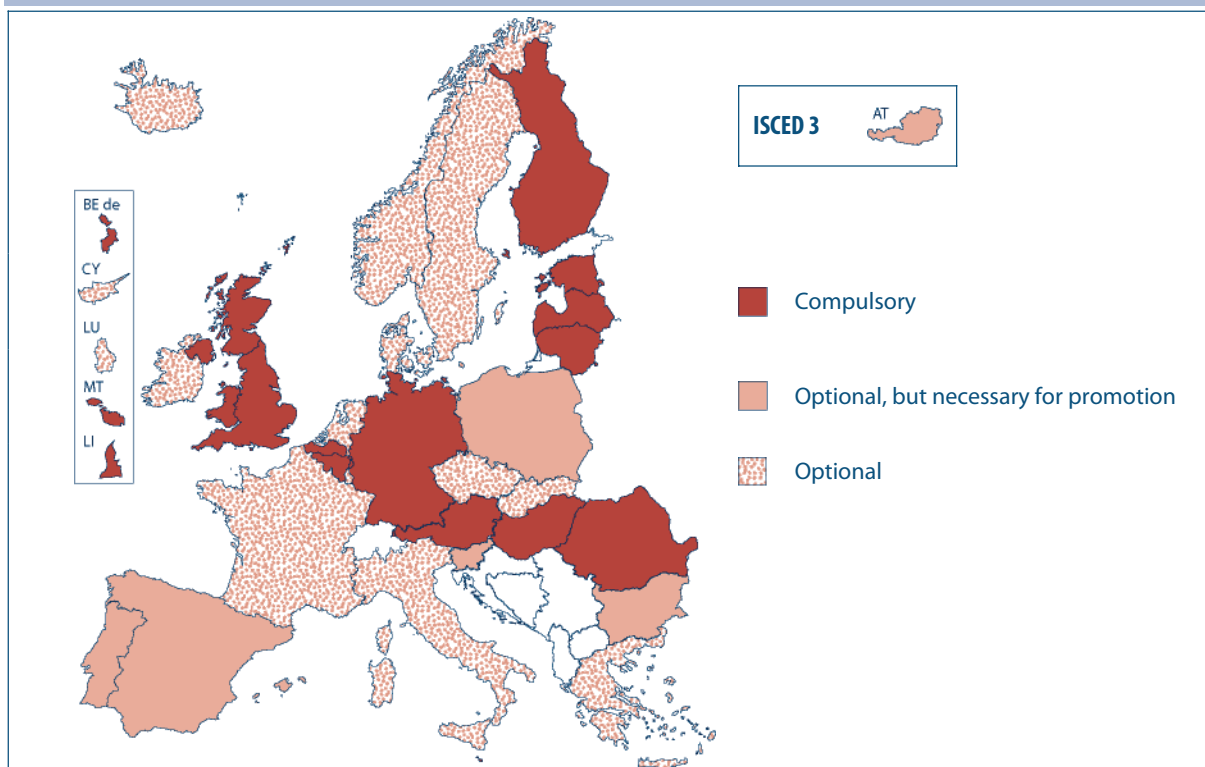
Explanatory note, see 'Explanatory note relating to Figures D22-D23-D24-D25'

IN HALF OF ALL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS PART OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DUTIES

Continuing professional development (CPD) is compulsory in no more than 15 European countries and regions. However, teachers are not explicitly obliged to engage in CPD in all of them and failure to undertake it is not necessarily penalised. Furthermore, the fact that in-service training may be compulsory says little about actual participation rates. While CPD is limited to a certain amount of time each year in most of the countries concerned, teachers may also take part in CPD activities on an entirely voluntary basis.

In Spain, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia and Bulgaria, in-service training is optional, but clearly linked to career advancement and salary increases. In Spain, teachers who enrol for a certain amount of training are eligible for a salary bonus. In the other four countries, credits may be acquired via participation in CPD programmes and are taken into account for purposes of promotion. In Greece, in-service training is compulsory for newly qualified teachers. Although CPD is optional in France, the inspectorate and school director who evaluate teachers may take their participation into account. This evaluation affects their career prospects and may hasten their promotion. Training is also sometimes 'very strongly' recommended for teachers with identified professional problems.

**Figure D26: Status of in-service training for teachers
in primary, general lower and upper secondary education, 2002/03**



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr): In-service training became compulsory in 2002.

Belgium (BE nl): In-service training may be required by the school administrative authority/school management team.

Netherlands: 10 % of a teacher's annual working hours should be spent on the advancement of professionalism, and teachers report on this in assessment talks with their employers. Precisely how this time should be used is at the discretion of schools.

Slovenia: In-service training linked to the introduction of new educational reforms is compulsory.

Sweden: There is no legal document stating that in-service training is compulsory. However, all teachers normally participate in training activities, and schools are obliged to offer training opportunities.

Romania: In-service training once every five years is compulsory for teachers who do not sit an examination providing access to a higher professional level.

THE MINIMUM COMPULSORY TRAINING DOES NOT EXCEED FIVE DAYS A YEAR

The minimum annual time allocation for compulsory in-service training varies to a certain extent from one country to the next.

In Estonia and the United Kingdom (Scotland) more than 30 hours a year are compulsory. In all other countries except Belgium and Malta, the annual number of hours is under 20.

In Germany and Liechtenstein, the number of compulsory hours is not specified centrally.

In several countries, the amount of time that should be spent on in-service training is expressed either in days per year, as in Malta, Finland and the United Kingdom (Scotland), or in days over a certain number of years, as in Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary and Romania.

Figure D27: Minimum annual time allocation (in hours) for compulsory in-service training in primary, general lower and upper secondary education, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	DE	EE	LV	LT	HU	MT	AT	FI	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	LI	RO
ISCED 1	21	21	14		32	12	18	17	21	15	18		35		19
ISCED 2	21	21	21	✓	32	12	18	17	21	15	18	✓	35	✓	19
ISCED 3	21	21	21		32	12	18	17	21	✓	18		35		19

⊗ CZ, DK, EL, ES, FR, IE, IT, CY, LU, NL, PL, PT, SI, SK, SE, IS, NO and BG.

⊗ In-service training is not compulsory ✓ Variable

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Three days a year.

Germany: The amount of compulsory in-service training varies from one *Land* to the next.

Estonia: 160 hours over a five-year period.

Lithuania: 15 days spread across five years of training. This corresponds to 90 hours spread over five years.

Latvia: The central education authorities have laid down a minimum time allocation of 36 hours for three years.

Hungary: Every seven years, 60-120 hours of in-service training are compulsory.

Malta: Three days a year at the beginning or end of the school year. Since 2001/02, three annual two hours sessions after school have been introduced.

Netherlands: 10 % of a teacher's annual working hours should be spent on the advancement of professionalism. This is a formally stipulated amount of time that is available for teachers to claim.

Austria: For ISCED level 2, the information given here relates to teachers working in *Hauptschulen*. For teachers at *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen* the amount of training is not specified.

Finland: Three days a year of six hours each.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The five days in the school year when school sessions are not required are often used for in-service training. In addition, participation in arrangements for professional development is an essential aspect of professional duties.

United Kingdom (SCT): There is a minimum of five days for in-service training. Teachers should also spend 50 hours a year on planned activities; some of this time may also be used for in-service training.

Liechtenstein: Teachers must participate in at least one training activity every two years.

Romania: 95 hours every five years, unless teachers take professional degrees during this period.

Explanatory note

Calculation: Unless stated otherwise in the above notes, one day corresponds to seven hours. For countries where a certain amount of training over several years is compulsory, the calculation is based on an average.

TEACHERS SPEND SOME TIME ON IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR TEACHING READING

Official regulations generally specify participation in in-service training as part of a teacher's professional duties (Figure D26). At the same time, the importance of instruction in reading in the curriculum for primary education is universally acknowledged (Figure E2). The PIRLS (2001) survey provides some useful information on actual participation in training activities for teaching reading for those countries which participated.

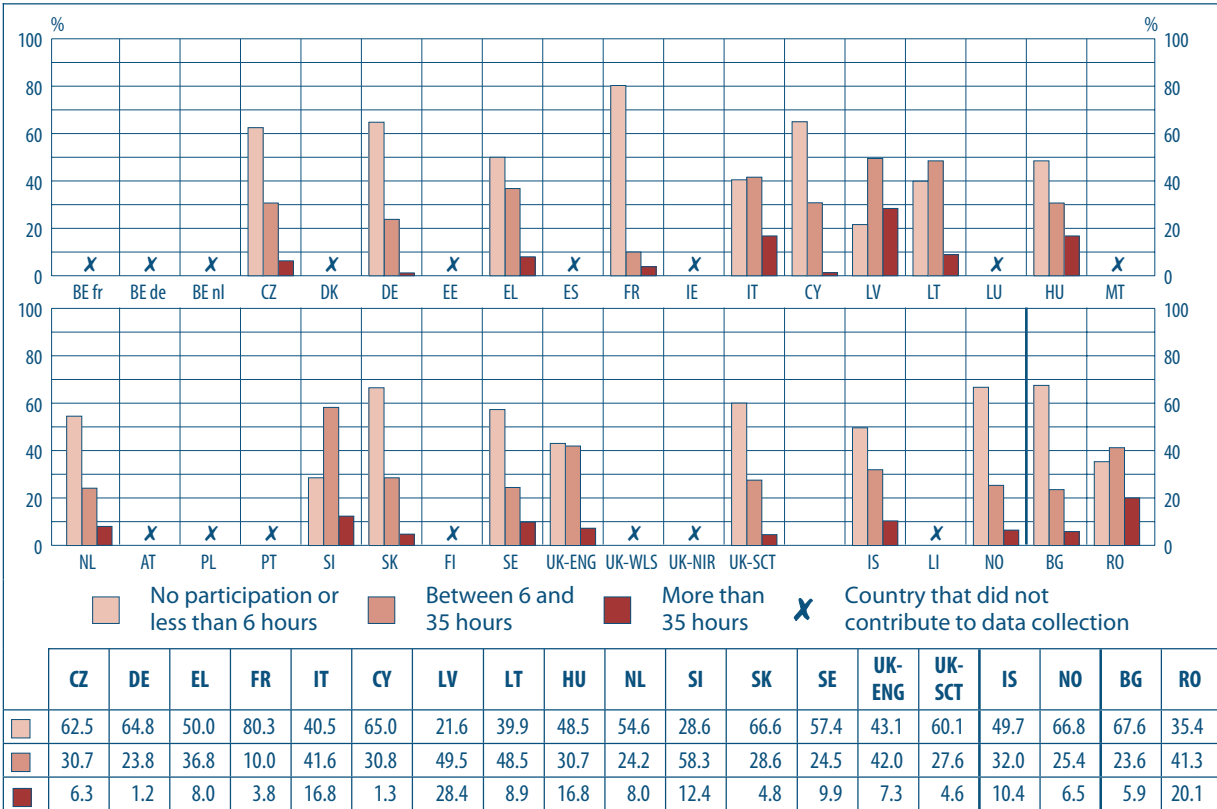
In eight countries, namely the Czech Republic, Germany, France, Cyprus, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Norway and Bulgaria, over 60 % of fourth-year pupils had teachers who said that, in the preceding two years, they had not taken part in any in-service training activity in this area or had done so for less than six hours.

Around 40 % of pupils in Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (England) and Romania had teachers who said they had spent 6 to 35 hours on in-service training for the teaching of reading. In these countries, more Latvian and Romanian teachers than those from elsewhere had completed over 35 hours of training in the preceding two years.



RESOURCES

Figure D28: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education whose teachers report having taken part in in-service training for teaching reading in the last two years, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate how many hours they had spent in the last two years in in-service training workshops or seminars dealing directly with reading or the teaching of reading.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply regarding one or other of the options indicated, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

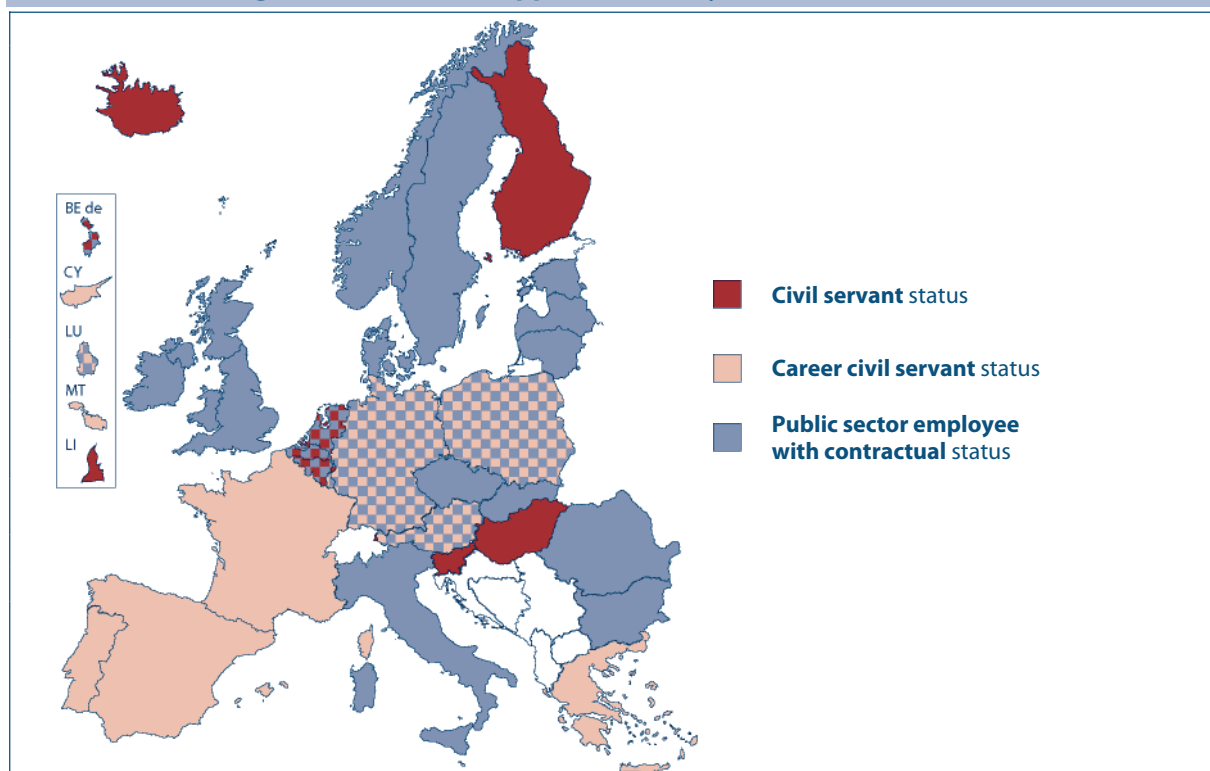
For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

TEACHERS ARE CAREER CIVIL SERVANTS IN ONLY A MINORITY OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

In European countries, the employment status of teachers (whether in primary, lower secondary or upper secondary education) falls into two main categories. In half of these countries, teachers have civil servant status, although in only a minority of those countries are they appointed for life (as career civil servants). In the remaining countries, teachers are employed under contract and subject to general employment legislation. These two categories of employment status exist alongside each other in a few countries (Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Poland).

In the first category, teachers are **civil servants** employed by the public authorities whether at central, regional or local level. Teachers with this status are employed in accordance with a regulatory framework distinct from legislation governing contractual relations in the public or private sectors.

Figure D29: Types of employment status available to teachers in primary education and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers working in schools administered by each of the three Communities are appointed as civil servants. Teachers working in the grant-aided private sector are considered to be 'assimilated' to civil servant status although they are employed under general employment legislation.

Germany: Teachers in some of the new *Länder* are employed under permanent government contracts. Broadly speaking, their status is comparable to that of a civil servant.

Lithuania: Since July 2002, teachers have been employed under the general law on employment.

Luxembourg: Certain teachers in primary and secondary education (*chargés d'éducation*) are recruited on temporary contracts by the public authority.

Hungary: A small proportion of teachers working part-time are not civil servants.

Malta: In the *Junior College* (upper secondary education), the two main status categories exist alongside each other.



RESOURCES

Additional notes (continued)

Austria: Teachers are employed via a service contract (contract teachers) or by public law (career civil servants).

Netherlands: Teachers in public-authority schools are civil servants within the meaning of the Central and Local Government Personnel Act. Teachers in private schools sign a (private law) contract with the board of the legal entity whose employment they enter. However, these staff may be deemed to share the status of public-sector personnel in respect of those working conditions that are determined by the government; collective agreements cover the whole education sector (both public-authority and private schools).

Poland: The Figure refers to teachers in the first and second categories on the teacher promotion scale (contractual status) and those in the third and fourth categories ('assimilated' with career civil servant status).

Slovakia: Teachers became civil servants in April 2002.

Norway: Some elements of civil service legislation apply to teachers.

Bulgaria: Before the law of September 2002 came into force, teachers had civil servant status.

Explanatory note

Only **fully qualified teachers** in the **public sector** are considered here (i.e. those who work in schools that are funded, managed and directly controlled by the public authorities), except in Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands in which the majority of pupils attend grant-aided private schools (i.e. schools over half of whose basic funding is from the public purse).

The **temporary status** prior to securing permanent tenure, which exists in some countries, is not considered here.

The status of **civil servant** is that of a teacher employed by the public authorities (at central, regional or local level), in accordance with legislation distinct from that governing contractual relations in the public or private sector. In structured career systems, teachers are appointed for life as **career civil servants** by the appropriate central or regional authorities where these correspond to the top-level authority for education.

Public-sector employee with contractual status refers to teachers employed generally by local or school authorities on a contractual basis in accordance with general employment legislation.

Nevertheless, closer examination reveals that their employment on this basis varies from one country to the next and has to be defined more precisely. It is clear, that **career civil servants** represent a sub-category. In career-based systems, teachers are recruited and employed by the central or regional authorities where these correspond to the top-level authority for education in a country (as do the *Länder* in Germany, the Autonomous Communities in Spain and the Communities in Belgium, as well as the *Bundesländer* in Austria in the case of compulsory school teachers). The concept of permanent appointment for life is very important, and teachers lose their jobs only under very exceptional circumstances. German, Greek, Spanish, French, Cypriot, Luxembourg, Maltese, Austrian, Polish and Portuguese teachers may be regarded as civil servants who are part of a structured career system.

Teachers who possess the second type of status are identified as '**employees**'. They are engaged on a **contractual basis** established in accordance with the general provisions of employment legislation. As public-sector employees, teachers may be appointed by the public authorities (generally at local or school level), although the most common situation is for them to be directly employed by the school concerned.

As far as job security is concerned, the really sharp distinction is not between the status of civil servant and contractual employee but between that of career civil servant and all other status categories.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

SUPPORT MEASURES FOR NEW TEACHERS ARE STILL NOT VERY WIDESPREAD

Following the completion of initial teacher education, and, in some countries, the completion of the final ‘on-the-job’ qualifying or induction phase, teachers still face many challenges in the early years of their career. Special support measures can help them to overcome difficulties they may face as newcomers to the profession, and reduce the likelihood that these teachers will leave the profession early. Despite the potential benefits, such measures are still not widespread in European countries. In 2002, only half of all countries offered new teachers assistance during this time. Where available, assistance generally took the form of special in-class support and/or specifically designed training. A few countries such as Germany, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Norway, have recently launched initiatives to support early professional development.

In countries where support measures exist, new teachers in primary education and (lower and upper) secondary education are supported above all through informal discussion, classroom observation of their work and discussion of their progress or any problems at meetings with their supervisors. One person (a mentor) is always appointed to take responsibility for assisting new teachers – in general an experienced teacher who has completed a significant period in service and/or the school head.

Figure D30: Regulations and/or recommendations on types of support and supervision available to new entrants to the teaching profession in primary education and (lower and upper) general secondary education, 2002/03

TYPE OF SUPPORT	CZ	DE	EL	ES	IE	IT	CY	PL	SK	UK-ENG/ WLS	UK- NIR	IS	LI	NO	BG
Formal/semi-formal meetings (for the discussion of progress or problems)			●	●		●	●	●	●		●	●	●		●
Opinions, information and informal discussion	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●		●
Assistance with the planning of lessons			●	●		●		●	●			●	●		●
Assistance with the assessment of pupils/writing their school reports				●		●		●	●		●	●	●		
Participation in classroom activity and/or classroom observation	●		●	●	●		●	●	●		●		●		●
Advice concerning skills			●	●		●	●	●	●		●	●			●
Organisation of seminars/workshops/discussion groups			●	●			●	●	●						●
Visits to other schools/resource centres				●				●							
Special compulsory training (with a minimum time allocation)			● (1)	● (2)		● (3)									● (4)
Manual											●				
Pilot projects (implementation in hand)		●								●				●	
No current measures	BE, DK, EE, FR, LV, LT, LU, HU, MT, NL, AT, PT, SI, FI, SE, RO														
(1) 100 hours (2) variable (3) 40 hours (4) up to 24 hours															
Source: Eurydice.															



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Additional notes (Figure D30)

Germany: Pilot projects have begun in four *Länder* to assist school heads in supporting new entrants.

Spain: Organisation of the first year of actual teaching is the responsibility of the Autonomous Communities and may vary slightly from one school or Community to the next.

Ireland: Other forms of support are possible but depend on the type of school concerned.

United Kingdom (ENG): An *Early Professional Development* three-year pilot programme was launched in 12 LEAs on October 2001 for teachers in their second and third year of teaching.

United Kingdom (WLS): A two-year pilot scheme for *Early Professional Development* for teachers in their second and third years of teaching was launched in September 2003.

United Kingdom (NIR): Guidance materials to help beginning teachers successfully complete the *Early Professional Development* stage of teacher education are provided. Other support may also be available (i.e. assistance with planning lessons, seminars/workshops/discussion groups and visits to other schools/resource centres).

Norway: In 2003/04, a large-scale national project was established for new entrants to the teaching profession after several years of piloting. The content and organisation of the project vary from one region and municipality to the next.

Bulgaria: Measures to support new entrants were introduced in 2003.

Explanatory note

The Figure does not cover the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase or the *induction year*. It shows special support and supervision for fully qualified new teachers in their first and second year of service (or second and third year of service in those countries which regard the final 'on-the-job' qualifying or induction as the first year of service). These support measures have been devised specifically to help teachers overcome difficulties they may face during their early professional years. Any compulsory training designed for this period of early professional development is also included.

Wherever there are arrangements for monitoring and supporting new teachers, this support is offered to all of them unconditionally. In the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) and Poland (in the case of trainee teachers and those employed on a contractual basis), it has become mandatory. The *Early Professional Development* scheme in Northern Ireland is considered an essential stage in the professional development of all teachers. Similarly, in Greece, Spain and Italy, teachers have to do the training programme during their one or more probationary years. In these last three countries and in Bulgaria, the length of this special training varies very widely.

SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS IS NOT UNIVERSALLY REGULATED

Teachers may be confronted at a particular point in their careers by situations that hinder them from performing their duties to full capacity. Under such circumstances, they may feel the need for assistance, and the provision of one or more types of support is normally very helpful. Four situations frequently encountered by teachers are identified here, namely problems of a personal nature, interpersonal conflicts involving pupils, parents and/or colleagues, difficulties related to teaching activity as such (for example, the introduction of a new subject into the curriculum, or the use of new teaching equipment or materials, etc.) and work with mixed groups of pupils.

At the three levels of education concerned (primary, lower secondary and upper secondary), the majority of countries mainly offer special support (whether or not this is formal) to teachers who face problems of a specifically educational nature or more generally in their work with mixed groups of pupils. In Denmark and Greece, only support to help with teaching problems as such is available. In Italy, teachers receive support solely in cases in which they work with mixed groups of pupils.

By contrast, psychological support in case of problems of a personal nature is less common. In certain countries it is even felt that support of this kind might presuppose explicit acknowledgement that teachers have a psychological problem.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

The various arrangements for supporting teachers confronted with difficult situations are not often formally regulated. Only a third of countries have established regulations or official recommendations for problem situations in which special support might be required. In the remaining countries, a regulatory framework establishing procedures for supporting teachers in difficulty applies solely to certain specific situations or is not provided for at all. Nevertheless, where the need arises, teachers who request help generally receive it on an informal basis.

Figure D31: Regulations and/or recommendations on certain forms of support for teachers in primary education and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO				
A	○	○	■	■	■	●	○	■	■	●	●	■	■	○	●	○	■	●	●	●	○	●	●	○	●	●	■	○	○	■	●	●	■				
B	●	○	●	■	■	●	●	■	●	○	●	■	○	○	●	○	■	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	○	○	●	●	●	■				
C	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	○	●	■	●	○	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	○				
D	●	●	●	●	■	●	●	■	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	■	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●				
●	Existence of regulations, recommendations and/or guidelines (at central/regional/local level)																				A	Personal problems															
																					B	Conflicts															
○	Support exists but is not formal (not systematically organised)																				C	Teaching problems															
■	No kind of support is provided																				D	Work with mixed groups of pupils															

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: The Danish Union of Teachers has established permanent arrangements for the provision of guidance to members who have psychological problems with the working environment.

France: In primary education, there is formal support for teaching problems.

Malta: Support from psychologists for personal problems arising in school situations was introduced during the 2002/03 school year.

Iceland: In upper secondary education, informal support is arranged for categories C and D.

Explanatory note

For the purposes of this Figure, neither in-service training nor salary bonuses are regarded as special assistance measures for teachers in service.

Problems of a personal nature relate in particular to burnout, a form of stress characterised by physical and nervous exhaustion making it hard for the teachers concerned to carry out their duties effectively. **Interpersonal conflicts** involving pupils, parents and/or colleagues are primarily conflicts of a disciplinary nature with pupils (disruptive classroom behaviour, verbal and/or physical attacks on teachers, etc.). **Teaching problems** relate to problems teachers may have in adapting to new teaching methods, etc. **Mixed groups of pupils** are groups containing pupils in one or several specific categories, namely those with special educational needs, pupils from immigrant backgrounds, those with social problems (disadvantaged backgrounds, social difficulties) and pupils of different learning ability (in that they either have considerable problems or perform to an exceptionally high level).

Support from mainstream medical facilities in the national public health service (particularly in the event of personal problems) is not considered here.



RESOURCES

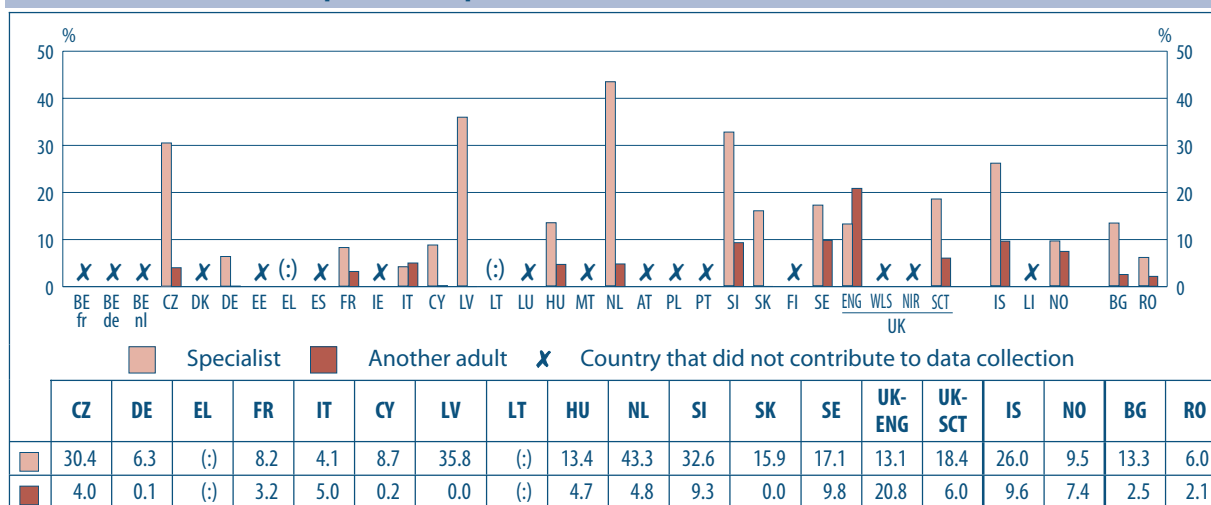
SPECIALIST SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS OF PUPILS WHO HAVE DIFFICULTY WITH READING

In primary education, the most important subject in terms of the amount of time spent teaching it is the language of instruction. Generally, between one quarter and one third of teaching time is spent on it (Figure E2). In the case of reading activities, teaching problems arise with certain pupils, so that support from additional staff may prove helpful.

In the majority of countries for which PIRLS 2001 data are available, less than a quarter of pupils in their fourth year of primary education have a teacher who reports that a specialist or another adult is on hand in school or the class to look after pupils with reading difficulties. In Germany, Italy and Romania, such support staff (specialist or otherwise) are only rarely available.

In general, specialist staff are the most commonly available, except in the United Kingdom (England) where the person concerned is often an assistant or another adult.

Figure D32: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education whose teachers report that specialists or other adults are on hand to look after pupils with reading difficulties, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether they received help when dealing with pupils who had difficulty reading.

Replies from teachers were placed into two categories. The first category, 'specialist', consisted of replies from teachers who said that a reading specialist or other kind of specialist (e.g. a learning specialist or speech therapist, etc.) was on hand to provide help for pupils in difficulty, either in the classroom or in remedial reading classrooms. The second category, 'another adult', consisted of the replies from teachers who reported that an assistant or another adult was available to help pupils in difficulty in the classroom.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply regarding the factor at issue, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.



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IN THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES, THE EMPLOYMENT CONTRACT OF TEACHERS INCLUDES COMMITMENTS OTHER THAN TIME SPENT TEACHING

Traditionally, in most European countries, teachers' **working time** was defined in terms of the number of teaching hours. This definition of working time corresponded to the profile of the teacher's work, which was divided into two main activities, namely lessons on the one hand and preparation of lessons and marking on the other. In a very large number of countries, this definition of working time has given way to another, wider definition which includes other types of work.

To the amount of teaching time in 2002/03, therefore, could be added a precise number of **hours of presence at school** for other activities such as meetings or management activities, etc. Almost half of all countries defined the working time of their teachers in these terms. Some of them also specified the overall working time. The situation is the same at all three levels of school education.

In the case of some countries, **overall working time** corresponds to the number of hours a week negotiated in accordance with collective bargaining agreements. This type of agreement may also apply to teachers as civil servants or employees subject to the terms of general employment legislation (italicised countries in the Figure).

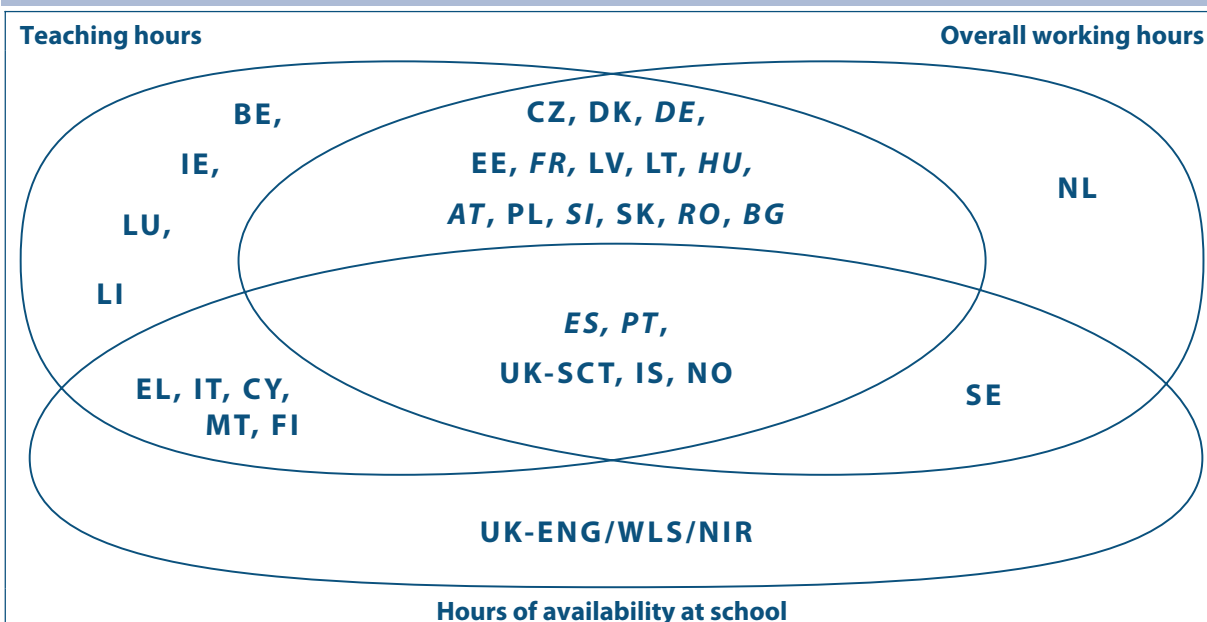
Teachers' working time is contractually defined in terms of the number of teaching hours in just four European countries (Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein). A great many countries apply an overall number of working hours, which in principle covers all services performed by teachers, over and above the specified number of teaching hours.

Finally, in three countries, namely the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the number of teaching hours that may be required of teachers is not specified at central level. In the Netherlands, only the overall annual working time (including the list of all activities) is specified in the legislation. In Sweden, an overall annual amount of working time in hours is specified, along with time during which teachers should be present at school. However, it is worth noting that, in some Swedish schools, earlier calculations for determining the number of teaching lessons are still used within the new framework of working time. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the regulations specify only the amount of time for which teachers should be available to perform duties at school or in another place as may be determined by the headteacher.



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Figure D33: Statutory definitions of the workload of teachers in primary education and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03



Countries in *italics*: countries where the overall amount of working time of teachers corresponds to what has been negotiated within the framework of collective bargaining agreements.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): In primary education, a maximum number of hours of required presence at school (including time spent giving lessons) is also specified.

Denmark: The time during which teachers have to be available at school has not been shown because it is expressed solely in days.

Estonia: The time that teachers have to be available at school has not been shown because it is fixed at the discretion of each school.

Italy: The overall number of working hours is not considered because this time is fixed solely in terms of a number of days.

Luxembourg: Only teachers who are civil servants are shown. In the case of those on temporary contracts (*chargés d'éducation*), a number of hours of availability, other than teaching hours, is specified.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): A national workload agreement entitled 'Raising Standards and Tackling Workload', signed in January 2003, laid the foundation for a number of changes to teachers' workload and overall working hours which will be implemented over the next few years. The national agreement does not apply to teachers of ISCED 3 programmes in *further education institutions*. Time of availability at school includes teaching time.

Liechtenstein: The draft law to fix the overall number of working hours has not been implemented.

Explanatory note

All information refers to situations in which teachers are working on a full-time basis. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are beginning their career are not taken into account if they are subject to special timetable requirements.

Statutory definitions relate to working time as defined in teachers' contracts of employment, job descriptions or other official documents. As far as overall working time is concerned, collective bargaining agreements have also been taken into account (countries shown in *italics*). The statutory definitions are those issued by the central authorities, or regional authorities in countries where they correspond to the top-level authority for education.

The **number of teaching hours** refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of pupils.

The **number of hours of availability at school** refers to the time available for performing duties at school or in another place specified by the school head. In some cases, this refers to an amount of time further to the hours spent teaching and, in others, to hours of availability that include the time spent teaching.

Overall working hours are the number of teaching hours, the number of hours of availability at school, and an amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities which may be done outside the school.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

THE CONTRACTUAL WEEKLY WORKLOAD OF TEACHERS VARIES VERY WIDELY DEPENDING ON THE COUNTRY CONCERNED

The majority of countries specify first and foremost the **number of hours of teaching** that may be required of teachers (Figure D33). In general, countries specify either a number of teaching periods a week and their duration, or a number of hours of teaching per week. In 2002/03, the majority of teachers in Europe had to be actively engaged in teaching pupils between 18 and 20 hours a week, excluding normally planned breaks and contact time with pupils which does not involve teaching. Considerable variations are apparent between countries. For example, the majority of new EU Member States set a number of weekly teaching hours which is far lower than that in the other countries.

As far as differences between levels of education are concerned, there are few countries where the situation is uniform. Only five countries, namely Latvia, Hungary, Poland, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland), prescribe the same amount of teaching time a week in both primary and secondary education. In general, countries tend to reduce the weekly teaching time of their teachers in lower and/or upper secondary education. Only Bulgaria substantially increases the number of hours concerned for teachers in secondary education and especially those working at upper secondary level.

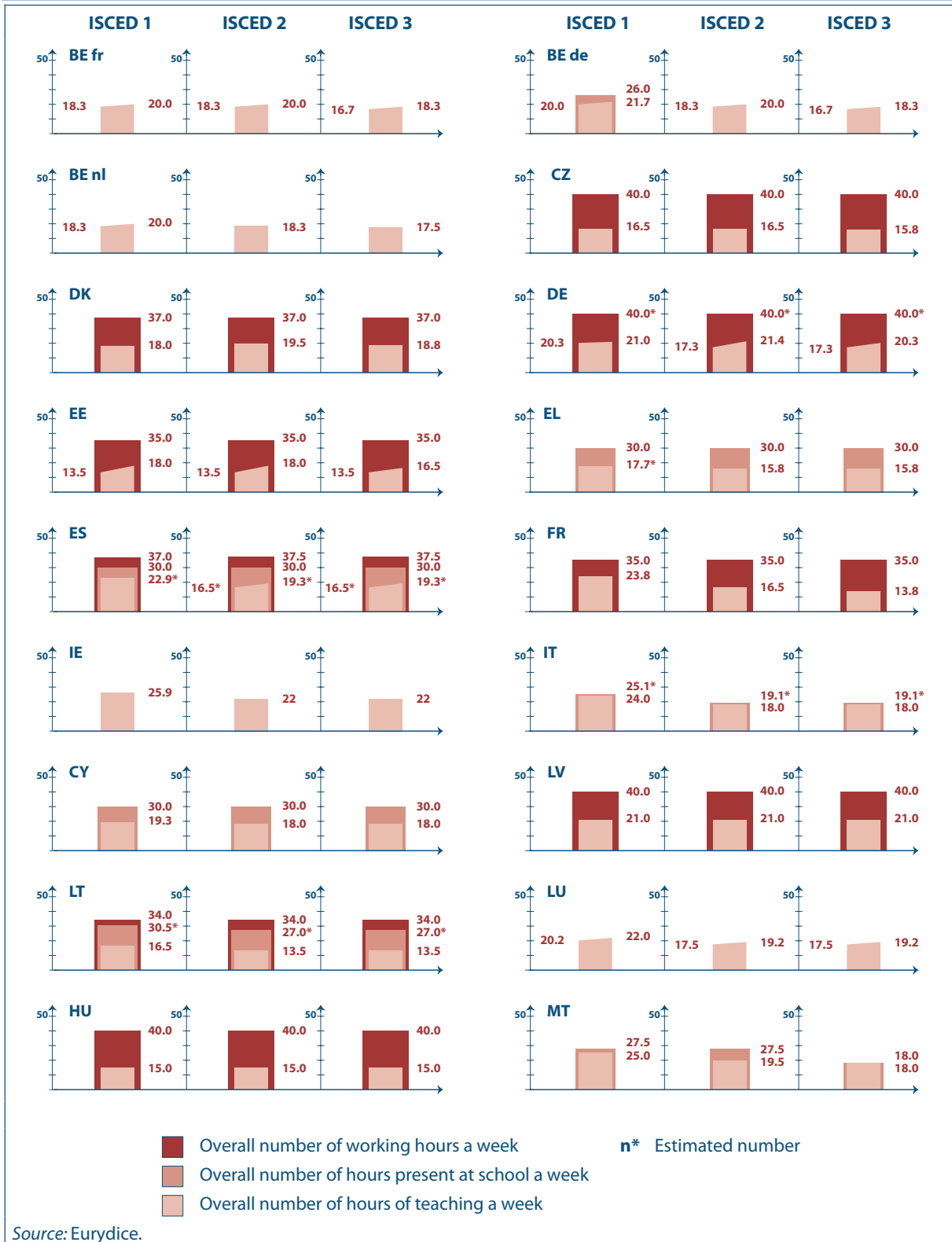
Over half of all European countries also fix an overall **number of working hours** a week generally based on the corresponding amount of time for other workers (between 35 and 40 hours) and specified in collective bargaining agreements.

Few countries have statutorily prescribed a precise **amount of time that teachers should be available at school each week**. Often these requirements are defined on an annual basis or in terms of a number of days rather than hours. However, notional weekly averages have been calculated wherever possible. In general, the amount of time that teachers are required to be present at school each week does not exceed 30 hours, except in Portugal and Sweden (35 hours), Iceland (33.5 hours in primary and general lower secondary education) and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), where the notional weekly average is 32.4 hours.



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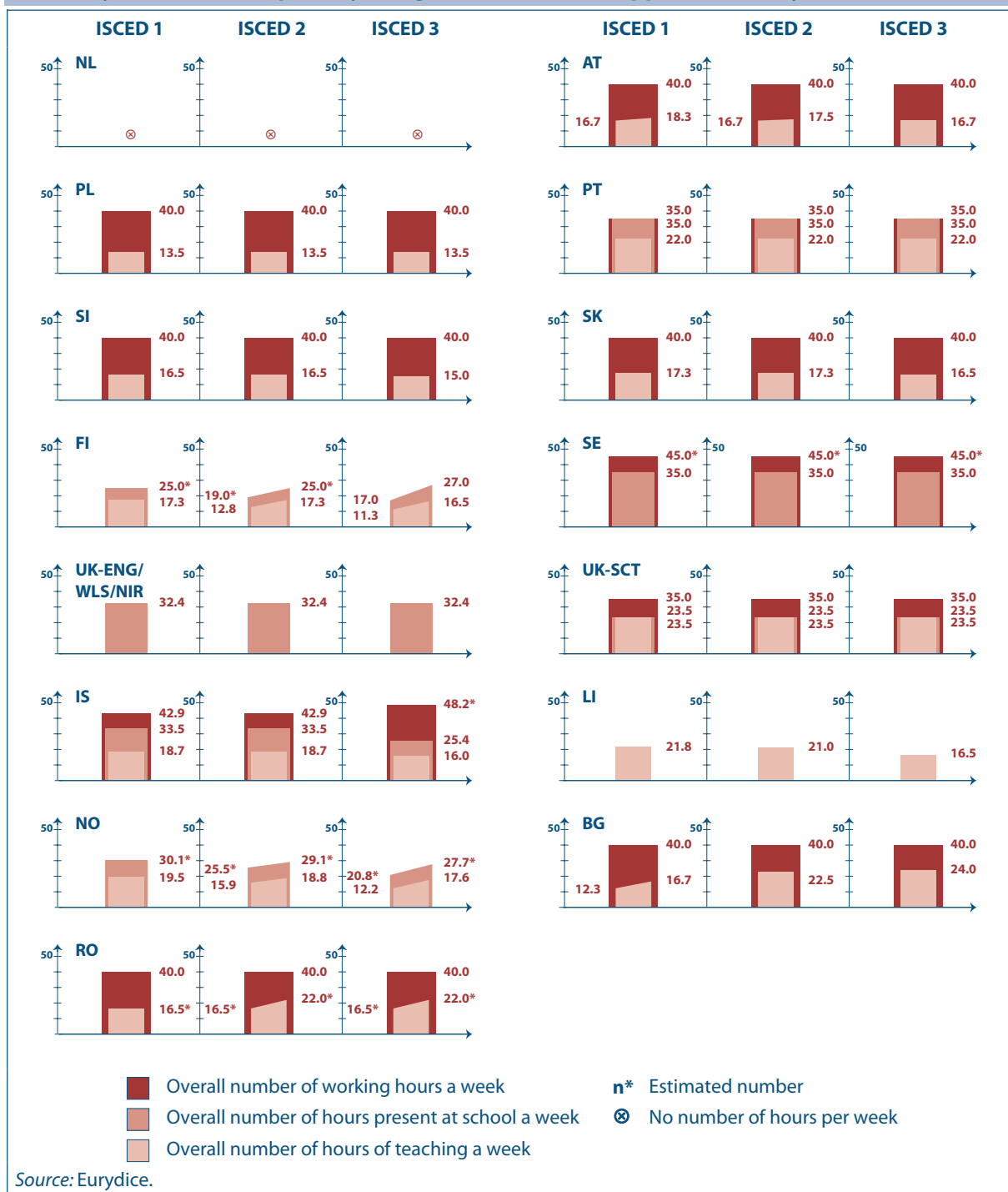
Figure D34: Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03





SECTION II – TEACHERS

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03





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Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr): The total annual amount of time for all services performed by teachers in primary education may not exceed 962 hours. It includes lessons, supervisory duties and meetings and consultation with colleagues (which correspond to at least 60 periods). Only time spent teaching is shown.

Belgium (BE nl): The time shown in the ISCED 3 column relates to teachers working in the second year of the *Algemeen Secundair Onderwijs*; in the case of those working in the third and fourth years, the amount of teaching time each week is 16.7 hours.

Denmark: Teaching time is determined on an annual basis. Here it has been recalculated on a weekly basis with due regard for the number of weeks fixed for teaching.

Germany: The 40 hours of overall time represent the average for all *Länder*.

Estonia: The overall working time is 35 hours a week. Teachers may be required to stay in school for these 35 hours, but this is at the discretion of the individual school or school head.

France: The ISCED level 2 data correspond to *professeurs certifiés* and ISCED level 3 data to *professeurs agrégés*.

Cyprus: The number of hours of teaching a week is the maximum number of hours, and depends on the number of years of service.

Hungary: The 15 hours of teaching a week correspond to a minimum number of hours.

Malta: The Figure shows teaching time, as well as time teachers should be available at school on full days. On half days, teaching time is 17.5 hours a week in primary education, 13 hours a week in general lower secondary education and 10.5 hours a week in general upper secondary education (except in the Junior College). Available time is 18.75, 18.75 and 10.5 hours a week respectively.

Netherlands: Only the number of days for teaching each year (200) and the overall number of hours each year (1 659) are specified.

Portugal: Data for ISCED 1 relate to the second stage of *ensino básico*. During the first stage, teaching time is 25 hours a week, with 20 minutes of formal break a day. Even though the amount of working time and the amount of time for presence at school each week are the same (35 hours), the overall number of working days a year is greater than the number of days a year that teachers should be present at school.

Slovenia: The situation of those who teach the language of instruction is not represented. In the case of these teachers, the amount of teaching time per week is 15.8 hours in ISCED 1 and 2, and 14.3 hours in ISCED 3. Time devoted to 'other activities' is included in teaching time.

Finland: The time that teachers should be available at school does not include the annual 3-5 days of additional working time for teachers specified in collective bargaining agreements.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The figure shows a notional weekly average based on the 1265 hours over 195 days that teachers must be available for teaching and for meetings and professional development, etc.

United Kingdom (SCT): Under the 2001 agreement on teachers' pay and conditions, all tasks which do not require the teacher to be on the school premises can be carried out at a time and place of the teacher's choosing. Teachers must be available at school for one week of 23.5 hours more than the number of weeks of teaching time (195 days a year instead of 190 for teaching).

Liechtenstein: Data for ISCED 3 do not relate to teachers of sports, music or arts who have 26 lessons a week, corresponding to 19.5 hours.

Norway: The total number of working hours is expressed solely in hours per year (1 687.5).

Explanatory note

The Figure shows the situation of a teacher working full-time who does not have other duties, such as management duties. Variations within a country are shown where they relate to specific factors such as the subject taught or the employment status of the teacher, or where they represent flexibility at school level to establish the number of teaching hours or time available at school for each teacher. Reduced timetable conditions for teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not shown; neither is the flexibility to reduce the number of hours in accordance with the length of service or when taking on other duties.

The Figure gives information solely in hours per week. The real working time of teachers may also vary in accordance with the annual number of days of service.

Statutory definitions relate to working time as defined in teachers' contracts of employment, job descriptions or other official documents. As far as overall working time is concerned, collective bargaining agreements have also been taken into account. The statutory definitions are those issued by the central authorities, or regional authorities in countries where the latter correspond to the top-level authority for education.

The **number of hours of teaching a week** refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of pupils. This number is calculated strictly to exclude time for breaks or time spent with pupils that does not involve teaching. It is obtained by multiplying the number of lessons by the time each lesson lasts and dividing the product by 60.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

Explanatory note (continued)

The **number of hours present at school a week** refers to the amount of time available, other than teaching time, for performing duties at school or in another place specified by the school head.

Overall number of working hours a week are the number of teaching hours, the number of hours of availability at school, and the amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities, which may be done outside the school. This overall weekly amount normally corresponds to the time negotiated in collective bargaining agreements.

Estimates have been made for countries where the status or contract of teachers does not refer to teaching time, time that teachers should be available at school, and/or overall working time estimated in terms of the number of hours a week. Where the obligations of teachers are determined on an annual basis, an average weekly number of hours has been calculated from the required number of days of presence at school and/or of overall working time, where possible.

For further information on how the working time of teachers has been calculated, see the tables in the annexe.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS OFTEN PLAN TIME FOR TEACHERS TO MEET TO SHARE OR DEVELOP TEACHING MATERIALS AND APPROACHES

Outside of their timetabled classes and contact with pupils, teachers often meet to work together cooperatively. In many countries, these activities are associated with the new tasks that teachers are expected to carry out.

In the majority of countries for which PIRLS 2001 data are available, school heads say they plan time to enable teachers working in the fourth year of primary school to meet at least once a month to consider teaching issues (discussion or development of instructional materials/approaches).

In Italy, Cyprus, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England) and Norway, most school heads report that meeting times are planned very frequently (at least once a week). This situation is apparent to a lesser extent in the Netherlands and Iceland. By contrast, in some countries more school heads say that they plan meeting times for teachers only occasionally. This is the case in Germany, Hungary and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

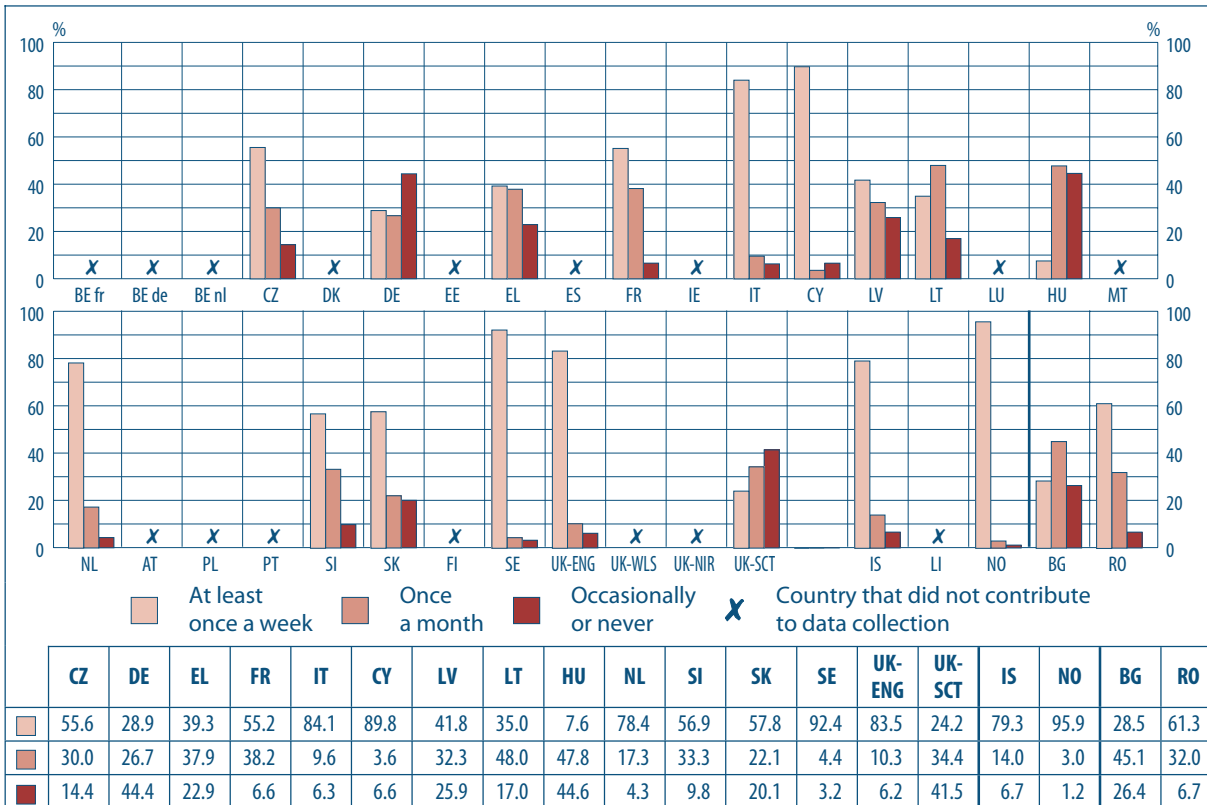
These data on time formally planned for teachers to meet each other may be considered in relation to regulations on working time (Figures D33 and D34). In general, countries where school heads say that meeting times are formally and frequently planned for meetings between teachers, are also those where teachers are statutorily obliged to work for a certain number of hours (not spent teaching) on school premises.

However, the frequency of meetings between teachers is not necessarily limited to the time planned by school heads for such meetings. In some countries where formally planned meetings occur only occasionally, teachers nonetheless meet very frequently, for example to exchange their experiences in teaching reading (Figure D36).



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Figure D35: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education who attend a school which plans time for teachers to discuss teaching materials and approaches, with respect to the frequency of meetings, as reported by the school head, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether time was formally planned for teachers at their school to meet each other and discuss, share or develop materials or approaches to teaching. Replies of school heads were placed into three categories. The first, headed 'at least once a week', contained the replies 'every day', 'twice or three times a week' or 'once a week'. The second category corresponded to the reply 'once a month'. The third category, headed 'occasionally or never', contained the replies 'less than once a month' and 'never'.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the year of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of school heads who gave a particular reply regarding the factor at issue, but the proportions of pupils whose school heads gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

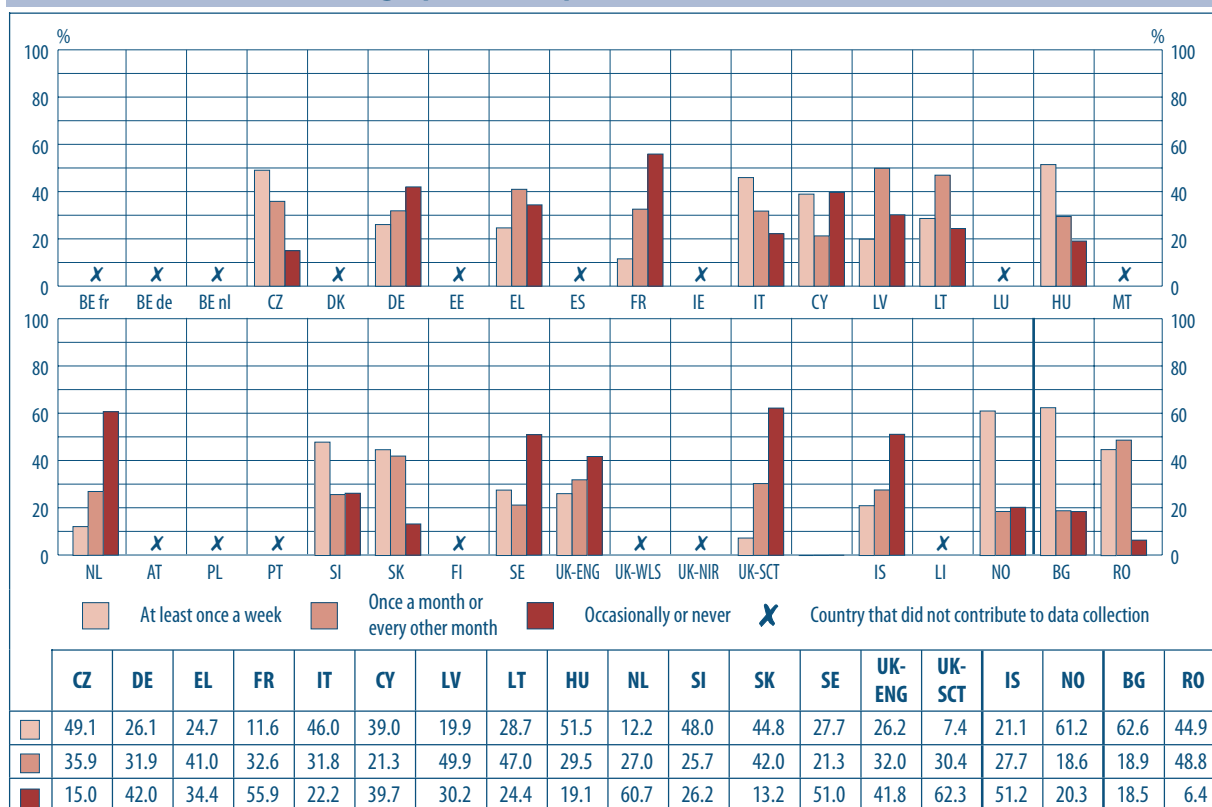


SECTION II – TEACHERS

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, TEACHERS MEET REGULARLY TO DISCUSS AND PLAN THE TEACHING OF READING

Learning the language of instruction is one of the basic activities in the curriculum for primary education. Indeed, more time is recommended for teaching this subject than for any other in the majority of countries (Figure E2). There are numerous approaches to teaching reading. Reliance on textbooks and on a variety of children's books is combined in some countries with visits to the library or the use of educational software (Figures E5 and E6).

Figure D36: Proportions of fourth-year pupils in primary school, whose teachers report taking part in meetings with other teachers on instruction in reading, with respect to the frequency of such meetings, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate how often they met with other teachers to discuss and plan the curriculum or methodological approaches for teaching reading. The replies from teachers were placed into three categories. The first, headed 'at least once a week', contained the replies 'every day', 'two or three times a week' or 'once a week'. The second category corresponded to the reply 'once a month' and 'every other month'. The third category, headed 'occasionally or never', contained the reply 'once or twice a year' and 'never'.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply regarding the factor at issue, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.



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It is therefore hardly surprising that in the majority of countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey, most pupils in the fourth year of primary school had a teacher who reported meeting other teachers at least once a month to discuss and plan the curriculum and methods for teaching reading. Meetings of this kind are even more frequent in the Czech Republic, Italy, Hungary, Slovenia, Slovakia, Norway, Bulgaria and Romania, where many teachers say that they meet at least once a week to consider these matters.

In France, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Iceland, meetings on this subject are far less frequent.

THE SALARIES OF TEACHERS DEPEND MORE ON THEIR LENGTH OF SERVICE THAN THE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT WHICH THEY TEACH

The terms governing remuneration are an essential aspect of any profession. In order to compare the financial situation of teachers in the various countries, Figures D37 to D39 set out the minimum and maximum basic teacher salaries, by educational level, as a percentage of per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is an indicator of the standard of living of a country's population. This report provides a comparison of the salary status of teachers from one country to the next. However, it should be noted that the basic salary excludes salary allowances and benefits other than those linked to length of service. These elements, which may represent a significant proportion of a teacher's salary in some countries,, are not taken into account in Figures D37 to D39.

Except in Sweden, teacher salaries in all countries are fixed with reference to a salary scale generally determined at national level. Where teachers are career civil servants, the salary scale may be established for the entire civil service, even if it includes special features related to the particular characteristics of the teaching profession. Criteria governing progression on the scale, as well as the speed of movement up it and the number of grades vary from one country to the next. The most common criteria include the number of years of service, additional qualifications and merit, etc. In some countries, salaries may rise in accordance with individual criteria considered separately, whereas in other cases the same criteria are considered in combination. For this reason, the salaries of teachers at the beginning and end of their career may vary. The Figures therefore illustrate the minimum and maximum extremes of the basic salary scale without taking account of criteria other than the length of service.

In 12 countries or regions, minimum and maximum basic teacher salaries are identical at all three educational levels (primary, lower secondary and upper secondary). This applies to most of the new EU Member States and Bulgaria, but also to Greece, Portugal and the United Kingdom. The basic salaries of teachers in primary and general lower secondary education are also exactly the same in four countries with a single structure, namely the Czech Republic, Denmark, Iceland and Norway (Figure B1), as well as in Belgium (in the case of minimum salaries in the Flemish Community) and Austria (the *Hauptschulen*). From the 2005/06 school year, this will also apply to the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium. The basic salaries of teachers are the same in lower secondary and general upper secondary education in Spain, Ireland, Luxembourg and Romania. Finally, in the six other countries (Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Finland and Liechtenstein), salaries rise with the level of education at which teachers work.

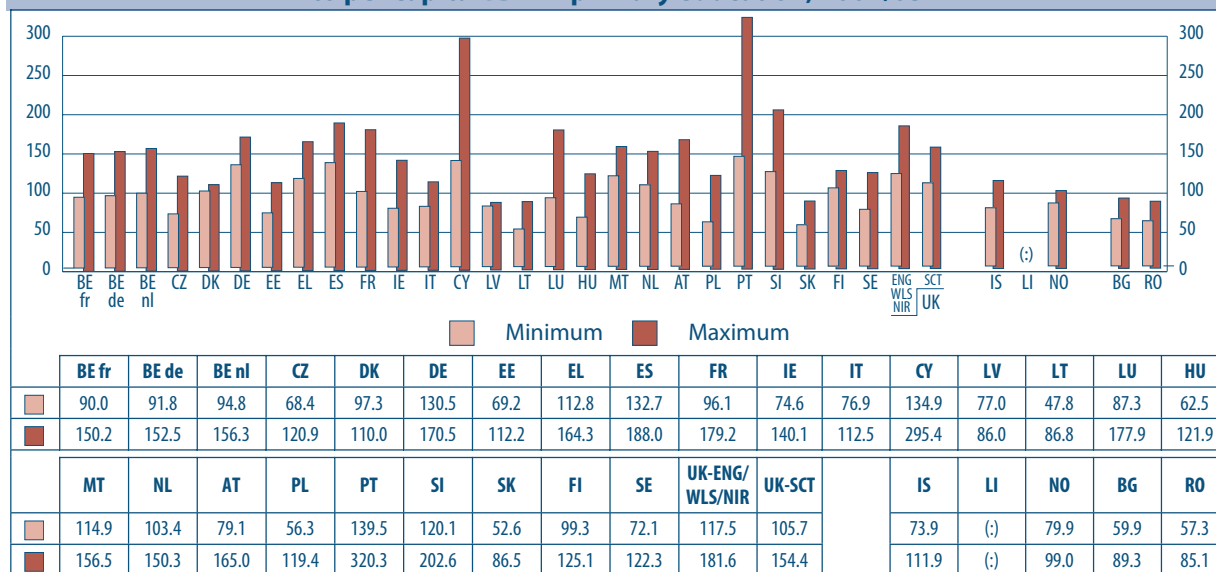
In the majority of European countries, minimum basic teacher salaries in primary and general lower secondary education are lower than per capita GDP. Teachers therefore need to have completed a certain number of years in service and/or to have satisfied other conditions before their salary is higher than per capita GDP. In Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, Norway, Bulgaria and Romania, the basic gross annual salaries of teachers remain less than per capita GDP.



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In general upper secondary education the situation is different, especially as regards maximum salaries. Minimum salaries are less than the cost of living index in the new EU Member States (except Cyprus, Malta and Slovenia), Ireland, Italy, Austria, Sweden, Iceland, Norway and Bulgaria. Maximum basic salaries lower than per capita GDP are most uncommon and are only reported in three new Member States (Latvia, Lithuania and Slovakia) and Bulgaria.

Figure D37: Minimum and maximum basic gross annual teacher salaries relative to per capita GDP in primary education, 2002/03



Sources: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Following an upgrading, teacher salaries in primary education will reach the level of those in lower secondary education in 2004 (in the Flemish Community) and in 2005 (in the French and German-speaking Communities). National per capita GDP is taken into account (instead of per capita GDP by Communities).

Czech Republic and Hungary: These data include bonuses, increases and allowances, and correspond to estimates of average salaries for all teachers.

Denmark: Part of the salary has been negotiated at local level since the reform of 2000. The maximum basic salary shown is the amount agreed at central level.

Germany: Given the complexity and wide variety of circumstances, teacher salaries are calculated with reference to the average age at the start of a career (which depends on the age at which studies begin and how long they last) and to salaries in the west German *Länder*.

Spain: Depending on the particular Autonomous Community, minimum and maximum basic salaries may vary between 124 % and 151.2 %, and between 172.4 % and 222.5 % of per capita GDP, respectively. The Figure represents average salaries.

Lithuania: The salaries are those of teachers with a university (ISCED 5A) qualification.

Netherlands: Salaries were indexed-linked on 1 March 2003 and this is taken into account in the Figure.

Portugal: Only the salaries of teachers who hold a *Licenciatura* are shown. The food allowance is included.

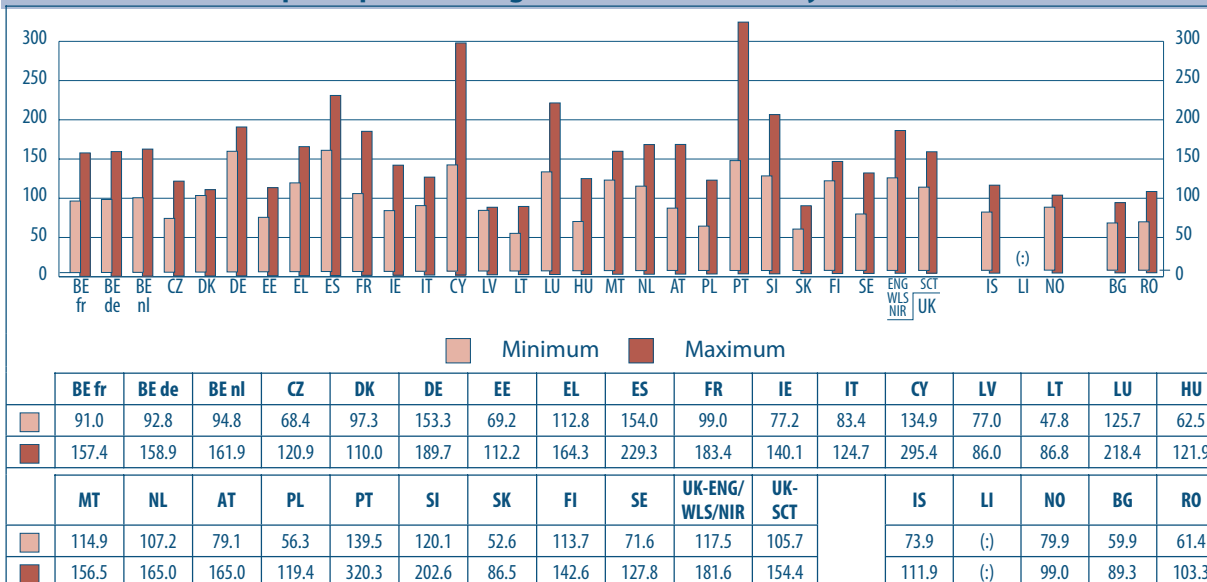
Sweden: There is no salary scale so data are based on information gathered at the end of 2002.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Salaries shown include inner London allowance. Common pay scales are in operation across the rest of England, Wales and Northern Ireland. It is unlikely that a teacher would reach retirement without receiving any additional allowances for specific responsibilities. Progression to the maximum is not automatic.

United Kingdom (SCT): Under the terms of an agreement on teacher salaries and working conditions reached in January 2001, teachers were guaranteed a minimum salary increase of 23.1 % over three years from April 2001.

Liechtenstein: Per capita GDP not available.

Figure D38: Minimum and maximum basic gross annual teacher salaries relative to per capita GDP in general lower secondary education, 2002/03



Sources: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: National per capita GDP is taken into account (instead of per capita GDP by Communities).

Czech Republic, Denmark, Lithuania, Hungary, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom and Liechtenstein: See Figure D37.

Germany: See Figure D37. Only the salaries of *Realschule* teachers are considered. For the salaries of *Gymnasium* teachers, see Figure D39.

Spain: Depending on the particular Autonomous Community, minimum and maximum basic salaries may vary between 146.8 % and 170.8 %, and between 212.2 % and 258.2 % of per capita GDP, respectively. The Figure represents average salaries.

Austria: The data refer to *Hauptschule* teachers. Salaries of teachers in *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen* are shown in Figure D39.

Norway: The salaries shown are those of an *adjunkt* (four years of initial training). Following an agreement reached in 2001, salaries have increased considerably, along with the workload of teachers.

Explanatory note for Figures D37, D38 and D39

The data relate to teachers with the minimum qualifications required who are single, childless and work in the capital city of their country.

The reference calendar year for per capita GDP is 2002. The reference period for salaries is the calendar year 2002 or the 2002/03 school year.

The values indicated in the diagram are obtained by establishing a relation between the (minimum and maximum) basic gross annual salary in national currency and per capita GDP (at current prices in national currency) in the country concerned.

The **basic gross annual salary** is the amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month (where applicable), and holidays, etc. less employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary takes into account no taxation at source, other salary adjustment or financial benefit (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime, additional responsibilities, geographical area, the obligation to teach mixed or difficult classes, or accommodation, health or travel costs).

The **minimum salary** is the salary received by teachers in the above-mentioned circumstances, at the start of their career.

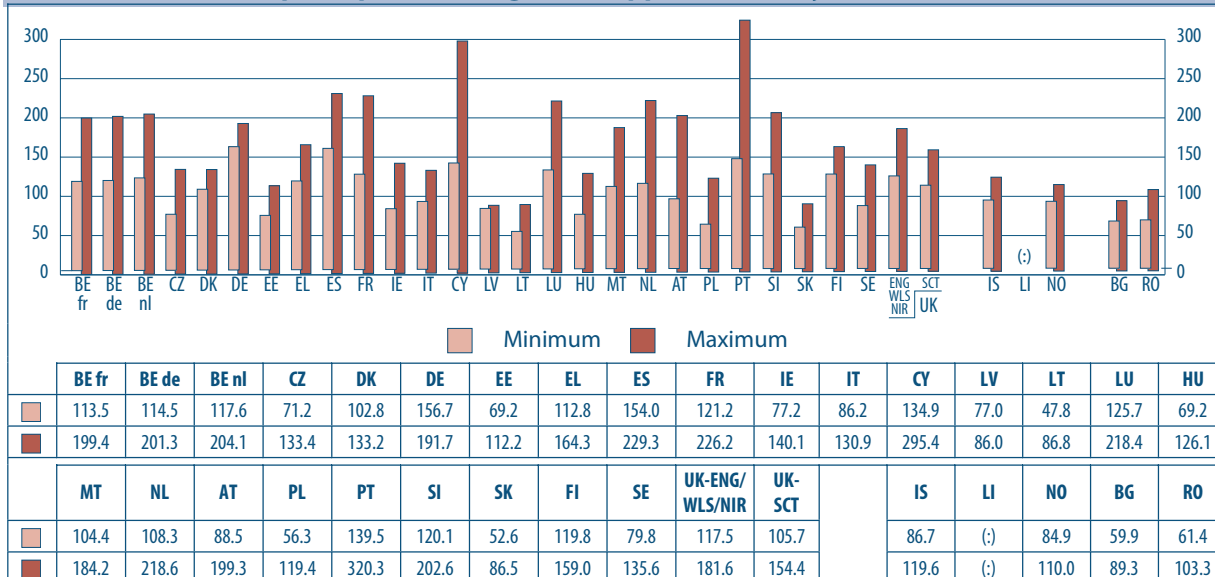
The **maximum salary** is the salary received by teachers in the above-mentioned circumstances on retirement or after a certain number of years of service, without taking into account salary adjustments or financial benefits linked to any criteria other than length of service.

The raw data used to prepare these Figures are available for each country and year of education in the database on Teacher and School Head Salaries in Primary and Secondary Education at <http://www.eurydice.org>.



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Figure D39: Minimum and maximum basic gross annual teacher salaries relative to per capita GDP in general upper secondary education, 2002/03



Sources: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium, Spain: See Figure D38.

Czech Republic, Denmark, Lithuania, Hungary, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR) and Liechtenstein: See Figure D37.

Germany: See Figure D37. The data refer to *Gymnasium* teachers.

Netherlands: See Figure D37. The salaries shown are those of teachers in VWO schools.

Austria: The data relate to teachers in *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen*.

United Kingdom (SCT): See Figure D37. The maximum salary is that of a teacher who has not been promoted.

Norway: See Figure D38. The salaries shown are those of a *lektor* (five or sometimes five and a half years of initial teacher education).

In almost all the new EU Member States, as well as Bulgaria and Romania, basic teacher salaries relative to per capita GDP are much lower than those in the European Union prior to enlargement. Only in Cyprus, Malta and Slovenia do teachers earn salaries comparable to those in the EU-15 countries. The average difference between teacher salaries relative to per capita GDP in the new Member States and candidate countries, and the corresponding figures for the European Union before enlargement has fallen slightly since 2000/01. However, in six countries (Estonia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Romania), basic teacher salaries relative to per capita GDP (at current prices) have decreased since 2000/01. In these countries, therefore, salaries are not keeping pace with the rate of economic growth and/or inflation. The average basic minimum salary relative to per capita GDP in the 15 EU member countries before 1 May 2004 changed little after 2000/01, while the maximum salary decreased slightly.

The relation between maximum and minimum basic annual salaries is a pointer to long-term prospects of teachers in terms of salary increases they can reasonably expect throughout their careers if only their length of service is taken into account. On this basis, maximum and minimum levels generally differ by less than a factor of two. In Denmark (primary and lower secondary education) and Latvia, teachers may hope for no more than very modest salary increases (corresponding to some 10 %). However, in Cyprus, Luxembourg (in the case of teachers in primary education), the Netherlands (for teachers in general upper secondary education), Austria, Poland and Portugal, salaries may reach more than double their original level.

This fact, together with the frequency of salary increases, may explain why teaching may be more attractive at some stages of a career than others. Clearly, teachers whose salaries rise significantly throughout their



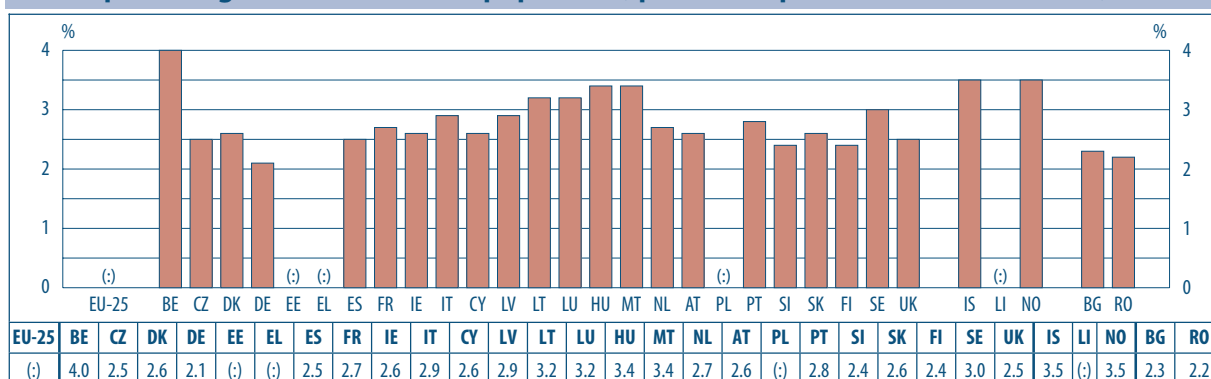
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entire career may be less inclined to leave the profession than those whose salaries do not progress beyond the first few years of experience. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), measures introduced in 2000 sought to extend the salary scale of teachers who had reached its upper limit to encourage them to remain in the profession.

TEACHERS REPRESENT OVER 2 % OF THE ACTIVE POPULATION IN EACH EUROPEAN COUNTRY

In 2002, teachers accounted for over 2 % of the economically active population in all European countries. In almost half of the EU Member States for which data are available, teachers represented between 2.4 % and 2.6 % of the active population. However, cross-country comparison of the percentages should be treated with caution because of the very different ways in which education systems are organised (in terms of the length of compulsory education and teachers' working time) and demographic factors (variations in the active population as a proportion of the total population).

**Figure D40: Teachers in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3)
as a percentage of the total active population, public and private sectors combined, 2002**



Source: Eurostat, UOE and Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers in the German-speaking Community and those working in independent private institutions are not included. Neither are teachers in the French Community working in education for 'social advancement'. ISCED 4 is included.

Spain, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway: ISCED 4 is included (partially in the case of Iceland).

Luxembourg: The Figure relates solely to the public sector.

Netherlands: ISCED 0 is included.

Finland: ISCED 3 data include ISCED levels 4 and 5 in the case of technical and vocational courses.

Explanatory note

Only teachers involved in providing direct instruction are taken into account. The data include teachers in special education and others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Staff assigned tasks other than teaching and trainees or teachers' aides are not included. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors at ISCED levels 1, 2 and 3 are included in the numerator.

The active population corresponds to the total number of employed and unemployed persons in the population. Data concerning the active population (in the denominator) are derived from the Labour Force Survey (second quarter of 2002).

The proportion of teachers in the total active population varies by a factor of between one and almost two depending on the country concerned. Teachers accounted for between 2.1 % (Germany) and around 3.5 % (Hungary, Malta, Iceland and Norway) of the active population in 2002. It is in Belgium that they represent the highest proportion (4 %) of the active population, but teaching staff in non-tertiary post-secondary education (ISCED 4) are included and provision of this kind is fairly widespread.



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WOMEN TEACHERS OUTNUMBER MEN IN BOTH PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

Women account for the majority of teachers in both primary and secondary education. However, their representation decreases sometimes markedly the higher the level of education in almost all countries for which data are available.

Figure D41: Percentage of women teachers in primary education (ISCED 1) and secondary education (ISCED 2 and 3), public and private sectors combined, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers in the German-speaking Community and those working in independent private institutions are not included. Neither are teachers in the French Community working in education for social advancement. ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2 and ISCED 4.

Spain, Norway and United Kingdom: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4.

Lithuania: Only teachers working on the vocational curriculum are included in ISCED 3. Teachers of the general ISCED 3 curriculum are included in ISCED 2.

Luxembourg: The Figure relates solely to the public sector.

Netherlands: ISCED 1 includes ISCED 0.

Finland: The ISCED 3 data include ISCED levels 4 and 5 in the case of technical and vocational courses.

Iceland: ISCED 3 partially includes ISCED 4.

Explanatory note

Only teachers involved in providing direct instruction are taken into account. Data include teachers in special education and all others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors are included. Trainee or teacher's aides are not included.



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In 2002 in all European Union countries (except Luxembourg) over 70 % of teachers in primary education (ISCED 1) were women. In four countries (Italy, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia), teachers at this level were almost exclusively women with a representation of over 95 %.

The proportion of women teachers in lower secondary education (ISCED 2) is not as high as in primary education (ISCED 1), although they are still easily in the majority. In Germany, Ireland, Malta and the United Kingdom where they are present in proportionally the fewest numbers, they still represent 59 % of teachers. In the other countries they easily outnumber men. The proportion of women teachers in lower secondary education is highest (over 80 %) in the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary.

While the proportion of women in upper secondary education is less striking, they remain in the majority. Thus they outnumber men in nearly all countries, accounting for between some 50 % of teachers in France, Austria and Sweden and 76 % in Latvia. The exceptions are Germany, Spain, Malta, Iceland and Norway where women account for less than half of all teachers (between 34 % and 47 %). In secondary education (ISCED 2 and 3 combined), less than half of all teachers in Luxembourg and the Netherlands are women.

IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, A SUBSTANTIAL PROPORTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ARE IN THE 40-49 AGE GROUP

In Denmark, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, teachers in primary education are relatively old: the two most strongly represented age groups are 40-49-year-olds and 50-year-olds or over.

At the same time, in 11 other countries (Belgium, France, Ireland, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria, Portugal, Slovenia, Finland, Iceland and Bulgaria), the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups are the largest. Between them, they account for almost 56 % of teachers in Ireland and over 73 % in Bulgaria.

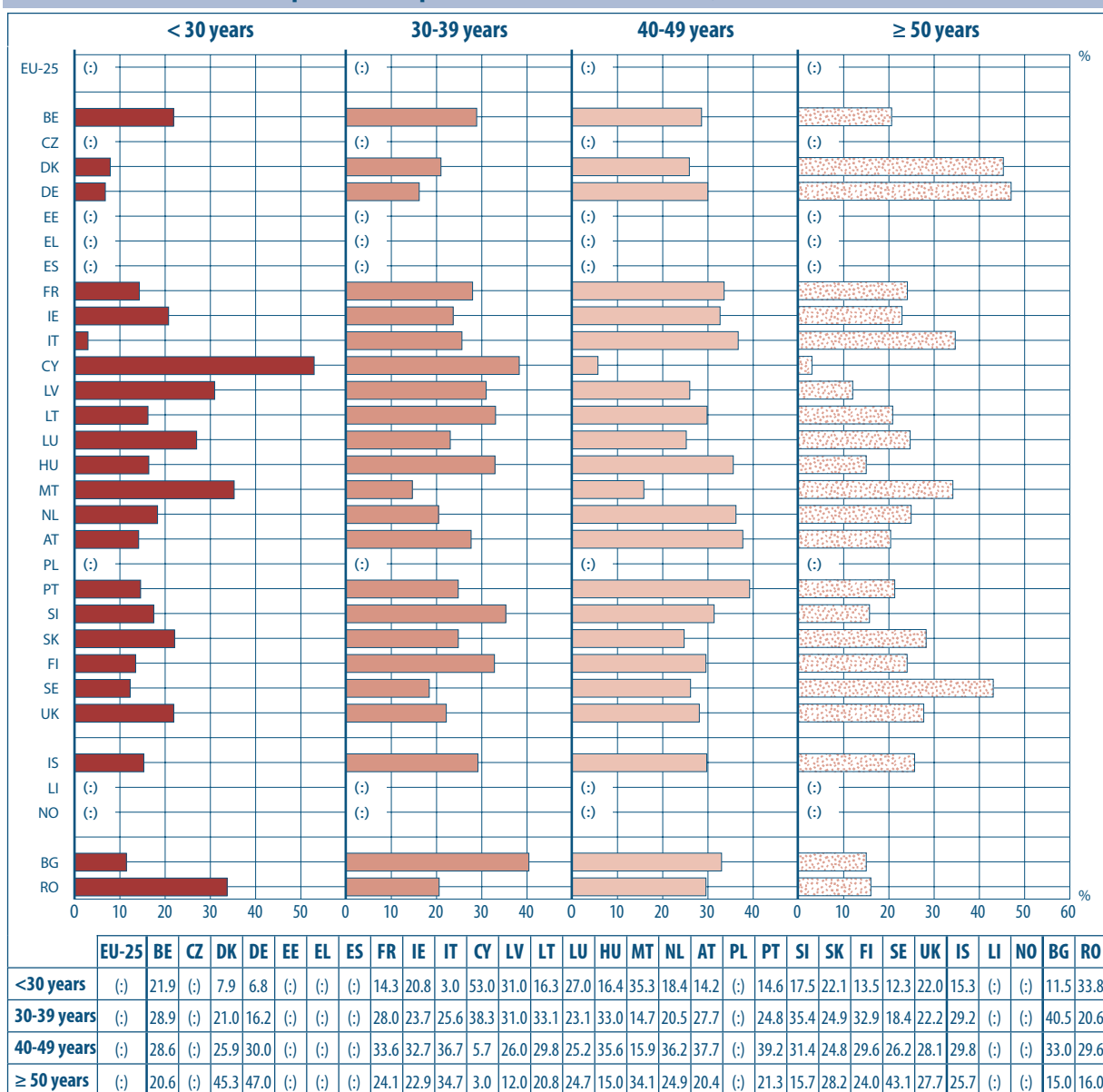
Primary school teachers are youngest in Cyprus and Latvia, where those aged under 30 and 30-39-year-olds are the most strongly represented (over 60 %).

In Luxembourg and Slovakia, the breakdown of teachers by age is fairly evenly balanced. Each age group accounts for around a quarter of teachers. In Malta, on the other hand, those aged under 30 and those 50 or over are the most strongly represented numerically.



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Figure D42: Distribution of teachers by age group in primary education (ISCED 1), public and private sectors combined, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers in the German-speaking Community and those working in independent private institutions are not included.

Denmark and Iceland: Teachers at ISCED level 2 are included.

Luxembourg: The Figure relates solely to the public sector.

Netherlands: Teachers at ISCED level 0 are included.

Explanatory note

Only teachers involved in providing direct instruction are taken into account. Data include teachers in special education and others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors are included. Trainees or teachers' aides are not included.



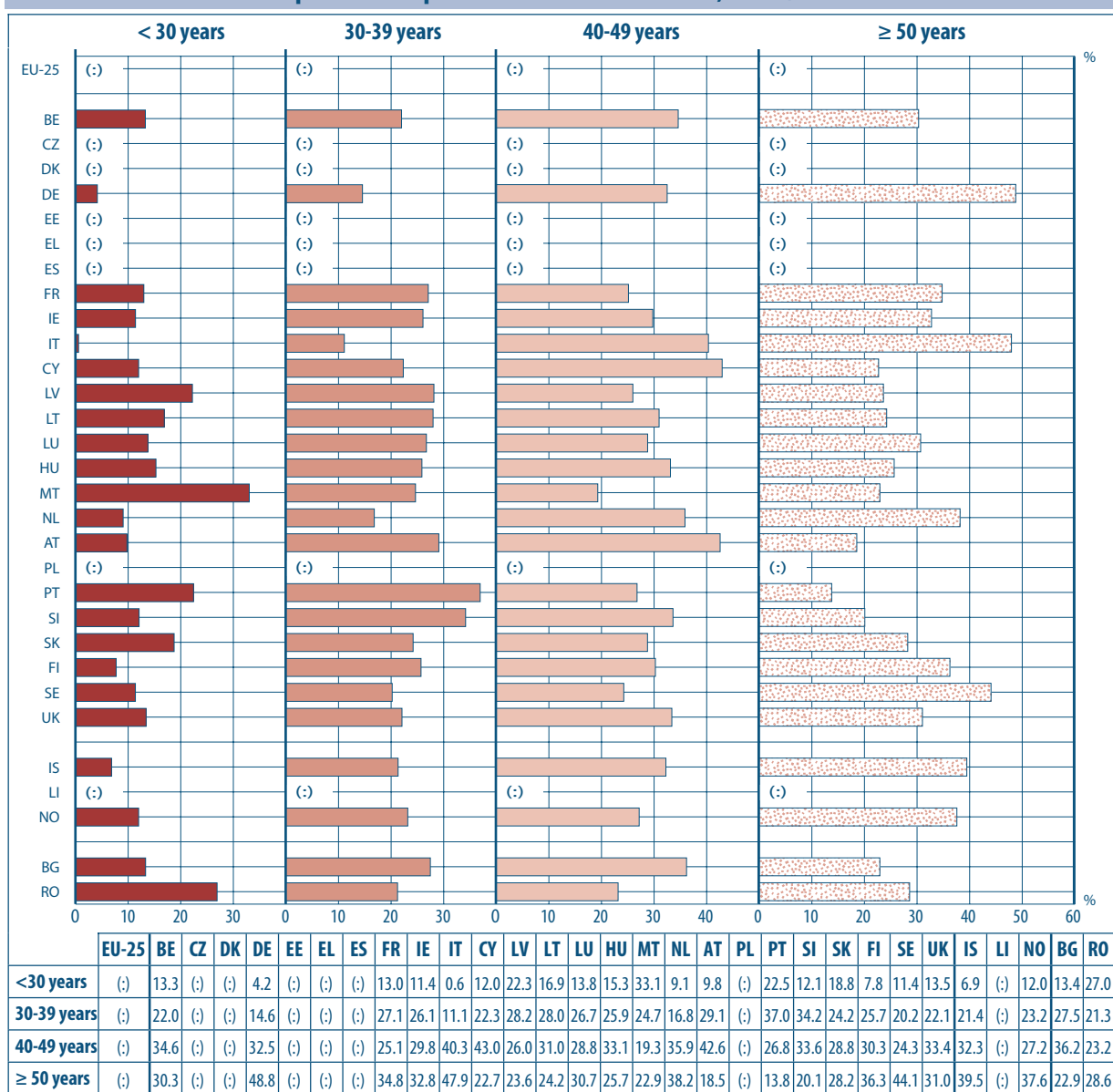
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TEACHERS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION ARE OLDER THAN THOSE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

In the great majority of countries for which data are available, teachers in secondary education are older than those in primary education (see Figure D42), where the percentage of those aged 40 is not as high. Lithuania, Malta and Portugal are exceptions in this respect.

In Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and Iceland, teachers aged 50 or over account for more than 38 % of all teachers.

Figure D43: Distribution of teachers by age group in secondary education (ISCED 2 and 3), public and private sectors combined, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

Additional notes (Figure D43)

Belgium: Teachers in the German-speaking Community and those working in independent private institutions are not included. Teachers in the French Community working in education for ‘social advancement’ are not included. Teachers at ISCED level 4 are included.

Luxembourg: The Figure relates solely to the public sector.

Finland: ISCED 3 data include ISCED levels 4 and 5 in the case of vocational and technical programmes.

United Kingdom: Teachers at ISCED level 4 are included.

Iceland: Teachers at ISCED level 2 are excluded while those at ISCED level 4 are partially included.

Norway: Teachers at ISCED levels 1 and 4 are included.

Explanatory note

Data take account of teachers involved in providing direct instruction. They include teachers in special education and others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors are included. Trainees or teachers’ aides are not included.

Teachers in secondary education are youngest in Latvia, Malta and Portugal. In Latvia and Portugal, the 30-39-year-old age group is the most strongly represented numerically, while in Malta those aged under 30 account for a third of all teachers.

PART-TIME WORK IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION IS BECOMING MORE WIDESPREAD

On comparing the percentages of teachers working part-time in 1998 and 2001, it becomes clear that part-time work has been expanding in a majority of countries at the three levels of education (primary, lower secondary and upper secondary). This does not apply to Latvia, Slovakia and Iceland. In Latvia, part-time work among teachers in primary education (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2) has diminished, whereas in Slovakia part-time work among teachers in upper secondary education has fallen off. In Iceland, the percentage of teachers working part-time has decreased at all levels of education.

Between 1998 and 2002, the percentage of teachers working part-time in primary education (ISCED 1) almost doubled in Austria. In the other countries for which data are available for both years, the growth in part-time work among primary school teachers was not as strong, with the most significant increases ranging between 7 % (in Germany and Sweden) and 23 % in Ireland.

In 2002 in Slovakia, proportionally five times as many teachers occupied a part-time post in lower secondary education (ISCED 2) as was the case in 1998. At this level, part-time employment grew by some 20 % in Germany, Austria and Finland.

In upper secondary education (ISCED 3), the proportion of teachers working part-time has risen sharply in Spain, Lithuania and Slovenia where growth rates of some 36-73 % have been recorded. By contrast, in Slovakia, the proportion of teachers working part-time at this level has fallen by 20 %.

In 2002, part-time work was particularly widespread in Belgium, Germany, Latvia, the Netherlands, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, concerning around a quarter or more of teachers at the three levels of education. By contrast, in Italy and Cyprus, fewer than 5 % of teaching staff (irrespective of the level concerned) were working part-time.

In general, the proportion of teachers who work part-time increases slightly with the level of education. In many countries, part-time teaching is most widespread in upper secondary education. However, in Spain, France and Romania, it is more extensive in lower secondary education. In Germany and the Netherlands, the proportion of teachers working part-time is highest in primary education.



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Figure D44: Changes in the percentage of teachers working part-time in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 1998 to 2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers in the German-speaking Community and those working in independent private institutions are not included. Teachers in the French Community working in education for 'social advancement' are not included. ISCED level 4 is included in ISCED level 2+3.

Spain and United Kingdom: ISCED level 3 includes ISCED level 4.

Ireland: ISCED level 4 is included in ISCED level 2+3.

Lithuania: In the case of 1998, ISCED level 3 includes teachers working on vocational programmes at ISCED levels 2 and 4. In the case of 2002, ISCED level 3 includes solely teachers in vocational programmes. Those working in general ISCED level 3 programmes are included in ISCED level 2.



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Additional notes (continued)

Luxembourg: The Figure relates solely to the public sector.

Netherlands: ISCED level 1 includes ISCED level 0.

Austria: In the case of 1998, school management staff are included.

Finland: ISCED 3 data include ISCED levels 4 and 5 in the case of vocational and technical programmes.

Iceland and Norway: ISCED level 3 includes ISCED level 4 (partially in the case of Iceland).

Explanatory note

Teachers with a workload less than 90 percent of the full-time workload are considered to be part-time. All systems of part-time work are taken into account.

Only teachers involved in providing direct instruction are taken into account. Data include teachers in special education and all others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors are included. Trainees or teachers' aides are not included.

MOST TEACHERS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION HAVE A TERTIARY LEVEL QUALIFICATION

In countries for which PIRLS 2001 data are available, the great majority of teachers who work with pupils in the fourth year of primary education have a tertiary-level qualification (ISCED 5), except in Italy and Romania where a large majority of them hold at most a qualification at upper secondary level (ISCED 3). This exception also applies to almost half of teachers of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in France.

The presence of teachers with at most an upper secondary education qualification (ISCED level 3) is mainly attributable to the fact that, in some countries, teacher training for primary education was for a long time – or still is – provided in training institutions awarding upper secondary level qualifications. A shortage of qualified teachers may also explain why persons who have not obtained a qualification from tertiary education are employed and work as teachers. The explanation thus varies with the country concerned.

In the case of Romania, the high proportion of teachers with at most an upper secondary education qualification (ISCED level 3) is attributable to the fact that this training path still exists at present. The other training option is provided at the level of non-university tertiary education (Figure D23). The far lower proportion of Romanian teachers who say they have an ISCED level 5 qualification corresponds to those who were trained for secondary education and work in primary education.

The position of France and Italy is attributable to the presence of older teachers who underwent the previous pattern of training. Indeed, initial teacher education has witnessed major changes over the past 25 years, especially as regards the level of education at which initial training is provided⁽¹⁾. Reforms in these countries occurred later than in the majority of other European countries (where they generally date from the 1960s). It was not until the 1980s (in France) and the 1990s (in Italy) that teacher training for primary education was provided entirely at tertiary level. This may explain why a big proportion of teachers working in primary education in France and Italy in 2001 still held a qualification at a level equivalent to upper secondary education (ISCED 3).

In Iceland, teachers with at most an upper secondary education qualification (ISCED level 3) are fully qualified and have been trained in teacher training college which, before 1971, offered qualifications at this level.

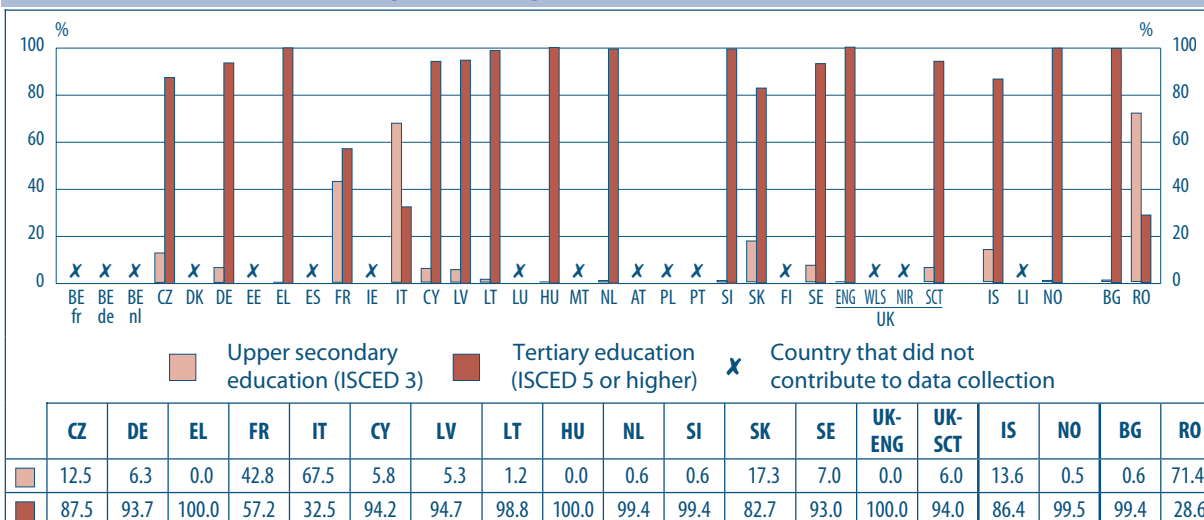
In the Czech Republic and Slovakia – countries that have had to confront teacher shortages – the emergency recruitment of staff who are not fully or appropriately qualified may very largely account for the proportions of teachers whose highest qualification is from upper secondary education (ISCED level 3).

⁽¹⁾ See Chapter H on the background to initial teacher training for primary education in *Key Data on education in the European Union - 1995*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1996.



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Figure D45: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education, whose teachers report having completed studies at a level corresponding to upper secondary or tertiary education, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Additional note

Iceland: ISCED level 3 includes a small proportion of teachers who do not have the secondary education qualification.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate their highest level of studies. ISCED levels 3, 4 and 5 were replaced in the questionnaire by national terms, so the interpretation of results had to take account of translations and national forms of organisation. ISCED levels 4 and 5 in the questionnaire have been included in the Figure under the heading 'ISCED 5 or higher'. In a few countries, ISCED level 5 may include a small proportion of teachers (under 10 %) trained at ISCED level 4.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply regarding the factor at issue, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey and for the ISCED definition, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

THE OFFICIAL RETIREMENT AGE FOR TEACHERS IS OFTEN 65

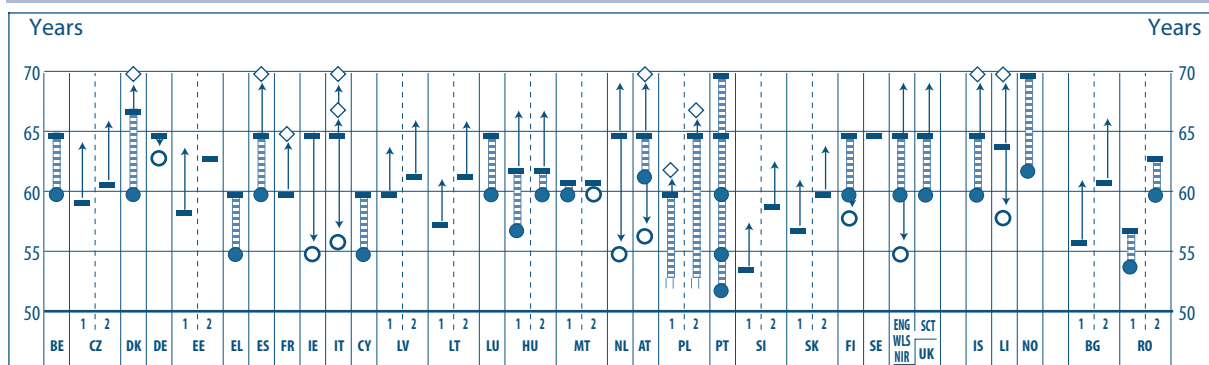
In virtually all European countries, there is an official age of retirement which sets the limit beyond which teachers no longer continue their occupational activity, except in special circumstances. This upper age limit is in most cases 65 years of age. It is 60 in Greece and Poland (in the case of women), and is 70 in Portugal (the second and third stages of *ensino básico*) and Norway.

In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Slovakia and Bulgaria, the official age of retirement corresponds to a lower age limit following which teachers may cease their occupational activity and secure a pension. In these countries, there is no upper limit or maximum age threshold, beyond which they can no longer work. The official age of retirement is well below 65. Reforms are underway to place it between 60 and 63 years of age depending on the country concerned.



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Figure D46: Retirement age of teachers in primary and secondary education, 2002/03



1 | 2 Women | Men

— Official retirement age(s)

● Minimum retirement age
(with full pension entitlement subject to completion of the number of years of service required)

○ Minimum retirement age
(with reduced pension entitlement)

◇ Maximum age to which service may be extended beyond official retirement age, subject to conditions

→ Opportunities for extension / earlier retirement

▤ The vertical bands illustrate the age ranges during which retirement with full pension entitlement is possible subject to completion of the number of years' service required (and shown in the table below).

Number of years of service required for full pension entitlement in cases where retirement at a minimum age is possible

BE	CZ	DE		EE	EL	ES		IE	IT	CY		LV	LT	LU	HU
37.5 – 41.25	25	35-37		⊗	30	30-35		⊗	⊗	33.3		⊗	⊗	30-35	34-38
MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO	
30	40	35-40	30	32-30-36	⊗	⊗	30	⊗	40	32	⊗	30	⊗	25 (w), 30 (m)	

⊗ Retirement before the official retirement age is not possible

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: The possibility to retire earlier than at the minimum retirement age, i.e. at the age of 55, still exists in the French Community. Since 2002/03, the age of 55 has been raised to 58 in the Flemish Community, with extensive temporary measures for teachers aged between 50 and 54. This will also be the case in the German-speaking Community in 2005/06.

Czech Republic: Since the law of 1996, the retirement age has been raised each year by a few months with a view to reaching 61 for women and 62 for men in 2007. The retirement age of women is being lowered in accordance with the number of children. It is also possible to retire two or three years earlier.

Denmark: At the minimum retirement age, every Danish citizen is entitled to a pension whose amount rises with the number of years of service.

Estonia: By 2016, the official retirement age for women will also be 63.

Greece: Since 2002, teachers who were appointed before 31 December 1982 may retire at the age of 55, and those who were appointed after 1 January 1983 may do so at the age of 60.

France: Since 2003, the number of years of service required has been changing progressively and will reach 40 in 2008. It will be possible to include in that period up to three of the years that have to be spent studying.

Latvia: Since the law of 2000, the retirement age for women is being raised by six months every year to reach 62 in 2006.

Lithuania: Since 1995, the retirement age has been raised each year by a few months with a view to reaching 62 ½ years for men in 2003 and 60 for women in 2006.



RESOURCES

Additional notes (continued)

Austria: The figure illustrates the situation of teachers who are civil servants. In the case of teachers employed under contract, the retirement age is 60 for women and 65 for men. The number of years required for full pension entitlement is 40 for contract teachers.

Portugal: The diagram combines the situation of teachers working in the first stage of *ensino básico* (whose official retirement age is 65 but who can retire from the age of 52 or 55 onwards), and that of teachers in the second and third stages (whose official retirement age is 70 but who can retire from the age of 60 onwards).

Slovenia: The 1999 law, which is being progressively implemented up to 2014, fixes the official age of retirement at 58 for both women and men, subject to their having completed 38 and 40 years of service respectively. Years of service completed after the official retirement age are taken into account in determining the pension entitlement up to the age of 64 for women and 66 for men.

Slovakia: The retirement age of women becomes lower as the number of children they have increases (53 years of age is the minimum). It is being raised each year by a few months with a view to reaching 62 for women and men.

Finland: The official retirement age varies between 63 and 65 depending on various criteria except for teachers who were working in comprehensive schools in the summer of 1989 and who were entitled to opt for retirement at 60. The reform of the pension scheme in 2005 will introduce the retirement age of 63-68.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): In June 2003 the government announced that the normal pension age for teachers would rise to 65. Changes will be phased in from 2006.

Iceland: Teachers appointed before 1997 may retire after 35 years of service provided they have reached the age of 60, after 34 years of service if they have reached the age of 61, and so on.

Bulgaria: In compliance with the legislation, the retirement age is subject to changes on an annual basis.

Romania: The law of 2000, which is being progressively implemented between 2000 and 2013, sets the retirement age at 60 for women and 65 for men. The number of years of service required is being raised to 30 for women and 35 for men.

In many countries, teachers are able to retire before they reach official retirement age. In general, the normal minimum age at which they can retire is around 60 and carries with it full pension entitlement when they have completed the number of years of service required. This number varies widely from one country to the next and is, for example, 30 years of service in Spain (for teachers who are civil servants) and Norway, or between 35 years (Austria) and 40 (Belgium). Additional or 'bonus' years (such as those spent studying or doing military service) may also sometimes be authorised for inclusion in this period, as is the case in Belgium. It should be noted that Poland is the only country to have retained arrangements for retirement after 30 years of service (including 20 years of actual teaching) without specifying a minimum retirement age.

In Malta (in the case of men), Finland (in the case of teachers appointed after 1993) and Sweden, reaching the official age is the sole acceptable criterion for retirement, and it is not possible to retire any earlier.

In some countries, the pension of those who retire before they reach official retirement age is reduced in proportion to the number of years of service still normally outstanding. This is the case in Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and Liechtenstein. In Belgium and Austria (for teachers who are civil servants), it may be possible to retire from teaching earlier than the minimum retirement age. Where this occurs, it leads to reduced salary in Belgium ('waiting salary') and to a reduction of the pension entitlement in Austria. In many countries, mainly including new EU Member States, teachers may extend their career beyond official retirement age. However, a maximum age limit is fixed in Denmark, Spain, Italy, Austria, Poland, Iceland and Liechtenstein. In several countries, teachers may take retirement later than the official age if they have not completed the number of years of service entitling them to a full pension (as is the case in Spain, Italy and Poland). In the United Kingdom, an extension is also possible subject to an agreement with the employer. In France, the official age of retirement is 60. However, teachers may continue their careers until the age of 65 without having to satisfy any particular requirements.



SECTION II – TEACHERS

In the majority of countries, the criteria governing the age of retirement are the same for both men and women. However, differences exist in Austria (solely in the case of contracted teachers) and in several central and east European countries. While, in most of these cases, women may secure their pension earlier than men, the tendency has been to lessen this difference between them. Ongoing reforms in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia and Slovakia are aiming to minimise it or abolish it altogether.

RETIREMENT IS SOUGHT AS EARLY AS POSSIBLE BY A MAJORITY OF TEACHERS

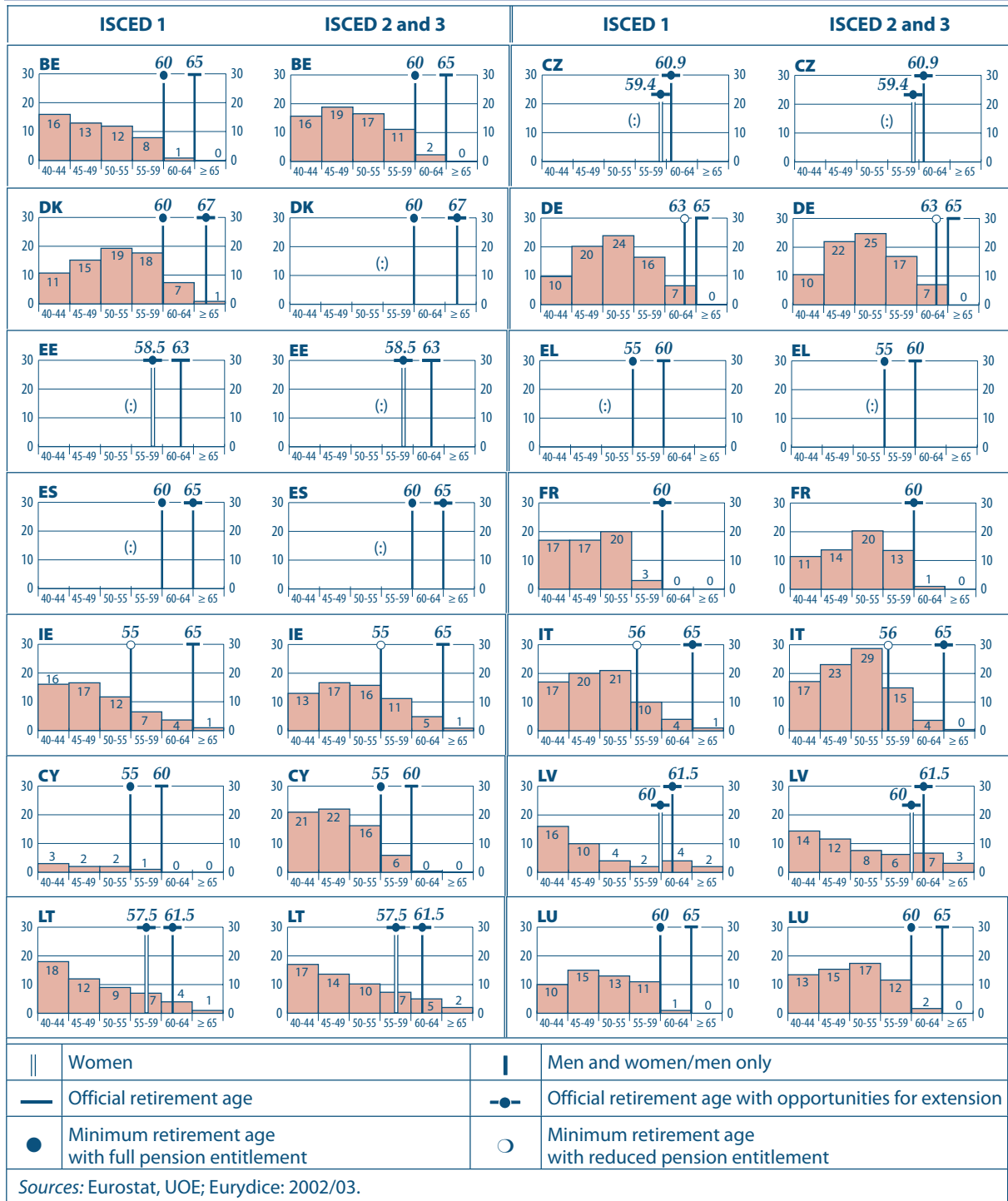
Overall, in countries for which data are available, the great majority of teachers retire from their profession as soon as they are offered an opportunity to do so, whether in primary or secondary education. Teachers thus retire when they have completed the required number of years and/or reached the minimum age for full pension entitlement. However, in Denmark (in primary education), Cyprus, Portugal and Norway (in secondary education), a significant percentage of teachers remain in their occupation after the minimum retirement age. Much the same occurs in Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and Austria. In these four countries, this situation may be attributable to the fact that retirement at the minimum age results in a lower pension (Figure D46).

Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia and Iceland (secondary education) are the only countries where a significant proportion of teachers (around 5 %) continue working beyond official retirement age. In these countries, it is possible for teachers to extend their working life without reaching an upper age limit, except in Iceland, where the age is 70. This possibility also exists in 14 other countries but, in cases for which data are available, very few teachers indeed take advantage of it. Teachers close to retirement in Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia and Iceland receive fairly low basic salaries (relative to per capita GDP), which may partially explain this situation if other existing salary adjustments or financial benefits are not taken into account (Figures D37 to D39).

The same data may also be used to forecast which countries risk experiencing problems of teacher shortage in the years ahead, if the situation remains unchanged in all other respects. Countries where proportions of teachers in successive age groups over 40 first peak at a high level and then fall, as in Germany or Italy (especially in the case of secondary education), will experience teacher retirement on a very large scale in the near future. The demographic bulge in the diagrams for these countries indicates that the age groups closest to retirement are over-represented. In Germany and Italy (in secondary education), almost 70 % of teachers will retire in the next 20 years. By contrast, in countries where the proportions tend to decrease through the older age groups, as in Belgium (in the case of primary education), Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria, Portugal (in secondary education in particular), Slovenia, Iceland or Bulgaria, retirements will occur more evenly over time.

Cyprus (in the case of primary education) and Malta (in secondary education) are two of the very few countries for which the diagrams represent a very gentle slope and low percentages in the age groups close to retirement. This indicates that their teachers as a whole are evenly spread across these age groups and are fairly young. Indeed, almost 90 % of Cypriot teachers in primary education and 60 % of Maltese teachers in secondary education are under 40. In these countries, few teachers will retire in the next 20 years and almost the same numbers will do so annually.

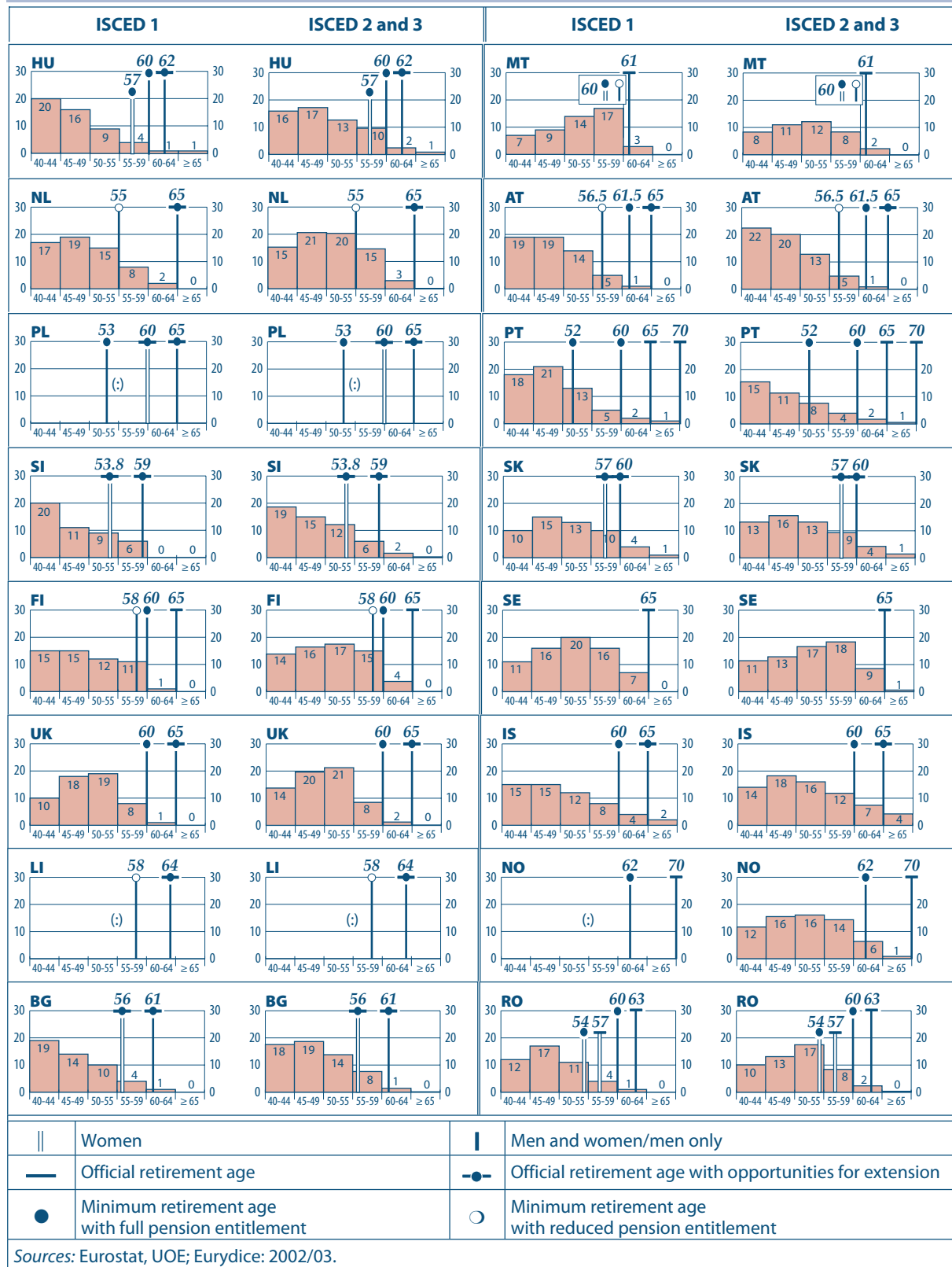
Figure D47: Proportions of teachers in age groups close to retirement in primary education (ISCED 1) and secondary education (ISCED 2 and 3), public and private sectors, 2001/02





SECTION II – TEACHERS

Figure D47 (continued): Proportions of teachers in age groups close to retirement in primary education (ISCED 1) and secondary education (ISCED 2 and 3), public and private sectors, 2001/02



Sources: Eurostat, UOE; Eurydice: 2002/03.



RESOURCES

Additional notes (Figure D47)

Belgium: Teachers in the German-speaking Community and those working in independent private institutions are not included. Teachers in the French Community working in education for 'social advancement' are not included.

Belgium and United Kingdom: Teachers at ISCED 4 are included.

Denmark and Iceland: Teachers at ISCED 2 are included.

Luxembourg: The Figure relates solely to the public sector.

Netherlands: Teachers at ISCED 0 are included.

Finland: Teachers in vocational and technical programmes at ISCED 4 and 5 are included.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Teachers may retire at the age of 55, but with loss of pension entitlement.

Iceland: Teachers at ISCED 4 are partially included.

Norway: Teachers at ISCED 1 and 4 are included.

Explanatory note

Data take account of teachers involved in providing direct instruction. They include teachers in special education and others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors are included. Trainee or auxiliary teachers are not included. Further information on the representation of teachers by age group is given in Figures D42 and D43.



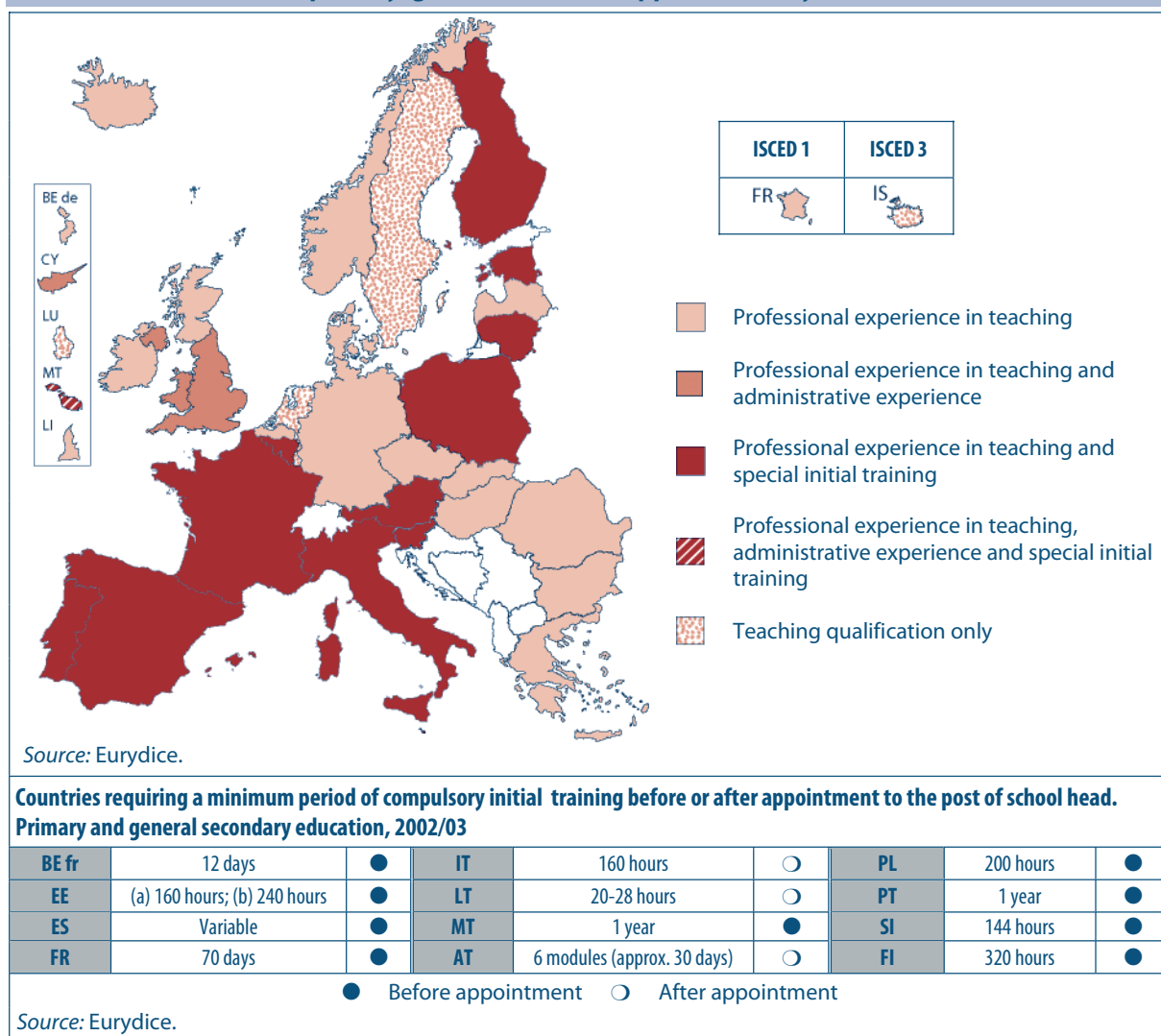
RESOURCES

SECTION III – MANAGEMENT STAFF

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE AND INITIAL TRAINING OFTEN REQUIRED TO BECOME A SCHOOL HEAD

In most countries, a number of different criteria are considered in appointing someone as a school head. They may include professional teaching experience, administrative/managerial experience, special initial training or the requirement that the person concerned should be of good conduct, sound moral character and in good health. In nearly all European countries, there are official documents which set out the requirements expected of those wishing to become school heads, regardless of whether the school concerned provides the whole of compulsory education or a single level of education, be it primary, or general lower or upper secondary.

Figure D48: Professional experience and special initial training officially required in order to be a school head in primary, general lower and upper secondary education, 2002/03





RESOURCES

Additional notes (Figure D48)

Belgium (BE fr): Education administered by the French Community and grant-aided public-sector education. In grant-aided private education, no compulsory training is required.

Belgium (BE de): To be appointed permanently to the position of school head in an establishment administered by the German-speaking Community, a management certificate is required.

Belgium (BE nl): It is up to the competent authority to decide whether prospective school heads have to follow specialised training.

Czech Republic, Hungary, Netherlands, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Iceland: The information also applies to school heads in the entire grant-aided private sector.

Estonia: Duration of training for (a) *algkool* school heads and (b) *põhikool* school heads.

Spain: The duration of initial training depends on the Autonomous Community and training institution concerned.

Latvia: Since 2002, three years of professional experience in teaching have been required.

Luxembourg: The post of school head does not exist in primary education.

Malta: Part-time training lasting two years is also possible.

Austria: The six modules have to be completed over four years. In total, they generally last around six weeks, although the precise period varies from one *Bundesland* to the next.

Poland: 20 hours may be added at the discretion of the training institution.

Finland: The period shown corresponds to a recognised certificate in educational administration (8 credits). A school head may also have obtained 15 credits in school management at university, or have acquired sufficient knowledge in the field.

Sweden: 30 days over a period of 2-3 years are recommended.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): From April 2004, the *National Professional Qualification for Headship* (NPQH) became mandatory for all new headteachers in the maintained sector in England. Similar arrangements are being implemented in Wales from 2005 and it is expected that the *Professional Qualification for Headship* (PQH) will become mandatory in Northern Ireland in due course.

Explanatory note

This indicator is solely concerned with the professional experience in teaching, administrative experience and special initial training required to become a school head in the public sector. Any performance assessment that may have occurred during the period of teaching is not considered here.

‘School head’ is any person heading a school who, alone or within an administrative body such as a board or council, is responsible for its management/administration. Depending on circumstances, the person concerned may also exercise educational responsibilities (which may include teaching tasks, but also responsibility for the general functioning of the institution in areas such as the timetable, implementation of the curriculum, decisions about what is to be taught and the materials and methods used, appraisal of teachers and their performance, etc.) and/or financial responsibilities (often limited to responsibility for administering the resources allocated to the school).

‘Professional experience in teaching’ is a certain number of years working professionally as a classroom teacher, most of the time at the level of education at which the person concerned is seeking appointment as a school head.

‘Administrative experience’ is experience of school management acquired, for example, in the post of deputy school head. The term does not refer to training in management or administration.

‘Special initial training’ is training specifically for headship which takes place subsequent to initial teacher education and qualification as a teacher. It can therefore only be undertaken by those who have already qualified in this way. Depending on circumstances, training may be provided either prior to the initial application for a post as school head or to involvement in the recruitment procedure, or during the one or more early years after taking up a post (on a temporary or permanent basis). It may therefore be provided either before or after the appointment of those concerned. Its aim is to equip them with the skills required to carry out their new duties. It is not to be confused with the in-service or further training of school heads.

At present only four countries, namely Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and Iceland (in upper secondary education) do not officially stipulate **any requirement** linked to professional teaching experience as a condition for appointment to the position of school head. However in practice, those who become school heads often have such experience. In Sweden, those who have acquired skills in the educational field as a result of training or experience may be promoted to headships, and it is recommended that they should undergo special training after taking up their post.

In countries where official documents set out requirements that have to be met by future school heads, **professional teaching experience** is the **minimum condition for appointment**. Its required duration, however, varies (Figure D49). In several countries, this condition is supplemented by one or more other conditions. In the French Community of Belgium, Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Lithuania, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia and Finland, applicants for a post as school head must have worked as teachers and received special initial training. A qualification as a counsellor or mentor is also part of the professional experience required in Slovenia (for the three levels of education considered here). Prospective school heads in Malta must not just have teaching and administrative experience but also have undergone special initial training prior to appointment. In Cyprus and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), school heads must have both teaching and administrative experience and normally have experience in leadership.

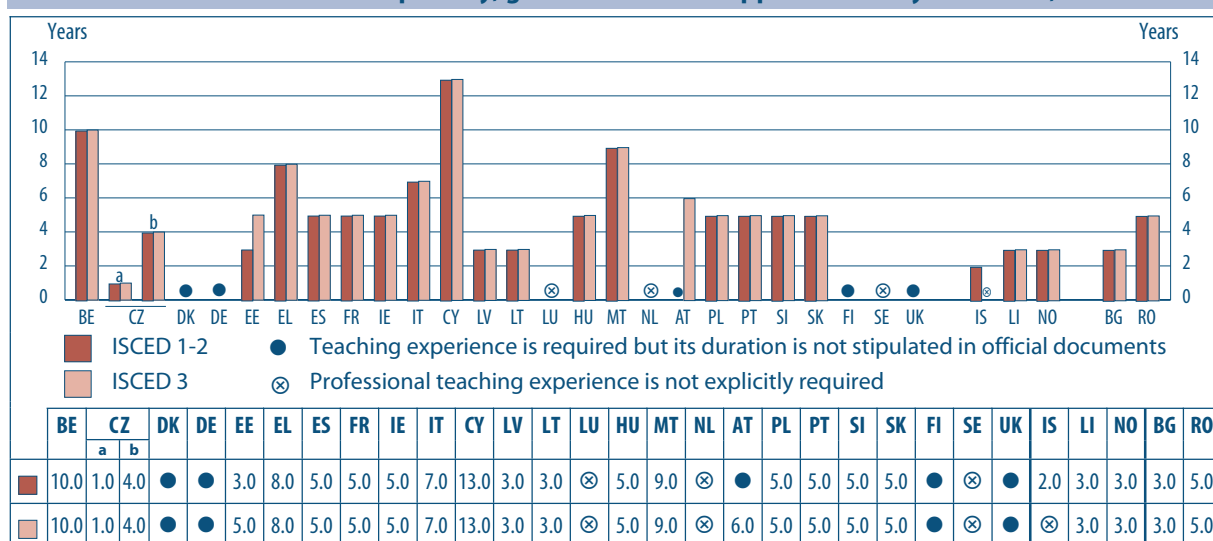
In many European countries, school heads are able to receive training after they have been appointed and it is strongly recommended that they do so. Such training is rarely compulsory and its content and length depend on the body providing it. However, in 12 countries, prospective school heads must have received **special initial training**. In most cases, they must also have fulfilled this requirement before taking up their responsibilities. However, in Italy and Lithuania, training takes place following their appointment. In Austria, prospective school heads are obliged to take several training modules if they wish to secure permanent appointment. In France, those who perform successfully in the competitive examination for management staff receive training in two stages, on successful completion of which they are admitted to this professional sector with full tenure. The minimum duration of compulsory initial training for school heads varies very widely from one country to the next. It lasts only a few hours in some of the Spanish Autonomous Communities and Lithuania, but one year full-time in Malta and Portugal.

All countries providing special initial training for school heads include in it educational or teaching aspects, administrative aspects, and aspects relating to financial management and the management of school resources. Some countries incorporate further elements such as ICT (in Italy and Portugal) or legislation (in Austria, Poland and Slovenia). In Spain, the content of these courses depends on the Autonomous Community concerned and the institution providing the training but, in most cases, it includes aspects of administration and financial and human resources management.

GENERALLY BETWEEN THREE AND FIVE YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE ARE REQUIRED TO BECOME A SCHOOL HEAD

The minimum period of professional teaching experience required ranges from at least a year in the Czech Republic (in the case of small schools) to 13 years in Cyprus. In most cases, the requisite minimum period is between three and five years. In some countries (French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, Italy, Slovenia, Slovakia and Romania), only full-time teaching is taken into account in determining the period of professional experience. In Denmark, Germany, Austria (primary education), Finland and the United Kingdom, teaching experience is required but the official documents do not state precisely how much.

Figure D49: Minimum number of years of professional teaching experience required to become a school head in primary, general lower and upper secondary education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): The minimum period of professional experience required in schools administered by the *communes*, *provinces* and the *Gemeinden*, as well as by grant-aided private institutions, is six years.

Czech Republic: Minimum period of professional experience for (a) small and (b) big schools.

Cyprus: In addition, candidates need working experience as an assistant principal (three years in primary education and two years in secondary education).



SECTION III – MANAGEMENT STAFF

TRAINING OF SCHOOL HEADS IN INTERNAL EVALUATION IS COMPULSORY IN FEW COUNTRIES

In an 'internal evaluation', the evaluators are persons or groups of persons who are directly involved in the activities of the school (such as the school head, teaching and administrative staff or pupils), or directly affected by those activities (such as parents or local community representatives). It is in some form mandatory in most countries and strongly encouraged or recommended in the remainder. Everywhere, except in some German *Länder*, such evaluation is concerned with both educational and administrative tasks.

Internal evaluation is a complex process which calls for special skills that school staff do not always possess. Training in internal evaluation is only compulsory for school heads in France, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Romania before appointment, and in Austria and Malta after appointment. In all the other countries, such training may be offered but is not required on the part of school heads. However, in many countries, support for evaluation is allocated to schools ⁽¹⁾. In Hungary and Norway, municipalities decide whether such training for school heads should be compulsory or optional. Where training of this kind exists in the other countries, the ministry or top-level authority for education decides.

Figure D50: Training of school heads in internal evaluation, compulsory education, 2002/03

BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
							●								○		○								●				⊗	●

- No training required
 Compulsory before appointment
 Compulsory after appointment
 No internal evaluation

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE de): Internal evaluation is implemented on an experimental basis in a few schools.

Germany and Spain: Only some *Länder* and Autonomous Communities offer this training.

Estonia and Luxembourg: Internal evaluation of schools as entities has been strongly recommended since 2002 (EE) and for secondary schools since 2004/05 (LU).

Lithuania: Since 2002, mandatory training in the methodology of internal school audit has been introduced for school heads in all lower secondary schools, as well as for representatives of school communities.

Hungary, Iceland and Norway: Only some municipalities offer this training.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): An understanding of school self-evaluation underpins the standards for the qualification for first-time headteachers. This programme has been mandatory in England since 2004, and will be mandatory in Wales from 2005.

⁽¹⁾ Evaluation of Schools providing Compulsory Education in Europe. *Eurydice Surveys*. Brussels: Eurydice, 2004.



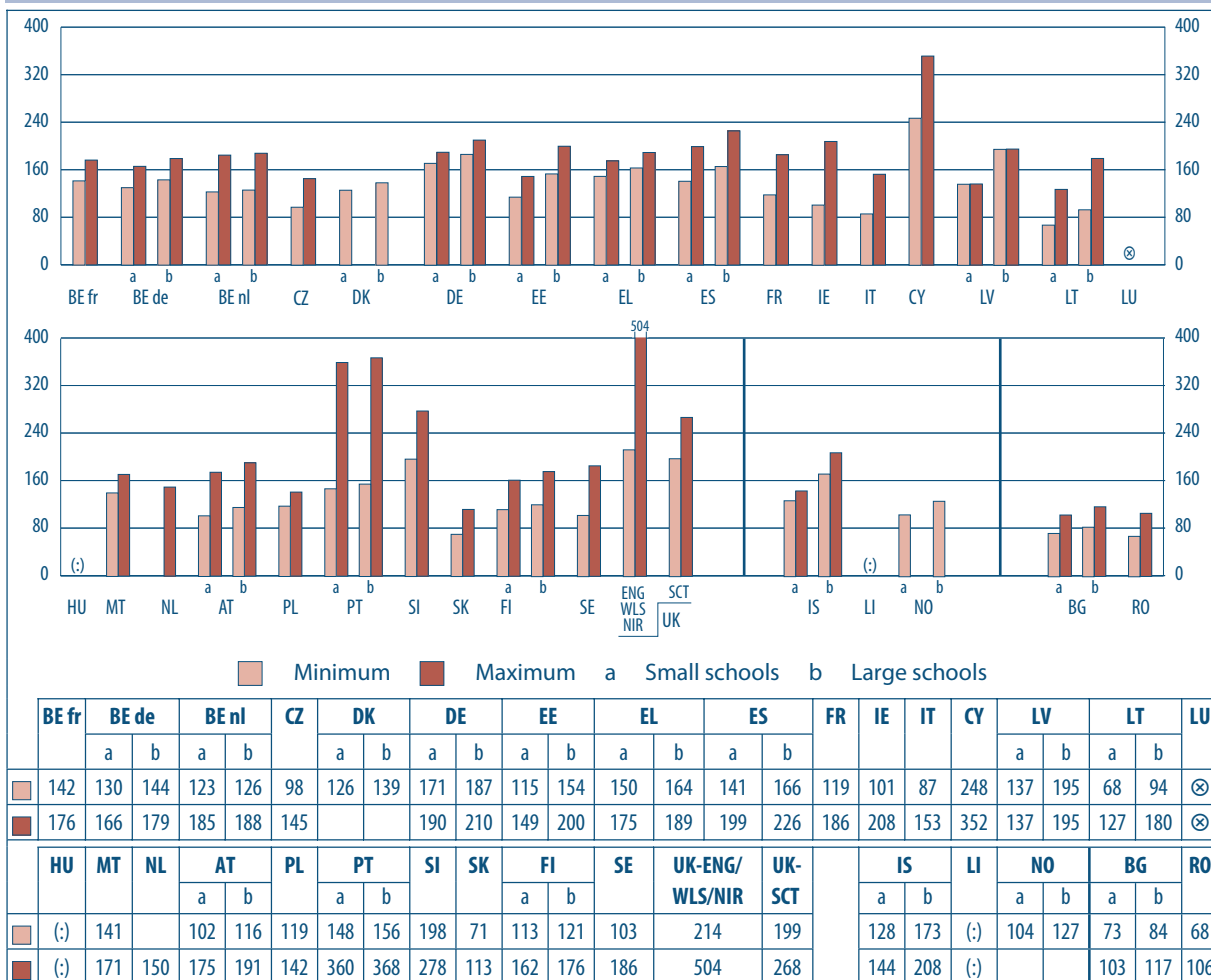
RESOURCES

SCHOOL HEADS HAVE HIGHER SALARIES THAN TEACHERS AT ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION

In order to compare the salaries of school heads in primary and secondary education, gross annual minimum and maximum basic salaries are related to per capita GDP in each country, which is an indicator of the standard of living of its population. By this means, it becomes possible to compare the salary status of school heads from one country to the next.

In 16 countries or regions, the size of schools has a direct bearing on the salaries of school heads in that the higher the enrolment at a school, the higher the salary of its head, although this factor is not taken into account in the salaries of teachers (Figures D37-D39).

Figure D51: Minimum and maximum basic gross annual salaries of school heads in primary education, relative to per capita GDP, 2002/03



Sources: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: In 2005, the salary of school heads in primary education in the French and German-speaking Communities will reach the level of that of their colleagues in lower secondary education, following an upgrading. In the Flemish Community, the salary of school heads in primary education has increased since September, 1st 2004, without reaching the level of that of their colleagues in lower secondary education. National per capita GDP is taken into account (instead of per capita GDP by Communities).



SECTION III – MANAGEMENT STAFF

Additional notes (continued)

Czech Republic: These data include bonuses, increases and allowances and are estimates of the average salaries of all school heads.

Denmark: The maximum salary depends on additional payments received by the school head. These payments are negotiated at local level, so maximum values cannot be provided.

Germany: Given the complexity and wide variety of individual circumstances, the salaries of school heads have been calculated on the basis of salaries in the *Länder* of former West Germany. There is no age or minimum number of years' experience required in order to become a school head, and the minimum salary is calculated on the basis of a hypothetical age of 40 years.

Spain: Because of salary differences from one Autonomous Community to the next, average salaries are shown. In small schools, minimum basic salaries vary between 131 % and 167 % of per capita GDP, and maximum basic salaries between 186 % and 238 % of per capita GDP. In large schools, minimum and maximum basic salaries vary, respectively, between 152 % and 183 % of per capita GDP and between 204 % and 259 % of per capita GDP.

Latvia: In schools of the same size, the salaries of school heads vary in accordance with their qualifications and the quality of their work.

Luxembourg: There are no school heads in primary education.

Netherlands: The minimum salary of school heads corresponds to the level on the salary scale immediately above the one they had previously reached as teachers.

Portugal: In the data shown, the food allowance is included in the salary.

Sweden: There is no salary scale. Data are based on information gathered at the end of 2002.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The minimum and maximum salaries correspond to the two extremes of the salary scale. Actual minimum and maximum salaries are determined according to an individual school range, which has due regard for the number of pupils and their age. In practice, only the very largest secondary schools have an individual school range which covers the uppermost points on the scale. Salaries shown include inner London allowance. Common pay scales are in operation across the rest of England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

United Kingdom (SCT): Under the terms of an agreement on teachers' salaries and working conditions reached in January 2001, school heads were guaranteed a minimum salary increase of 23.1 % over three years from April 2001.

Liechtenstein: Per capita GDP not available.

Norway: The maximum salary depends on additional payments received by school heads. These payments vary from one incumbent to the next, so values cannot be provided. Following an agreement reached in 2001, salaries have increased considerably, along with the workload of school heads.

Explanatory note for Figures D51, D52 and D53

The data relate to school heads with the minimum qualifications required who are single, childless and work in the capital city of their country.

The reference year for per capita GDP is 2002. The reference period for salaries is the calendar year 2002 or the 2002/03 school year.

The values indicated in the diagram are obtained by establishing a relation between the (minimum and maximum) basic gross annual salary in national currency and per capita GDP (at current prices in national currency) in the country concerned.

The **basic gross annual salary** is the amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month (where applicable), and holidays, etc. less employers' social security and pension contributions. This gross basic salary takes into account no taxation at source. Given the number of national-level criteria in some countries for determining upward progression on the salary scale, it has not always been possible to indicate salaries at the beginning and end of a career. In such cases, the minimum and maximum salaries correspond to the two extremes of the salary scale. The real salaries may vary with respect to factors such as the size of the school, the ages of pupils, the teacher/pupil ratio, etc. In countries where the minimum and/or maximum salaries vary depending on whether the school head works in a small or large school, the salaries are indicated in each case.

Definitions of school size vary from one country to the next. For this reason, small schools represent the smallest schools with respect to the definition of the country concerned and, similarly, large schools correspond to its definition of the largest.

The **minimum salary** is the salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances, at the start of their careers as school heads.

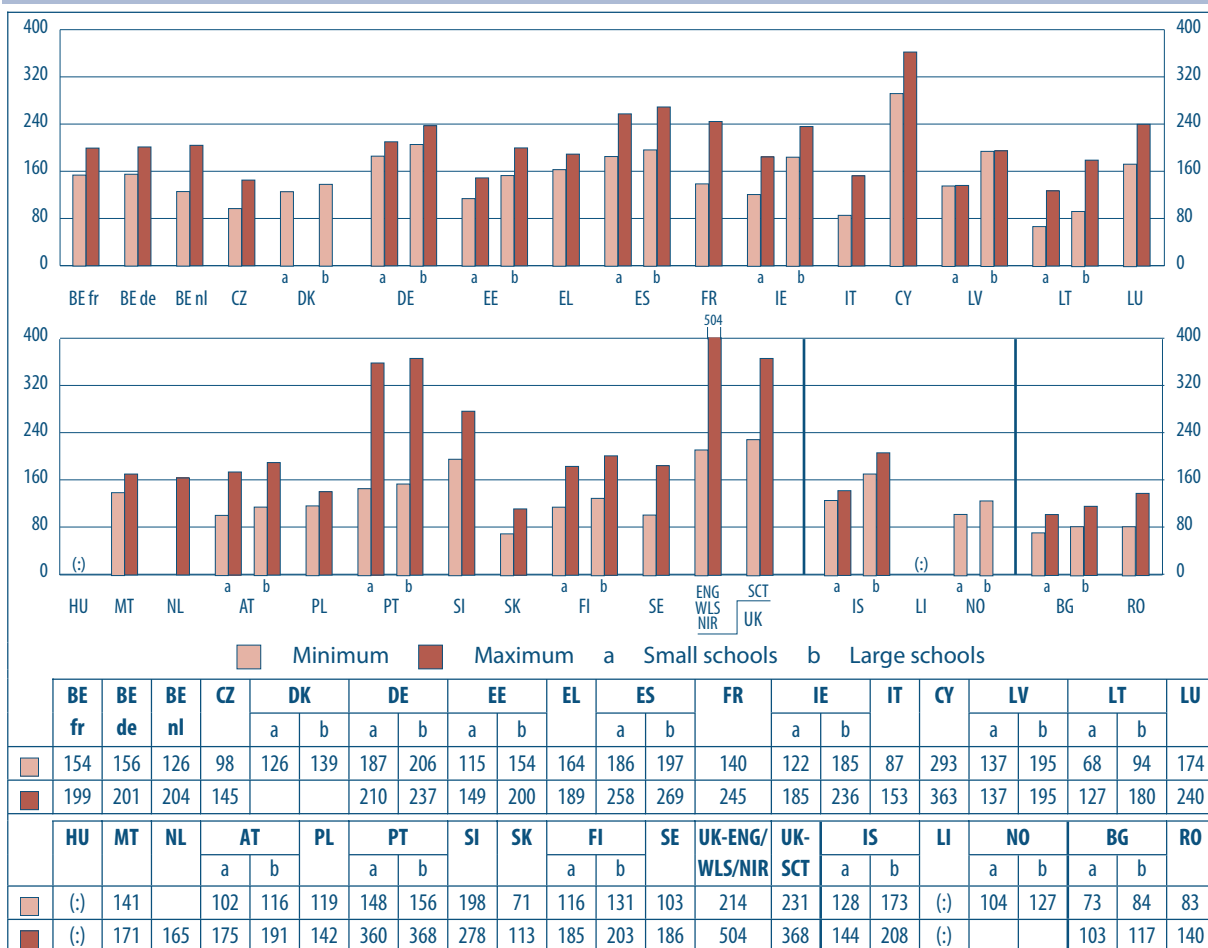
The **maximum salary** is the salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances on retirement or after a certain number of years of service, without taking into account salary adjustments or financial benefits linked to any criteria other than length of service.

The raw data used to prepare these Figures are available for each country and year of education in the database on Teacher and School Head Salaries in Primary and Secondary Education at <http://www.eurydice>.

By contrast, the educational level of the schools they manage is generally of little significance. In the majority of countries, the salaries of school heads are exactly the same in primary and lower secondary education, if not for the whole of general secondary education. In schools in all countries with single-structure education systems, there is clearly just one salary scale for school heads, given that there is no break between the two levels corresponding elsewhere to primary education and general lower secondary education. The sole exception is Finland, where teacher and school head salary agreements in most municipalities are still based on the remuneration system used prior to introduction of the single structure.

On the other hand, in Belgium, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Finland and Liechtenstein, the basic salaries of school heads rise with the level of education offered by the school they manage. In all these countries with the exception of Belgium (the Flemish Community), the same applies to the salaries of teachers (Figures D37 to D39).

Figure D52: Minimum and maximum basic gross annual salaries of school heads in lower general secondary education, relative to per capita GDP, 2002/03



Sources: Eurostat and Eurydice.



SECTION III – MANAGEMENT STAFF

Additional notes (Figure D52)

Belgium: National per capita GDP is taken into account (instead of per capita GDP by Communities).

Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom, Liechtenstein and Norway: See Figure D51.

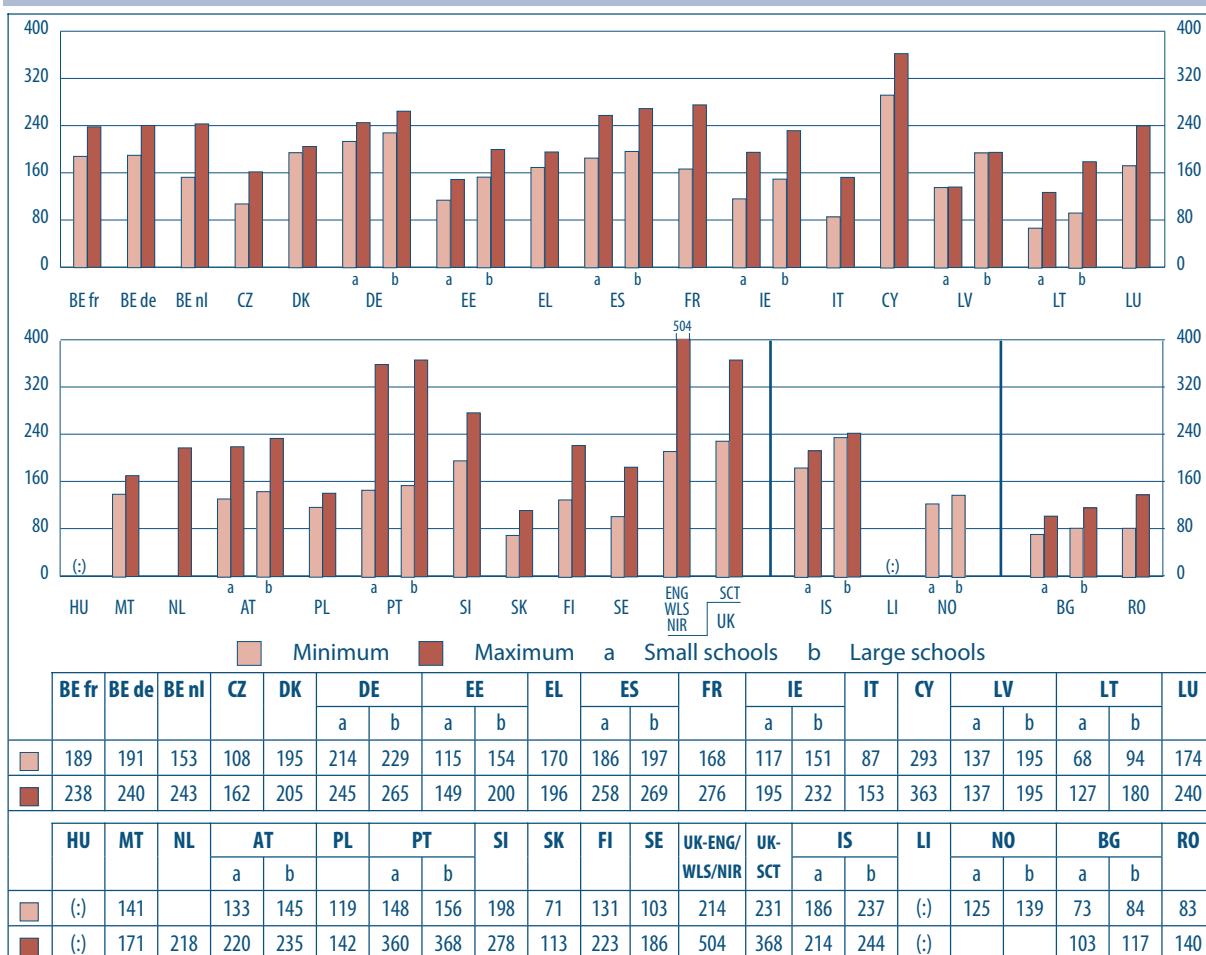
Germany: See Figure D51. Only the salaries of *Realschule* school heads are considered. For the salaries of *Gymnasium* school heads, see Figure D53.

Spain: Because of salary differences from one Autonomous Community to the next, average salaries are shown. In small schools, minimum basic salaries vary between 177 % and 209 % of per capita GDP, and maximum basic salaries between 237 % and 298 % of per capita GDP. In large schools, minimum and maximum basic salaries vary, respectively, between 184 % and 218 % of per capita GDP and between 242 % and 300 % of per capita GDP.

Luxembourg: The minimum salary represents a notional value. The minimum salaries of school heads depend on their previous length of service and are higher in general.

Austria: The data refer to *Hauptschulen* school heads. Salaries of school heads in *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen* are shown in Figure D53.

Figure D53: Minimum and maximum basic gross annual salaries of school heads in upper secondary education, relative to per capita GDP, 2002/03



Sources: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium, Spain and Luxembourg: See Figure D52.

Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom, Liechtenstein and Norway: See Figure D51.

Germany: See Figure D51. The data relate to the salaries of *Gymnasium* school heads.

Austria: The data refer to school heads of *allgemein bildenden höheren Schulen*.



RESOURCES

As in the case of teachers (Figures D37 to D39), the basic salaries of school heads are on average lower in the new EU Member States and candidate countries than in the EU-15.

In all countries, the basic salaries of school heads are higher than those of teachers working at the same educational level.

Regardless of the number of pupils in schools or the level of education, the minimum basic salaries of school heads are in general equivalent to or higher than per capita GDP in each country. However, in Italy, Lithuania, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Romania, only the maximum basic salaries of school heads are above per capita GDP. In Germany (upper secondary education), Cyprus and the United Kingdom, the minimum basic salaries are twice as high as per capita GDP. In Slovenia, the minimum basic salary is almost twice as high as per capita GDP at 198 %.

The contrast between the maximum and minimum basic salaries of school heads as a means of assessing their prospects for an increase in their basic salary throughout their careers is not as marked as in the case of teachers. In financial terms, the careers of school heads progress more evenly in most countries. However, the basic salaries of school heads in Italy, Ireland (in primary education), Finland and the United Kingdom (Scotland), as well as those of heads of big schools in Latvia and Bulgaria, may rise more than those of teachers. In Ireland (in primary education), the salaries of school heads may more than double over their entire career.

Although the salary increases of school heads during their career are not exceptional, their maximum salaries remain higher than those of their teacher colleagues, given that their starting salaries are higher.

These particularities may be put down to the fact that, in most countries, a certain number of years' teaching experience are required in order to become a school head (see Figure D49). Other conditions, such as the obligation in some countries to have received special training (see Figure D48) may also be relevant. The careers of school heads are also shorter given the additional years of experience required, so that the period over which their salaries can increase is correspondingly shorter.



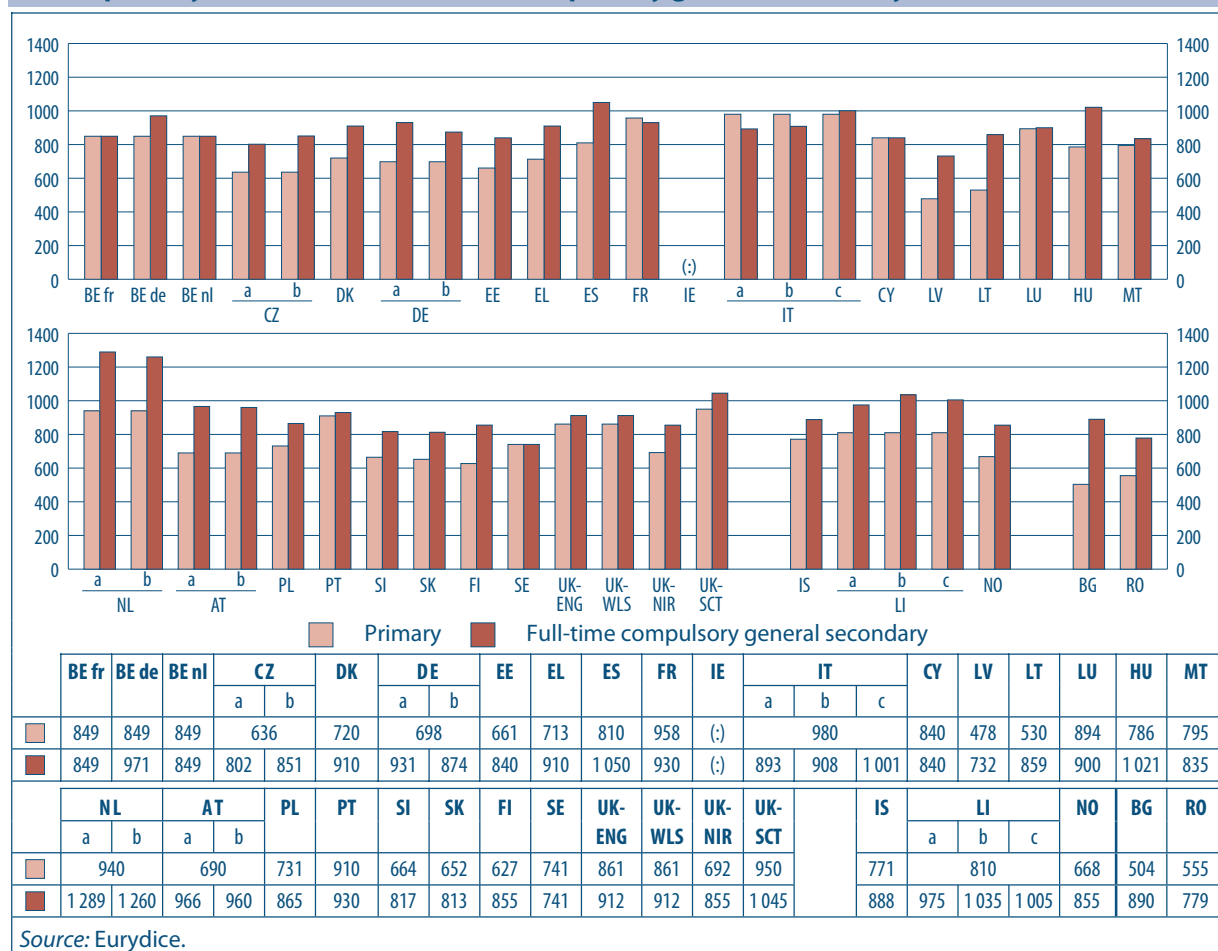
EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

SECTION I – TEACHING TIME

RECOMMENDED ANNUAL TEACHING TIME IN COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION AVERAGES 170 HOURS MORE THAN IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

In a substantial majority of countries, compulsory education lasts nine years. It ranges from eight years in Romania (until 2003/04) to 13 years in Hungary. Primary school, or the corresponding years in the single structure, lasts between four and eight years depending on the country concerned (Figure B1). Teaching time is generally spread over five days a week, which may be extended to six in certain countries or when schools are free to decide this for themselves. The amount of time spent by pupils in the classroom and the length of their lessons also vary with country, the days of the week and the year of education. Given these big variations in the intensiveness of provision, only the recommended minimum annual teaching load provides a reliable basis for comparison between countries.

Figure E1: Recommended average minimum annual amount of teaching time (hours) in primary education and full-time compulsory general secondary education, 2002/03



Additional notes (Figure E1)

Belgium: Only teaching time in public-sector schools is shown.

Czech Republic: The Figure relates to teaching time in the *základní škola* (*Základní škola* curriculum) in column (a), and then in the *základní škola*, followed by the *gymnázium* in column (b). Teaching time in the other two *základní škola* curricula (*Národní škola* and *Obecná škola*) are not shown here.

Denmark: Teaching time has been reformed since the 2003/04 school year.

Germany: For general lower secondary education, the Figure relates to the *Gymnasium* in column (a), and to the *Hauptschule* and *Realschule* in column (b). Data are based on an agreement between the Länder on minimum time allocation.

France: Teaching time depends on the core curriculum options selected by pupils for the final year of compulsory education. The most widespread situation (five-and-a-half hours a week) is shown here. Teaching time is undergoing reform. In 2002/03, only timetables in the first year of the *cycle des approfondissements* (the third year of primary school) were changed.

Italy: The Figure relates to the ninth year of the *liceo scientifico* in column (a), of the *liceo classico* in column (b) and of the *liceo artistico* in column (c).

Latvia: During the last eight years of compulsory education, lessons may last five minutes longer. Schools are free to decide how much time to devote to each subject, respecting minimum and maximum recommendations. The total number of taught hours is thus greater.

Netherlands: In the case of secondary education, the Figure relates to HAVO and VWO schools in column (a), and VMBO schools in column (b). The amount of teaching time for some subjects in VMBO provision depends on the section chosen, so an average has been shown.

Austria: For lower secondary education, the Figure shows the *Hauptschule* followed by the *Polytechnische Schule* in column (a), and the *allgemein bildende höhere Schule* in column (b). The amount of teaching time has been reduced since the 2003/04 school year.

Portugal: The reform of the third stage of *ensino básico* has been completed in 2004/05.

Slovenia: The 15 days set aside annually for special activities (science, sports, art and technology) are included.

Sweden: The official recommendations are based on the whole of compulsory education. A uniform breakdown across the various years is shown here.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The total number of hours is based on minimum recommendations for weekly or daily provision. It does not include time spent in the reception class at the start of compulsory education.

Romania: In each year of compulsory education, schools may add two hours a week to the timetable for additional activities.

Explanatory note

The teaching time illustrated in this Figure corresponds to the notional minimum workload of pupils and is based on minimum national recommendations. For each year of primary education or full-time compulsory general secondary education, the workload is calculated by taking the average minimum daily load multiplied by the number of teaching days a year. Recreational or other breaks of any kind, as well as the time given over to optional lessons, are not taken into account. The total annual amounts of minimum teaching time are added up to give the total minimum workload in hours for primary education and full-time compulsory general secondary education. These values are divided by the number of years corresponding to each of the two levels. The raw data used to prepare this Figure are available for each country and year of education in the database on Teaching Time in Compulsory Education at <http://www.eurydice.org>. The end of full-time compulsory general secondary education usually coincides with the completion of general lower secondary education or the single structure, except in Belgium, France, Italy, Hungary, the Netherlands (VWO and HAVO), Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Bulgaria (Figure B1).

In many countries, the official timetable is not very intensive at the beginning of primary education. The minimum time recommended for teaching then steadily increases. In comparison with primary level, the minimum annual amount of time recommended is greater almost everywhere in compulsory general secondary education. Thus allowing for differences in particular branches or fields of study, pupils in Europe on average receive a minimum of 755 hours of provision a year in primary education and a minimum of 922 hours a year in compulsory secondary education. With few exceptions, the recommended minimum for pupils in primary education is between 600 and 850 hours a year, whereas in compulsory general secondary education, the recommended minimum amount of teaching time normally varies between 850 and 950 hours annually. The only countries in which the annual number of hours in primary education is equal to or higher than the number in compulsory general secondary education are Belgium (the French and Flemish Communities), France, Italy (in the case of pupils in the *liceo scientifico* and *liceo classico*) and Cyprus.

In general, since the 2000/01 school year, the working time of pupils in primary and compulsory secondary education has changed relatively little. The only country in which there has been a rise in the minimum annual amount of time recommended is Hungary, where the legislation has been amended many times since 1996, particularly as regards the curriculum which has been subject to ongoing reform since 2000/01.

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, THE SAME SUBJECTS ARE COMPULSORY EVERYWHERE BUT TIME ALLOCATION IS OFTEN FLEXIBLE

In primary education, the compulsory subjects specified in official curricula are for the most part the same in all countries. The main differences observed at this level relate to flexible timetables, foreign language learning and the obligation to provide religious or moral instruction.

Most countries provide for a flexible timetable, so that schools will be free to determine all or part of their time allocation for certain subjects. Schools in the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) are free to decide how over 50 % of their teaching time should be used. They are entirely autonomous in this respect in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland). In Spain and Poland, the proportion of flexible time corresponds to a third or more of total teaching time. In Poland, this is attributable to the fact that subjects are taught in an integrated manner during the first three years of primary education. They have been included in the 'flexible timetable' category. In the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Bulgaria, flexible time stands at between 15 and 20 % of total teaching time.

In the other countries, it is possible to compare the relative amount of time officially earmarked for different subjects during primary education. The language of instruction is clearly the most important subject in terms of the amount of teaching time allocated to it, which is generally between one-quarter and one-third of the recommended total amount. The only exception is Luxembourg, where the situation is most unusual in that German and French, both of which are official languages, are regarded by the curriculum as foreign languages and are taught from the beginning of primary education onwards. This explains the very high proportion of time allocated to foreign languages (39 %), especially compared to the language of instruction, Letzeburgesch (4 %).

In most countries, mathematics occupies second position in terms of recommended teaching time. In Malta and Iceland, the language of instruction and mathematics are allocated an equivalent amount of time. In the United Kingdom (England), recommendations relate solely to the language of instruction, mathematics and sport. Seven countries (Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Finland, Sweden, Liechtenstein and Norway) allocate slightly more time to the teaching of artistic activities (which include several artistic and practically oriented subjects) than to mathematics.

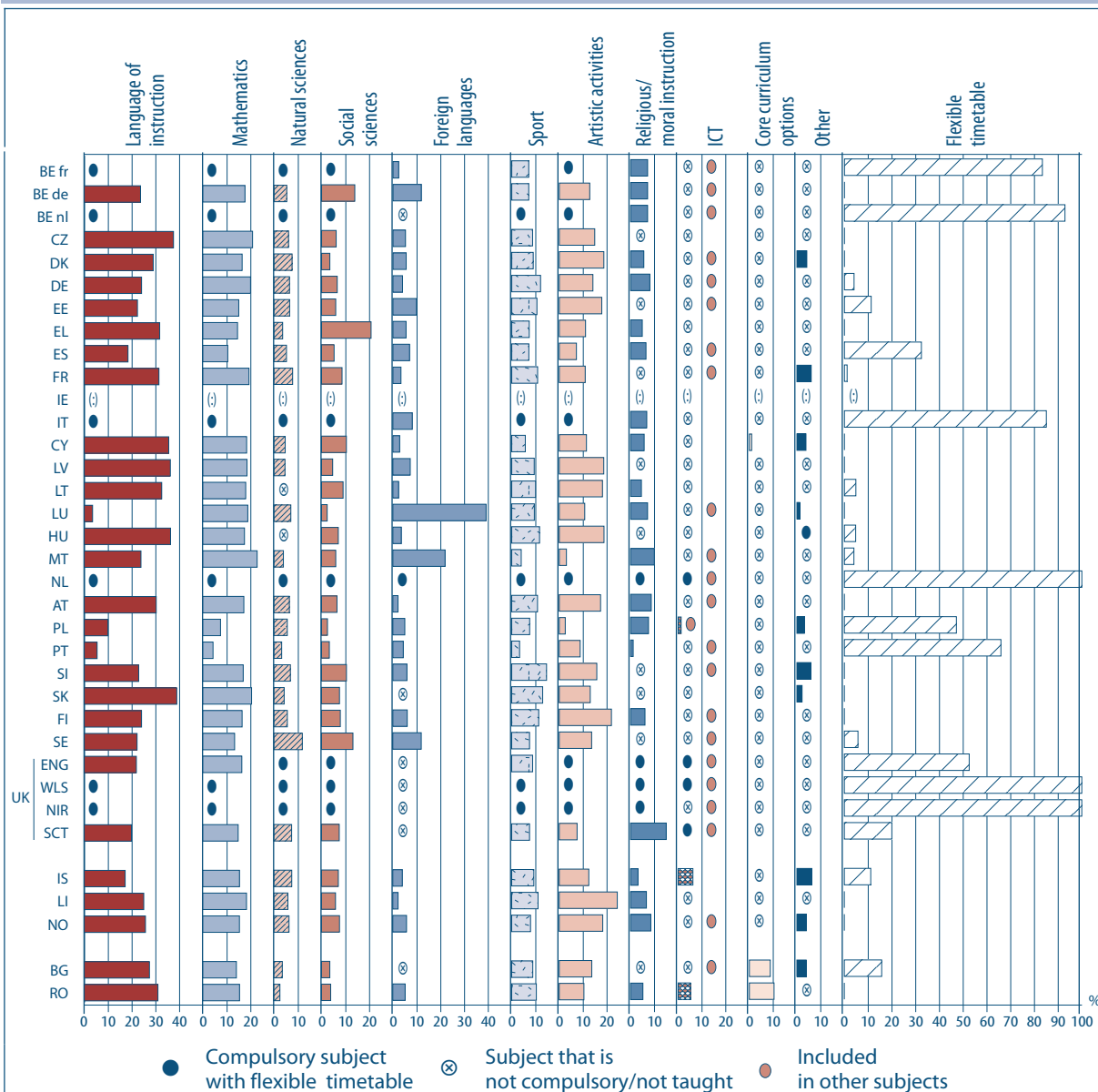
During primary education, more time is allocated to artistic activities and sport than to natural or social sciences. Except in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Greece, France, Cyprus, Slovenia, Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland), the time earmarked for the foregoing sciences is in all countries less than 15 % of the total. Some countries make not real distinction between natural and social sciences, the teaching of which is often integrated.

That said, the amount of time allocated to artistic activities varies very widely. In Germany, Austria, the Nordic countries and most of the new EU Member States, a relatively greater share of teaching time tends to be devoted to such artistic activities.



EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

Figure E2: Recommended minimum time allocation as a percentage of total recommended teaching time for all compulsory subjects in the entire period of primary education considered as a whole, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr): In the Brussels-Capital Region, the teaching of compulsory foreign languages is significantly different. The teaching of Dutch begins in the third year of primary education and thus accounts for a greater proportion of hours in the total for primary level than shown in the Figure.

Belgium, Denmark, United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR) and Romania: See Figure E1.

Germany: In a few *Länder*, some or all of the timetable is flexible, especially during the first two years. Data are based on an agreement between the *Länder* on minimum time allocation.

Estonia: Pupils whose language of instruction is not Estonian do a greater number of hours in foreign languages (given that Estonian is compulsory as a second foreign language) and their time allocation is less flexible.

Spain: The compulsory curriculum as laid down by the central government for the entire country, represents 55 % of teaching time in Autonomous Communities with a second joint official language and 65 % in the others. The remaining teaching time is fixed by each Autonomous Community.

Additional notes (Figure E2 - continued)

France: Timetables for compulsory education are undergoing revision. In 2002/03, only those in the first year of the *cycle des approfondissements* (the third year of primary school) were changed. This reform fixes the minimum and maximum time allocations for each subject. Teachers have one and a half hours a week of flexible time to allocate to subjects within the predetermined limits.

Italy: Schools may reduce or increase the time allocated to certain subjects (or introduce new subjects) within the limit of 15 % of the official curriculum shown here (the total number of hours of taught time must however remain the same).

Cyprus: In rural areas, the time allocated to each subject depends on the number of teachers in the school concerned.

Latvia: Schools are free to decide how much time to devote to each subject, in accordance with minimum and maximum recommendations.

Hungary: The inclusion of ICT in other subjects depends on the curriculum of each school, the resources available and the methodological preferences of the individual teacher.

Netherlands: The authorities concerned may decide to include ICT in other subjects or teach it as a subject in its own right.

Austria: During the first two years, foreign language teaching may be linked to other subjects in accordance with an integrated approach. Since 2003/04, this has become compulsory.

Poland: The 'other' category includes technology from the fourth year of primary education onwards.

Portugal: The time set aside for sport depends on the availability of human resources and school infrastructure. Religious and moral instruction may be replaced by 'personal and social development' if pupils so wish. A reform of the third stage of *ensino básico* has been completed in 2004/05. ICT will become a subject in its own right in the final year of compulsory education.

Slovenia: The 15 days set aside annually for special activities (science, sports, art and technology) are included. 'Technical and technological sciences' in the 'other' category is partly linked to ICT.

Finland: A new allocation of teaching time, approved in 2001, will be gradually adopted by August 2006.

Sweden: As the official recommendations are based on the whole of compulsory education, a uniform breakdown across the various years is shown here. With regard to foreign languages, most pupils begin to study a second language from the sixth year onwards. Where this occurs, foreign languages represent 9.3 % of total teaching time in primary education.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Schools are free to decide how much time to devote to each subject. In England, the time shown for the language of instruction and mathematics is based on recommendations in non-statutory strategic documents. The government has set targets to increase the proportion of children who spend a minimum of two hours a week on physical education and school sport within and beyond the curriculum.

United Kingdom (SCT): Natural and social sciences, as in the case of artistic activities and sport, are included in the same curricular fields. The breakdown between the two groups of subjects is equal.

Explanatory note

The percentages by subject for the entire period of primary education (ISCED 1) are obtained by calculating the relationship between the time allocated to individual compulsory subjects and the total number of hours recommended for all of them. The raw data used to prepare this diagram are available for each country and year of primary education in the database on Teaching Time in Compulsory Education at <http://www.eurydice.org>. The calculation is based on official national minimum recommendations. Black bullet points are used to indicate that certain subjects are compulsory in countries where the curriculum stipulates merely that they should be taught, with no reference whatever to a time allocation, leaving schools entirely free to decide how much time should be devoted to them.

In the interests of clarity, some subjects have been grouped together. This applies to the 'social sciences' which include subjects such as 'school life and culture', environmental studies, history, geography, social and political instruction, civics, health education, sex education or road safety. The natural sciences group together biology, physics and chemistry. In some countries, teaching time is shared out among subjects or groups of subjects that are broader than those shown. To enable comparison, the amount of time involved in such cases is equally divided among these subjects/subject groups. This often applies to the social and natural sciences.

Teaching time for ICT is shown in the diagram if it is a subject in its own right. Where its compulsory provision is included in other subjects, this is indicated with a red bullet point.

The 'core curriculum options' category indicates that pupils have to choose one or more subjects from a group of subjects within the compulsory curriculum.

The 'flexible timetable' category indicates either that the time to be allocated to the various compulsory subjects has not been fixed or that, as a supplement to the time allocated to them, the curriculum provides for a certain number of hours that pupils or the school can devote to subjects of their choice.

The artistic activities include elementary aesthetics, music, drawing, art, drama, craftsmanship, sewing/needlework and home economics. The 'other' category includes subjects such as ancient languages (Latin and Greek), and lessons or discussion with tutors.

While foreign languages are mandatory in almost all countries, they account for under 10 % of teaching time, except in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Luxembourg and Malta where they are begun earlier, from the first year of primary education onwards. Religious or moral instruction is a compulsory subject in the majority of countries, but less than a tenth of total teaching time is earmarked for it, except in Malta and the United Kingdom (Scotland). Finally, elements of information and communication technology (ICT) are often included in what pupils mandatorily have to learn but, during primary education, ICT is very rarely taught as a subject in its own right. Instead, it tends to be used as a resource for work on other subjects.

**IN COMPULSORY GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION,
RECOMMENDED TIME ALLOCATIONS ARE SHARED FAIRLY EVENLY
BETWEEN THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION,
FOREIGN LANGUAGES, MATHEMATICS AND THE SCIENCES**

The official breakdown of teaching time for compulsory subjects during compulsory general secondary education is very different from that in primary education (Figure E2). It is especially noteworthy that the share of time earmarked for the language of instruction and mathematics decreases, while the share for natural and social sciences increases in almost all countries. In the Czech Republic (in the case of *gymnázium* pupils), Estonia, Slovenia and Slovakia, natural sciences are becoming the first subject in terms of their teaching time allocation, while this is the case of the social sciences in the Czech Republic (for *základní škola* pupils following the *Základní škola* curriculum), Latvia, Hungary and Portugal. A greater relative share of time is also devoted to foreign languages which have to be taught in all countries except the United Kingdom (Scotland). In general, 10-20 % of teaching time is set aside for foreign languages during full-time compulsory general secondary education.

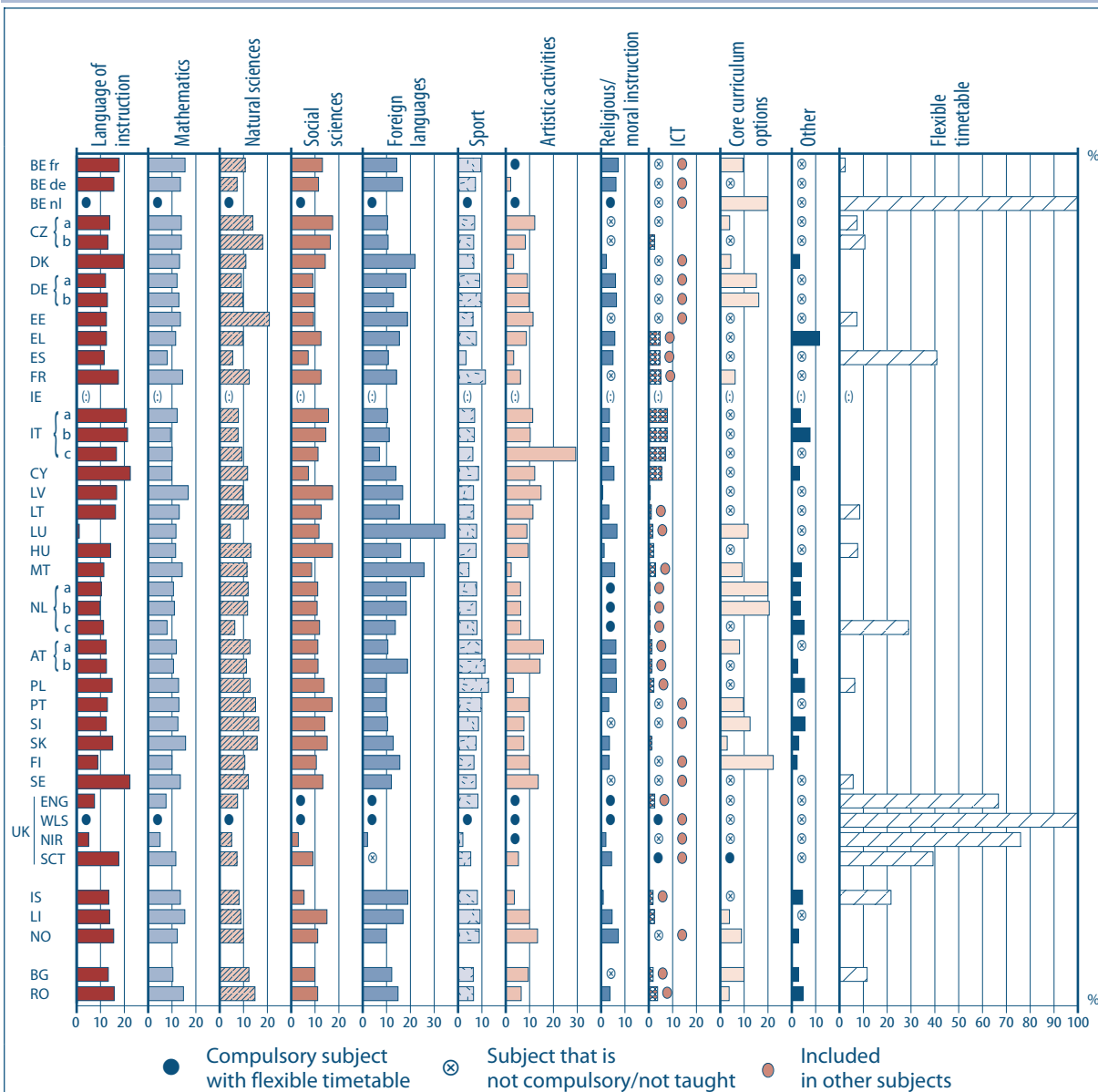
As a result and in spite of differences between different education systems or even within a single country, teaching time for the language of instruction, mathematics, the natural sciences, the human sciences and foreign languages is distributed far more evenly than in primary education.

The proportion of time allocated to artistic activities in the recommendations decreases in comparison to primary education. While such activities generally account for 10-19 % of total teaching time in the first stage of compulsory education, the corresponding proportion during compulsory general secondary education is normally no more than 10 %. However, the amount of time earmarked for artistic activities is greatest in Italy (in the *liceo artistico*) and Austria (in the *Polytechnische schule*).

The proportion of flexible timetable remains very considerable in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Spain, the Netherlands (in VMBO schools), the United Kingdom and Iceland. Furthermore, in the majority of countries, pupils in compulsory general secondary education are free to choose their subjects up to a point given that 'core curriculum options' enable them to select certain subjects from a predetermined list. This is only possible in primary education in Bulgaria and Romania, whereas it is very widespread in compulsory general secondary education. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands (in HAVO and VWO schools) and Finland, the proportion of time earmarked for core curriculum options even exceeds 15 %.

Information and communication technology (ICT) is taught as a subject in its own right in almost half of all countries, but accounts for a very small proportion indeed of teaching time. Very often, ICT is included in other subjects.

Figure E3: Recommended minimum time allocation as a percentage of total recommended teaching time for all compulsory subjects in the entire period of full-time compulsory general secondary education considered as a whole, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium, Denmark and France: See Figure E1.

Czech Republic: The Figure relates to teaching time in the *základní škola* (*Základní škola* curriculum) in row (a), and then in the *základní škola*, followed by the *gymnázium* in row (b). Teaching time in the other two *základní škola* curricula (*Národní škola* and *Obecná škola*) are not shown here.

Germany: The Figure relates to the *Gymnasium* in row (a), and to the *Hauptschule* and *Realschule* in row (b). Data are based on an agreement between the Länder on minimum time allocation.

Estonia, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia and United Kingdom: See Figure E2.

Italy: The Figure relates to the ninth year of the *liceo scientifico* in row (a), the *liceo classico* in row (b) and the *liceo artistico* in row (c). The ICT category includes time spent teaching technology (not strictly ICT related).

Cyprus: 'Other' includes technology.

Additional notes

Netherlands: The Figure relates to HAVO schools in row (a), VWO schools in row (b), and VMBO schools in row (c). An average is shown given that the amount of time spent teaching the language of instruction and the first foreign language (English) in VMBO depends on the section chosen. The local authorities responsible may decide to include information and communication technology (ICT) in other subjects or to teach it as a subject in its own right.

Austria: The Figure relates to the *Hauptschule* and then the *Polytechnische Schule* in row (a) and the *allgemein bildende höhere Schule* in row (b).

Sweden: As the official recommendations are based on the whole of compulsory education, a uniform breakdown across the various years is shown here. With regard to foreign languages, most pupils begin to study a second language from the sixth year onwards. Where this occurs, foreign languages represent 17 % of total teaching time in compulsory general secondary education.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Schools are free to decide how much time to devote to each subject. There are no recommendations which apply to the entire period of compulsory general secondary education. Data for England and Northern Ireland are based on recommendations/suggestions for some years expressed as a percentage of recommended taught time for all years. Data for England on sport is based on government targets for increasing the proportion of children who spend a minimum of two hours a week on physical education and school sport within and beyond the curriculum.

Romania: In each year of compulsory education, schools may add two hours a week to the timetable for additional activities. The inclusion of ICT in other subjects depends on the resources available.

Explanatory note

The percentages by subject for the entire period of full-time compulsory general secondary education are obtained by calculating the relationship between the time allocated to individual compulsory subjects and the total number of hours recommended for all of them. The end of full-time compulsory general secondary education usually coincides with the completion of general lower secondary education or the single structure, except in Belgium, France, Italy, Hungary, the Netherlands (VWO and HAVO), Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Bulgaria (see Figure B1).

The raw data used to prepare this diagram are available for each country and year of full-time compulsory general secondary education in the database on Teaching Time in Compulsory Education at <http://www.eurydice.org>. The calculation is based on official national minimum recommendations.

Black bullet points are used to indicate that certain subjects are compulsory in countries where the curriculum stipulates merely that they should be taught, with no reference whatever to a time allocation, leaving schools entirely free to decide how much time should be devoted to them. In the case of countries in which full-time compulsory secondary education includes one or several years of upper secondary education provided within different streams, either they are shown in the Figure or, alternatively, the calculation is based on the number of hours applicable to the science stream for the one or more years concerned.

In the interests of clarity, some subjects have been grouped together. This applies to the 'social sciences' which includes subjects such as 'school life and culture', environmental studies, history, geography, social and political instruction, civics, health education, sex education or road safety. The natural sciences group together biology, physics and chemistry. In some countries, teaching time is shared out among subjects or groups of subjects that are broader than those shown. To enable comparison, the amount of time involved in such cases is equally divided among these subjects/subject groups.

Teaching time for ICT is shown only if it is a subject in its own right. Its inclusion in other subjects is indicated with a red bullet point.

The 'core curriculum options' category indicates that pupils have to choose one or more subjects from a group of subjects within the compulsory curriculum.

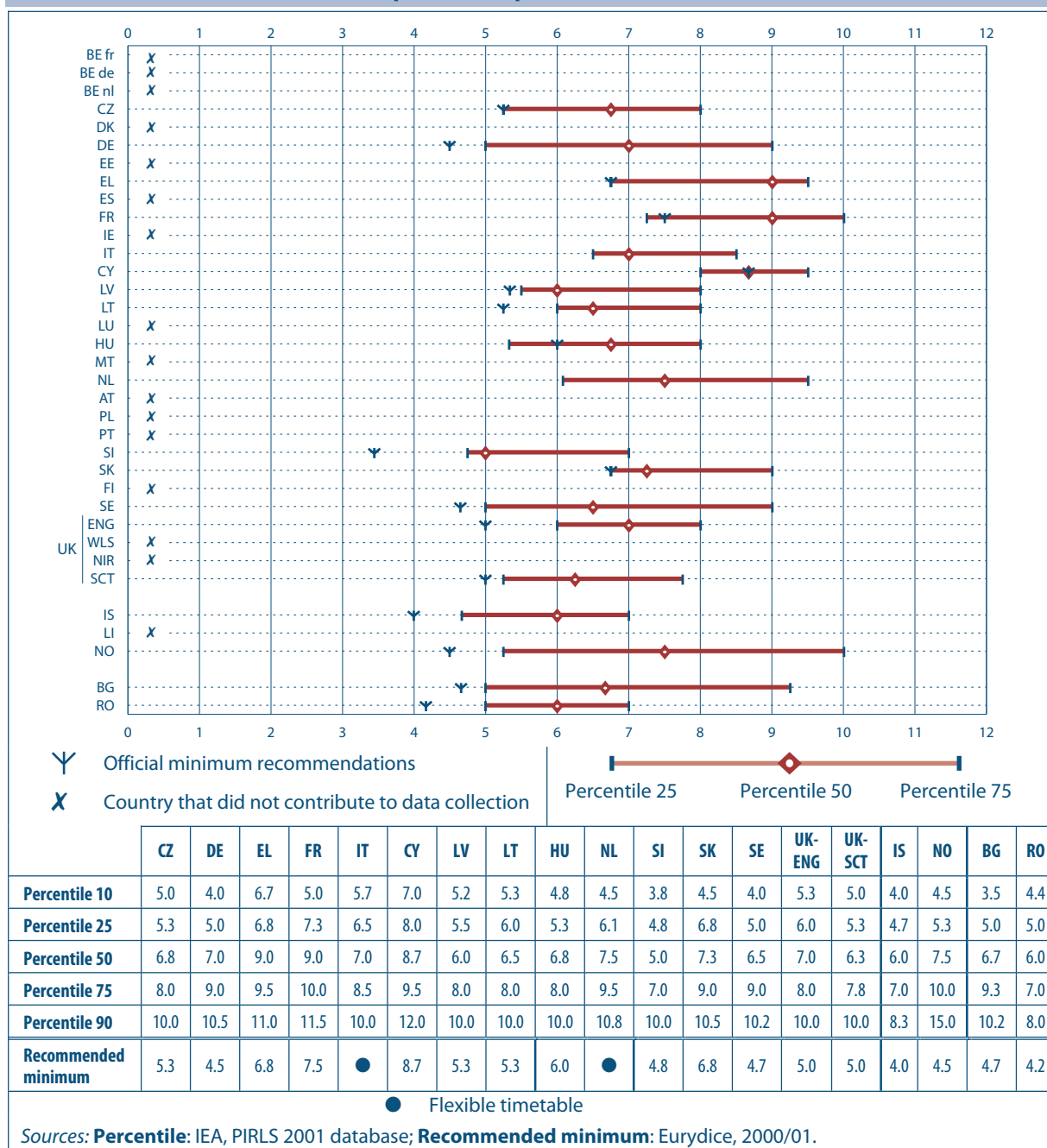
The 'flexible timetable' category indicates either that the time to be allocated to the various compulsory subjects has not been fixed or that, as a supplement to the time allocated to them, the curriculum provides for a certain number of hours that pupils or the school can devote to subjects of their choice.

The artistic activities include elementary aesthetics, music, drawing, art, drama, craftsmanship, sewing/needlework and home economics. The 'other' category includes subjects such as ancient languages (Latin and Greek), and lessons or discussion with tutors.

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, TIME SPENT TEACHING THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION GENERALLY EXCEEDS THE MINIMUM RECOMMENDATIONS —

With few exceptions, the language of instruction is the compulsory subject for which the highest minimum number of hours is recommended (Figure E2). A relation may be established between these official recommendations and the time that teachers said they actually spent teaching the language of instruction in the fourth year of primary education in countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey.

Figure E4: Distribution of fourth-year pupils in primary education according to the number of hours a week they are taught the language of instruction, compared to the official minimum recommended time, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Additional notes (Figure E4)

Slovenia: The year of school reported for PIRLS 2001 is the third year of primary education.

United Kingdom (ENG/SCT): The year of school reported for PIRLS 2001 is the fifth year of primary education.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate how many hours a week they spend teaching the language of instruction.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In the interests of clarity, the Figure only shows values corresponding to the percentiles 25, 50 and 75 in the distribution. Values for the percentiles 10 and 90 are shown in the table under the Figure.

Three quarters of fourth-year pupils are taught the language of instruction for a minimum of five hours a week, except in Slovenia and Iceland. In all countries except France, Cyprus and Hungary, at least 75 % of pupils in the fourth year of primary education receive the recommended hours of teaching or more per week in this subject. Teachers therefore comply with the recommendations.

The distribution of pupils in accordance with the number of hours per week that teachers say they spend teaching them the language of instruction varies to some extent. The deviation between percentile 25 and percentile 75 is in general two to three hours. Between percentiles 10 and 90 it is generally between four and seven hours a week. In Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Norway and Bulgaria, the distributions are relatively broad. By contrast, in Italy, Cyprus, the United Kingdom (England) and Romania, they are smaller.

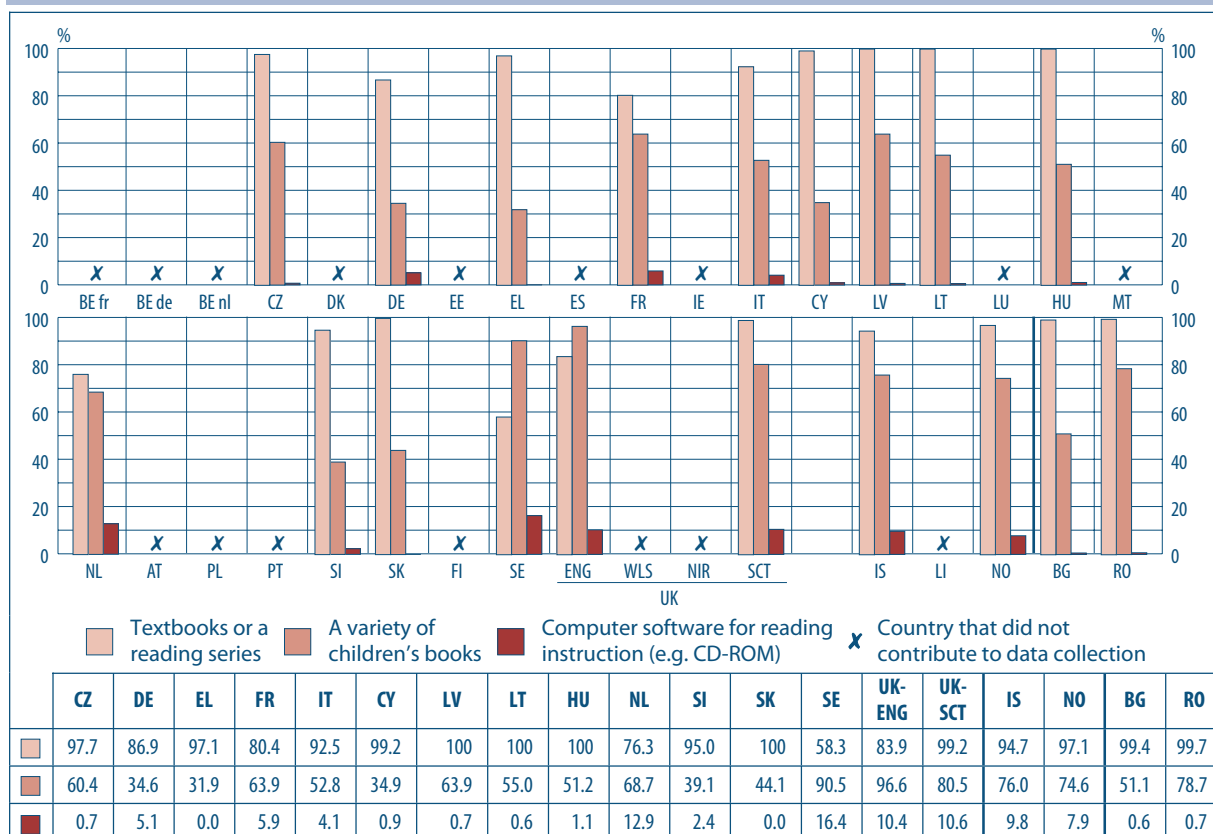
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, CHILDREN'S BOOKS ARE USED MORE THAN COMPUTER SOFTWARE TO TEACH READING

Teaching and encouraging pupils to read are basic activities, especially in primary education. Indeed, more time is recommended for teaching the language of instruction than anything else in almost all countries (Figure E2). The wide variety of reading materials used in the fourth year of primary education and the frequency with which they are used have been analysed on the basis of data from the PIRLS 2001 survey, for those countries which participated.

Textbooks or a reading series are the main resource for pupils learning to read in the fourth year of primary education. In all countries except Sweden, over three-quarters of pupils have a teacher who uses textbooks or a reading series at least once a week. Teachers of over half of the pupils rely on a variety of books from children's literature, except in Germany, Greece, Cyprus, Slovenia and Slovakia. Sweden and the United Kingdom (England) are the only countries where children's books are used more often than textbooks or a reading series.

By contrast, the frequent use of educational software for teaching reading is far less widespread. It applies to just over one pupil in ten in only four education systems, namely those of the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England and Scotland). The teaching of reading in primary education is thus still based mainly on traditional resources, such as textbooks and children's books, with computer resources used on a regular basis in only a few countries.

Figure E5: Percentages of pupils whose teachers say they use textbooks, children's literature, or educational software for teaching reading at least once a week (fourth year of primary education), public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the frequency with which they used various materials to help them teach reading: (a) 'Textbooks or a reading series', (b) 'Workbooks or worksheets', (c) 'Children's newspapers and magazines', (d) 'Computer software for reading instruction (e.g. CD-ROM)', (e) 'Reading material on the Internet (Web pages)', (f) 'A variety of children's books (e.g. novels, collections of stories, etc.)' and (g) 'Materials from other subjects'. The Figure shows only (a), (d) and (f).

Possible replies were (i) 'every day or almost every day', (ii) 'once or twice a week', (iii) 'once or twice a month' and (iv) 'never or almost never'. The Figure shows categories (i) and (ii) combined.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

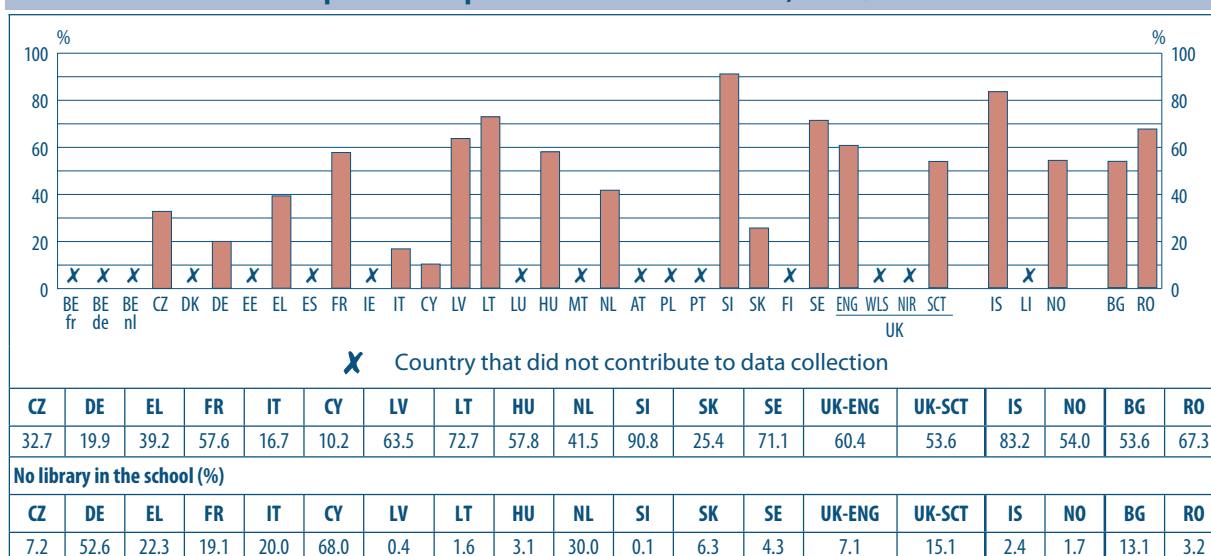
For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES ARE REGULARLY VISITED BY OVER HALF OF PUPILS AGED 9

In addition to classroom reading materials, school libraries are very frequently used by pupils in the fourth year of primary education in the majority of countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey. Over half of these pupils visit the school library at least once a week. In the Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Italy, Cyprus, the Netherlands and Slovakia however, the proportion is much lower.

Modest use of the library in these countries may be partly due to the lack of school facilities (Figure D14). For example, according to statements by fourth-year teachers, almost half of all pupils in Germany have no library at their school. In Cyprus, this proportion is over two-thirds. However, in the Czech Republic, Italy and Slovakia, where schools appear to have good library facilities, less than a third of pupils are taken to the library by their teacher at least once a week.

Figure E6: Percentages of pupils in the fourth year of primary school whose teachers say they take them to the school library at least once a week, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the frequency with which they accompanied or sent their pupils to the school library.

Possible replies were (o) no library at the school (i) 'every day or almost every day', (ii) 'once or twice a week', (iii) 'once or twice a month' and (iv) 'never or almost never'. The Figure shows categories (i) and (ii) combined.

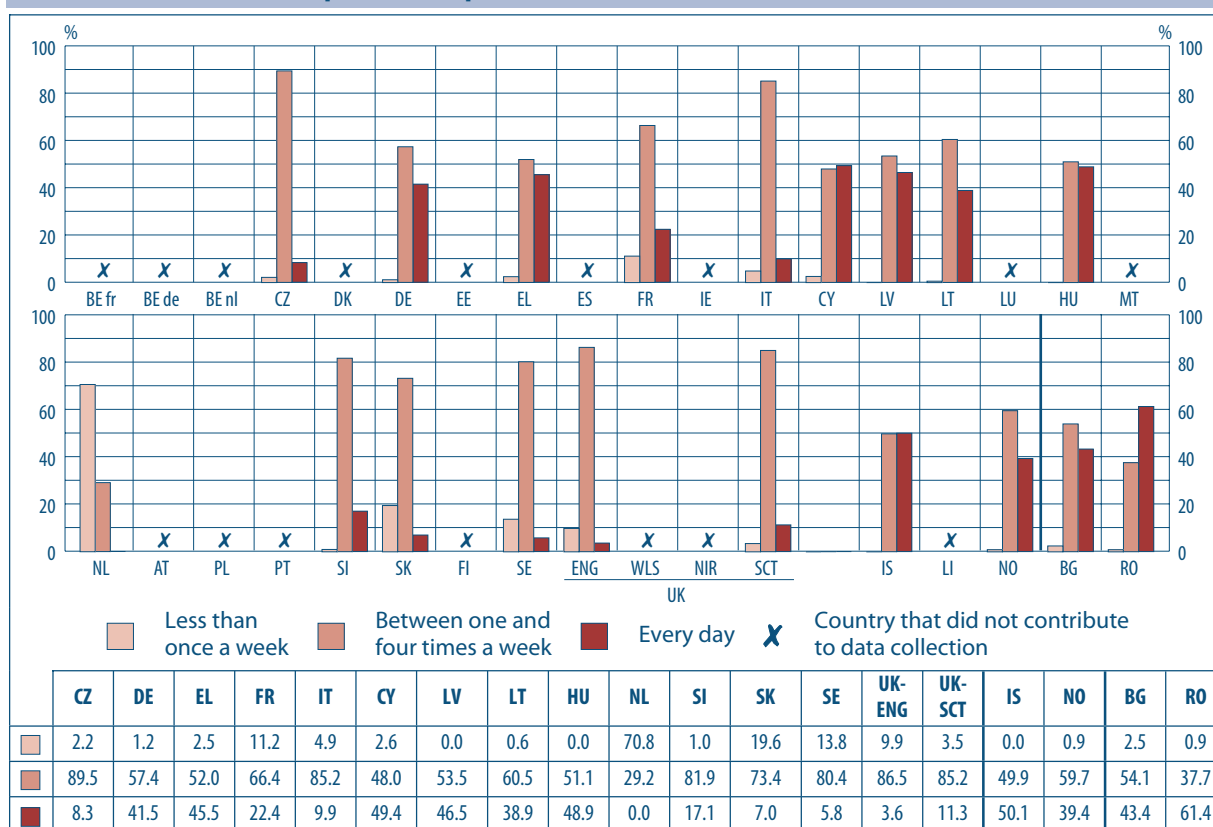
The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, PUPILS GET HOMEWORK ON THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION BETWEEN ONE AND FOUR TIMES A WEEK

Learning the language of instruction is not limited to the classroom. Indeed, in countries for which PIRLS 2001 data are available, the great majority of teachers in the fourth year of primary education say that they give pupils homework on this subject. In Romania, the majority of pupils have to do homework on the language of instruction every day. In Cyprus, Hungary and Iceland, half of all pupils are subject to a similar requirement. However, the most widespread situation is one in which pupils do homework on their language of instruction between one and four times a week. The Netherlands is an exception, as most pupils have homework on this subject less than once a week.

Figure E7: Percentage of pupils in the fourth year of primary education, whose teachers say they give them homework on the language of instruction, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the frequency with which they gave their pupils homework on the language of instruction (on reading, writing, the spoken language, literature, and other language skills).

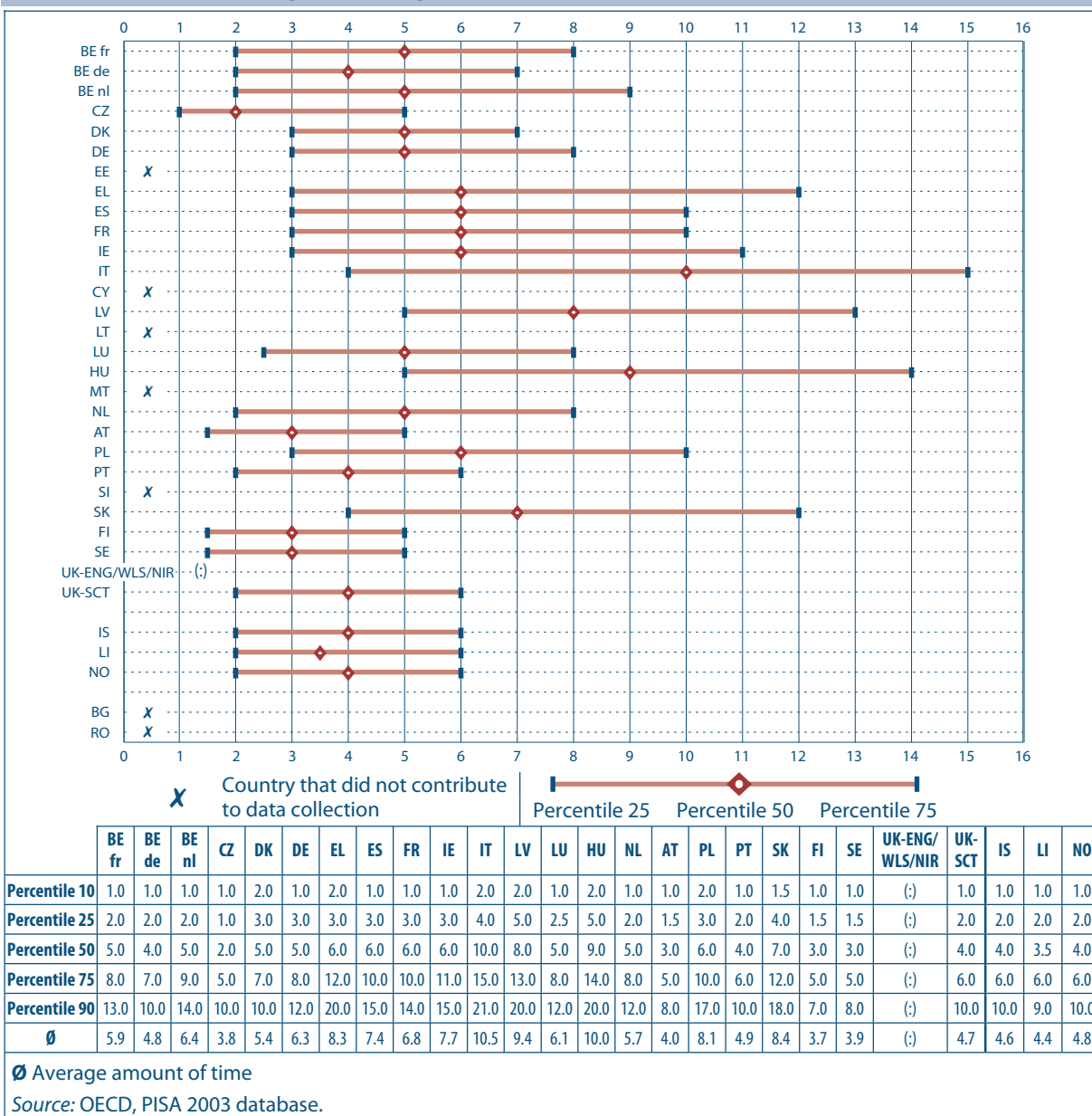
The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

FOR PUPILS AGED 15, THE AVERAGE TIME SPENT ON HOMEWORK AND STUDY VARIES FROM 4 TO 10 HOURS A WEEK

The average time spent on homework and study at home, as reported by 15-year-old pupils who took part in the PISA 2003 survey, varies considerably from one country to the next. It ranges from less than 4 hours per week in the Czech Republic, Finland or Sweden to over 10 hours in Italy. As a general rule, less than the average time is spent on such homework and study in the Nordic countries and more in the Mediterranean countries and the countries of central and eastern Europe.

Figure E8: Distribution of 15-year-old pupils by number of hours a week that they report spending on homework and study at home, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



Additional notes (Figure E8)

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (p10 = 1.0; p25 = 3.0; p50 = 5.0; p75 = 8.0; p90 = 12.0; Ø = 6.2) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

Pupils were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate how many hours a week they spent on homework and study at home.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In the interests of clarity, the Figure only shows values corresponding to the percentiles 25, 50 and 75 in the distribution. Values for the percentiles 10 and 90 are shown in the table under the Figure.

However, these averages should not conceal the significance of variations within each country. A significant minority (a quarter) say that they work three hours a week or less at home in virtually all countries. By contrast, in some countries, a quarter of pupils work for six hours a week or more at home and, in yet others, 10 or even 12 hours a week.

The time spent on homework and study is especially high in Greece, Italy, Latvia, Hungary and Slovakia. In these countries (with the exception of Latvia), the majority of pupils aged 15 are enrolled in upper secondary education (Figure C7), which may explain why they are expected to work more on their own. In the case of Latvia, the considerable amount of time spent on homework seems to offset the minimum amount of time recommended for teaching pupils in lower secondary education, which is the lowest in all European countries (Figure E1).

DECISIONS ABOUT SCHOOL HOLIDAY PERIODS ARE DECENTRALISED IN AROUND TEN COUNTRIES

In spite of national particularities, countries across Europe show many similarities in the pattern of school holidays. Throughout Europe, holidays are concentrated into three main periods, namely the summer, Christmas and the New Year, and the spring or Easter. In addition to these periods, most countries arrange short autumn and winter or Carnival breaks and then, in just a very few cases, final term or Whitsun holidays. In addition to these periods, all countries offer pupils between one and ten days off school, generally for public or religious holidays. The precise dates involved are not always specified.

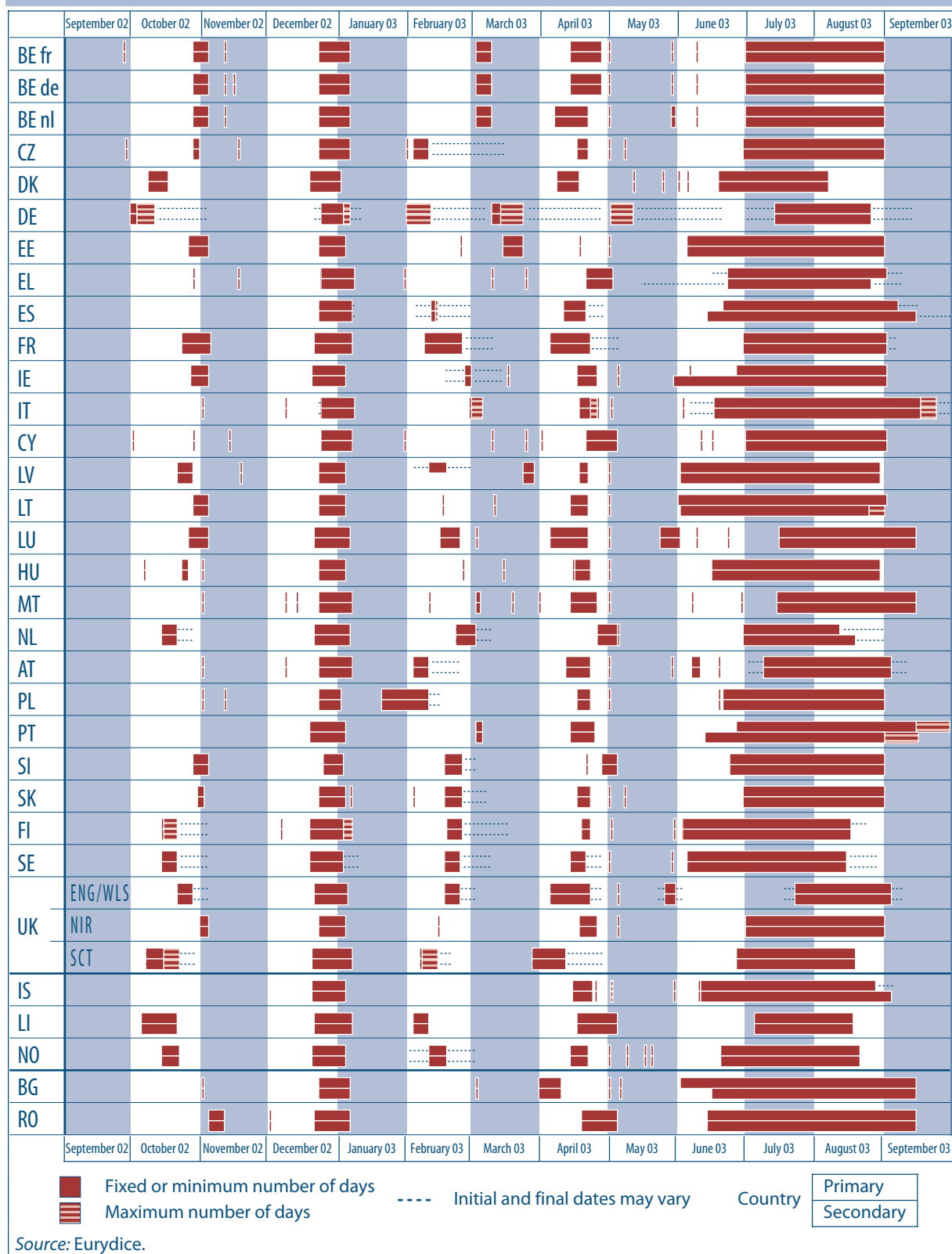
As a rule, the pattern of holidays over the school year is similar for both primary and secondary education. Differences occur in no more than a few countries. In Greece and Bulgaria, the school year for pupils in secondary education is longer than in primary education. The opposite is true in Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands and Iceland (general upper secondary education pupils).

The main differences between countries relate to the number of days in each holiday period and their dates. Thus the summer holidays very often last 9-10 weeks, with just a few exceptions. The corresponding period may range from six weeks as in Germany, the Netherlands (primary education), the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Liechtenstein, to 15 weeks (Bulgaria in primary education). The Christmas and New Year holidays vary less markedly. They last two weeks almost everywhere. However, they last three weeks in Sweden, and are shorter in the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovenia where just one week is offered. Finally, the Easter or spring holidays last between one and two weeks.



EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

Figure E9: Distribution of holidays throughout the school year, 2002/03



Additional notes (Figure E9)

Belgium, Germany, Spain, France, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, Sweden, United Kingdom (NIR) and Liechtenstein: The central (or top-level) authorities for education specify no date for between 1 and 10 days of additional holiday.

Denmark: The municipalities decide when school holidays should occur, in accordance with the number of days of teaching and the date for the start of the summer holidays, both of which are fixed by the government. However, the ministry publishes non-mandatory guidelines.

Germany: The *Länder* decide when school holidays should occur, in accordance with the number of days of holiday fixed by the federal government.

Spain, Italy and Austria: The Autonomous Communities, Regions or *Länder* (respectively) decide when school holidays should occur.

Italy: Provided they guarantee 200 days of educational provision a year, schools may offer pupils extra days off, normally in February or March.

Ireland: Schools decide when school holidays should occur, in accordance with the fixed number of days of holiday.

Lithuania: Schools may decide when school holidays should occur, subject to the approval of the school council and in accordance with the number of days of teaching fixed by the government.

Hungary: Five days of holiday may be determined by schools, which are also free to vary holiday dates as long as the number of days of teaching remains unchanged.

Portugal: Periodic holidays linked to public or religious festivals are undergoing review.

Finland: The education provider (usually a municipality) decides on the precise starting date of the school year and other possible short holiday periods.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Although the minimum number of days of teaching is set nationally, the dates of school terms are set by the local authority or the school governing body. In England and Wales, from 2004/05, some local authorities have adopted a standardised six-term school year, with two terms of approximately seven weeks separated by a two week break, followed by four terms of approximately six weeks with a break of either one or two weeks between them. However, the decision to adopt this new model remains at the level of the Local Education Authority (LEA) or school governing body.

Sweden and United Kingdom (SCT): Municipalities decide when school holidays should occur.

Iceland: Schools determine the dates of autumn and winter holidays and how long they should last. These periods are thus not shown. The summer holidays last 11 weeks in compulsory education, and 13 weeks in general upper secondary education.

Norway: The distribution of holidays depends partly on the local education authorities, but the total number of weeks is regulated by the central authorities.

Explanatory note

In some countries, the dates of school holidays are the same for all pupils at a given level of education. Sometimes, the points at which these holidays occur depend on the state in a federation, the region, the municipality or the school. This is indicated in the variations shown in the Figure.

On occasions, the authorities concerned may provide for additional holidays, over and above the minimum applicable to all pupils. However, these extra days have to comply with certain limits corresponding to the maximum number of days indicated in the diagram.

Only the public holidays of Christmas and the New Year fall on the same days virtually everywhere in Europe. Other school holiday periods have different dates depending on the country concerned. For example, the summer holidays may begin between the end of May, as in secondary education in Ireland, and the end of July, as in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), ending between the first fortnight of August, in Denmark, and the end of September for secondary schools in Spain.

The periods and dates of school holidays may also vary within a country. In some countries, decisions in this respect are among the responsibilities of the regional authorities or the municipalities, as in Denmark, Sweden, Finland, the United Kingdom (in the case of the majority of schools in England and Wales, as well as in Scotland) and Norway, or schools themselves, as in Ireland, Lithuania and a significant minority of schools in the United Kingdom (England and Wales). However, this freedom to determine school holiday periods may be limited. The number of days of teaching and/or the dates set for the beginning and end of the school year are generally fixed at central (or top) level.



EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

In France, the central government fixes different dates for the Christmas and New Year holidays, as well as those at spring or Easter, depending on the geographical area concerned. In the Netherlands, the central government recommends different dates for the autumn, winter and summer holidays, whereas in Poland and Slovenia, differences of this kind occur in the winter holidays.



EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

SECTION II – GROUPING OF PUPILS

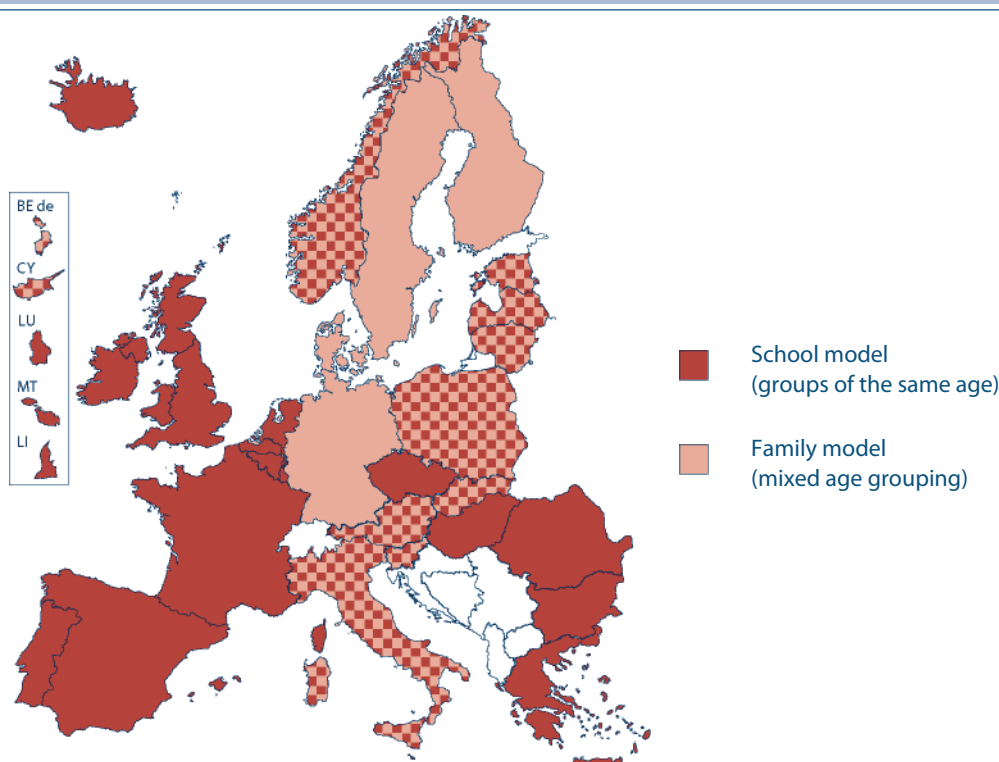
GROUPING OF CHILDREN BY AGE

IS A RELATIVELY COMMON PRACTICE IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

In institutions for pre-primary education, children are grouped together in accordance with two main procedures:

- The first offers a foretaste of primary school arrangements, with children grouped by age. This is referred to as the 'school model'.
- The second is more reminiscent of a 'family' arrangement, with children of different ages belonging to the same group.

Figure E10: Principal methods of grouping children in pre-primary education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE nl), Latvia, Luxembourg, Iceland and Liechtenstein: The family model exists but is less widespread.

Netherlands: There is no pre-primary education in the strict sense. The Figure shows the situation in the first years of *basisonderwijs* (primary school) which are attended by the majority of children aged 4-5.

Sweden: The school model exists but is less widespread.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Although the school model predominates, the grouping of children is a matter for the institution, so practice can vary.

The most widespread practice in Europe is for groups to be formed from children of the same age, in accordance with the school model. Institutions in which this occurs are the responsibility of the ministry of education. By definition, this is also the situation in pre-primary classes exclusively for children of one particular age (6-year-olds) in Denmark, Finland and Sweden.

By contrast, in Germany and in education-oriented institutions for those aged under 6 in Denmark, Finland and Sweden, children of different ages are in most cases grouped together in accordance with a more 'family-like' model (also referred to as 'vertical grouping'). It should be noted that in all the foregoing countries except Sweden, this model is observed in institutions for which ministries other than the ministry of education are responsible.

Elsewhere, both models exist side by side as in Belgium (German speaking communities), Estonia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Austria, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and Norway. The institutions concerned are the responsibility of the ministry of education (except in Austria and Norway). In some countries, mixed age grouping occurs mainly in very small schools in rural areas. In these cases, therefore, the school model is clearly the most widespread.

UPPER LIMITS OF BETWEEN 20 AND 25 CHILDREN PER ADULT ARE A COMMON REQUIREMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

For pre-primary education, most countries adopt requirements specifying a maximum number of children for whom an adult can be responsible. If this number is exceeded, either the group of children is divided into two, or supervised by two adults working simultaneously.

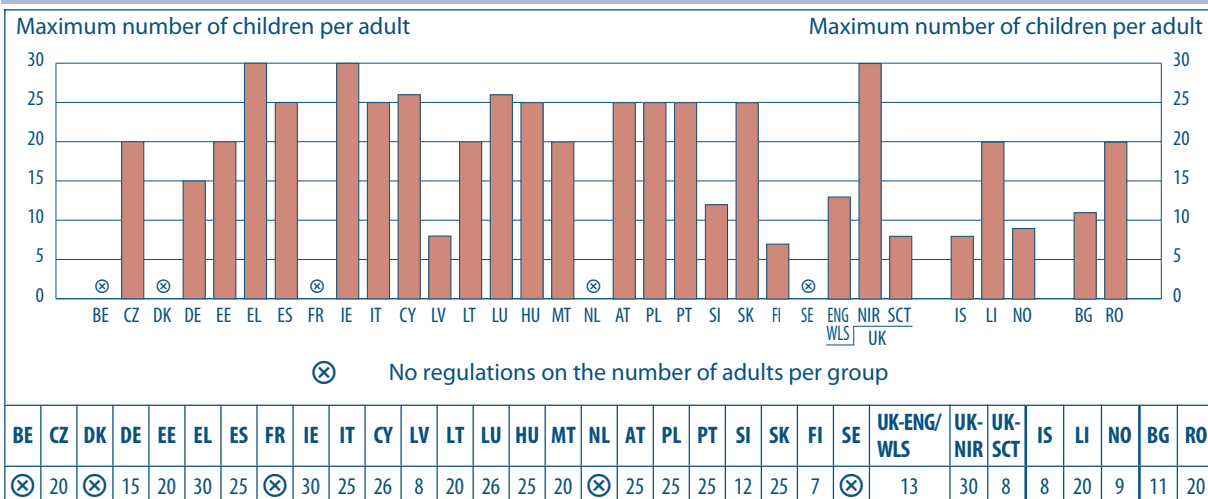
For children aged 4, the most widespread formal requirements specify a maximum of 20-25 children per adult. These limits are far lower in Finland, Latvia, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland and Norway (maxima of 7-9 children per adult). However, they are significantly higher (up to 30 children per adult) in Greece, Ireland, and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) in the first year of primary school.

Stricter requirements may sometimes be established for special situations, such as the reception of children aged under 3 (Malta and Finland), the presence of children of different ages within the same group (Estonia and Slovenia), the location of schools in disadvantaged areas (France and Slovenia), or the presence of children with special needs in a group (Slovenia).

In countries with no regulations governing child/adult ratios, a variety of arrangements are adopted. In Belgium and the Netherlands, the total number of teachers that an institution can have is based on the size of its enrolment. School heads themselves determine how classes should be constituted. In France, the *académie* inspectors annually identify the average number of children per class for their *département* and may also fix the maximum number of children per class in accordance with its own criteria.

It should be noted that, with the exception of Italy, countries with formal requirements specifying relatively high child/adult ratios (a maximum of 20 children per adult) favour the constitution of groups in accordance with the school model (Figure E10). The opposite is not true. Countries in which the requirements are for relatively low ratios (maxima of up to 15 children per adult), are just as likely to prefer the 'family' model (groups containing children of different ages) as the school model.

SECTION II – GROUPING OF PUPILS

Figure E11: Recommended maximum numbers of 4-year-old children per adult in schools or other education-oriented pre-primary institutions, 2002/03

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Estonia: The requirement is for groups of children of the same age, and is reduced to 18 when groups contain children of different ages.

Ireland: The Figure relates to *infant classes* in *primary schools*.

Netherlands: There is no pre-primary education in the strict sense. The Figure shows the situation in the first years of *basisonderwijs* (primary school) which are attended by the majority of children aged 4.

Slovenia: The requirement specifying 12 children per adult covers 4 hours each day. For the remaining time, a single adult looks after the entire group (a maximum of 22 children).

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS): The recommendation specifying a maximum of 26 children per two adults (where one is a qualified teacher and one a qualified nursery assistant) applies to *nursery schools* and *classes* in the public sector. The maximum is 20 if the teacher also has administrative duties. Other *pre-school groups* may adopt this ratio if their staff have the same qualifications; otherwise the recommendation is a maximum of eight children per adult. Many 4-year-olds are in primary school *reception classes*, where there is a statutory class size limit of 30.

United Kingdom (NIR): The diagram relates to the first year of primary school. Although most 4-year-olds are in the first year of primary school, younger 4-year-olds may be in nursery schools and other pre-school settings where other recommendations apply.

United Kingdom (SCT): The requirement has been in force since 2002. Previously the ratio was a maximum of 10 children per adult.

Iceland: The requirement relates solely to qualified teachers in pre-primary education.

Explanatory note

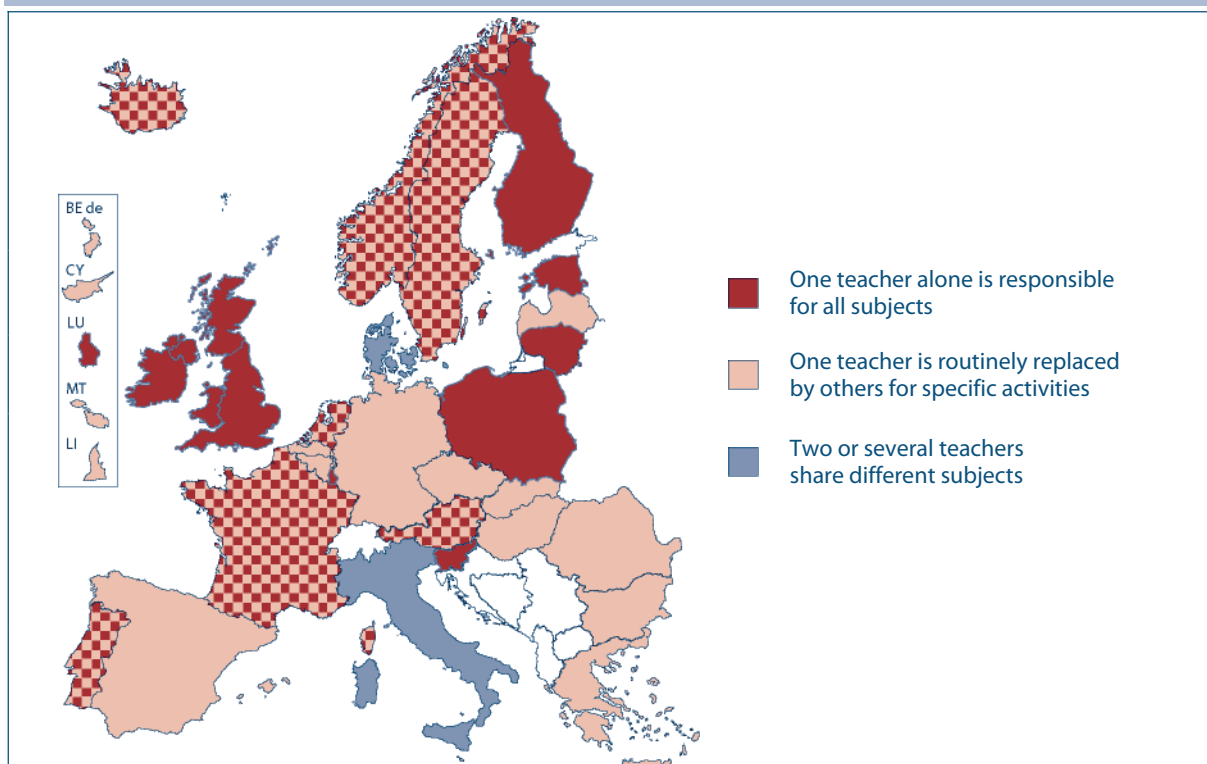
The Figure refers to official recommendations on the maximum number of children aged 4 for one adult. By 'adult' is meant the qualified person responsible for the children, as well as any assistant or auxiliary staff member supporting him or her.

PUPILS AGED 7 ARE OFTEN TAUGHT ALL SUBJECTS BY THE SAME TEACHER

The way in which school subjects are shared among teachers directly depends on how far they have specialised. In eight countries, individual class teachers generally assume sole responsibility for all subjects taught to the group of pupils assigned to them. This does not necessarily mean that classes will always be rigidly compartmentalised. For example, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), many schools use their teaching staff flexibly, providing for some exchange of staff between classes for particular activities.

At the start of compulsory education in the majority of other countries, classes are the responsibility of one particular teacher who gives lessons in most subjects, but may be replaced by other teachers for certain specific subjects (such as foreign languages, physical education and sports, music or religious instruction).

Figure E12: Main models for dividing teaching and subjects among the teachers of pupils aged around 7, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, United Kingdom and Romania: In some schools, teachers may be assisted by specialists in certain subjects, such as music, art, physical education or foreign languages, etc.

Italy: The situation is changing. The 2003 law and the 2004 decree to enforce it provide for the appointment of a teacher with tenure to coordinate the teaching team.

In France, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, schools adopt either of the foregoing procedures in that in some cases class teachers will be fully responsible for all subjects whereas, in others, specialist teachers will take over from them for certain subjects.

In two countries, the various subjects are shared between two or several teachers. In Denmark, the division of teaching duties reflects customary arrangements in secondary education or in the second stage of compulsory education in other countries. Each subject is taught by a different teacher. However, teachers work as a team at certain levels and the teaching of some subjects is interdisciplinary. In Italy, several arrangements are possible. In schools that have opted for so-called *classi a modulo* (or ‘modular classes’), three or four teachers are responsible for two or three classes, respectively, and share their subjects. They take turns to teach one of these classes, and then work with it together for a few hours each day. In schools that have opted for *classi a tempo pieno* (or ‘full-time classes’), two teachers are responsible for a single class.

Teaching responsibilities are shared among several teachers at the end of primary education in a number of countries. In Finland, for example, pupils are increasingly taught by specialist teachers, so as to prepare them for the transition to the final years of the single structure (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) in which this practice is the norm. In the second stage of *ensino básico* in Portugal, teachers are each responsible for a group of subjects. The PIRLS 2001 survey revealed that this form of organisation was the most widespread in the fourth year of primary education in Germany and Hungary (Figure E13).

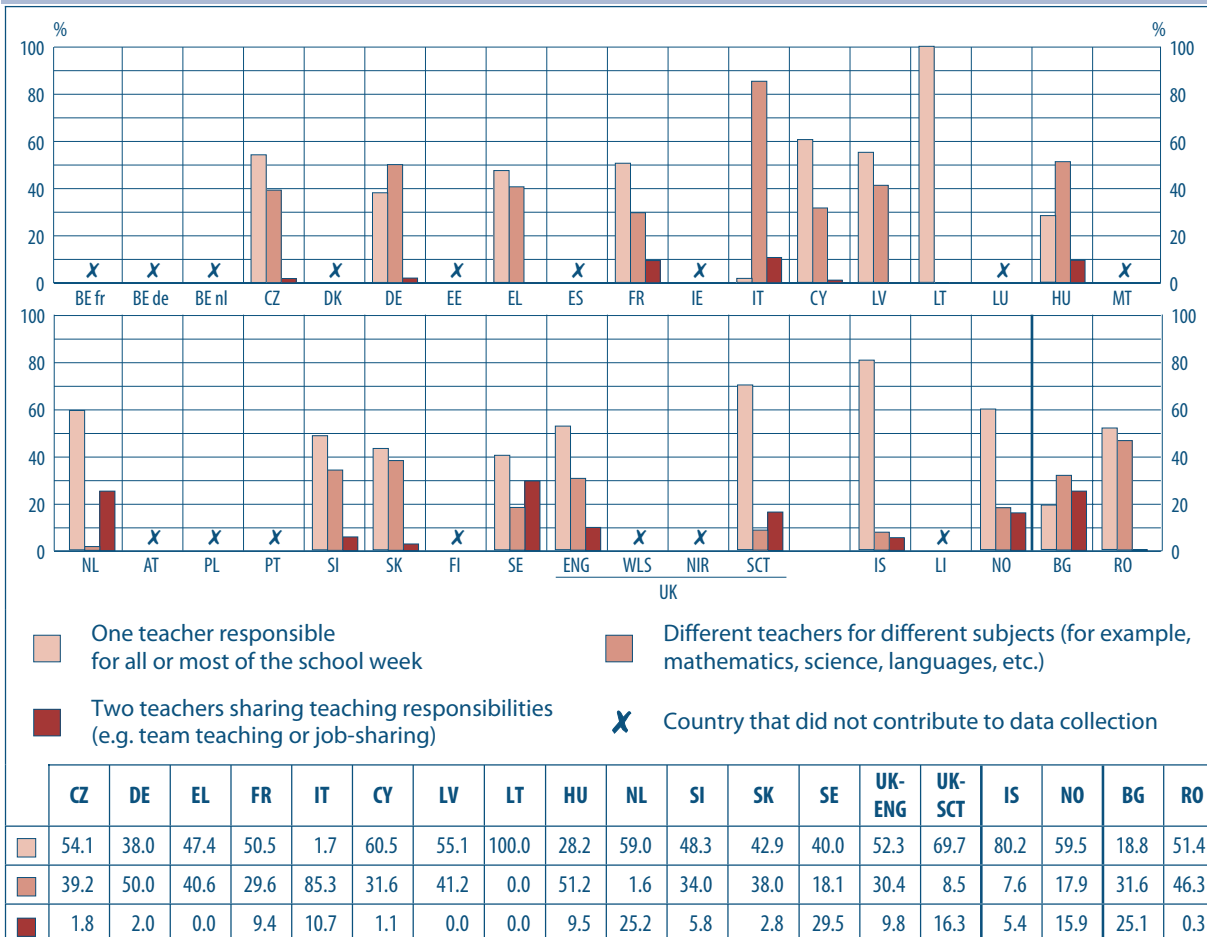
SUBJECTS MAY BE DIVIDED AMONG TEACHERS IN THE FOURTH YEAR OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

In countries which took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey, the majority of pupils in the fourth year of primary education belong to a class with a teacher responsible for (almost) all subjects. In Lithuania, this applies to all such pupils. However, in many countries, classes may also be assigned to a group of teachers each responsible for one or more different subjects. Indeed, in Germany and Hungary – two countries in which the fourth year is also the final year of primary education – this is the most widespread practice. Pupils are thus prepared for a method of organisation adopted in secondary education. In Italy, an arrangement in which different subjects are allocated to two or several teachers and which is required in public-sector education (Figure E12) is normal practice almost everywhere.

In the Netherlands and Sweden, a third approach is relatively widespread. It involves two teachers sharing responsibilities by working either simultaneously (so-called ‘team teaching’) or in turns (‘job sharing’). In the first years of compulsory education in Sweden, teachers are encouraged to undertake team teaching which, depending on the school concerned, may assume a variety of forms (for example, simultaneous work with a group of pupils either all together in one place, or split into two groups). The situation in the Netherlands is attributable both to the particularly high proportion of teachers in primary education who work part-time (Figure D44), and to ministry of education recommendations that encourage team teaching (while leaving final decisions on this matter to schools themselves).

Job-sharing is motivated by personal or employment-related factors and not by educational considerations as such. In practice, it is similar to a situation in which full-time teachers take different subjects, as it is highly likely that two part-time teachers actually divide subjects among themselves in this way.

Figure E13: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in accordance with how teaching and school subject responsibilities are divided among teachers, as reported by teachers themselves, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether other teachers took their class for a significant period of the week and, if so, to distinguish between a situation in which pupils had different teachers for different subjects and another in which the teacher shared responsibility for lessons with another teacher.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

UPPER LIMITS OF 22-36 PUPILS PER CLASS ARE RECOMMENDED OR PRESCRIBED IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

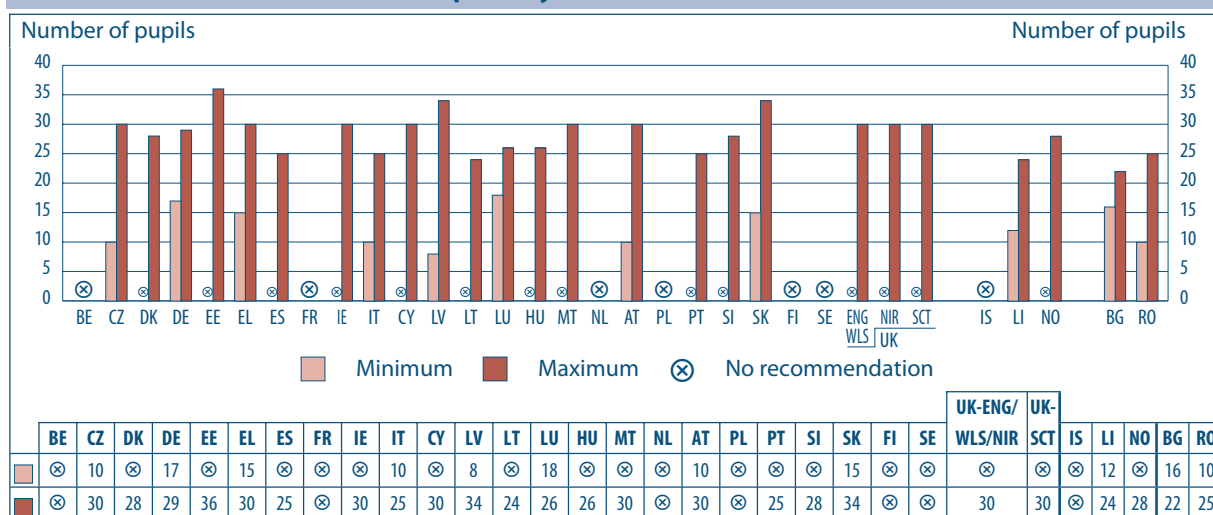
In most countries, official requirements place upper limits on the size of classes in primary education. In 11 countries, a minimum number of pupils is also required. This number is especially high (between at least 15 and 18 pupils) in Germany, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Bulgaria.

As a rule, the foregoing upper limits stand at between 25 and 30 pupils per class. They are higher still (between 34 and 36 pupils) in Estonia, Latvia and Slovakia. The lowest maximum sizes (less than 25 pupils) are in Lithuania, Liechtenstein and Bulgaria. In a few countries, special recommendations exist in certain circumstances. In Cyprus or Slovakia, for example, the requirements for the first year of primary education are for smaller groups.

With few exceptions, countries with no recommendations for maximum class sizes are the same as those that have no recommendations on the maximum number of children per adult in pre-primary education (Figure E11). In all these countries, the local authorities or schools have the power to decide how pupils should be grouped into classes.

The class sizes observed in countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey (Figure E16) are often lower than the required or recommended maximum sizes.

Figure E14: Class size regulations or recommendations in primary education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Czech Republic: Under exceptional circumstances, classes may contain more than 30 pupils.

Germany: The figures represent the average, across all *Länder*, of the official class size requirements for each of them.

Cyprus: In the first two years, the requirement is 30. In the last four years, it is 32. The size requirement of 30 has applied to the first four years since 2003/04 and should be extended to the whole of primary education.

Portugal: In the second cycle of *ensino básico*, the requirement specifies a minimum of 25 pupils and a maximum of 28.

Slovakia: In the first year, the requirement is 29.

United Kingdom: Class size regulations apply only to pupils aged 5-7 (ENG/WLS) or 4-8 (NIR).

United Kingdom (SCT): In the last four years of primary education, the requirement is 33.

Norway: Since 2003/04, there have been no detailed recommendations on class size.

Explanatory note

Regulations or recommendations on the size of classes including children with special educational needs are not taken into account.

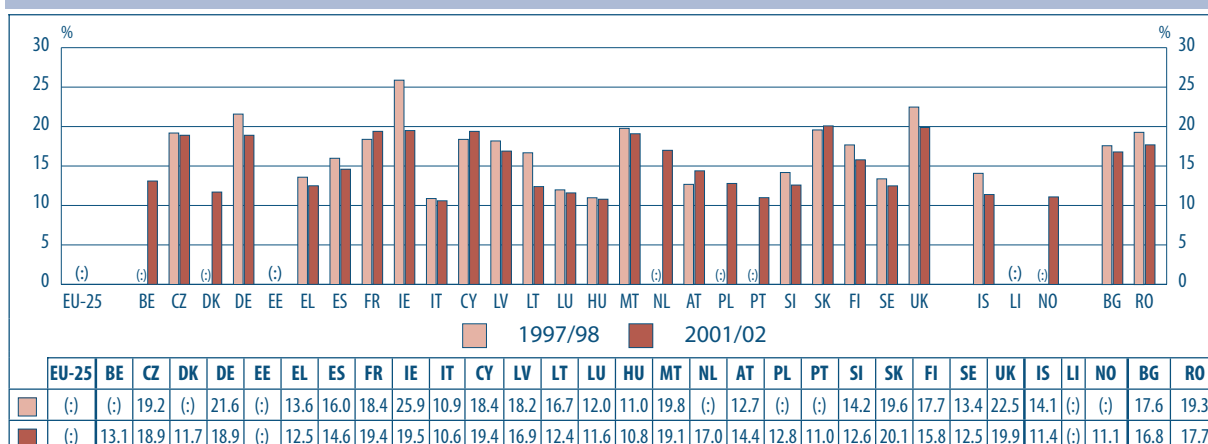
BETWEEN 10 AND 20 PUPILS PER TEACHER IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

In primary education, differences between pupil/teacher ratios in different countries are considerable. In 2001/02, the ratio varied from little over 10 pupils for every one teacher in Italy to over 20 to one in Slovakia. The remaining countries lie between these two extremes.

On the whole, changes in pupil/teacher ratios between 1997/98 and 2001/02 were insignificant. Only a few countries (Germany, Ireland, Lithuania, the United Kingdom and Iceland) recorded bigger decreases, corresponding in certain cases (especially in the United Kingdom) to measures to reduce the size of groups.

These ratios should not be confused with the size of classes. The sharing of responsibility for a class among several teachers working simultaneously, or the presence of specialised tutors responsible for supporting pupils with special educational needs, are among factors with a bearing on pupil/teacher ratios without however affecting the size of classes.

Figure E15: Changes in the ratio of pupils to teaching staff in primary education (ISCED 1), 1998 and 2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Private schools that are not government-dependent are not included.

Denmark, Iceland and Norway: The data include teachers working at ISCED level 2.

Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Slovakia: 1999 data for 1998.

Luxembourg: Only the public sector is represented.

Netherlands: The data include teachers at ISCED level 0.

Austria: 1998 data include management staff.

Explanatory note

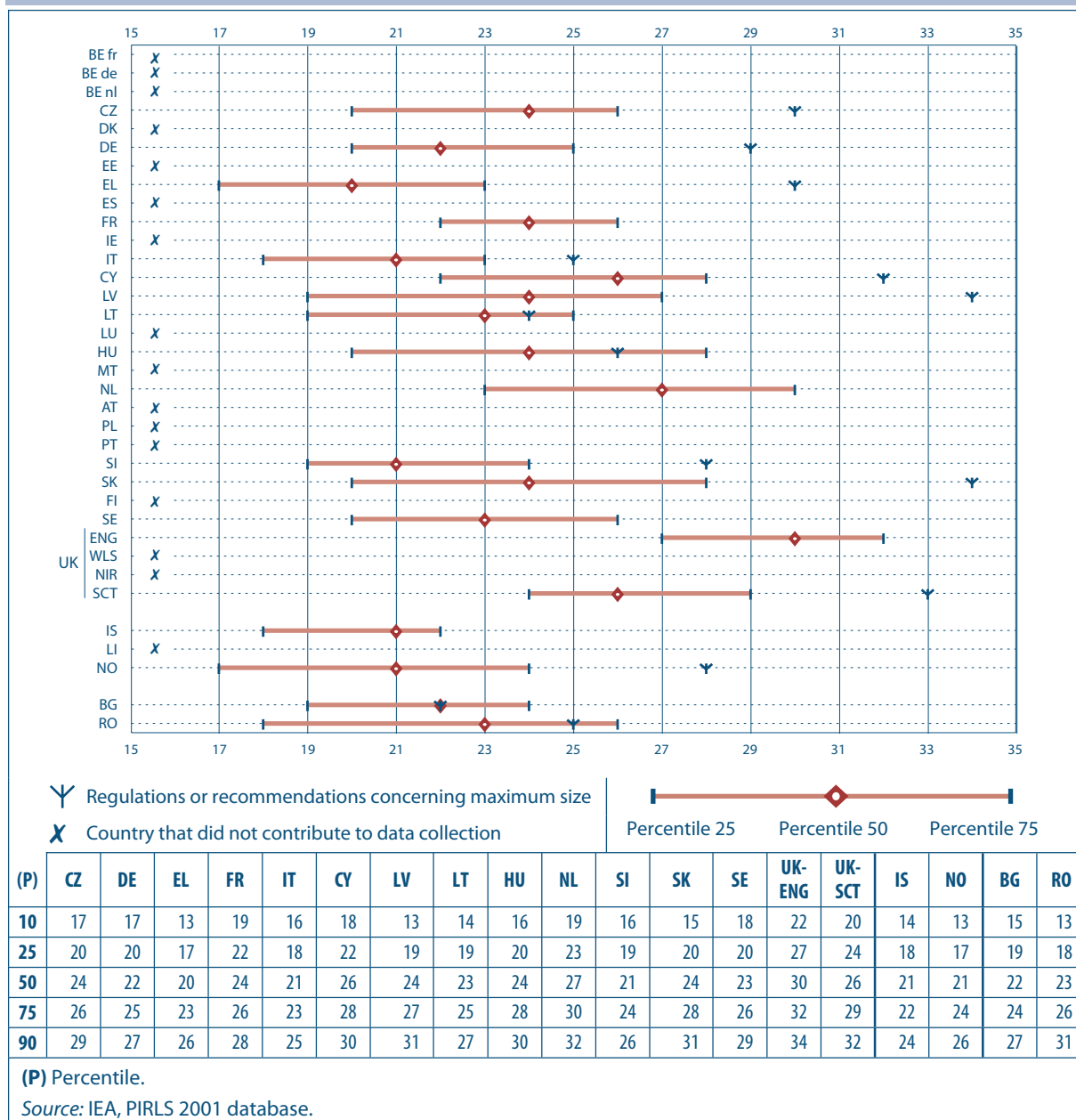
The pupil/teacher ratio is obtained by dividing the number of pupils (expressed in full-time equivalents) at a given level of education by the number of full-time equivalent teachers working at the same level. With very few exceptions, only teachers in service are taken into account. Staff who are assigned tasks other than teaching (inspectors, school heads who do not teach, teachers on secondment, etc.) and prospective teachers doing teaching practice in schools are not included. Support teachers or other teachers working with an entire class in a single classroom, with small groups in a library or providing individual tuition within or outside a conventional classroom are included.

In general, class sizes (Figure E16) are much greater than pupil/teacher ratios. If all countries are considered as a whole, a relation may however be identified between both indicators in that, wherever pupil/teacher ratios are higher, class sizes increase. Certain special cases may be emphasised. In Hungary and Slovakia, class sizes are relatively similar. Yet the pupil/teacher ratio is unusually high in Slovakia and remarkably low in Hungary.

BIG VARIATIONS IN CLASS SIZES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Class sizes in the fourth year of primary education, as reported by teacher respondents in the PIRLS 2001 survey, vary considerably from one country to the next but also within countries. As a rule, data from schools point to sizes well within the official mandatory or recommended maximum sizes (Figure E14). Lithuania, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania are the only countries where the real size of classes in certain schools may exceed the maximum recommended sizes.

Figure E16: Distribution of pupils in the fourth year of primary education with respect to the size of their class, as reported by teachers and compared to officially recommended or required maximum sizes, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Explanatory note (Figure E16)

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of pupils in the class.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the distribution of teachers with respect to the size of their class, but the distribution of pupils.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In the interests of clarity, the Figure only shows values corresponding to the percentiles 25, 50 and 75 in the distribution. Values for the percentiles 10 and 90 are shown in the table under the Figure.

Particularly large classes are apparent mainly in Cyprus, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, and to a lesser extent in Latvia, Hungary and Slovakia. In Greece, Italy, Iceland, Norway and Romania, a quarter of classes contain fewer than 17 or 18 pupils. These small class sizes are partly attributable to the location of the schools concerned, which tend to be situated in rural areas.

However, class size differs from the pupil/teacher ratio (the number of pupils per teacher). In general, class sizes clearly exceed this pupil/teacher ratio (Figure E15), given that several teachers may be responsible for a single class. Nevertheless, the relation between the two indicators is plainly apparent in that countries with relatively small classes in the fourth year of primary education also report low pupil/teacher ratios for the whole of primary level. As an example, one may cite the cases of Greece, Italy, Slovenia, Iceland and Norway with a median equal to 20 or 21 pupils per class and a pupil/teacher ratio of between 10.5 and 12.5. Conversely, countries with relatively large classes also have high pupil/teacher ratios. Thus in Cyprus, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, the median is greater than 25 pupils per class and the ratio higher than 17. However, a few countries depart from this trend. In Lithuania and Sweden, classes tend to be big (with a median of 23 pupils) and pupil/teacher ratios small (12.5 pupils per teacher). The case of Hungary is even more striking with a median of 24 pupils per class and a ratio of just 10.8 pupils per teacher.

WHOLE-CLASS TEACHING IS THE MOST COMMON APPROACH USED TO TEACH READING

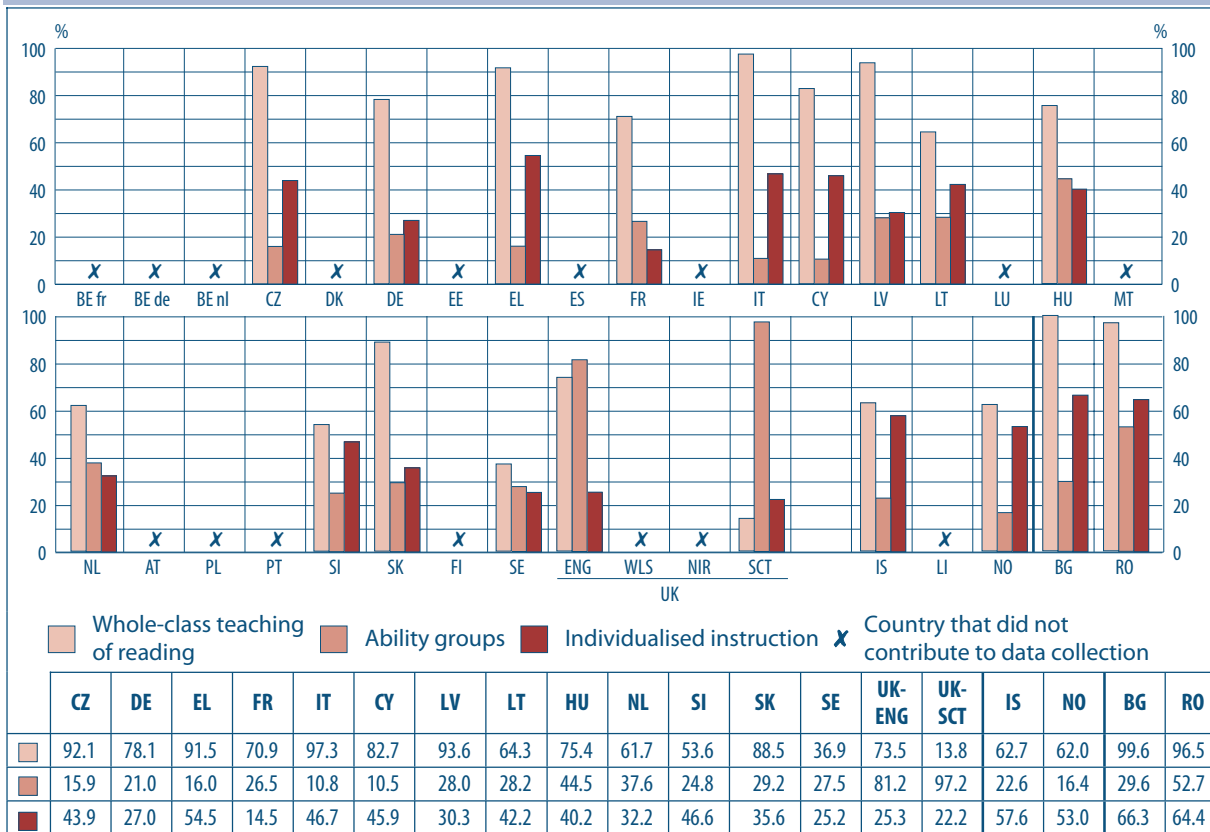
For instruction in reading in the fourth year of primary education, whole-class teaching appears to be the most common organisational approach in countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey. It enables teachers to communicate with all pupils at the same time. According to the replies from teachers in three countries (Italy, Bulgaria and Romania), this method of instruction is adopted almost everywhere. In the United Kingdom, Scotland exemplifies a different approach in that whole-class teaching appears to be far less widespread than in other countries. The same situation is also apparent in Sweden, but less markedly so.

Teaching for small groups based on ability is the preferred approach in the United Kingdom (England and Scotland) and very common in Romania.

Finally, individual tuition in reading is very widespread, especially in countries in which the majority of teachers engage in whole-class teaching (as in Greece, Italy, Bulgaria and Romania), but also in Iceland and Norway. It is less common in Germany, France, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

These data reflect the different educational traditions of countries in Europe. The position of the United Kingdom, where it has been common practice in recent decades to sub-divide classes into small groups for differentiated teaching, calls for further comment. A national strategy for teaching literacy was introduced in England in 1998. The implementation of this strategy, which gave support to whole-class teaching, may account for the significant difference noted between England and Scotland.

Figure E17: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in accordance with the organisational approach most often used to teach reading, as reported by their teachers, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate how often they taught reading (always or almost always, often, sometimes, never) using the following different organisational approaches: whole-class teaching; teaching same-ability groups; teaching mixed-ability groups; teaching groups formed in accordance with other arrangements; individualised instruction. The Figure is concerned with three parameters, namely whole-class teaching, same-ability groups and individualised instruction, and the possible answers 'always or almost always' and 'often' combined under a single heading.

Ability groups here refer to pupils grouped within classes by teachers themselves for instruction in a given subject.

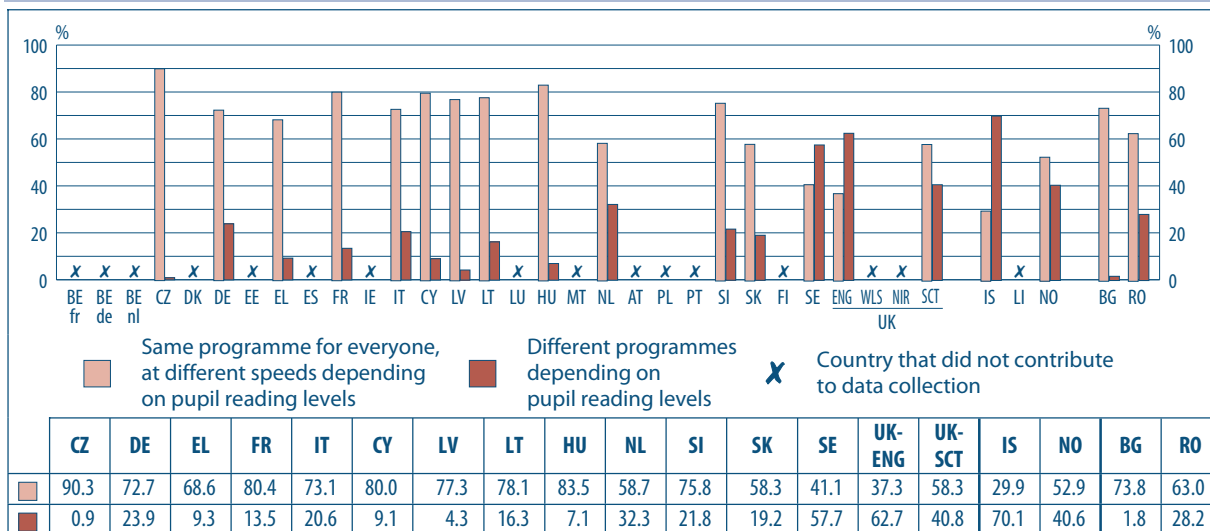
The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of teachers who gave a particular reply, but the proportions of pupils whose teachers gave this reply.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION IN READING, PARTICULARLY IN NORTHERN EUROPE

All education systems are faced with the need to consider individual differences among children from the start of primary education, but the way these differences are handled varies from one kind of system to the next. Separate programmes for learning to read, each geared to a different level of pupil ability, appear to be an alternative to varying the rate at which instruction is provided in accordance with the progress achieved by pupils.

Figure E18: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in accordance with how the programme of instruction is geared to pupil reading levels, as reported by the school head, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to select from among several statements the one that best described the extent to which the programme of instruction in reading was geared to the different reading levels of pupils.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils of a class in the fourth year of primary education. It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools that adopted one or other of the approaches at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of that particular kind.

For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

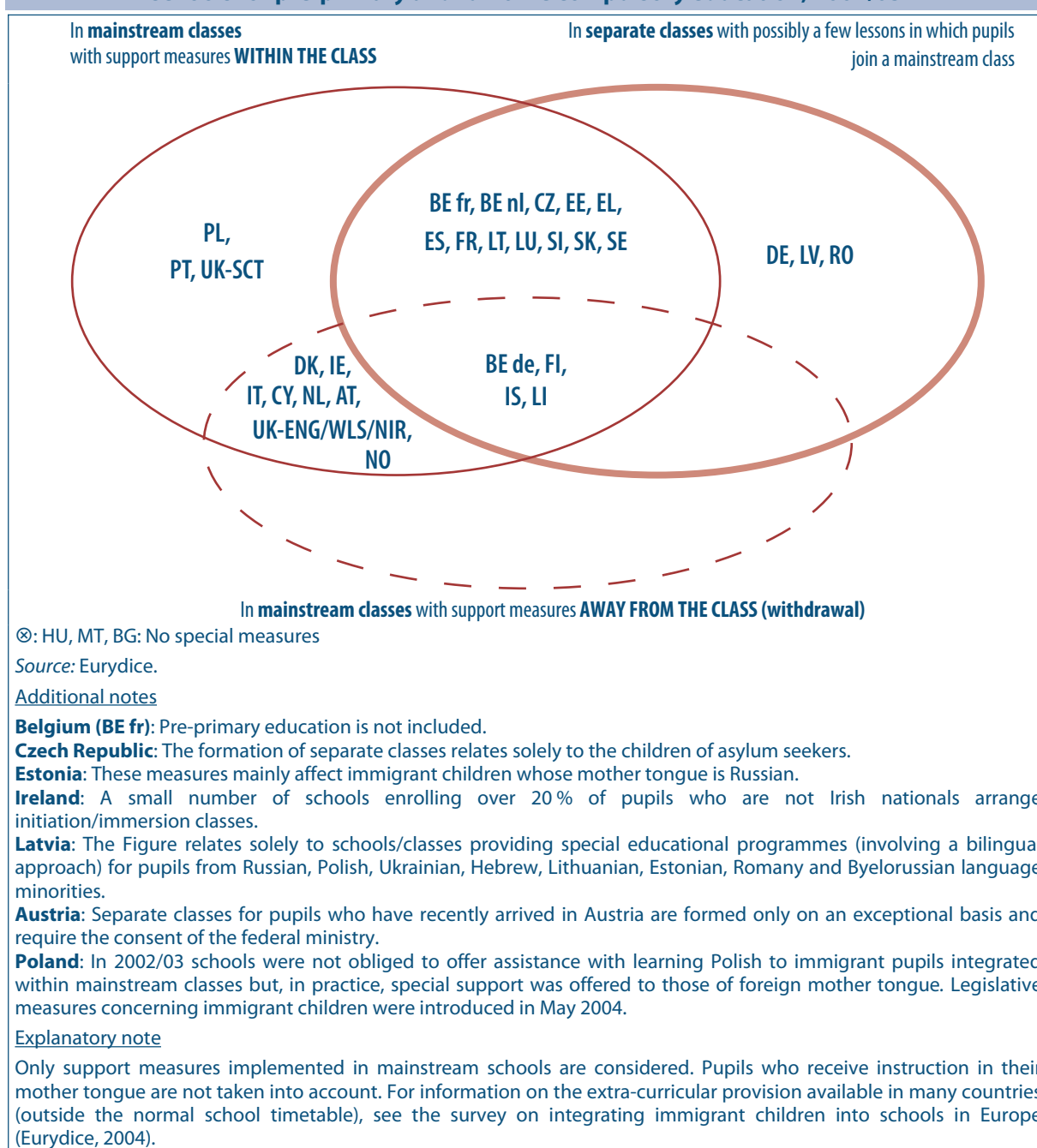
In primary education in most European countries that took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey, school heads reported that differences of ability among pupils were dealt with by varying the pace at which reading was taught. While the content and methodological approaches remained the same for everyone, the programme was taken at a greater or lesser speed, depending on the pupils concerned.

However, in a few countries, schools often provide different programmes in terms of content or method for different pupil reading levels. Programmes that differ in this way are particularly widespread in Sweden, the United Kingdom (England and Scotland), Iceland and Norway. In all these countries pupils proceed to the next year of school as a matter of course, whereas other European countries where the pace of instruction is varied to match the progress of pupils require those with learning difficulties to do the same year again (Figure E23).

INTEGRATION OF IMMIGRANT PUPILS: FROM INDIVIDUAL SUPPORT TO SEPARATE CLASSES

Depending on national legislation or recommendations or, in some countries, decisions taken by schools, immigrant pupils of foreign mother tongue are integrated within mainstream schools in accordance with three main types of arrangement.

Figure E19: Arrangements for integrating immigrant pupils of foreign mother tongue within schools for pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2002/03



The first approach involves immediately integrating pupils into mainstream education, sometimes by enrolling them in a school year preceding the one corresponding to their age, so that they have time to improve their knowledge of the language of instruction. Most countries adopt this approach, and teachers are expected to offer immigrant pupils individual support.

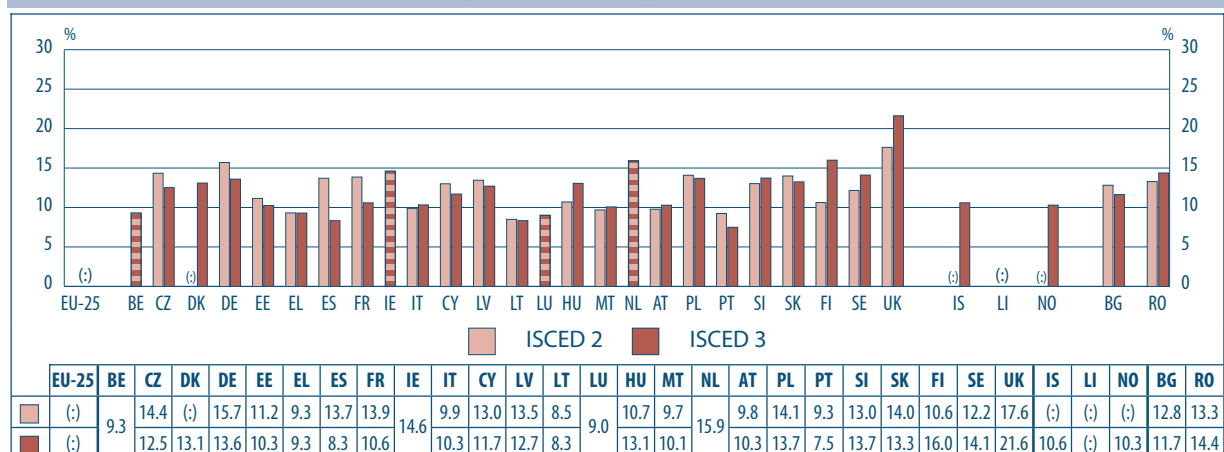
The second approach involves offering support to pupils individually or in groups away from their class in what is sometimes known as 'withdrawal', particularly during lessons on the language of instruction. It is adopted in conjunction with the first method in around ten countries.

The third approach aims to provide these pupils with separate instruction focusing on their special requirements – particularly their linguistic ones – and to integrate them gradually into mainstream education. Immigrant pupils are thus put in a class (usually known as a 'transition class', 'reception class' or 'immersion class') for a period varying from a few weeks to several months but generally no longer than a school year. In certain cases, they join the mainstream class for lessons in which limited proficiency in the language of instruction is not a serious handicap (in artistic subjects, sports activities or foreign languages). This approach is adopted in a majority of countries. It is sometimes subject to certain conditions such as a sufficient proportion of immigrant pupils at the school, or provision for specific groups (for example, children of asylum seekers or from a particular language group). In Germany, Latvia and Romania, immigrant pupils are integrated into schools essentially by means of this third procedure.

BETWEEN 10 AND 15 PUPILS PER TEACHER IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

In secondary education, the majority of countries have pupil/teacher ratios that vary between 10 and 15 pupils per teacher. These ratios are generally lower than in primary education (Figure E15).

**Figure E20: Ratio of pupils to teaching staff in secondary education
(ISCED 2 and 3), 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Private schools that are not government-dependent are not included. Pupils and teachers involved in 'social advancement' provision in the French Community are not included, and teachers and pupils in the German-speaking Community are not taken into account.

Belgium, Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway: ISCED 3 data include all or some teaching staff working at ISCED level 4.

Estonia: 2000/01 data for 2001/02.

Luxembourg: The diagram relates solely to the public sector.

Finland: ISCED 3 data include teachers working at ISCED levels 4 and 5 in technical and vocational programmes.

Explanatory note (Figure E20)

The pupil/teacher ratio is obtained by dividing the number of pupils (expressed in full-time equivalents) at a given level of education by the number of full-time equivalent teachers working at the same level. With very few exceptions, only teachers in service are taken into account. Staff who are assigned tasks other than teaching (inspectors, school heads who do not teach, teachers on secondment, etc.) and prospective teachers doing teaching practice in schools are not included. Support teachers or other teachers working with an entire class in a single classroom, with small groups in a library or providing individual tuition within or outside a conventional classroom are included.

Belgium, Greece, Latvia, Luxembourg and Portugal record ratios lower than 10 pupils per teacher for both levels of secondary education. By contrast, in the United Kingdom, the ratios appear much higher.

Pupil/teacher ratios should not be confused with the size of classes. The difference between the number of hours taught statutorily by teachers and the number of hours of teaching earmarked for pupils, as well as the presence of support teachers who have no teaching load and assist pupils with special educational needs, are among factors with a bearing on the pupil/teacher ratio without however affecting the size of classes (Figure E21). As a rule, class sizes are always greater than the foregoing ratios.

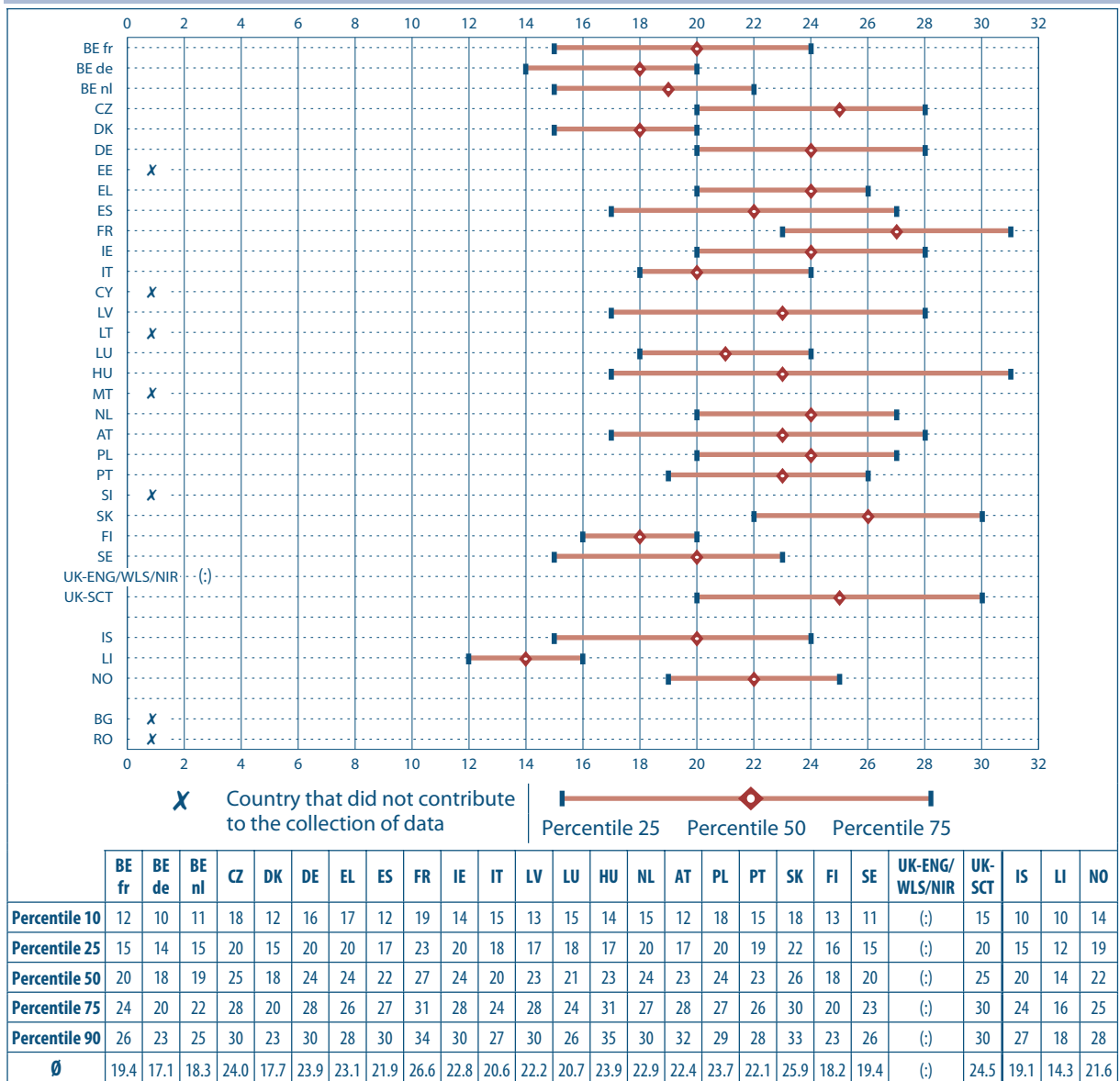
MATHEMATICS CLASSES FOR 15-YEAR-OLDS RANGE IN SIZE FROM 10 TO 40

Sizes for classes in mathematics as reported by 15-year-old pupils in the PISA 2003 survey, vary considerably from one country to the next. They range from around 14 pupils on average in Liechtenstein to over 26 in France. In the majority of countries, the average class size is between 20 and 23 pupils. In Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Liechtenstein, it is under 20. In the Czech Republic, France, Slovakia and the United Kingdom (Scotland), it is over 23. These variations are of the same order as those observed in primary education (Figure E16). Variations between schools are substantial, especially in Spain, Hungary, Austria and Iceland.

It is worth remembering that pupils aged 15 are either in lower secondary or upper secondary education, which partially accounts for certain variations. In the Nordic countries where class sizes are smaller on average (except in Norway), virtually all 15-year-old pupils are enrolled in the final years of the single structure corresponding to lower secondary education (Figure C7).

Class sizes are always greater than pupil/teacher ratios (Figure E20), and there may even be considerable differences between the two. Thus in Greece, classes of 15-year-olds contain almost 23 pupils on average, whereas the pupil/teacher ratios are less than 10 pupils for every teacher. The difference between the statutory teaching time of teachers (Figure D34) and the taught time of pupils (Figure E1), as well as the presence of teachers who have specialised in assisting pupils with special educational needs and have no teaching load, largely account for the differences observed between class size and pupil/teacher ratios.

Figure E21: Distribution of pupils aged 15, by size of their mathematics class, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



Ø Average size

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional note

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (p10 = 15; p25 = 20; p50 = 25; p75 = 30; p90 = 30; Ø = 24.7) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

Pupils were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate the number of pupils in their mathematics class.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended.

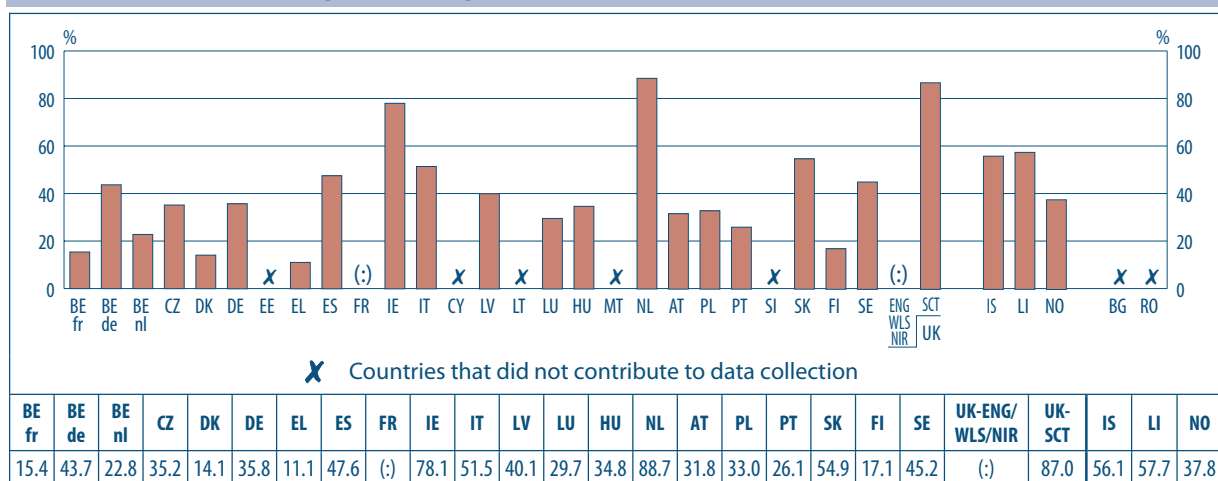
For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

In the interests of clarity, the Figure only shows values corresponding to the percentiles 25, 50 and 75 in the distribution. Values for the percentiles 10 and 90 are shown in the table under the Figure.

USE MADE OF PUPIL ASSESSMENT WHEN FORMING TEACHING GROUPS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

According to school heads who took part in the PISA 2003 survey, the use of assessments of pupils aged 15 to form teaching groups is reported in the case of 30-60 % of pupils in most countries. It should be noted that the survey question does not provide a specific answer as to whether the groups are permanent (classrooms) or occasional (for one subject). The countries where this practice is most widespread (i.e. applies to over 75 % of pupils) are Ireland, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

Figure E22: Proportion of pupils aged 15 attending a school in which, according to the school head, assessments are used when forming groups or classes, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (proportion of pupils = 94.31) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

School heads were asked in the questionnaire sent to them to indicate whether the assessment of 15-year-old pupils was used at their school to group them for educational purposes. This could be taken to mean either the formation of classes in accordance with the general ability of pupils, or the formation of groups for teaching some subjects on the basis of certain specific abilities.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of that particular kind.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

The grouping of pupils on the basis of their results following assessment seems unrelated to the way education is structured. It is practised by a relatively high proportion of schools in countries such as Sweden and Iceland with a single structure and very little in Denmark and Finland, which also have a single structure. (Figure B1).



EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

On the other hand, arrangements for grouping pupils may also be related to other factors such as school size or whether pupils are selected by ability when they enrol at a school. If schools are smaller in size, this does indeed limit the scope for forming ability groups or classes, and it is to be noted that relatively small schools exist in Greece and Finland and particularly large ones in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland) as shown in Figure B11. Furthermore, the fact that a school's intake may be fairly uniform in terms of ability may to some extent obviate the need for it to form ability groups or classes. Thus in Ireland and the United Kingdom (Scotland), the ability of pupils is not taken into account when they enrol (Figure B6), which may account for the high proportion of school heads who say they use pupil attainment to form groups within the school. Conversely, in Luxembourg where assessment of ability does occur at the point of enrolment, the formation of ability groups within schools is less frequent.



EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

SECTION III – ASSESSMENT OF PUPILS

PROGRESSION FROM ONE YEAR TO THE NEXT: THE POSSIBILITY OF REPEATING A YEAR MAINLY EXISTS IN CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

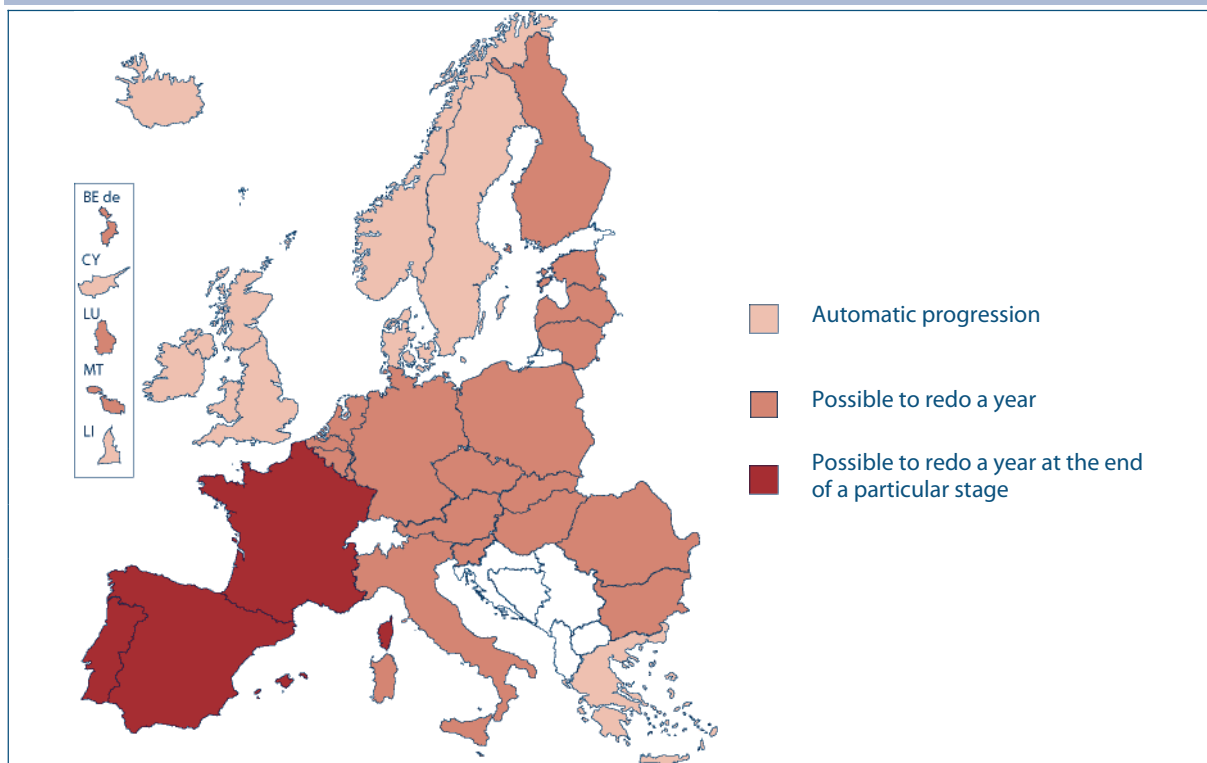
Countries vary in the way they manage learning difficulties experienced by pupils, who normally progress from one year to the next in accordance with one of two standard procedures. The first involves them redoing the year they have just completed whereas, in the second, they move on to the following year as a matter of course.

In many countries, pupils who have not acquired an adequate mastery of the curriculum at the end of a school year or who are not regarded as sufficiently mature to move on immediately have an opportunity to **repeat the year**. The decision to make pupils redo a year is at the discretion of the school concerned. This may occur in Belgium, Germany, Italy, Luxemburg, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, and 9 of the new Member States as well as Bulgaria and Romania. It should be noted that while it may be theoretically possible in these countries for pupils to redo a year, in practice this may sometimes happen only very rarely. In Finland, for example, pupils may only repeat a year in two possible cases – either when they are deemed to have ‘failed’ in one or more subjects following assessment, or when their overall study progress is such that doing the year again is considered appropriate. However, in the first case, pupils must have been given an opportunity to demonstrate, without further instruction, that they have reached the level required for them to move on. In the second, a parent or guardian must be given an opportunity to express an opinion before any decision is taken.

By contrast, in countries such as Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Cyprus, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, pupils normally **progress automatically** from one year to the next throughout compulsory education, with supplementary teaching support measures provided for those in difficulty. Nevertheless, even in countries that have opted for automatic progression, it may be possible for pupils to **repeat a year under exceptional circumstances**. Depending on the country concerned, these may range from a very long period of absence (for example due to illness) during the school year, to a recommendation by suitably qualified persons external to the school (psychologists, doctors, social workers, etc.). Such decisions are usually taken with the agreement of the school head and the parents concerned.

Even in countries where it is possible to take a year again, pupils are not allowed to do so an unlimited number of times (Belgium, Spain and Cyprus). Furthermore, they may only be able to do so at certain stages of their school career. For example, pupils in Spain, France and Portugal can only repeat a year at the end of each stage lasting, in these countries, between two and four years. In some countries including Belgium (the French Community), Germany, Hungary, Portugal and Bulgaria, pupils cannot redo the initial year or the first years of primary school.

Figure E23: Main official recommendation for the progression to the next year during mainstream primary education (ISCED 1), 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: It is possible to redo a year only twice during primary education.

Denmark and Greece: It is only possible for children to repeat a year if there are exceptional reasons for concluding that they will benefit from this.

Germany and Austria: Pupils move on automatically from the first to the second year of primary school. Subsequently, they may be made to repeat a year depending on their results.

Estonia: Pupils only have to redo the first or second year under exceptional circumstances (e.g. for medical reasons).

Spain: Pupils can only repeat a year once, although this may occur at the end of any of the three *ciclos*.

Italy: Non-admission to the following year is authorised only in exceptional cases. Where class teachers consider it necessary to propose deferred admission, they have to submit a special report to the *Consiglio di interclasse* (inter-class council).

Cyprus: Pupils can only retake a year once during primary education.

Latvia: According to a statement by the Ministry of Education and Science (27 November 2003), school boards no longer require parental agreement to any decision that pupils should repeat a year.

Hungary: Pupils move up from the first to the second year as a matter of course. After that, they may have to repeat a year if they have not reached the required level of attainment.

Malta: In primary education, pupils only have to repeat a year in exceptional cases. The head of school recommendation is crucial in deciding whether this should occur. Parents whose children fail the *Junior Lyceum* examination at the end of primary education can request that they redo the final year with a view to retaking the examination the following year.

Netherlands: The option of repeating a year is avoided as far as possible. It usually happens only when a child is considerably behind classmates in his/her level of attainment and development and the school has been unable to find any other solution.

Poland: During the first three years, pupils may only do their year again under exceptional circumstances and after the school has consulted their parents and specialist staff at centres for psychological assistance.

Portugal: It is most unusual for pupils to repeat a year in the first stage.

Slovenia: Pupils in the first and second stage of the nine-year single structure are able to repeat each year only with the consent of their parents. Those in the final stage within the former eight-year single structure (which was phased out in 2003/04) could redo each year without securing such consent.

Additional notes (Figure E23 continued))

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Although it is generally accepted that pupils should move up with their peers, there is nothing in the law which directly requires this, so practice can vary in individual classes.

Liechtenstein: It is possible to redo a year on a voluntary basis once during primary education.

Bulgaria: It is possible to repeat any year except the first year of primary school following which summer courses are organised for children experiencing difficulty.

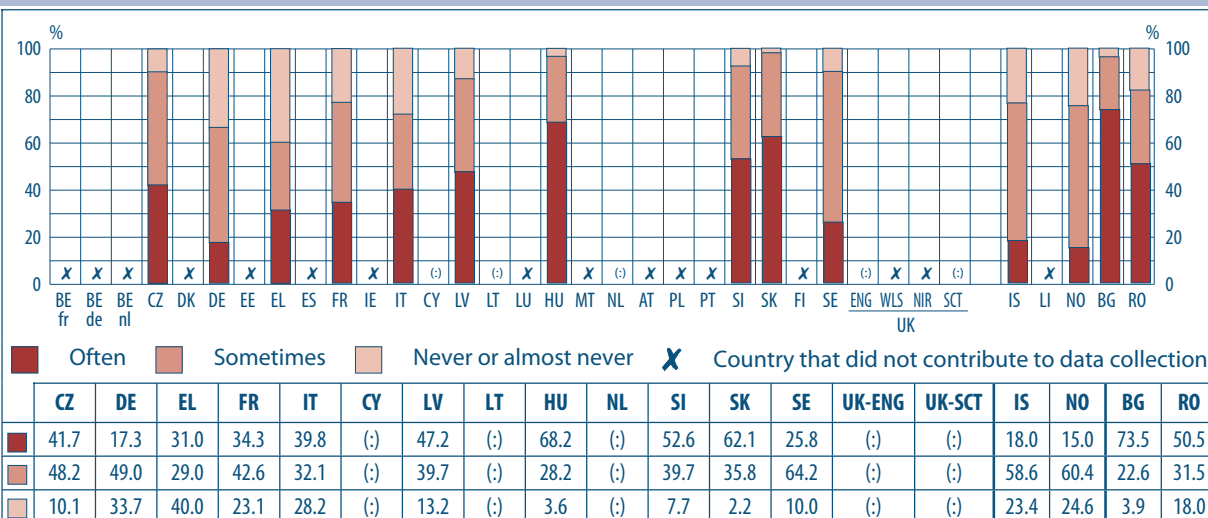
Explanatory note

Decisions arising from the assessment of children with special educational needs in mainstream classes are not covered.

PARENTS ARE GENERALLY KEPT INFORMED ABOUT THEIR CHILDREN'S PROGRESS IN THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

In most European countries which took part in the PIRLS 2001 survey and for which data is available, parents of children attending the fourth year of primary education say that they are generally (often or sometimes) informed about their children's progress in the language of instruction. The proportion of pupils to whom this applies is highest in Slovakia, followed by Hungary, Slovenia and Bulgaria. In these countries, almost all parents receive information on a regular basis. However, the parents of about 40 % of all fourth-year pupils in Greece indicate that they are 'never' or 'almost never' informed. In Germany and Italy, about one third of all parents are in the same situation.

Figure E24: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education whose parents say they receive information from the school on their children's performance in the language of instruction, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Additional note

Cyprus, Lithuania, Netherlands and United Kingdom: The response rate to the questionnaire addressed to parents was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data.

Explanatory note

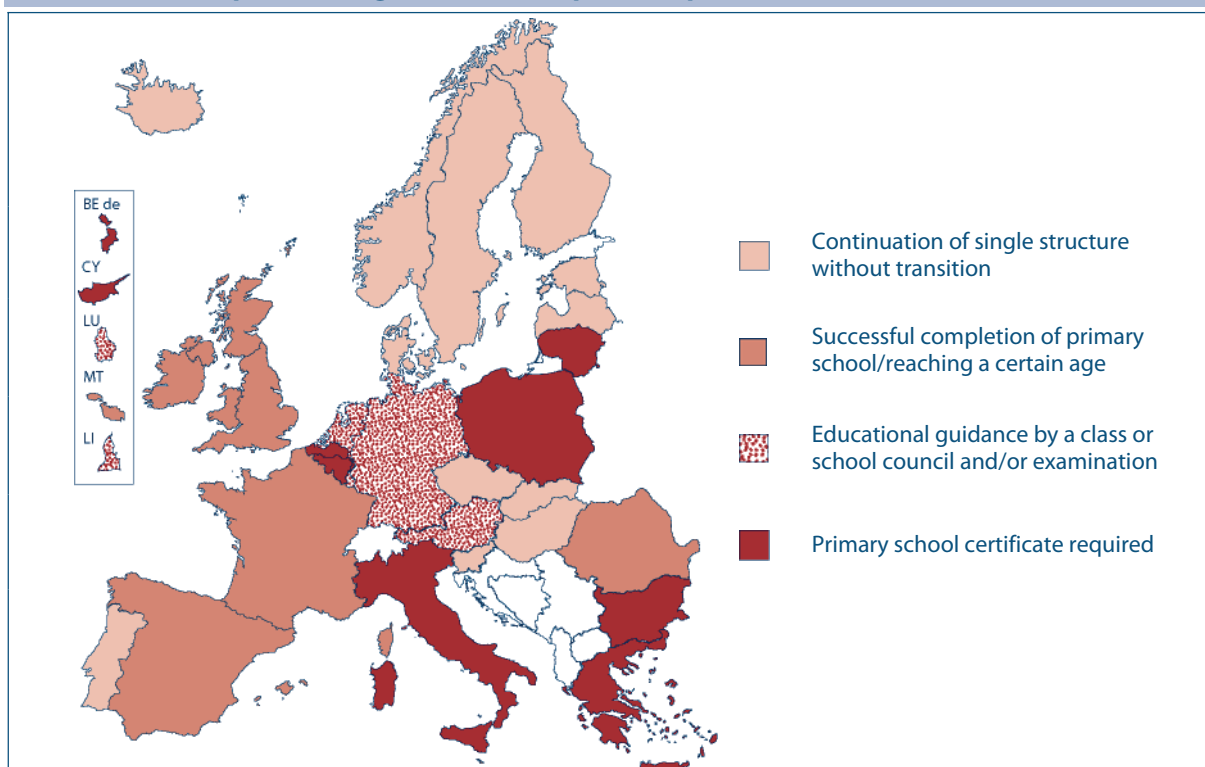
In the questionnaire sent to them, pupils' parents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they received information from the school on their children's results in the language of instruction.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (from a class in the fourth year of primary education). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For further information on the PIRLS survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

ONLY IN A FEW COUNTRIES IS A PRIMARY SCHOOL CERTIFICATE REQUIRED FOR ADMISSION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

The organisation of compulsory education varies widely throughout Europe (Figure B1). In a first group of countries, pupils complete all – or nearly all – of their compulsory education within a single structure. In a second group of countries, there are two successive levels of education, primary and secondary, and in most of them there is a ‘common core’ at the start of secondary education, offering all pupils a common basic course. However, in some of them, pupils at this point may choose between several branches or types of school.

**Figure E25: Conditions of admission to lower secondary education (ISCED 2),
public and government-dependent private sectors, 2002/03**



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Pupils who have not obtained the primary school leaving certificate on completion of the sixth year of primary education and/or who are at least 12 years old may be admitted to the first stage of lower secondary education either in the 1st year of general education, or in a transitional class for pupils who still have to obtain the certificate.

Lithuania: A primary school certificate was introduced in 2002/03.

Malta: Admission to a number of government-dependent secondary schools is also by means of a nationally based examination called the *Common Entrance Examination*. This is an examination set collectively by those church secondary schools that use it to enrol pupils. Pupils who wish to continue their secondary education in *Junior Lyceums*, have to pass a special *Junior Lyceum* examination.

Poland: Since 1999, following abolition of the single structure, the successful completion of primary school and possession of the primary school certificate have been required for admission to the *gimnazjum*. In 2002, an obligatory external test was introduced at the end of primary school. It has a diagnostic rather than a selective function. Sitting this test, regardless of the results obtained, is required for the completion of primary school.

United Kingdom (ENG/NIR): In Northern Ireland, and in some areas of England, there are selective schools for which admission depends on the results of a competitive examination.

In certain countries, the results of pupils have a bearing on arrangements for their transition from primary to secondary education. There are four main groups of countries.

In the first group, in which compulsory education forms a single structure (12 countries), admission to the final years is automatic with no transition. Thus, pupils progress to the next year if they have fulfilled the requirements of the previous one. However, when pupils in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia choose to complete their compulsory education in a secondary school, rather than within the single-structure system, they have to take an examination set by the school concerned.

To gain admission to lower secondary education in the second group of countries, pupils must have successfully completed the last year of primary school. This applies to Spain, Ireland, Malta and Romania. In France and the United Kingdom, children are normally admitted to secondary level when they reach the appropriate age.

In the third group of countries, the transition to lower secondary education depends on the decision of a class council or school council, in addition to the successful completion of primary education. In all these countries, lower secondary education is divided into different types of educational provision. Pupils who have completed primary education are therefore steered towards different types of school depending on their results at primary level. In Germany, the primary school recommendation forms the basis for deciding which type of subsequent provision pupils should receive or advising them or their parents in this respect. Indeed, the recommendation involves full consultation with parents in all cases. Depending on the *Land* concerned, the final decision is taken by the parents, the prospective school or the school supervisory authority. In Luxembourg, a guidance recommendation is issued at the end of the sixth year of primary school. If the parents decide not to accept it, the pupil has to take a national entrance examination for admission to general secondary education. In the Netherlands, the primary school leaving report depends partly on the assessment of the pupil which, in most cases, involves tests organised at central level during the final year of *basisonderwijs*. Admission to the *allgemein bildende höhere Schule* in Austria depends on pupils having successfully completed the fourth year of primary school with the grade 'Excellent' or 'Good' in German and mathematics. Pupils who are not automatically admitted to the *allgemein bildende höhere Schule* can take an entrance examination set by it.

Finally, in a small number of countries where primary and secondary education are separate, the decision to transfer pupils to the next level depends on whether or not they have a primary school leaving certificate. This is awarded on the basis of work during the school year in Greece, Italy (since 2004/05), Cyprus, Lithuania, Poland and Bulgaria. In Belgium, the certificate may generally be obtained on completion of the sixth year of primary education on the basis of attainment at school in the final two years. In virtually all these countries, it is issued by the individual school with no external oversight.

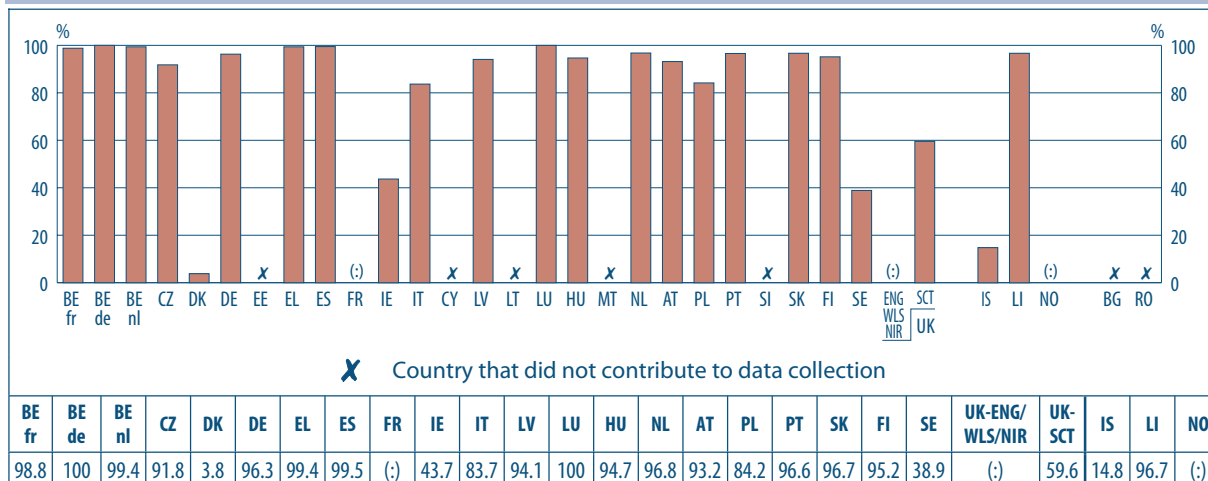
IN MOST COUNTRIES, PROGRESS TO THE NEXT YEAR OF SECONDARY EDUCATION DEPENDS ON ATTAINMENT

During the school year, continuous assessment of pupils may be based on written or oral tests, written or practical assignments, projects or homework, or other forms of evaluation at the discretion of the teacher concerned.

In most of the countries which took part in the PISA 2003 survey, assessments of 15-year-old pupils at secondary level are commonly taken into account when deciding whether they should progress to the next year. Denmark and Iceland are the countries where this occurs least frequently; less than 15 % of pupils aged 15 attend schools that use assessment for this purpose.

In most of the foregoing countries where assessment is less often the basis for progressing to the next school year, the path through mainstream primary education tends to be automatic, with pupils only rarely having to redo a year (Figure E23). Although Figure E26 refers to those aged 15, there appears to be some sort of relation between the use of assessment in secondary education to decide on pupils' progression and the way in which progression through primary education is regulated.

Figure E26: Proportions of pupils aged 15 attending a school in which their attainment is taken into account when deciding whether they should progress to the next year, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03



Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Additional notes

France: In 2003, the 'school' questionnaire was not completed by school heads.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The response rate in 2003 was considered too low to guarantee the comparability of data. This explains why the data (proportion of pupils = 69.1) are not shown in the Figure.

Explanatory note

In the questionnaire sent to them, school heads were asked to indicate whether the evaluation of pupils aged 15 was used by the school to decide on the children's retention or promotion.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size. This explains why the Figure does not directly show the proportions of schools associated with one or other of the factors at issue, but the proportions of pupils attending a school of the particular kind concerned.

For further information on the PISA survey, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section.

**CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT AT THE END OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY
EDUCATION IS GENERALLY PARTLY BASED ON
AN EXTERNAL FINAL EXAMINATION**

In the great majority of European countries, a certificate is awarded to pupils at the end of general lower secondary education or to those who complete full-time compulsory education. The information given here relates solely to the award of certificates in general education, which in most countries corresponds to a transition to upper secondary education. Only pupils who attend VWO and HAVO schools in the Netherlands, as well as pupils in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, do not receive a certificate at this stage of their education.

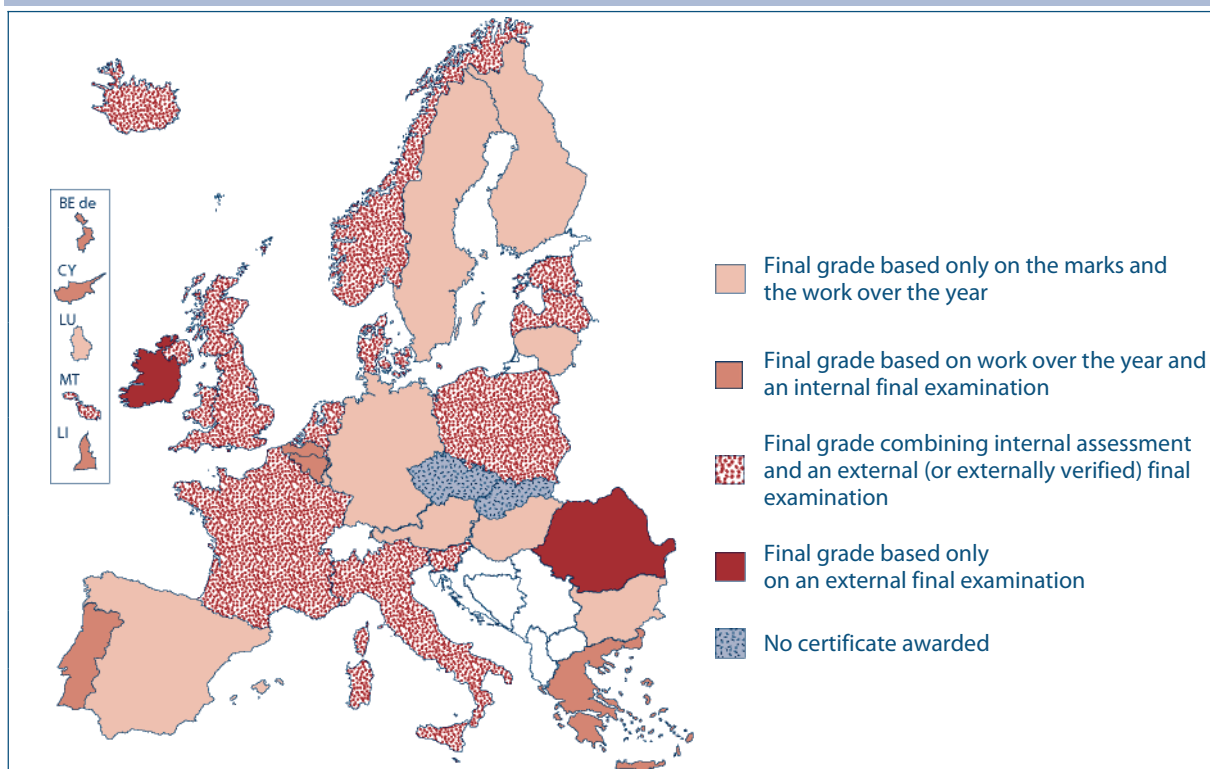
In most cases, this certificate is awarded to pupils at least partly on the basis of results obtained in a final examination. It is even awarded wholly on this basis in a few *Länder* in Germany (in the case of the *Hauptschule* and *Realschule*), Ireland and Romania. However, in most German *Länder*, Spain, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Austria, Finland, Sweden and Bulgaria, the certificate is awarded only on the basis of the pupil's marks and work over the year.

When a final examination is set, it includes at least one written part. Sometimes the tests, written and/or oral, are compiled by a team from outside the school but they are usually administered by the school. It is only in Greece, Cyprus, Portugal and Liechtenstein that the written part is prepared within the school, which is entirely responsible for it. In Italy, the chair of the examination board, who is not a member of the school, gives his or her opinion on the tests set by the teachers and supervises the correction and marking. In the Netherlands, the final examination consists of two tests: an internal test (*schoolexamen*), which is oral and/or written, and a written test set by an external body (*centraal examen*). Estonia follows the latter model, with three written tests. Finally, in Iceland, pupils take internal and external examinations at the end of the single structure.

Where the certificate is awarded on the basis of marks and work during the year or the results of an examination set by the school, teachers are generally responsible for the mark shown on the certificate. In Latvia and the Netherlands, teachers mark the external examination and comply with the marking requirements laid down by a national body.

In several countries, the mark given by teachers is either weighted by an external grade (for example, the results obtained in the external examination) or decided on the basis of criteria established by an external authority. In Ireland, Malta, the United Kingdom and Romania, the final grade is awarded by examiners from outside the school.

Figure E27: Certified assessment at the end of general lower secondary education or full-time compulsory education, 2002/03



Source: Eurydice.

The certificate is awarded on the basis of

a final examination	DE (in certain Länder for the <i>Hauptschule</i> and the <i>Realschule</i>), IE, RO
the grades and work over the year	DK (optional final examination), DE (most Länder), ES, LT, LU, HU, AT, FI, SE, BG
a final examination and the grades and work over the year	BE, EE, EL, FR, IT, CY, LV, MT, NL (VMBO), PL, PT, SI, UK, IS, LI, NO

When there is an examination, it is

written	BE de, EL, FR, IE (+ optional oral), CY, NL (<i>centraal examen</i>), PL, PT, SI, LI, RO
written and oral	BE fr, BE nl, DK, DE (in certain Länder for the <i>Hauptschule</i> and the <i>Realschule</i>), EE, IT, LV, MT (oral for languages and the practical component of some subjects, e.g. sciences, arts, etc.), NL (<i>schoolexamen</i>), UK (oral/practical examinations for some programmes only), IS, NO

When there is a written examination, it is set by

the school (internally)	BE, EL, CY, NL (<i>schoolexamen</i>), PT, IS, LI
the school with external verification	DE (in certain Länder for the <i>Hauptschule</i> and the <i>Realschule</i>), IT, SI
an external body/authority	DK, DE (in certain Länder for the <i>Hauptschule</i> and the <i>Realschule</i>), EE, FR, IE, LV, MT, NL (<i>centraal examen</i>), PL, UK, IS, NO, RO

When there is an oral examination, it is set by

the school (internally)	BE fr, BE nl, DK, DE (in certain Länder for the <i>Hauptschule</i> and the <i>Realschule</i>), NL (<i>schoolexamen</i>), UK-SCT, IS
the school with external verification	IT, UK-SCT, NO
an external body/authority	EE, IE, UK-ENG/WLS/NIR, LV, MT

The final grade is awarded by

only the pupil's teachers	BE, DE (most Länder), EL, ES, CY, LT, LU, HU, AT, PT, FI, SE, LI, BG
the teachers, but weighted by an external grade	DK, DE (in certain Länder for the <i>Hauptschule</i> and the <i>Realschule</i>), FR (work of 2 years and examination), IT, SI, IS, NO
the teachers, on the basis of criteria defined by an external body	EE, LV, NL
external examiners	IE, MT, PL, UK, RO

Additional notes (Figure E27)

Belgium: In the French and Flemish Communities, a certificate is awarded on completion of the second stage of secondary education, which is reached one year after the end of full-time compulsory education. In the Flemish Community, a first certificate is also awarded at the end of the first stage, i.e. one year before the end of full-time compulsory education. At present, in the German-speaking Community, a certificate is awarded at the end of the third year of secondary education (corresponding to the end of full-time compulsory education) until the key competencies which have to be attained by pupils at the end of the second stage of secondary education are fixed by law.

Denmark: The certificate always contains marks for work over the year. Pupils who sit for the optional final examinations receive a certificate which also indicates the marks awarded for them.

Germany: In a number of *Länder*, pupils must take a final examination (written and oral) to receive the certificate at the end of the *Hauptschule* or *Realschule*. Depending on the *Land*, the *Schulaufsichtsbehörde* (school supervisory authority) either sets the topics for the written examination centrally or merely gives its approval if they are set by individual schools.

Italy: Pupils also receive a certificate (awarded by the school) indicating the skills they have acquired.

Lithuania: In 2002/03, the external examination that was held on completion of compulsory education was abolished.

Malta: Internal assessment takes place in 11 subjects, taking into account the results of students' practical reports from the final three years of secondary education for the final grade.

Netherlands: The Figure shows the situation in VMBO schools. For students in HAVO and VWO schools, full-time compulsory education ends during upper secondary education.

Poland: A final external examination on completion of the *gimnazjum* was introduced in May 2002. The results obtained by pupils are indicated on the certificate and have a very strong bearing on their admission to upper secondary education.

Portugal: In 2004/05, the internal examination will be replaced by national examinations in Portuguese language and mathematics.

Slovenia: Since the 2001/02 school year, all pupils in the first contingent to complete their compulsory education under the new system have to take an external examination at the end of the ninth year of compulsory education. Pupils still enrolled under the former system (lasting eight years) do not have to take any final examinations (except in the case of selection for entry to upper secondary schools that impose a *numerus clausus*).

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): External qualifications are awarded on a single-subject basis. They are certified by independent awarding bodies but are government-regulated. Assessment schemes for these qualifications vary but always include externally set and marked components either at the end of the course or, in modular schemes, at the end of each module as well as at the end of the course. Assessment schemes may also include one or more pieces of externally moderated coursework completed over the two years of the course.

Explanatory note

In the category 'Final grade combining internal assessment and an external (or externally mediated) final exam', the internal assessment can mean a final internal test or an evaluation of the marks obtained or the coursework done during the year.



AT THE END OF GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, THE EXAMINATION FOR CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT IS OFTEN EXTERNAL

In all countries, a certificate is awarded to students who complete general upper secondary education and have met the set requirements. This certificate is normally a minimum requirement for admission to tertiary education.

In many countries, the certificate is awarded on the basis of the results obtained by students in the final examination and their work over the final year or years. In Spain and Sweden, the certificate is awarded solely on the basis of continuous assessment during the final year or years of general secondary education.

In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Finland, two certificates may be awarded at the end of general upper secondary education. In most of these countries, the first certificate is based solely on the marks received for the work during the final school year, whereas the second one is awarded on the basis of a final examination. In all these countries except Finland (in the case of *polytechnics*), the first certificate on its own does not provide for admission to tertiary education.

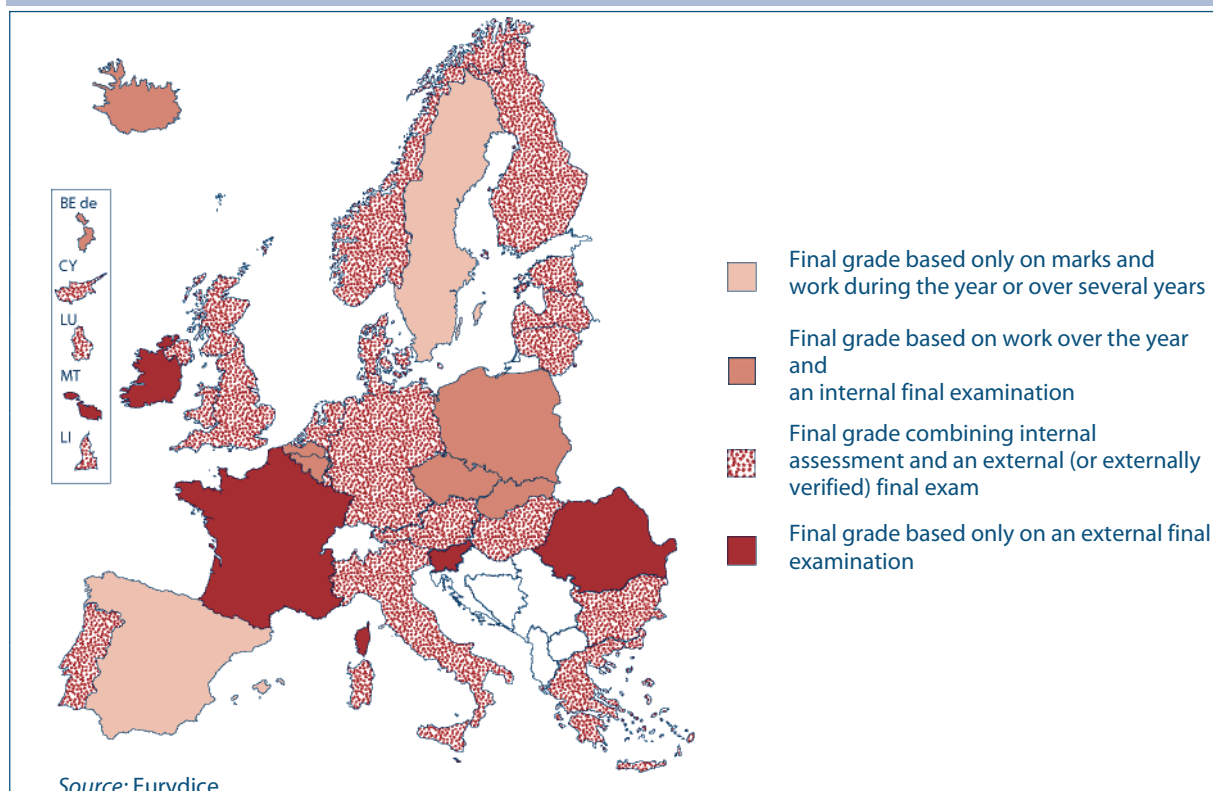
In the majority of countries, the final examination is in two parts, written and oral. In Greece, Cyprus, Lithuania, Portugal, Finland and Bulgaria, it is exclusively written. At this level of education, the written examination is very often compiled by a body external to the school, although it is still sometimes administered by the institution.

However, in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Iceland, the final written examination is set by a teacher or a team of teachers within the school. In Austria, the chairman of the examination committee selects the examination questions from those proposed by the school's teachers. In Greece and Portugal, students take two written examinations; one internal and one external. In Portugal, the external final examination is only scheduled for subjects studied until the end of upper secondary education.

In most countries where the final examination is in two parts (written and oral), these are organised in the same manner, either within the school or by an external body. In the Netherlands, the final examination consists of two tests: an internal test (*schoolexamen*), which is oral and/or written and set and marked by the teacher, and an external test (*centraal examen*) which is written, set by an external body and marked by the teachers according to the standards established by the external body.

Depending on the country concerned, the final grade is awarded by an examining body or persons from outside the school, or by teachers within the school who decide what marks students should get and whether the certificate can be awarded. To obtain the certificate following the external written matriculation examination in Finland, assessment is initially conducted by teachers and then by an external body, the *Matriculation Examination Board*. In Luxembourg and the majority of new Member States, external examiners award the final grade, taking into account the results obtained by the student in the external examination and work over the year. Finally, in Denmark, Germany and Norway, the certificate indicates the grades obtained by the student in the final examination (for the subjects assessed) and the results of work in the final year or years (for the other subjects or all subjects). In Estonia, external examinations are marked by external examiners. In Latvia and Lithuania, external examiners mark subjects assessed in centrally devised examinations while, in the case of other subjects, teachers correct tests with reference to norms established by an external body. In the Netherlands, the final grade is the average of the results in the two examinations (internal and external).

**Figure E28: Certified assessment
at the end of general upper secondary education, 2002/03**



Source: Eurydice.

The certificate is awarded on the basis of

a final examination	CZ (vysvědčení o maturitní zkoušce), EE (riigeksamitunnistus), FR, IE, HU (Gimnáziumi Érettségi Vizsga), MT, AT, PT, SI, SK (maturitne vysvedčenie), FI (Matriculation Examination), RO
the grades and work over the year	CZ (vysvědčení), ES (continuous assessment), HU (Gimnáziumi Bizonyítvány), PL (Świadectwo ukończenia liceum ogólnokształcącego), SK (vysvedčenie), FI (leaving certificate), SE (marks in the final three years)
a final examination and the grades and work over the year	BE, DK, DE, EE (gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus), EL, IT, CY, LV, LT, LU, NL, PL (Świadectwo maturalne), UK, IS, LI, NO, BG

When there is an examination, it is

written	EL, CY, LT, NL (centraal examen), PT, FI (Matriculation Examination), BG
written and oral	BE, CZ (vysvědčení o maturitní zkoušce), DK, DE, EE (riigeksamitunnistus and gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus, oral for second and foreign languages only), FR, IE, IT, LV, LU, HU (Gimnáziumi Érettségi Vizsga), MT (oral for languages and the practical component of some subjects, e.g. sciences, arts, etc.), NL (schoolexamen), AT, PL (Świadectwo maturalne), SI, SK (maturitne vysvedčenie), UK (oral/practical examinations for some programmes only), IS, LI, NO, RO

When there is a written examination, it is set by

the school (internally)	BE, CZ (vysvědčení o maturitní zkoušce), EE (gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus), EL, IT (one examination), NL (schoolexamen), PT, SK (maturitne vysvedčenie), IS
the school with external verification	DE (in some Länder), AT, LI
an external body/authority	DK, DE (in some Länder), EE (riigeksamitunnistus), EL, FR, IE, IT (two examinations), CY, LV, LT, LU, HU (Gimnáziumi Érettségi Vizsga), MT, NL (centraal examen), PL (Świadectwo maturalne), PT, SI, FI (Matriculation Examination), UK, NO, BG, RO

When there is an oral examination, it is set by

the school (internally)	BE, CZ (vysvědčení o maturitní zkoušce), DK, EE (gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus), NL (schoolexamen), PL (Świadectwo maturalne), SK (maturitne vysvedčenie), UK (SCT), IS
the school with external verification	DE, IT, LV, HU (Gimnáziumi Érettségi Vizsga), AT, UK (SCT), LI, NO
an external body/authority	EE (riigeksamitunnistus), FR, IE, LV (for centralised examinations), LU, MT, SI, UK, RO

The final grade is awarded by	
only the student's teachers	BE, CZ (<i>vysvědčení</i> and <i>vysvědčení o maturitní zkoušce</i>), EE (<i>gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus</i>), ES, HU (<i>Gimnáziumi Bizonyítvány</i>), PL (<i>Świadectwo ukończenia liceum ogólnokształcącego</i>), SK (<i>vysvedčenie</i> and <i>maturitné vysvedčenie</i>), FI (<i>leaving certificate</i>), SE, IS
the teachers, but weighted by an external grade	DK (oral), DE (results in <i>Abitur</i>), EL, IT (written), CY (marks of the year + final examination), AT, PT (average), LI, NO (marks obtained in coursework + in the examination), BG (marks in 3 final years + in the examination)
the teachers, on the basis of criteria defined by an external body	IT (oral), LV, LT, HU (<i>Gimnáziumi Érettségi Vizsga</i>), NL, PL (<i>Świadectwo maturalne</i>)
external examiners	DK (written), EE (<i>riigieksamitunnistus</i>), FR (jury), IE, LV (for centralised examinations), LT (in the case of centrally devised examinations), LU, MT, SI, FI (<i>Matriculation Examination</i>), UK, RO
<p>Additional notes</p> <p>Czech Republic: Pupils receive two certificates, one with the marks for the last school year (<i>vysvědčení</i>) and a second one after they have also passed the final internal examination (<i>vysvědčení o maturitní zkoušce</i>). Only the second certificate gives access to tertiary education.</p> <p>Denmark: The Figure relates to the certificate obtained at the end of the <i>Gymnasium</i>. The certificate also indicates marks for work over the year. No certificate is issued if the leaving examination has not been passed.</p> <p>Germany: In seven <i>Länder</i>, the <i>Schulaufsichtsbehörde</i> (school supervisory authority) sets the topics for the written examination.</p> <p>Estonia: Pupils receive two certificates, one based on work during the final year or years and the results of final internal examinations (<i>gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus</i>), and the other on the results obtained in external national examinations (<i>riigieksamitunnistus</i>). Both certificates are required for the continuation of studies.</p> <p>Italy: Following the reform that has come into effect since the 2001/02 school year, the examining body consists of all teachers from the school and just one external examiner.</p> <p>Hungary: The Figure relates to the <i>gimnáziumi érettségi bizonyítvány</i> certificate which gives access to tertiary education.</p> <p>Malta: In certain subjects (art, computing, geography, information technology, and systems of knowledge), the final grade includes marks given for coursework.</p> <p>Poland: The <i>świadectwo maturalne</i> certificate, which gives access to tertiary education, is awarded on the basis of a final examination and the grades obtained in the final year. The written examinations are set by the regional education authorities, but teachers are responsible for assessment and awarding marks. Those pupils who do not wish to take the <i>matura</i> examination are awarded the <i>świadectwo ukończenia liceum ogólnokształcącego</i> certificate, which is based solely on the grades and work over the year. An external <i>matura</i> examination is being introduced in 2005.</p> <p>Slovakia: After receiving the <i>vysvedčenie</i> certificate based on the grades obtained for their work over the last school year, students have to pass an internal examination to receive the school-leaving certificate called <i>maturitné vysvedčenie</i>. An external <i>maturita</i> examination is being introduced in 2005.</p> <p>Finland: All students receive a certificate for which the final grades are awarded on the basis of work in upper secondary school. Students who pass the external matriculation examination receive the matriculation certificate. Either of the two certificates gives eligibility to the polytechnics, but the matriculation certificate is required for admission to university.</p> <p>United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): External qualifications are awarded on a single-subject basis. They are certified by independent awarding bodies but are government-regulated. Assessment schemes for these qualifications vary but always include externally set and marked components either at the end of the course or, in modular schemes, at the end of each module as well as at the end of the course. Assessment schemes may also include one or more pieces of externally moderated coursework completed over the two years of the course.</p> <p>Bulgaria: A new upper secondary school leaving examination was introduced in the 2002/03 school year.</p> <p><u>Explanatory note</u></p> <p>The map shows the certified assessment at the end of general upper secondary education giving access to tertiary education. In the case of countries where two certificates are awarded, both have been taken into account when choosing the category for the map.</p> <p>In the category 'Final grade combining internal assessment and an external (or externally mediated) final exam', the internal assessment can mean a final internal test or an evaluation of the marks obtained or the coursework done during the year or over several years.</p>	

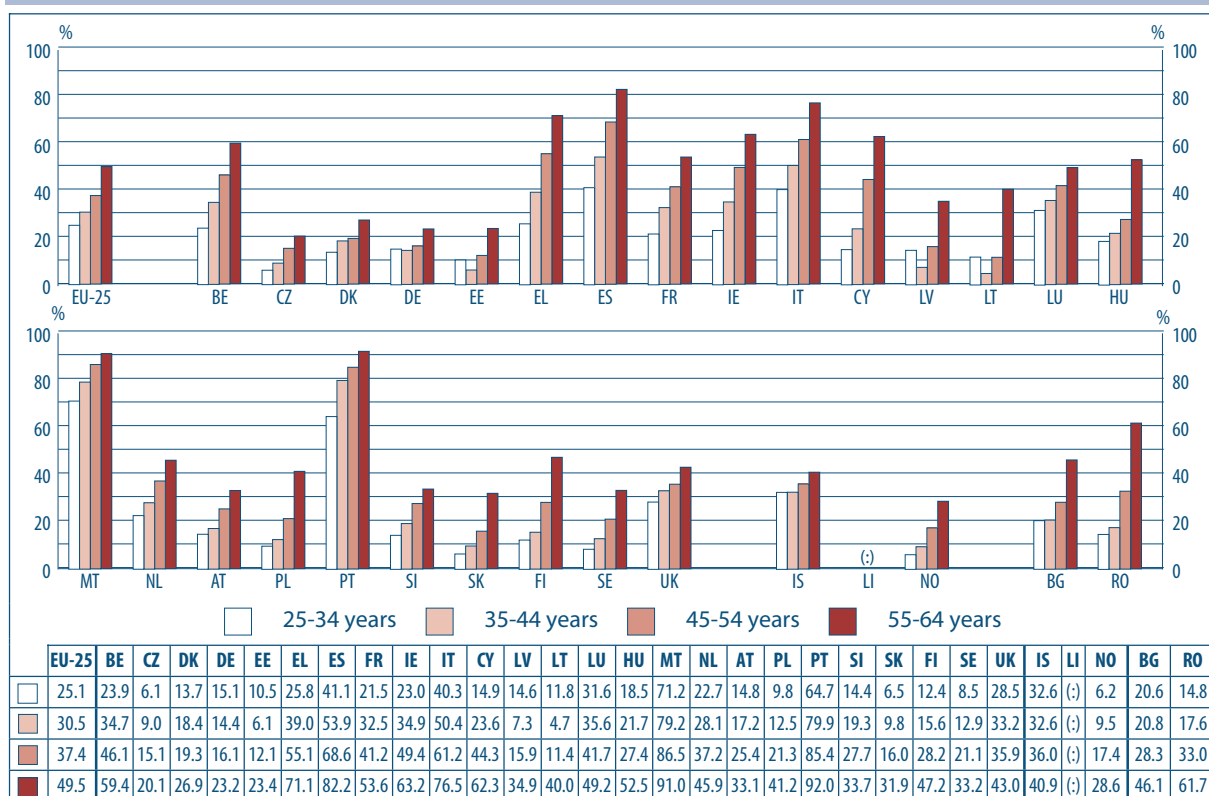


GRADUATES AND QUALIFICATION LEVELS

A GREATER PROPORTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE AT LEAST AN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION COMPARED TO OLDER GENERATIONS

As education has come to last increasingly longer in recent decades (Figure C11), so people in younger age groups (the 25-34 age range) appear on average to be more highly qualified than those who are older. In all countries, the proportion of people without at least an upper secondary education qualification increases in higher age groups.

Figure F1: Percentage of the population who do not have at least an upper secondary education (ISCED 3) qualification, by age group, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Cyprus: Students in tertiary education abroad are not yet covered by the survey.

United Kingdom: National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) level 1 and Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQ) are not regarded as ISCED level 3 qualifications.

Explanatory note

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section). Persons who have not obtained an upper secondary education qualification correspond to those who have at best completed ISCED levels 0-2.

The data relate to a sample of the resident population at the time of the Labour force survey (or LFS, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section), including people who had been educated outside their present country of residence. The indicator cannot therefore be regarded as reflecting the performance of the national education systems concerned. This has to be especially borne in mind in countries that experience significant migration.

In 2002, around 25 % of young people aged 25-34 in the European Union had not obtained an upper secondary education qualification, compared with 50 % of people aged 55-64. This rise in the qualification levels of younger people is especially remarkable in the new EU Member States (as of 1 May 2004), where just 11 % of those aged 25-34 had not obtained a qualification at this level of education compared to a little over 38 % of those aged 55-64. In all age groups combined, the percentage of those without an upper secondary education qualification in the new Member States is little more than half of that in the countries that formed the 15-member EU (EU-15). Qualification levels have particularly improved in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy and Cyprus. This improvement is far less striking in countries where the levels were already relatively high.

In Germany, where the proportion of people without an upper secondary education qualification is one of the lowest, there is little difference between the percentages of those in the 25-34 and 35-54 age groups who do hold one. In the Baltic countries, the proportion of those without an upper secondary qualification in the 35-44 age group is slightly lower than in the case of those aged 25-34. This may be partly attributable to the changes experienced by these countries after independence. In Lithuania, the transition to a market economy and the economic difficulties that went with it led some pupils to leave school once they had completed compulsory education. In Estonia and Latvia, upper secondary education was no longer mandatory, which may explain why the percentage of people without at least an upper secondary education qualification (ISCED 3) is higher in the 25-34 age group than among those aged 35-44.

In spite of the general improvement in the level of education attained by younger people, major variations persist from one country to the next. Thus in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Norway, the proportion of young people aged 25-34 without an upper secondary education qualification stands at a little over 6 %. The educational level of the population (all ages combined) in some countries in the south of the EU (Spain, Italy, Malta and Portugal) is relatively more modest than in other Member States. In the former, less than half of those in the 25-64 age group have an upper secondary education qualification.

MORE THAN THREE-QUARTERS OF YOUNG PEOPLE HOLD AT LEAST AN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION

Over 76 % of young people in Europe aged 20-24 have successfully completed upper secondary education. The percentage is even higher in the new EU Member States where it accounts for 87 % of the same age group.

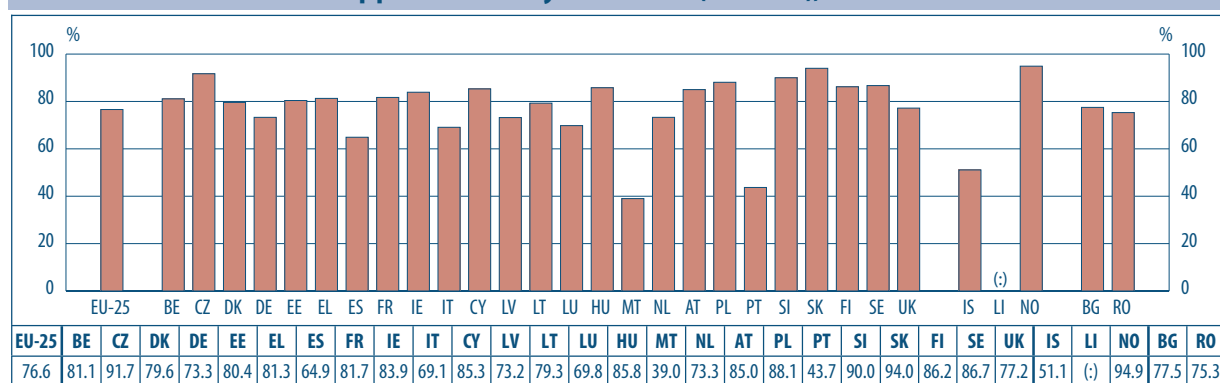
The situation within Europe is fairly uniform. Only three countries record a qualification rate of less than 60 % (Malta, Portugal and Iceland), while in three countries at least 90 % of those aged 20-24 have satisfactorily completed upper secondary education (the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia).

Upper secondary education consists of both general and vocational programmes (Figure B1), which lead either to qualifications for the labour market, or to the transition to tertiary education.

Thus in many of the countries with the highest proportions of those aged 20-24 who have qualified from upper secondary education, over 25 % of this age group have successfully completed vocational upper secondary education leading directly to the labour market or the continuation of studies at ISCED level 4 and therefore hold qualifications at ISCED level 3C (Figure F5). This applies to the Czech Republic, Denmark, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and Norway. By contrast, in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania and Iceland, the corresponding proportion (ISCED 3C) remains at less than 10 %. This finding reveals that the above-mentioned uniformity between European countries is not as straightforward as it first appears.

It also partly explains why the percentage of young people in tertiary education (Figure C16) is not directly related to the percentage of those qualified at ISCED level 3, since those with a secondary education qualification at ISCED level 3C leading directly to the labour market or further studies at ISCED level 4 are in principle unable to access tertiary education directly.

Figure F2: Percentage of those aged 20-24 who have satisfactorily completed at least upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Cyprus: Students in tertiary education abroad are not yet covered by the survey.

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are not regarded as ISCED level 3 qualifications.

Norway: The number of those qualified is an overestimate because a broader definition than the one advocated in the UOE handbook has been used. The concept of 'qualification obtained' is being revised.

Explanatory note

Levels of education are defined in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section). Persons who have completed upper secondary education are those whose highest qualification may be at ISCED level 3, 4, 5 or 6.

The data relate to a sample of the resident population at the time of the Labour force survey (or LFS, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section), including people who had been educated outside their present country of residence. The indicator cannot therefore be regarded as reflecting the performance of the national education systems concerned. This has to be especially borne in mind in countries that experience significant migration.

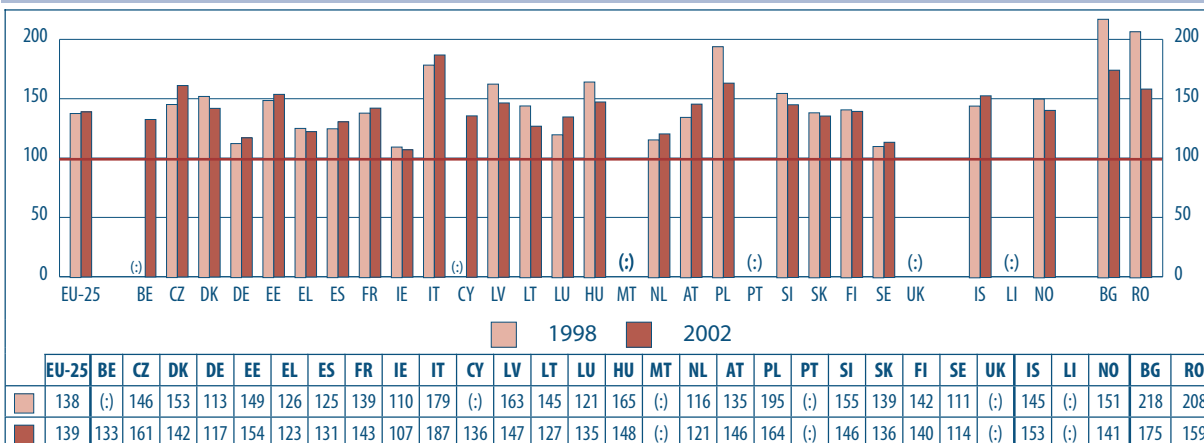
MORE YOUNG WOMEN THAN YOUNG MEN ARE QUALIFYING FROM GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In 2002, the number of young women who qualified from general upper secondary education was greater than the corresponding number of young men in all European countries. In the European Union, the average ratio of young women to young men in this respect was 139/100.

Between 1998 and 2002, the situation changed little overall, with the average ratio remaining roughly the same. However, this was less the outcome of general stability than of contrasting trends within the EU. In fact, half of the Member States for which data is available recorded a decrease in this ratio, while the other half recorded an increase.

The higher proportion of young women is especially noteworthy in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Italy, Poland, Iceland, Bulgaria and Romania where at least three young women for every two young men hold a general upper secondary education qualification. Only in Germany, Ireland and Sweden do the proportions for both sexes approach equality.

Figure F3: Changes in the number of young women for every 100 young men obtaining a general upper secondary education (ISCED 3) qualification, 1998 and 2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark, France, Italy, Cyprus, Austria and Finland: Data for 2001.

Hungary: The decrease in the number of young men obtaining qualifications in 2002 is partly attributable to the increased length of some programmes and to changes in the system of vocational training.

Explanatory note

The ratio of the number of young women to every 100 young men with a qualification is calculated by dividing the number of young women successfully completing upper secondary education by the number of young men who have done so. The result is multiplied by 100. The conditions governing successful completion of upper secondary education (ISCED 3) are determined in accordance with national criteria.

The European averages are calculated from the data available (data for 2001 are used to calculate the 2002 average for Denmark, France, Italy, Cyprus, Austria, and Finland).

YOUNG WOMEN HAVE CAUGHT UP WITH MEN IN TERMS OF THEIR EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

When all age groups are taken into account, women appear less educationally qualified than men. In a majority of countries, the percentage of women (all ages combined) who have not obtained an upper secondary education qualification remains higher than in the case of men.

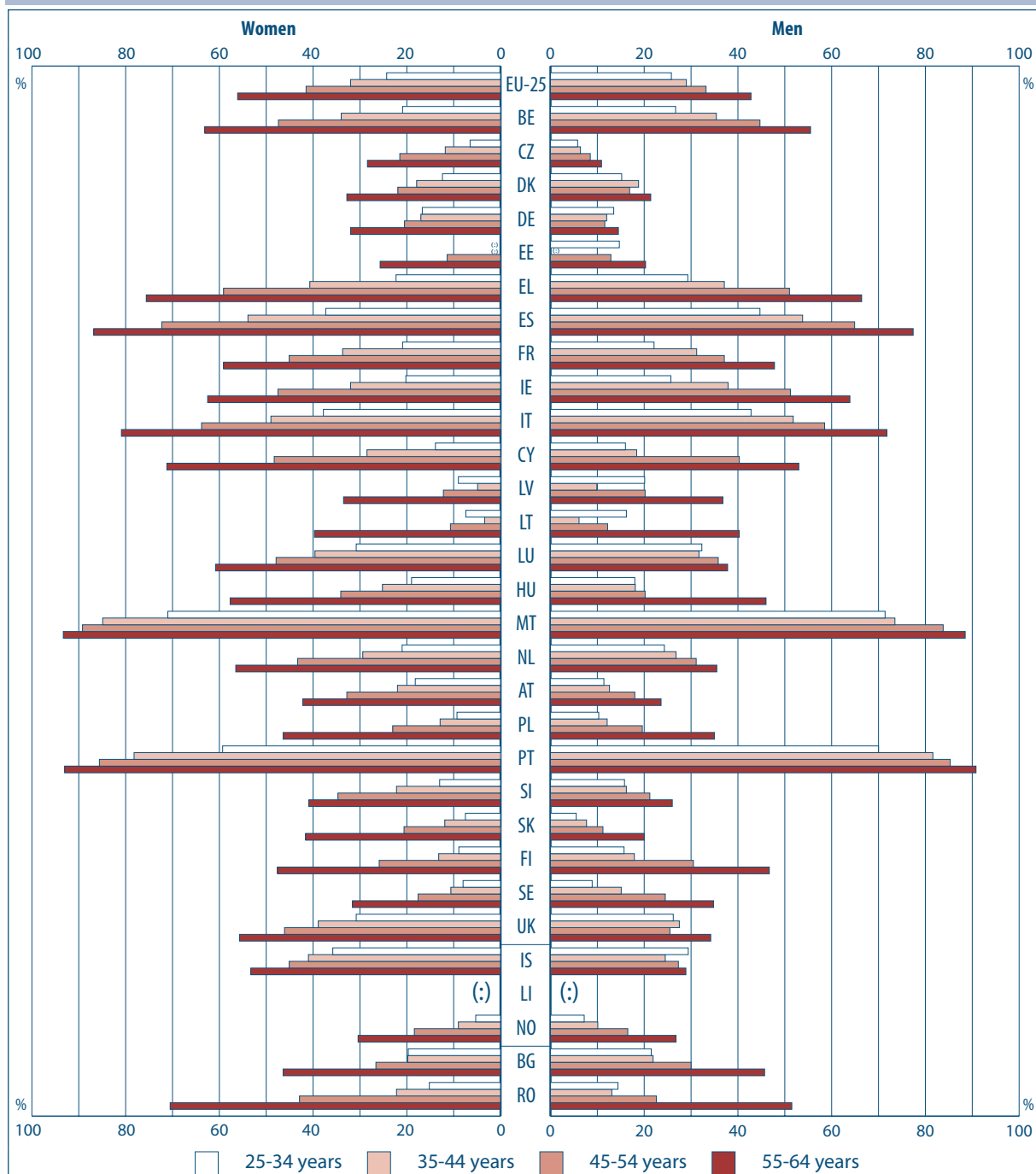
This inequality in qualification levels between men and women is largely a legacy of the past and no longer applies to younger age groups. In the great majority of European countries, the very marked difference in the levels between men and women in the older age groups is no longer apparent among the younger. More specifically, the improvement in qualification levels of young women has been greater than among men in all countries except Sweden, where the percentages of men and women aged 55-64 without an upper secondary education qualification are roughly the same.

In a majority of EU Member States, the percentages of 25-34-year-old women without such a qualification are now lower than among men in the same age-group. The general expansion of employment for women combined with labour market qualification requirements has probably fuelled this trend.



GRADUATES AND QUALIFICATION LEVELS

Figure F4: Percentage of the population who do not have an upper secondary education (ISCED 3) qualification, by age group and sex, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

GRADUATES AND QUALIFICATION LEVELS

Data (Figure F4)

Women																															
	EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
	24.3	20.9	6.5	12.4	16.7	(-)	22.3	37.3	20.9	20.2	37.8	13.9	9.0	7.4	30.8	19.0	71.0	21.0	18.2	9.3	59.3	13.0	7.5	8.9	8.0	30.8	35.8	(-)	5.3	19.7	15.2
	32.0	34.0	11.8	17.9	17.0	(-)	40.7	53.9	33.7	32.0	49.0	28.5	4.9	3.4	39.6	25.2	84.9	29.4	22.0	12.9	78.2	22.2	11.9	13.2	10.6	38.9	41.0	(-)	9.0	19.8	22.2
	41.5	47.4	21.5	21.9	20.5	11.4	59.1	72.3	45.1	47.5	63.8	48.3	12.2	10.7	47.9	34.1	89.2	43.3	32.8	23.0	85.6	34.7	20.6	25.9	17.6	46.1	45.1	(-)	18.4	26.6	42.9
	56.1	63.1	28.4	32.8	32.0	25.7	75.6	86.8	59.1	62.5	80.9	71.2	33.5	39.7	60.8	57.7	93.3	56.5	42.2	46.4	93.0	40.9	41.6	47.6	31.6	55.7	53.3	(-)	30.4	46.4	70.5
Men																															
	EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
	25.8	26.7	5.8	15.2	13.5	14.7	29.3	44.7	22.1	25.7	42.8	16.0	20.1	16.2	32.3	18.0	71.4	24.3	11.4	10.3	70.0	15.8	5.5	15.7	8.9	26.2	29.4	(-)	7.2	21.5	14.4
	29.0	35.4	6.4	18.8	12.0	(-)	37.1	53.8	31.2	37.9	51.8	18.4	9.9	6.1	31.7	18.1	73.5	26.8	12.6	12.1	81.6	16.2	7.7	17.9	15.1	27.5	24.5	(-)	10.1	21.9	13.1
	33.2	44.7	8.5	16.9	11.6	12.9	51.0	64.9	37.1	51.2	58.5	40.3	20.2	12.2	35.8	20.2	83.8	31.1	18.0	19.6	85.3	21.2	11.2	30.5	24.5	25.5	27.3	(-)	16.5	30.0	22.6
	42.8	55.5	10.9	21.4	14.5	20.3	66.4	77.4	47.8	63.9	71.8	53.0	36.8	40.3	37.8	46.0	88.5	35.5	23.6	35.0	90.8	26.0	20.0	46.7	34.8	34.2	28.9	(-)	26.8	45.7	51.5

Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Cyprus: Students in tertiary education abroad are not yet covered by the survey.

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are not regarded as ISCED level 3 qualifications.

Explanatory note

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section). Persons who have not obtained an upper secondary education qualification correspond to those who have at best completed ISCED levels 0-2.

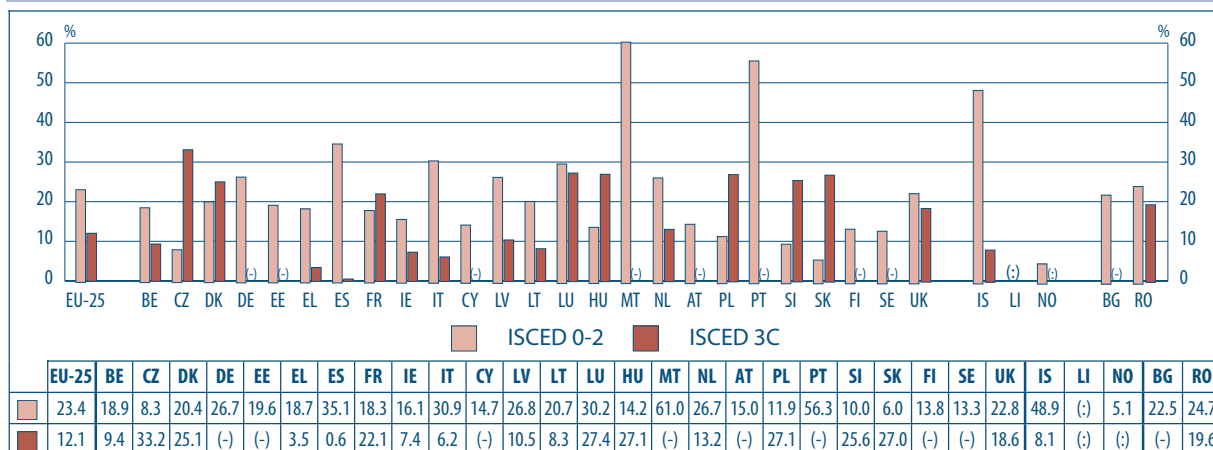
The data relate to a sample of the resident population at the time of the Labour force survey (or LFS, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section), including people who had been educated outside their present country of residence. The indicator cannot therefore be regarded as reflecting the performance of the national education systems concerned. This has to be especially borne in mind in countries that experience significant migration.

OVER A THIRD OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN EUROPE DO NOT HAVE THE LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION REQUIRED FOR ACCESS TO TERTIARY EDUCATION

In 2002, 35.5 % of young people aged 20-24 in the European Union held at most a certificate of primary education (ISCED 1) or lower secondary education (ISCED 2), or alternatively an upper secondary education qualification at ISCED 3C leading directly to the labour market or to further study at ISCED level 4. These qualifications do not generally give direct access or eligibility to tertiary education.

The lowest proportions of 20-24-year-olds (under 20 %) unable to gain direct access to tertiary education are recorded in Estonia, Cyprus, Austria, Finland, Sweden and Norway. By contrast, the proportions of those in the same age group without the level of qualification required to secure direct access to tertiary education are over 55 % in Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal and Iceland.

**Figure F5: Proportion of those aged 20-24
whose highest qualification is at ISCED levels 0 to 2 or ISCED level 3C, 2002**



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

United Kingdom: *National Vocational Qualifications* (NVQ) level 1 and *Foundation General National Vocational Qualifications* (GNVQ) are not regarded as ISCED level 3 qualifications.

Explanatory note

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

The data relate to a sample of the resident population at the time of the Labour force survey (or LFS, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section), including people who had been educated outside their present country of residence. The indicator cannot therefore be regarded as reflecting the performance of the national education systems concerned. This has to be especially borne in mind in countries that experience significant migration.

THE PROPORTION OF THOSE WHO HOLD TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS IS RISING FROM ONE GENERATION TO THE NEXT

The younger age groups include proportionally far more people with tertiary education qualifications than the older age groups. In the European Union in 2002, a little over 24 % of 30-34-year-olds held graduate or postgraduate qualifications, as compared to around 13 % in the 60-64 age group.

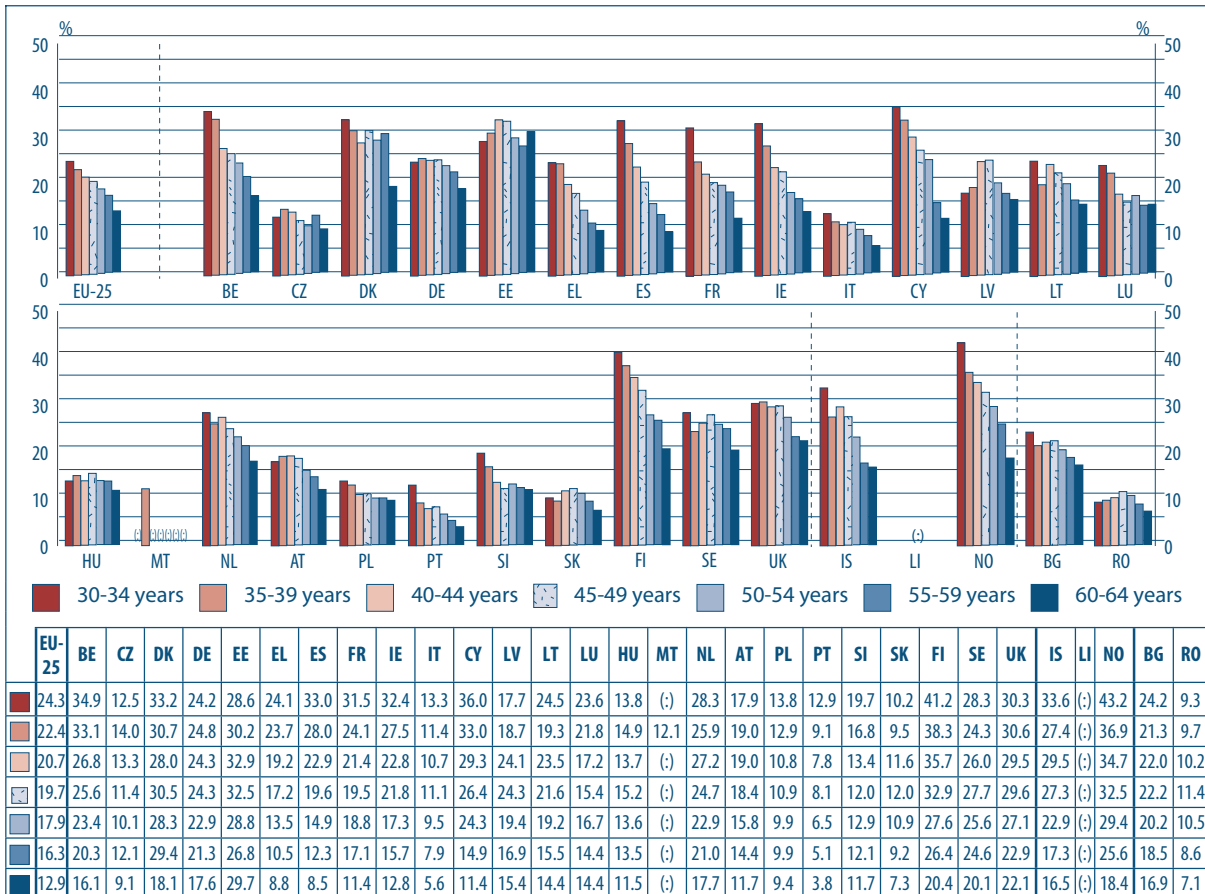
In some countries, there is a dramatic increase in the proportion of qualified people from one generation to the next. This proportion is four times higher among 30-34-year-olds than in the 60-64 age group in Spain, and around three times as high in Greece, France, Cyprus and Portugal. In Belgium, Ireland, Italy, Finland, Iceland and Norway, twice as many young people hold tertiary education qualifications compared to people aged over 60.

Countries where different generations have roughly similar proportions of tertiary-level qualifications tend to be those with high levels of qualifications amongst the over 60's (as in Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Sweden and the United Kingdom).

Notwithstanding the increase in the percentage of young people with tertiary education qualifications, significant differences remain among countries. In some countries (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Ireland, Cyprus, Finland, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway), over a third of those aged 30-34 have qualified from tertiary education in contrast to a corresponding proportion of no more than 15 % in the Czech Republic, Italy, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia and Romania.

Finally, the situation of those aged 30-34 compared to the age group just above them (35-39-year-olds) has deteriorated by over a percentage point in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Hungary and Austria.

Figure F6: Percentage of people with tertiary education qualifications (ISCED 5 and 6) in the population aged 30-64, by age group, 2002



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

Cyprus: Students who live in Cyprus but study abroad are not yet covered by the survey.

Explanatory note

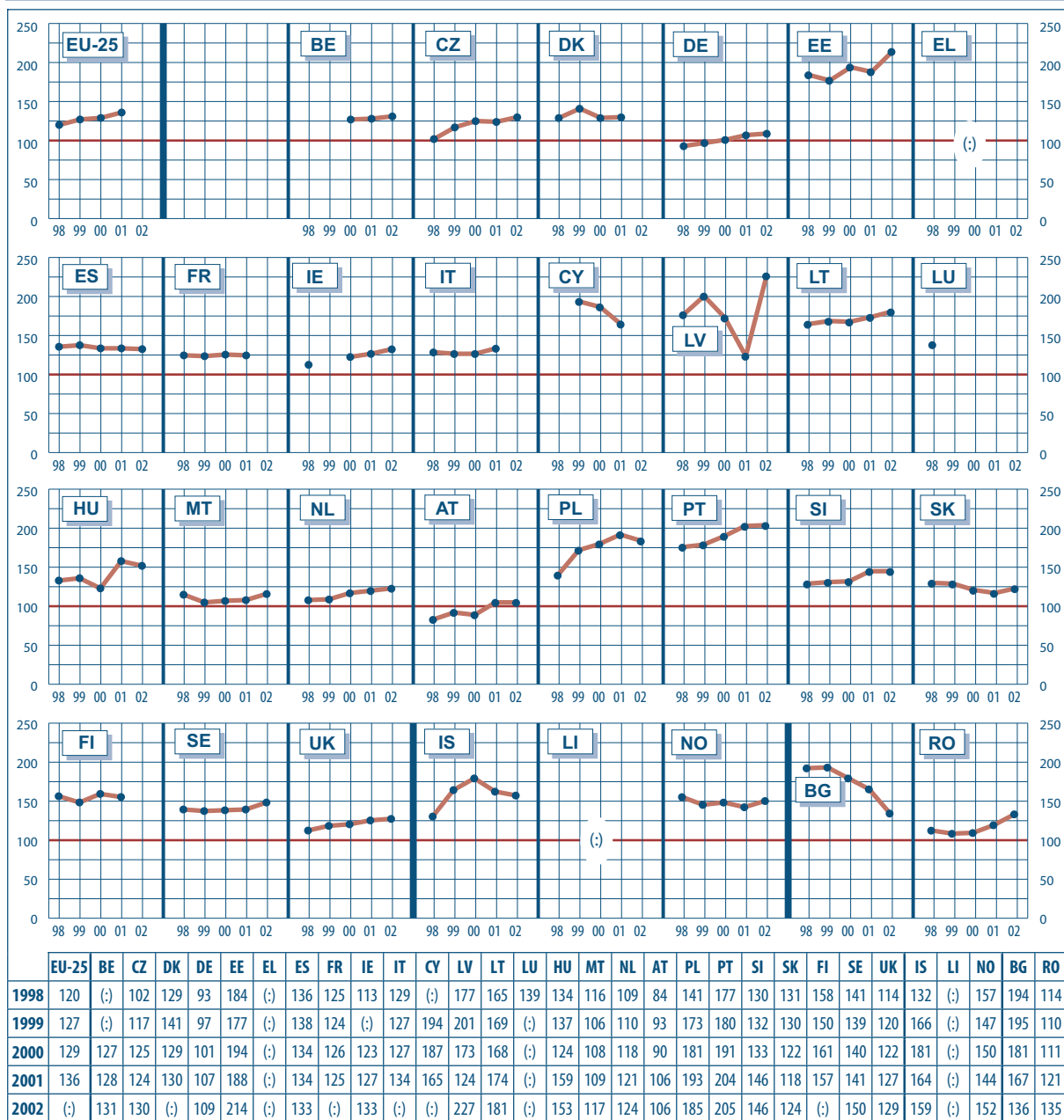
Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

The data relate to a sample of the resident population at the time of the Labour force survey (or LFS, see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section), including people who had been educated outside their present country of residence. The indicator cannot therefore be regarded as reflecting the performance of the national education systems concerned. This has to be especially borne in mind in countries that experience significant migration.

THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN GRADUATES IS STEADILY INCREASING – A TREND ALREADY APPARENT IN THE 1990s

In 2002, more women than men graduated from tertiary education in all countries for which data are available. In Estonia, Latvia and Portugal, this number was twice as high (Figure F7a).

Figure F7: Changes in the number of women per 100 men graduating from tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) by country, 1998-2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes (Figure F7)

Belgium (BE nl): The small percentage of second qualifications awarded in non-university tertiary education has not been included.

Estonia: Master's-level degrees (ISCED 5A) are not included.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: The majority of students study abroad and so have not been taken into account.

Malta and Portugal: Data for 2002 are provisional.

Austria: ISCED level 5B data correspond to the preceding year in the case of 1998-2000 and 2002.

Slovakia and Romania: Second qualifications are not taken into account (solely in 1998 in the case of Slovakia), nor are advanced research programmes (ISCED 6) in Romania.

United Kingdom: A methodological change in 2001 limits the extent to which 2001 and 2002 data may be compared with those for 2000 and earlier. This change does not affect the gender-based distribution of graduates but the total number of graduates.

Explanatory note

The ratio of the number of women graduates to every 100 men graduating is calculated by dividing the total number of women who have successfully completed tertiary education by the number of men who have done so. The result is multiplied by 100. All graduates at ISCED levels 5A, 5B and 6 are normally included.

Graduates are those who obtained a tertiary education qualification during the data collection reference period. In most countries, the reference period is the calendar year but some countries adopt the academic year. The conditions governing the award of a tertiary education qualification are determined in accordance with national criteria.

Double counting of country data has been avoided wherever possible. Where a particular student obtains several qualifications at the same level (first cycle of ISCED 5A, second cycle of ISCED 5A, first cycle of ISCED 5B, second cycle of ISCED 5B or ISCED 6), (s)he is counted just once.

The European average is calculated using the data available for each year. In 2000, the 1999 data are used for Poland.

It was already apparent back in 1998 that a greater number of women than men were qualifying from tertiary education (except in Germany and Austria). This trend continued up to 2002 with an increase of over 10 % in the number of women graduates compared to their male counterparts in the majority of countries.

Consequently in 2002, the number of women graduates was more than twice as great as men graduates in Estonia, Latvia and Portugal. In other countries (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Italy, Malta, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and Norway), the number of women for every 100 men graduating changed relatively little during the same period.

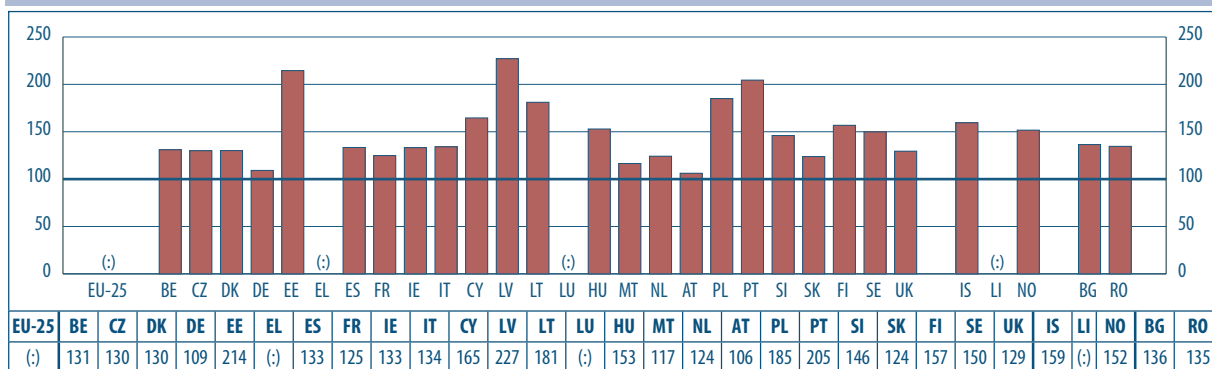
Only in Cyprus and Bulgaria did this ratio decrease significantly in the period for which data are available (and in the case of Cyprus, men and women graduates who studied abroad have not been included).

IN 2002, WOMEN ACCOUNTED FOR A VERY LARGE PROPORTION OF THOSE GRADUATING FROM TERTIARY EDUCATION

In 2002, the number of women graduating from tertiary education was greater than that of men in all countries for which data were available. This situation was already apparent back in 1998 (Figure F7). In Estonia, in Latvia and Portugal, it was over twice as high.

The number of women graduates is one-and-a-half times greater than that of men in several countries in eastern and northern Europe, namely Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway.

**Figure F7a: Number of women per 100 men
graduating from tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 2001/02**



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl): The small percentage of second qualifications awarded in non-university tertiary education has not been included.

Denmark, France, Italy, Cyprus and Finland: Data are for 2001.

Estonia: Master's level degrees (ISCED 5A) are not included.

Cyprus and Luxembourg: The majority of students study abroad and so have not been taken into account.

Malta and Portugal: Data are provisional.

Austria: ISCED level 5B data correspond to 2001.

Romania: Second qualifications and advanced research programmes (ISCED 6) are not included.

Explanatory note

The ratio of the number of women graduates to every 100 men graduating is calculated by dividing the total number of women who have successfully completed tertiary education by the number of men who have done so. The result is multiplied by 100. All graduates at ISCED levels 5A, 5B and 6 are normally included.

Graduates are those who obtained a tertiary education qualification during the data collection reference period. In most countries, the reference period is the calendar year but some countries tend to adopt the academic year. The conditions governing the award of a tertiary education qualification are determined in accordance with national criteria.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

IN MOST COUNTRIES, THERE ARE MORE GRADUATES IN 'SOCIAL SCIENCES, BUSINESS AND LAW' THAN IN ANY OTHER SUBJECT FIELD

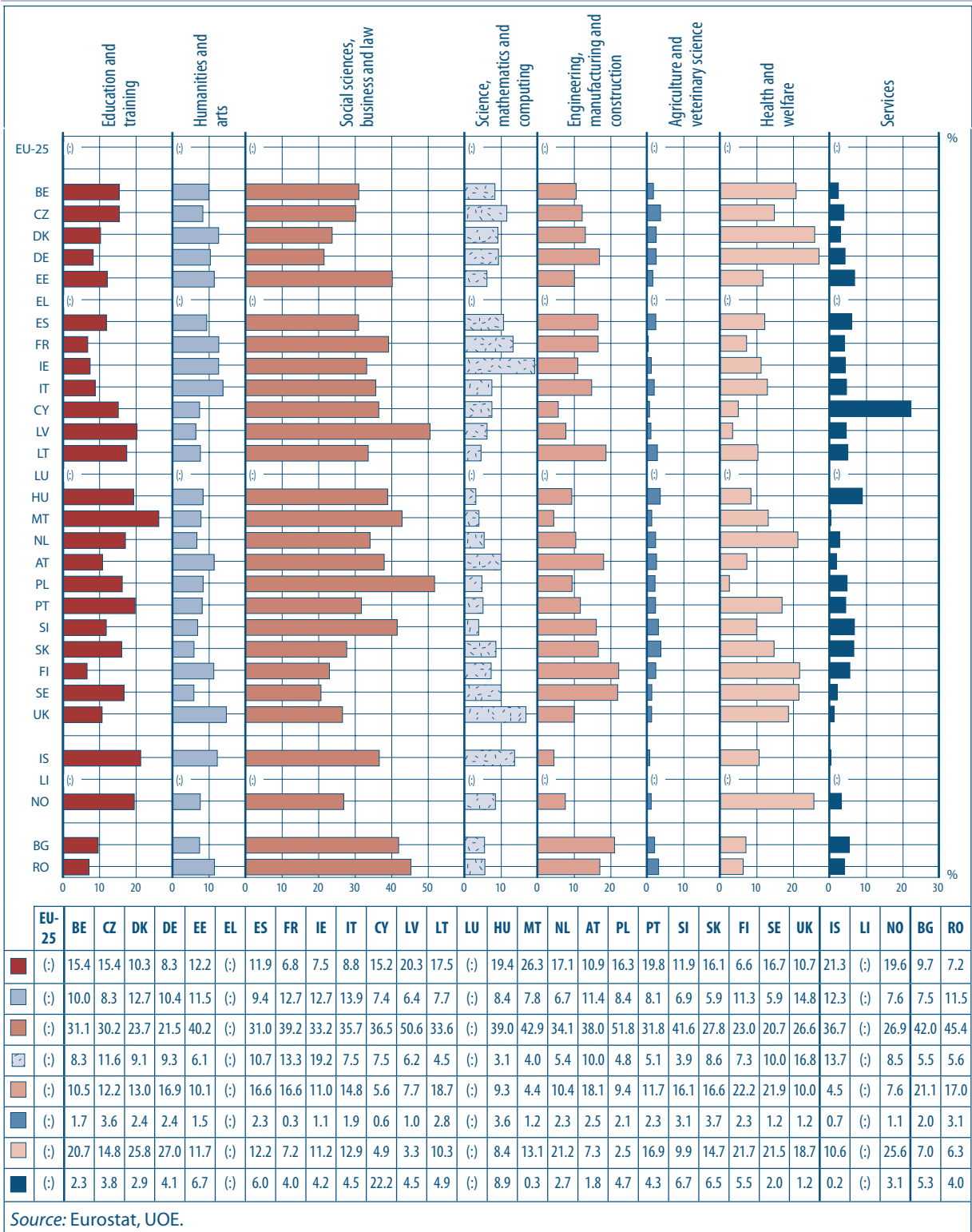
Graduates in 'social sciences, business and law' represent over half of all graduates in Latvia and Poland. In the remaining countries, at least 25 % of those holding tertiary education qualifications graduate in the same field. It thus accounts for the largest proportion of graduates in almost all European countries.

Three countries are exceptions to this. In Denmark and Germany, the proportion of graduates in 'health and welfare' is the highest, while in Sweden graduates in the field of 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' outnumber those in other disciplines.

The proportion of graduates in the field of 'science, mathematics and computing' is less than 15 % in all countries for which data are available, except Ireland and the United Kingdom where the proportion stands at around 19 % and 17 % respectively.

GRADUATES AND QUALIFICATION LEVELS

Figure F8: Distribution of tertiary education graduates (ISCED 5 and 6) among the different fields of education and training, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes (Figure F8)

Belgium (BE nl): The small percentage of second qualifications awarded in non-university tertiary education has not been included.

Denmark, France, Italy, Cyprus, Malta, Portugal and Finland: Data for 2001.

Estonia: Master's-level degrees (ISCED 5A) are not included.

Cyprus: Students who graduated abroad have not been taken into account.

Austria: Graduates at ISCED level 5B are not included.

Portugal: Provisional data.

Romania: Second qualifications and ISCED level 6 programmes are not included.

Explanatory note

This indicator is calculated by dividing the number of graduates in a given subject field by the total number of graduates in tertiary education. The result is multiplied by 100. It excludes the number of graduates in 'fields of study unknown' from the denominator, but the totals for each country in the unknown field are indicated in the annexes.

Graduates are those who obtained a tertiary education qualification during the data collection reference period. In most countries, the reference period is the calendar year but some countries adopt the academic year. The conditions governing the award of a tertiary education qualification are determined in accordance with national criteria.

All graduates at ISCED levels 5A and 5B (first and second cycles), as well as at ISCED level 6 are taken into account.

MANY SOCIAL SCIENCE GRADUATES ARE WOMEN BUT MORE MEN GRADUATE IN SCIENCE

In all countries, women easily outnumber men graduating in the fields of 'education', 'humanities and arts', and 'health and welfare'. This applies to a lesser extent in 'social sciences, business and law', except for Denmark, Germany, Malta and the Netherlands where they are slightly in the minority.

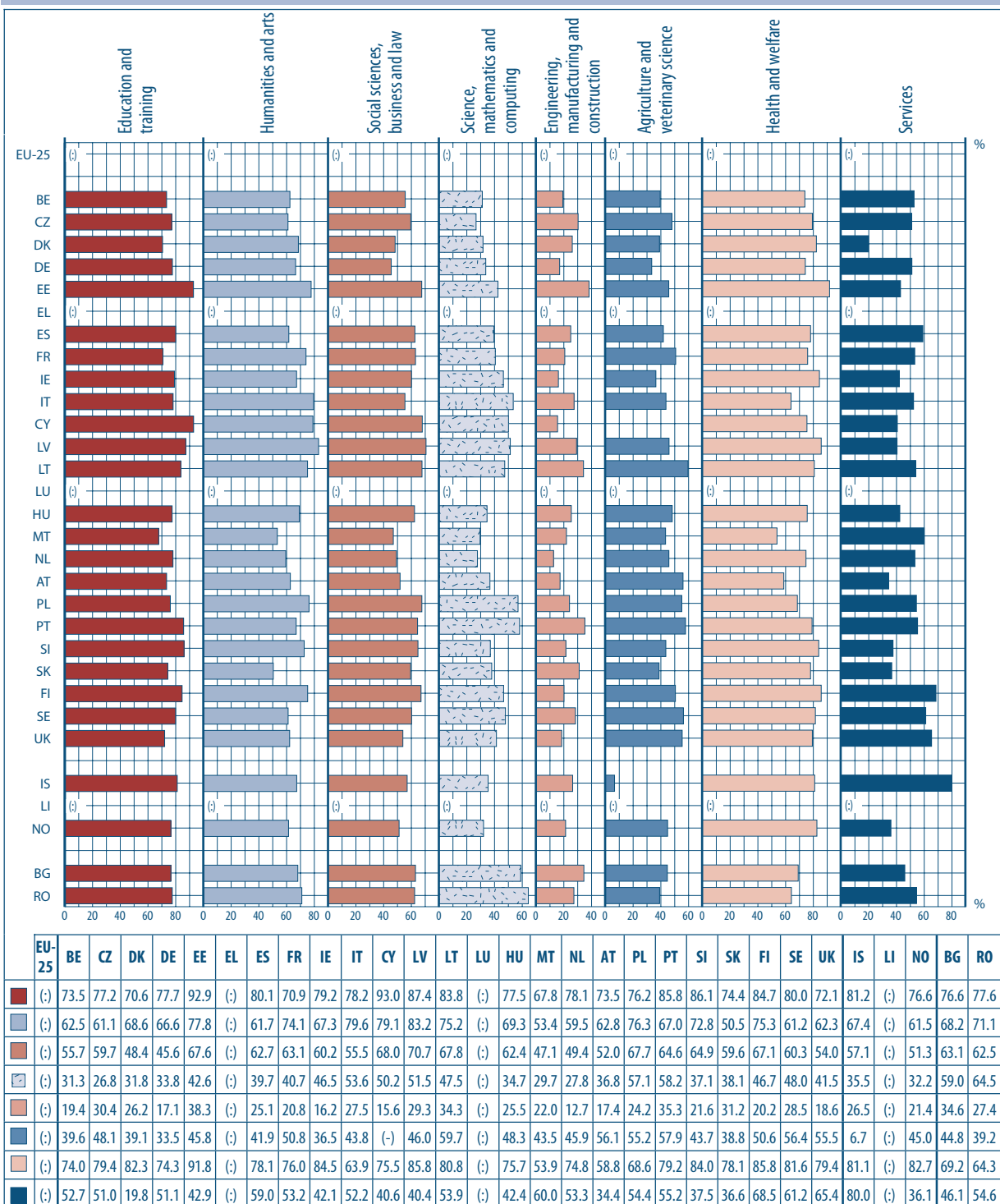
Over 70 % of graduates in the field of 'education' are women except in Malta. In Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Portugal and Slovenia, the proportion of women stands at over 85 %. This same numerical superiority of women is also apparent in the fields of 'health and welfare' in which they account for over 70 % of graduates in the great majority of European countries. And while not outnumbering male graduates in 'humanities and arts' to quite the same extent as in the two preceding fields, they remain in the majority at over 60 % in almost all countries.

Given that almost everywhere, more men than women study 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' and 'science, mathematics and computing' (Figure C18), they also often account for more graduates in these fields than do women. The field in which they represent the highest proportion of graduates is 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' at between some 62 % in Estonia and over 87 % in the Netherlands. The clear numerical strength of men is also evident among graduates in 'science, mathematics and computing', even though their representation never exceeds 75 %. However, a little over half of all graduates in this particular field of study are women in Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Bulgaria and Romania.



GRADUATES AND QUALIFICATION LEVELS

Figure F9: Proportion of tertiary education qualifications (ISCED 5 and 6) awarded to women, by field of education and training, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes (Figure F9)

Belgium (BE nl): The small percentage of second qualifications awarded in non-university tertiary education has not been included.

Denmark, France, Italy, Cyprus, Malta, Portugal and Finland: Data for 2001.

Estonia: Master's-level degrees (ISCED 5A) are not included.

Cyprus: Students who graduated abroad have not been taken into account.

Austria: Graduates at ISCED level 5B are not included.

Portugal: Provisional data.

Romania: Second qualifications and ISCED level 6 programmes are not included.

Explanatory note

This indicator is obtained by dividing the number of women graduates in a particular field by the total number of graduates in the same field. The result is multiplied by 100.

Graduates are those who obtained a tertiary education qualification during the data collection reference period. In most countries, the reference period is the calendar year but some countries adopt the academic year. The conditions governing the award of a tertiary education qualification are determined in accordance with national criteria.

All graduates at ISCED levels 5A and 5B (first and second cycles), as well as at ISCED level 6 are taken into account.

THE PROPORTION OF GRADUATES IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IS INCREASING IN MOST COUNTRIES

The number of tertiary education graduates in 'science and technology' per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29 rose in most countries during the period from 1998 to 2002. This increase was spectacular in Bulgaria where the proportion more than doubled. In Denmark, Spain, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Sweden, it rose by over 50 % during the period for which data are available. In the other countries (the Czech Republic, Italy, Latvia, the Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Romania), the increase for the period 1998 to 2002 was more than 10 %. Only Belgium, France, Finland and Norway recorded a lesser increase over the period for which data are available.

Finally, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta and Austria recorded a slight decrease in the number of 'science and technology' graduates per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29.

In 2002, the number of graduates in 'science and technology' per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29 varied by a factor of between 1 and 6, depending on the country concerned. Most countries for which data are available record less than 10 graduates in 'science and technology' per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29 (Figure F10a).

Explanatory note (Figure F10)

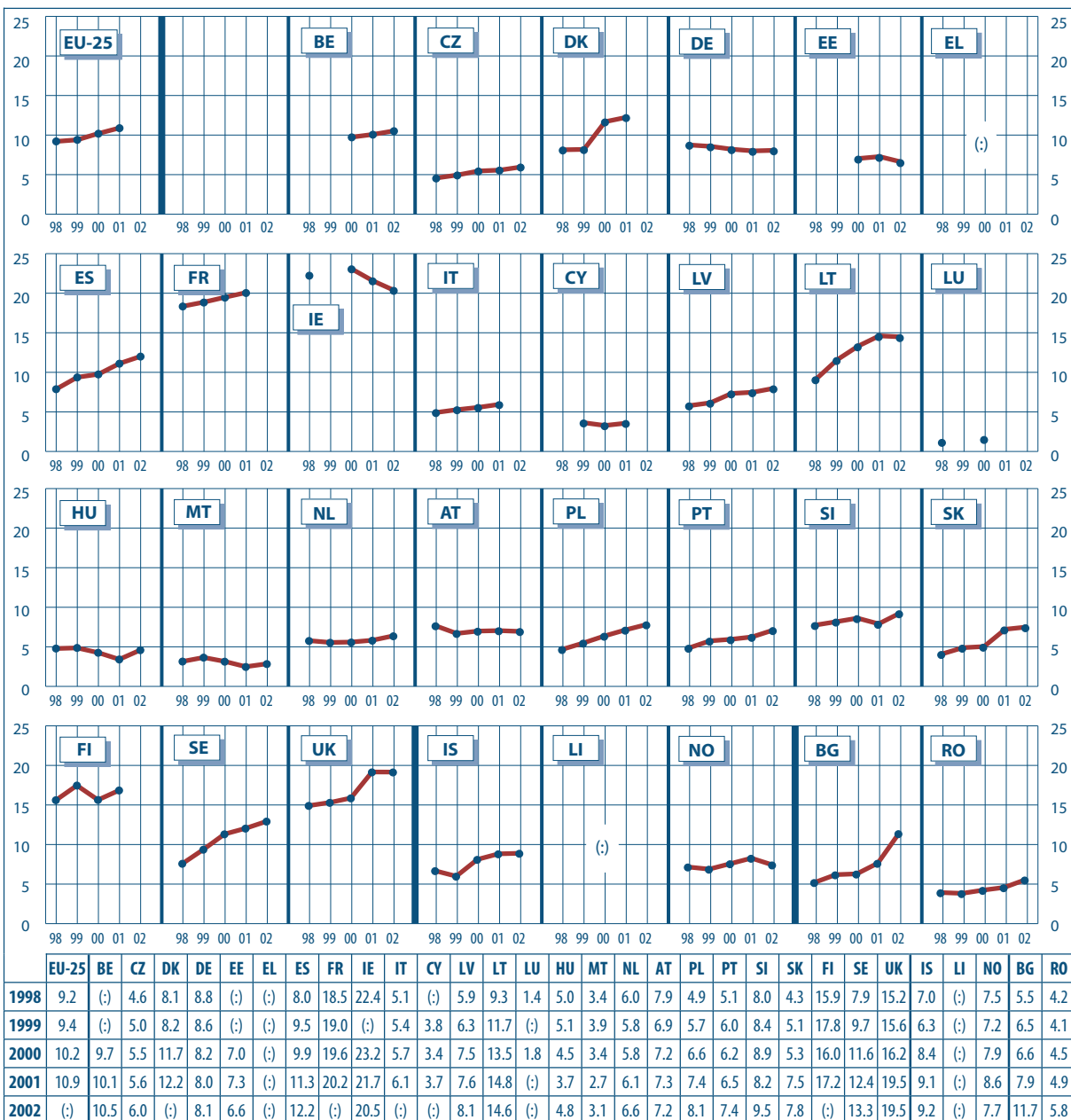
This indicator is obtained by dividing the number of graduates of all ages in 'science, mathematics and computing' and 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' by the total population aged 20-29. The result is multiplied by 1000.

Graduates are those who obtained a tertiary education qualification during the data collection reference period. In most countries, the reference period is the calendar year but some countries adopt the academic year. The conditions governing the award of a tertiary education qualification are determined in accordance with national criteria.

All graduates at ISCED levels 5A and 5B (first and second cycles), as well as at ISCED level 6 are taken into account. The denominator corresponds to the population on 1 January.

GRADUATES AND QUALIFICATION LEVELS

Figure F10: Changes in the number of tertiary-level graduates (ISCED 5 and 6) in science and technology per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29, by country, 1998-2002



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl): Second qualifications are not included.

Estonia: Master's-level degrees (ISCED 5A) are not included.

Cyprus: Students who graduated in 'science and technology' abroad have not been included in the number of graduates but they are counted in the total population, so the ratio is underestimated.

Luxembourg: The majority of students study abroad and have not been taken into account.

Malta and Portugal: Data for 2002 are provisional.

Austria: ISCED level 5B data correspond to the preceding year in the case of 1998-2000 and 2002.

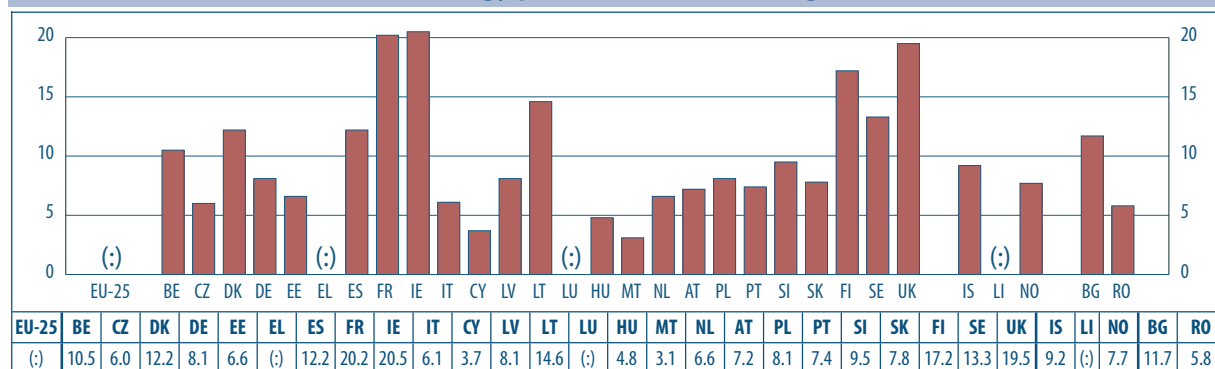
Slovakia and Romania: Second qualifications are not taken into account (solely in 1998 in the case of Slovakia), nor are ISCED level 6 programmes in Romania.

United Kingdom: A methodological change in 2001 limits the extent to which 2001 and 2002 data may be compared with those for 2000 and earlier. The population at 1 January 2001 has been used to calculate the ratio for 2002.

PROPORTIONS OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY GRADUATES MAY BE SIX TIMES HIGHER IN SOME EUROPEAN COUNTRIES THAN IN OTHERS

The number of tertiary level graduates in 'science and technology' for every thousand inhabitants aged 20-29 may vary by a factor of between one and six depending on the European country concerned. Their proportion rose in most countries during the period from 1998 to 2002 (Figure F10). There are less than 10 graduates in 'science and technology' for every 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29 in most countries for which data are available. In 2002, the proportions were highest in Ireland and the United Kingdom at 20.5‰ and 19.5‰ respectively. In Lithuania and Sweden, the fields of 'science and technology' were fairly well represented, with the proportion standing at over 13 ‰.

Figure F10a: Number of tertiary education graduates (ISCED 5 and 6) in science and technology per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29, 2001/02



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl): The small percentage of second qualifications awarded in non-university tertiary education has not been included.

Denmark, France, Italy, Cyprus and Finland: Data are for 2001.

Estonia: Master's level degrees (ISCED 5A) are not included.

Cyprus: Students who graduated abroad have not been taken into account but are included in population data.

Luxembourg: Students who graduated abroad have not been taken into account.

Malta and Portugal: Data for 2002 are provisional.

Austria: ISCED level 5B data for 2002 correspond to the preceding year

United Kingdom: The population data refer to 1st of January 2001.

Romania: Second qualifications and ISCED level 6 programmes are not included.

Explanatory note

This indicator is obtained by dividing the number of graduates of all ages in 'science, mathematics and computing' and 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' by the total population aged 20-29. The result is multiplied by 1000.

All graduates at ISCED levels 5A and 5B (first and second cycles), as well as at ISCED level 6 are taken into account.

Graduates are those who obtained a tertiary education qualification during the data collection reference period. In most countries, the reference period is the calendar year but some countries adopt the academic year. The conditions governing the award of a tertiary education qualification are determined in accordance with national criteria.

The denominator corresponds to the population on 1 January 2002.

Levels of education are defined here in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education, or ISCED (see the Glossary and Statistical Tools section).

ANNEXES

Figure A1: Change in the numbers of young people in the 0-9, 10-19 and 20-29 age groups in the European Union, in the EFTA/EEA countries and in the candidate countries, in thousand, from 1975 to 2000

	TOTAL POPULATION						0-9 AGE GROUP					
	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
EU-25	417 484	426 061	432 093	438 636	446 548	451 258	(:)	60 403	56 963	55 099	53 115	49 903
EU-15	348 644	354 568	358 464	363 719	371 346	376 381	54 212	48 565	44 710	43 566	42 872	41 357
BE	9 788	9 855	9 858	9 948	10 131	10 239	1 400	1 265	1 196	1 195	1 218	1 198
CZ	10 024	10 316	10 334	10 362	10 333	10 278	1 513	1 720	1 600	1 359	1 250	1 059
DK	5 054	5 122	5 111	5 135	5 216	5 330	757	685	587	557	627	682
DE	78 882	78 180	77 709	79 113	81 539	82 163	10 683	8 448	8 066	8 639	8 800	8 199
EE	1 424	1 472	1 523	1 571	1 448	1 372	207	219	228	239	195	143
EL	8 986	9 584	9 920	10 121	10 443	10 554	1 451	1 429	1 384	1 233	1 091	1 024
ES	35 338	37 242	38 353	38 826	39 197	39 733	6 498	6 465	5 720	4 676	4 012	3 797
FR	52 600	53 731	55 157	56 577	57 753	58 749	8 360	7 836	7 508	7 662	7 427	7 236
IE	3 164	3 393	3 544	3 507	3 598	3 777	663	696	687	617	545	530
IT	55 293	56 388	56 588	56 694	57 269	57 680	8 936	8 081	6 741	5 843	5 607	5 478
CY	506	506	538	573	645	690	(:)	83	94	103	107	102
LV	2 448	2 509	2 570	2 668	2 501	2 382	341	349	365	397	340	241
LT	3 289	3 404	3 529	3 694	3 643	3 512	543	530	538	570	530	434
LU	357	363	366	379	407	436	46	43	42	45	52	57
HU	10 509	10 709	10 657	10 375	10 337	10 222	1 471	1 638	1 527	1 273	1 222	1 099
MT	302	315	332	352	369	380	48	54	56	55	53	50
NL	13 599	14 091	14 454	14 893	15 424	15 864	2 259	1 961	1 763	1 814	1 934	1 985
AT	7 592	7 546	7 563	7 645	7 943	8 002	1 131	936	885	906	937	903
PL	33 846	35 413	37 063	38 038	38 581	38 654	5 335	6 033	6 621	6 403	5 540	4 565
PT	8 879	9 714	10 009	9 920	10 013	10 198	1 613	1 683	1 537	1 254	1 118	1 075
SI	1 778	1 884	1 937	1 996	1 989	1 988	282	296	292	267	227	196
SK	4 715	4 963	5 145	5 288	5 356	5 399	816	915	933	867	778	658
FI	4 702	4 771	4 894	4 974	5 099	5 171	657	620	650	636	642	627
SE	8 177	8 303	8 343	8 527	8 816	8 861	1 140	1 050	963	1 023	1 164	1 077
UK	56 231	56 285	56 596	57 459	58 500	59 623	8 617	7 367	6 980	7 464	7 700	7 487
IS	217	227	241	254	267	279	43	42	42	43	44	44
LI	24	26	27	28	31	32	(:)	4	(:)	4	4	4
NO	3 998	4 079	4 146	4 233	4 348	4 478	645	579	520	533	584	611
BG	8 710	8 846	8 971	8 767	8 427	8 191	1 311	1 340	1 296	1 146	963	774
RO	21 141	22 133	22 687	23 211	22 712	22 455	3 881	3 923	3 732	3 532	3 038	2 413

Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Figure A1 (continued): Change in the numbers of young people in the 0-9, 10-19 and 20-29 age groups in the European Union, in the EFTA/EEA countries and in the candidate countries, in thousand, from 1975 to 2000

	10-19 AGE GROUP						20-29 AGE GROUP					
	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
EU-25	(:)	68 459	65 493	60 939	58 144	56 370	(:)	64 648	67 329	68 676	66 733	62 550
EU-15	55 676	58 055	54 867	49 127	46 011	44 945	50 486	52 185	55 811	58 398	56 275	50 968
BE	1 569	1 531	1 398	1 276	1 222	1 222	1 460	1 549	1 579	1 548	1 444	1 327
CZ	1 408	1 364	1 507	1 716	1 587	1 348	1 698	1 577	1 406	1 366	1 503	1 715
DK	759	788	762	690	602	580	800	747	762	798	782	723
DE	12 272	12 807	10 756	8 614	8 752	9 331	10 374	11 462	12 577	13 392	11 964	9 746
EE	208	204	212	221	207	211	216	231	232	223	193	189
EL	1 404	1 509	1 482	1 504	1 462	1 273	1 244	1 326	1 414	1 483	1 587	1 586
ES	6 123	6 398	6 591	6 494	5 777	4 724	5 023	5 496	5 949	6 304	6 544	6 573
FR	8 528	8 583	8 583	8 057	7 658	7 778	8 417	8 482	8 531	8 576	8 470	7 880
IE	607	658	683	671	672	632	442	511	543	513	542	623
IT	8 529	9 165	9 018	8 055	6 785	5 943	7 805	7 801	8 464	9 073	8 982	8 160
CY	(:)	94	89	89	101	112	(:)	91	92	90	94	98
LV	361	351	349	359	345	365	351	385	398	394	343	327
LT	573	564	552	542	522	537	467	524	583	586	542	487
LU	53	54	48	43	45	49	55	57	60	61	59	57
HU	1 470	1 353	1 473	1 624	1 520	1 313	1 688	1 705	1 457	1 299	1 438	1 596
MT	62	52	48	54	57	57	56	59	56	51	50	54
NL	2 387	2 470	2 322	2 008	1 826	1 888	2 304	2 338	2 469	2 555	2 447	2 132
AT	1 223	1 277	1 144	957	938	955	1 027	1 087	1 240	1 316	1 251	1 037
PL	6 300	5 342	5 304	6 009	6 577	6 358	6 059	6 710	6 150	5 187	5 215	5 927
PT	1 659	1 701	1 702	1 648	1 501	1 273	1 329	1 423	1 575	1 516	1 588	1 626
SI	280	287	287	295	292	266	292	300	308	307	292	295
SK	862	793	806	903	924	859	791	880	838	773	789	895
FI	788	740	658	627	659	648	873	797	766	731	661	633
SE	1 090	1 150	1 150	1 065	1 011	1 068	1 239	1 146	1 133	1 205	1 222	1 116
UK	8 683	9 224	8 569	7 417	7 102	7 582	8 094	7 962	8 749	9 327	8 732	7 749
IS	45	44	42	42	42	43	36	40	43	43	41	42
LI	(:)	4	(:)	4	4	4	(:)	5	(:)	5	5	5
NO	619	644	652	587	532	549	617	613	626	660	669	612
BG	1 286	1 245	1 268	1 289	1 196	1 090	1 351	1 293	1 254	1 158	1 153	1 226
RO	3 262	3 416	3 832	3 871	3 664	3 432	3 205	3 554	3 215	3 335	3 611	3 765

Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Figure A6a: Trends in unemployment rates (percentages) by age group and by country, 1992-2002

EU-15	15-24	25-34	35-64					BE	15-24	25-34	35-64	CZ	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	(-)	(-)	(-)					92	13.2	7.3	4.9	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)					93	18.5	8.5	5.8	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)					94	21.8	10.1	7.0	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	21.2	11.9	7.9					95	21.5	9.8	6.9	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	21.7	12.1	8.1					96	20.5	10.0	7.3	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	21.1	11.8	8.2					97	21.3	9.3	6.8	97	7.0	5.1	3.4
98	19.3	11.2	7.9					98	20.4	9.9	7.2	98	10.8	6.5	4.5
99	18.2	10.3	7.3					99	22.6	8.3	6.7	99	16.6	9.4	6.3
00	16.0	9.1	6.6					00	15.2	6.9	5.0	00	17.0	9.6	6.8
01	14.0	8.0	5.7					01	15.3	7.3	4.3	01	16.3	8.7	6.2
02	14.6	8.5	6.0					02	15.7	7.7	5.2	02	15.4	7.2	5.6
DK	15-24	25-34	35-64	DE	15-24	25-34	35-64	EE	15-24	25-34	35-64	EL	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	12.3	10.7	7.5	92	6.0	6.4	6.5	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	25.0	9.0	4.0
93	14.6	13.0	8.8	93	7.7	7.7	7.7	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	26.7	9.8	4.4
94	10.2	8.9	7.1	94	9.0	8.8	8.7	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	27.7	10.8	4.4
95	9.9	7.5	5.9	95	8.5	7.7	8.4	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	27.9	11.1	4.7
96	10.6	7.2	5.6	96	9.6	8.3	9.0	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	31.2	12.0	4.8
97	8.1	5.6	4.6	97	10.7	8.8	10.3	97	18.7	11.8	8.5	97	31.0	12.0	4.9
98	7.2	5.6	4.2	98	9.8	8.5	10.4	98	14.9	10.1	8.6	98	29.7	13.2	5.8
99	10.0	5.1	3.9	99	8.9	7.8	9.4	99	22.1	11.0	10.2	99	31.7	14.5	6.6
00	6.7	5.1	3.7	00	8.5	6.7	8.4	00	23.5	12.8	11.8	00	29.5	14.8	6.1
01	8.3	3.6	3.5	01	7.8	6.9	8.2	01	24.5	11.9	10.8	01	28.0	13.2	5.9
02	7.1	4.2	3.8	02	9.3	7.8	8.7	02	17.3	8.7	8.8	02	25.7	13.1	5.6
ES	15-24	25-34	35-64	FR	15-24	25-34	35-64	IE	15-24	25-34	35-64	IT	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	33.1	20.0	11.1	92	21.7	11.1	7.4	92	22.7	14.8	12.6	92	27.3	10.3	3.5
93	42.2	25.1	13.8	93	25.5	12.6	8.0	93	25.0	15.0	12.6	93	29.8	12.1	4.2
94	44.9	27.3	15.8	94	28.8	13.9	9.1	94	23.0	13.5	12.3	94	31.6	13.8	5.1
95	41.9	26.0	14.9	95	27.1	13.0	8.7	95	19.0	11.2	10.2	95	32.8	14.4	5.3
96	41.9	25.5	14.8	96	27.6	14.2	9.1	96	18.1	11.0	10.2	96	34.1	14.6	5.6
97	39.3	23.8	14.1	97	28.9	14.3	9.3	97	15.9	9.7	8.7	97	33.6	15.4	5.7
98	35.6	21.6	12.8	98	26.2	14.0	9.1	98	11.6	6.9	7.0	98	33.8	15.2	6.2
99	29.2	17.3	11.1	99	26.3	13.5	9.0	99	8.6	5.2	5.3	99	32.9	15.0	6.0
00	25.4	15.3	10.3	00	20.6	11.5	8.1	00	6.6	4.1	3.7	00	31.5	13.7	5.7
01	20.7	11.6	7.3	01	18.0	9.8	6.6	01	6.3	3.7	2.9	01	27.8	12.5	5.3
02	21.5	12.4	8.1	02	18.9	9.8	6.6	02	7.8	4.5	3.0	02	27.1	12.3	5.1
CY	15-24	25-34	35-64	LV	15-24	25-34	35-64	LT	15-24	25-34	35-64	LU	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	1.8
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	7.9	3.5	2.5
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	2.1
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	9.2	3.8	1.8
97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	(-)	2.9	(-)
98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	27.0	12.8	12.8	98	23.7	14.1	9.5	98	(-)	3.1	1.9
99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	23.5	13.1	12.3	99	21.3	11.2	7.7	99	(-)	(-)	1.7
00	10.2	4.3	4.5	00	21.3	13.8	13.4	00	28.6	17.1	13.7	00	(-)	3.1	(-)
01	8.2	2.7	3.8	01	22.9	11.4	12.4	01	31.6	15.9	15.4	01	(-)	(-)	(-)
02	7.7	3.0	2.8	02	25.6	12.1	11.6	02	20.4	12.6	12.4	02	(-)	2.8	1.9

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

**Figure A6a (continued): Trends in unemployment rates (percentages)
by age group and by country, 1992-2002**

HU	15-24	25-34	35-64	MT	15-24	25-34	35-64	NL	15-24	25-34	35-64	AT	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	8.1	5.4	4.8	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	10.4	5.8	5.2	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	11.3	7.5	5.7	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	12.1	7.2	5.6	95	5.9	4.3	4.0
96	19.4	11.0	7.7	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	11.4	5.7	5.4	96	6.9	5.2	5.0
97	16.9	9.2	7.1	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	9.7	4.7	4.8	97	7.6	5.2	4.6
98	15.2	9.0	7.1	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	8.8	3.5	3.6	98	7.5	4.6	5.5
99	12.3	7.4	5.4	99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	7.4	3.1	2.9	99	5.9	4.7	4.5
00	12.3	7.3	5.0	00	(-)	(-)	(-)	00	5.3	2.2	2.3	00	6.3	4.4	4.5
01	10.7	6.5	4.3	01	(-)	(-)	(-)	01	4.4	1.8	1.6	01	6.0	4.0	3.6
02	11.4	6.2	4.3	02	15.3	(-)	4.0	02	4.6	2.4	2.1	02	7.2	4.9	4.5
PL	15-24	25-34	35-64	PT	15-24	25-34	35-64	SI	15-24	25-34	35-64	SK	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	9.7	4.5	2.2	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	12.1	6.2	3.3	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	14.5	8.1	4.4	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	16.0	8.3	4.9	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	17.0	8.1	5.2	96	16.6	6.3	4.7	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	22.8	12.1	8.7	97	14.1	7.1	5.1	97	16.3	6.4	4.5	97	(-)	(-)	(-)
98	21.3	11.0	7.7	98	9.4	5.2	3.5	98	17.6	7.9	5.0	98	23.2	12.7	8.8
99	29.6	13.4	9.1	99	9.3	4.9	3.7	99	18.5	7.0	5.4	99	32.0	16.3	11.2
00	35.7	17.5	12.3	00	8.1	4.1	3.1	00	16.4	6.1	5.7	00	36.9	18.8	14.3
01	39.2	18.3	14.1	01	9.0	4.0	3.1	01	15.7	5.2	4.3	01	38.9	19.0	14.4
02	41.6	20.4	15.3	02	10.4	4.7	3.6	02	14.8	6.2	4.4	02	37.7	17.0	14.7
FI	15-24	25-34	35-64	SE	15-24	25-34	35-64	UK	15-24	25-34	35-64	IS	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	15.7	10.5	7.6	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	17.5	10.5	8.1	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	16.4	9.9	7.6	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	41.2	16.5	12.8	95	19.6	10.0	6.8	95	15.5	9.0	6.7	95	12.2	4.4	3.7
96	41.6	14.2	11.4	96	21.5	11.1	7.1	96	14.9	8.5	6.2	96	8.7	3.2	2.4
97	35.4	15.5	11.1	97	21.9	11.8	8.2	97	13.6	6.9	5.5	97	8.1	3.8	2.6
98	34.6	11.4	9.8	98	17.5	10.6	7.2	98	12.5	6.4	4.5	98	7.0	(-)	1.9
99	28.6	10.1	8.2	99	16.3	8.0	6.3	99	12.5	5.9	4.6	99	4.3	(-)	(-)
00	28.4	9.7	7.5	00	9.5	5.6	4.9	00	12.1	5.2	4.2	00	4.4	(-)	(-)
01	26.6	9.0	7.0	01	11.7	4.4	3.6	01	10.3	4.5	3.4	01	5.1	(-)	(-)
02	28.2	9.3	6.8	02	12.9	4.9	3.7	02	10.9	5.0	3.6	02	6.4	(-)	2.2
LI	15-24	25-34	35-64	NO	15-24	25-34	35-64	BG	15-24	25-34	35-64	RO	15-24	25-34	35-64
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	19.1	6.9	3.0	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	15.3	4.5	2.7	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	14.9	4.9	2.1	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	17.4	6.3	2.9
98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	12.9	3.5	1.6	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	16.8	6.4	3.3
99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	12.3	2.7	1.3	99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	17.3	7.3	4.1
00	(-)	(-)	(-)	00	11.1	3.3	1.7	00	33.3	17.0	13.5	00	17.8	7.9	5.2
01	(-)	(-)	(-)	01	12.2	3.7	1.7	01	39.3	19.4	17.0	01	17.6	7.3	4.8
02	(-)	(-)	(-)	02	13.0	4.0	2.0	02	35.6	18.9	15.2	02	22.2	7.8	6.1

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

Figure A7: Trends in unemployment rates among those with a tertiary-level qualification (ISCED 5 and 6) by age group, and in the overall unemployment rate by country, 1992-2002

EU-15	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)					BE	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	CZ	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	(:)	(:)	(:)					92	2.6	2.4	5.9	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
93	(:)	(:)	(:)					93	3.3	2.6	6.8	93	(:)	(:)	(:)
94	(:)	(:)	(:)					94	3.7	3.1	8.2	94	(:)	(:)	(:)
95	6.0	4.3	9.2					95	3.4	2.8	7.9	95	(:)	(:)	(:)
96	5.9	4.3	9.4					96	3.7	3.3	8.3	96	(:)	(:)	(:)
97	5.8	4.2	9.3					97	3.4	2.3	7.7	97	(:)	(:)	3.8
98	6.8	4.7	9.0					98	3.4	2.6	8.2	98	1.9	1.1	5.0
99	5.2	3.8	8.3					99	3.1	2.6	7.3	99	2.6	2.6	7.2
00	4.4	3.3	7.4					00	2.4	2.0	5.7	00	2.6	1.6	7.6
01	3.9	3.0	6.4					01	2.7	2.0	5.2	01	2.0	2.1	6.9
02	4.2	3.4	6.8					02	3.1	3.3	6.0	02	1.6	1.1	6.0
DK	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	DE	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	EE	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	EL	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	3.6	3.5	8.5	92	4.1	3.6	6.4	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	4.3	(:)	5.4
93	5.2	3.9	10.1	93	4.6	4.1	7.7	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	5.4	2.2	6.0
94	4.5	3.7	7.6	94	5.4	4.8	8.8	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	5.2	2.4	6.4
95	4.9	3.9	6.4	95	4.9	4.5	8.2	95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	5.6	2.7	6.7
96	3.8	(:)	6.0	96	5.3	4.5	8.8	96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	5.5	2.6	7.0
97	3.4	(:)	4.9	97	5.7	5.0	9.9	97	6.7	(:)	9.4	97	5.6	2.2	7.0
98	3.3	(:)	4.6	98	(:)	(:)	9.9	98	5.2	5.6	9.0	98	6.2	2.4	8.2
99	3.0	(:)	4.3	99	5.0	3.8	8.9	99	5.8	6.1	10.4	99	7.3	4.0	9.2
00	2.6	(:)	4.1	00	4.3	3.5	7.9	00	(:)	(:)	12.1	00	7.1	3.7	8.9
01	3.4	4.0	3.5	01	4.2	3.3	7.9	01	7.2	(:)	11.1	01	6.6	4.1	8.4
02	3.6	3.5	3.9	02	4.3	3.6	8.5	02	(:)	(:)	8.8	02	6.3	3.4	8.1
ES	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	FR	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	IE	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	IT	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	9.4	4.3	14.4	92	(:)	(:)	8.7	92	4.4	4.1	13.4	92	4.2	1.1	(:)
93	12.7	5.8	18.0	93	6.1	4.7	9.5	93	5.3	4.1	13.5	93	4.4	1.1	6.8
94	14.8	8.4	20.1	94	6.6	5.4	10.7	94	4.9	4.0	12.7	94	5.9	1.5	7.8
95	14.5	7.8	19.1	95	6.5	5.0	10.1	95	4.2	3.8	10.6	95	6.9	2.5	8.4
96	14.3	8.2	18.8	96	6.4	4.8	10.7	96	4.2	3.9	10.4	96	6.3	2.4	8.5
97	13.6	7.7	17.7	97	6.6	5.3	10.9	97	3.5	2.9	9.1	97	6.8	2.4	8.9
98	13.0	8.0	16.0	98	6.5	5.4	10.6	98	(:)	(:)	7.0	98	6.9	3.3	9.3
99	10.9	6.9	13.4	99	6.1	5.3	10.4	99	1.8	(:)	5.2	99	6.9	3.0	9.1
00	9.3	6.2	12.1	00	5.1	4.4	9.1	00	1.6	(:)	3.9	00	5.9	2.3	8.4
01	6.7	4.3	8.8	01	4.6	4.0	7.6	01	1.5	(:)	3.2	01	5.3	2.9	7.7
02	7.4	5.1	9.7	02	5.0	4.8	7.5	02	1.9	(:)	3.6	02	5.3	2.5	7.4
CY	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	LV	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	LT	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	LU	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	1.7
93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	2.0
94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	2.8
95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	2.3
96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	(:)	(:)	2.5
97	(:)	(:)	(:)	97	(:)	(:)	(:)	97	(:)	(:)	(:)	97	(:)	(:)	2.0
98	(:)	(:)	(:)	98	7.0	(:)	12.8	98	7.3	5.9	12.2	98	(:)	(:)	2.4
99	(:)	(:)	(:)	99	5.9	(:)	12.6	99	6.3	6.3	11.9	99	(:)	(:)	1.9
00	2.6	(:)	4.4	00	7.5	7.8	13.6	00	8.8	7.7	14.7	00	(:)	(:)	2.0
01	2.3	(:)	3.5	01	5.5	(:)	12.1	01	6.2	(:)	15.5	01	(:)	(:)	1.4
02	1.9	(:)	2.9	02	6.2	7.3	11.8	02	5.8	(:)	12.4	02	(:)	(:)	2.2

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

Figure A7(continued): Trends in unemployment rates among those with a tertiary-level qualification (ISCED 5 and 6) by age group, and in the overall unemployment rate by country, 1992-2002

HU	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	MT	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	NL	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	AT	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	5.0	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	5.4	93	(:)	(:)	(:)
94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	6.3	94	(:)	(:)	(:)
95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	6.2	95	2.3	(:)	4.1
96	(:)	(:)	8.6	96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	4.0	3.5	5.5	96	2.6	2.2	5.1
97	1.7	(:)	7.7	97	(:)	(:)	(:)	97	3.3	3.2	4.7	97	2.7	2.4	4.8
98	2.0	(:)	7.7	98	(:)	(:)	(:)	98	2.0	1.9	3.6	98	2.3	1.9	5.1
99	1.1	(:)	6.0	99	(:)	(:)	(:)	99	1.7	(:)	2.9	99	2.1	2.3	4.5
00	1.2	(:)	5.7	00	(:)	(:)	4.7	00	1.7	(:)	2.2	00	2.3	2.5	4.5
01	1.1	(:)	5.0	01	(:)	(:)	3.8	01	1.5	1.7	1.7	01	1.9	1.3	3.7
02	1.5	(:)	4.9	02	(:)	(:)	4.5	02	1.7	(:)	2.2	02	1.7	1.8	4.5
PL	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	PT	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	SI	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	SK	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	2.9	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	4.2	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)
94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	5.5	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)
95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	3.2	(:)	5.8	95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	(:)
96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	3.2	(:)	6.0	96	(:)	(:)	5.2	96	(:)	(:)	(:)
97	3.0	2.6	9.7	97	(:)	(:)	5.6	97	(:)	(:)	5.1	97	(:)	(:)	(:)
98	2.0	(:)	8.7	98	(:)	(:)	4.1	98	(:)	(:)	6.0	98	2.9	(:)	10.0
99	3.0	(:)	(:)	99	(:)	(:)	4.1	99	(:)	(:)	5.9	99	3.9	(:)	12.8
00	4.9	(:)	13.8	00	(:)	(:)	3.4	00	(:)	(:)	5.9	00	4.1	(:)	15.7
01	4.5	(:)	15.4	01	(:)	(:)	3.3	01	(:)	(:)	4.6	01	4.5	(:)	15.9
02	5.6	(:)	16.9	02	3.3	(:)	3.9	02	(:)	(:)	5.0	02	3.1	(:)	15.4
FI	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	SE	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	UK	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	IS	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	3.6	2.5	8.5	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	4.4	3.4	8.9	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	4.1	3.4	8.4	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
95	7.1	7.3	13.9	95	3.9	3.5	7.7	95	3.9	3.3	7.5	92	(:)	(:)	3.9
96	6.7	5.2	12.2	96	4.3	5.0	8.2	96	3.6	3.4	7.0	92	(:)	(:)	2.7
97	5.6	4.3	12.3	97	4.2	5.1	9.2	97	3.0	2.6	5.9	92	(:)	(:)	2.9
98	6.2	5.7	10.2	98	4.6	6.2	8.1	98	(:)	(:)	5.1	92	(:)	(:)	2.2
99	4.7	4.4	8.7	99	4.0	4.8	6.7	99	2.8	2.6	5.0	92	(:)	(:)	1.6
00	4.9	4.0	8.1	00	3.0	(:)	5.1	00	2.2	1.8	4.5	92	(:)	(:)	1.3
01	4.1	3.4	7.5	01	2.2	2.5	3.8	01	2.0	1.9	3.8	92	(:)	(:)	1.2
02	4.0	2.9	7.4	02	2.6	2.5	4.0	02	2.4	2.3	4.0	92	(:)	(:)	2.3
LI	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	NO	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	BG	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)	RO	25-64	35-44	25-64 (ISCED 0-6)
92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)	92	(:)	(:)	(:)
93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)	93	(:)	(:)	(:)
94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)	94	(:)	(:)	(:)
95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	4.2	95	(:)	(:)	(:)	95	(:)	(:)	(:)
96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	2.6	(:)	3.3	96	(:)	(:)	(:)	96	(:)	(:)	(:)
97	(:)	(:)	(:)	97	2.2	(:)	3.0	97	(:)	(:)	(:)	97	2.0	0.9	4.0
98	(:)	(:)	(:)	98	2.1	(:)	2.2	98	(:)	(:)	(:)	98	2.2	1.6	4.3
99	(:)	(:)	(:)	99	1.5	(:)	1.8	99	(:)	(:)	(:)	99	2.3	1.6	5.2
00	(:)	(:)	(:)	00	2.2	(:)	2.2	00	6.3	5.0	14.4	00	3.4	3.0	6.1
01	(:)	(:)	(:)	01	1.9	(:)	2.3	01	8.0	6.6	17.7	01	3.4	1.8	5.7
02	(:)	(:)	(:)	02	2.3	(:)	2.6	02	7.7	5.9	16.3	02	3.4	2.9	6.7

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

Figure A11: Trends in percentages of employees aged 25-64 with temporary jobs, by level of qualification and by country, 1992-2002

EU-15	Low	Intermediate	High					BE	Low	Intermediate	High	CZ	Low	Intermediate	High
92	(-)	(-)	(-)					92	3.0	3.1	4.9	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)					93	3.2	3.1	5.5	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)					94	3.0	2.7	5.3	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	10.2	6.4	9.5					95	2.9	3.6	5.2	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	10.0	6.7	9.9					96	3.5	3.5	5.8	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	10.6	6.9	10.1					97	3.6	4.2	5.7	97	(-)	(-)	(-)
98	14.0	8.3	12.0					98	5.3	4.6	7.2	98	8.7	4.7	5.4
99	12.1	7.3	10.5					99	7.4	7.1	8.1	99	9.7	5.3	6.5
00	12.6	7.7	10.6					00	7.8	5.8	6.1	00	10.4	5.9	6.8
01	12.5	7.4	10.6					01	7.2	5.8	7.6	01	10.1	6.1	6.4
02	12.4	7.2	10.3					02	5.1	5.2	5.9	02	10.3	6.2	7.0
DK	Low	Intermediate	High	DE	Low	Intermediate	High	EE	Low	Intermediate	High	EL	Low	Intermediate	High
92	6.1	6.5	7.2	92	5.0	5.5	8.3	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	12.3	5.1	6.3
93	5.9	5.7	8.2	93	5.3	4.9	7.8	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	12.5	5.4	5.7
94	8.0	6.2	9.3	94	5.4	5.3	7.6	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	13.0	6.1	6.0
95	9.3	6.8	7.4	95	5.7	5.4	8.3	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	12.1	6.1	6.4
96	7.3	5.8	8.0	96	6.2	5.7	8.3	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	15.0	6.1	6.2
97	10.3	5.9	6.8	97	6.1	5.7	8.6	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	14.3	6.7	6.4
98	9.8	5.6	6.2	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	(-)	1.5	(-)	98	16.9	8.2	8.6
99	9.4	5.8	5.8	99	7.8	6.5	9.4	99	(-)	1.8	(-)	99	16.2	8.0	8.8
00	9.5	5.7	5.2	00	7.5	6.3	8.7	00	(-)	(-)	(-)	00	16.3	8.8	8.8
01	7.6	6.0	6.5	01	7.5	5.9	8.4	01	(-)	(-)	(-)	01	15.4	8.8	9.5
02	7.8	4.8	7.3	02	7.1	5.8	7.6	02	(-)	(-)	(-)	02	13.7	8.0	7.4
ES	Low	Intermediate	High	FR	Low	Intermediate	High	IE	Low	Intermediate	High	IT	Low	Intermediate	High
92	28.6	20.5	18.7	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	7.5	5.0	6.5	92	7.3	4.2	5.1
93	28.7	20.7	17.9	93	7.8	6.4	8.4	93	7.7	6.0	6.4	93	5.1	3.5	5.3
94	30.9	22.8	20.2	94	7.6	7.1	8.8	94	8.8	5.4	6.7	94	6.8	4.4	6.8
95	33.5	23.5	20.0	95	9.1	8.0	9.4	95	10.4	5.9	6.3	95	6.6	4.1	7.1
96	32.1	24.2	21.0	96	9.5	8.3	9.4	96	9.1	5.9	6.1	96	6.7	4.6	7.0
97	31.9	22.4	22.2	97	10.2	8.8	9.7	97	9.8	5.2	6.3	97	7.7	5.2	8.4
98	31.6	21.0	21.8	98	10.4	9.3	10.5	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	7.4	5.3	7.9
99	31.5	21.6	22.1	99	10.5	8.9	10.3	99	4.5	3.0	3.8	99	8.7	6.5	9.5
00	31.2	20.9	22.0	00	12.0	10.8	11.1	00	4.2	2.4	3.6	00	9.0	6.9	10.8
01	31.3	21.5	21.5	01	11.9	10.0	10.7	01	3.4	2.0	3.1	01	9.1	6.3	10.7
02	31.4	21.8	22.0	02	11.1	9.3	10.8	02	3.4	2.8	3.5	02	9.2	6.5	10.4
CY	Low	Intermediate	High	LV	Low	Intermediate	High	LT	Low	Intermediate	High	LU	Low	Intermediate	High
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	(-)	(-)	(-)
98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	14.6	7.9	(-)	98	13.0	6.5	3.0	98	(-)	(-)	(-)
99	12.7	6.3	7.6	99	13.8	7.3	(-)	99	10.4	6.0	2.5	99	(-)	(-)	(-)
00	15.3	7.6	6.6	00	15.0	6.3	(-)	00	(-)	5.1	1.6	00	(-)	(-)	(-)
01	16.6	8.7	6.9	01	10.7	6.5	(-)	01	15.2	7.3	2.7	01	3.2	(-)	(-)
02	11.6	10.7	4.7	02	18.8	11.3	4.5	02	16.3	8.0	2.5	02	3.2	3.0	(-)

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

Figure A11(continued): Trends in percentages of employees aged 25-64 with temporary jobs, by level of qualification and by country, 1992-2002

HU	Low	Intermediate	High	MT	Low	Intermediate	High	NL	Low	Intermediate	High	AT	Low	Intermediate	High
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	2.9	2.5	8.7
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	8.5	7.1	9.4	96	3.5	3.2	11.1
97	8.3	5.0	4.7	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	8.5	6.4	8.0	97	3.6	2.8	9.7
98	8.5	5.3	4.1	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	9.7	7.5	8.0	98	3.7	3.1	10.3
99	9.4	4.7	3.5	99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	10.0	6.8	6.1	99	3.6	2.7	6.6
00	9.8	5.3	3.8	00	(-)	(-)	(-)	00	11.2	8.1	9.2	00	4.0	3.2	5.3
01	11.0	5.9	3.6	01	(-)	(-)	(-)	01	9.9	9.2	9.2	01	4.4	3.3	6.1
02	10.6	5.9	4.2	02	(-)	(-)	(-)	02	10.3	9.1	8.7	02	3.2	2.4	3.9
PL	Low	Intermediate	High	PT	Low	Intermediate	High	SI	Low	Intermediate	High	SK	Low	Intermediate	High
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	7.6	8.6	6.4	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	7.0	6.4	5.3	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	6.5	6.8	6.1	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	7.4	7.2	5.8	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	7.1	7.7	8.2	96	(-)	4.1	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	9.6	4.2	1.8	97	8.2	10.7	8.6	97	11.4	8.2	10.7	97	(-)	(-)	(-)
98	10.3	3.9	2.0	98	13.0	11.2	14.1	98	(-)	6.6	9.3	98	7.5	3.0	(-)
99	8.5	3.5	2.0	99	14.0	14.3	15.5	99	(-)	6.9	(-)	99	4.7	3.1	(-)
00	11.5	4.5	1.8	00	15.9	15.5	17.1	00	(-)	8.4	11.0	00	5.2	3.2	2.6
01	16.7	9.0	6.5	01	15.8	15.6	16.5	01	(-)	8.7	(-)	01	8.9	3.6	3.3
02	20.3	11.7	9.8	02	16.5	18.3	21.6	02	9.8	9.9	10.0	02	8.0	3.7	2.2
FI	Low	Intermediate	High	SE	Low	Intermediate	High	UK	Low	Intermediate	High	IS	Low	Intermediate	High
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	4.0	4.0	7.0	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	4.0	4.2	7.4	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	4.1	4.5	8.4	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	9.1	13.8	16.3	95	7.4	10.4	10.1	95	4.7	4.7	8.6	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	10.0	13.8	18.5	96	6.7	8.9	9.4	96	4.7	4.9	9.0	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	8.9	15.1	15.0	97	7.3	9.5	9.5	97	4.6	5.1	9.0	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
98	10.7	15.2	15.7	98	8.8	8.8	11.3	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
99	9.7	14.0	13.2	99	11.5	10.2	11.3	99	4.2	4.5	8.5	92	(-)	3.5	5.4
00	10.2	13.3	12.8	00	11.0	10.4	11.4	00	4.2	4.2	8.0	92	3.2	3.5	4.6
01	10.9	12.8	13.4	01	9.6	10.7	11.5	01	4.0	3.9	8.1	92	(-)	4.3	6.7
02	10.1	12.8	13.2	02	10.4	10.3	11.4	02	3.6	3.7	7.4	92	3.1	4.2	4.9
LI	Low	Intermediate	High	NO	Low	Intermediate	High	BG	Low	Intermediate	High	RO	Low	Intermediate	High
92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)	92	(-)	(-)	(-)
93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)	93	(-)	(-)	(-)
94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)	94	(-)	(-)	(-)
95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)	95	(-)	(-)	(-)
96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	8.1	8.9	10.0	96	(-)	(-)	(-)	96	(-)	(-)	(-)
97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	7.3	7.3	9.9	97	(-)	(-)	(-)	97	3.9	1.8	0.6
98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	7.4	7.0	8.3	98	(-)	(-)	(-)	98	4.5	1.9	1.2
99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	7.8	6.1	8.3	99	(-)	(-)	(-)	99	5.2	2.1	1.7
00	(-)	(-)	(-)	00	5.2	5.6	8.2	00	(-)	(-)	(-)	00	4.0	2.0	1.2
01	(-)	(-)	(-)	01	4.0	5.1	7.9	01	13.5	5.7	3.5	01	6.0	2.0	1.5
02	(-)	(-)	(-)	02	6.5	6.3	8.8	02	13.5	5.0	2.6	02	1.6	0.6	0.7

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

Figure B6: Proportions of pupils aged 15 attending a school in which the entry requirements, as reported by school heads, include compliance with geographical, academic or philosophical criteria, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

Area of residence																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE			IS	LI	NO
A	0.4	0.0	0.6	4.8	31.5	29.5	50.5	37.4	(-)	12.2	2.6	8.8	5.1	5.0	2.0	18.8	57.2	20.0	5.1	36.7	32.9	(-)	28.1	54.8	64.8	45.3
se	0.39	0.00	0.62	1.48	3.05	2.88	4.61	3.35	(-)	2.57	1.15	2.62	0.03	1.34	1.17	2.25	3.66	2.97	1.32	3.30	3.77	(-)	4.39	0.18	0.39	3.78
B	0.0	7.5	0.4	18.0	27.8	25.4	14.2	34.1	(-)	29.5	4.6	10.8	10.0	3.8	4.5	7.4	25.0	38.7	5.9	30.5	29.4	(-)	45.4	38.3	0.0	28.5
se	0.00	0.27	0.45	2.27	3.26	3.30	3.45	3.42	(-)	3.67	1.60	2.59	0.02	1.53	1.76	1.95	3.48	3.97	1.39	3.31	3.47	(-)	5.46	0.17	0.00	3.30
C	99.6	92.5	98.9	77.2	40.7	45.1	35.4	28.5	(-)	58.3	92.8	80.4	85.0	91.2	93.5	73.8	17.8	41.3	88.9	32.8	37.7	(-)	26.6	6.9	35.2	26.2
se	0.39	0.27	1.07	2.02	3.21	2.87	4.02	2.96	(-)	3.75	1.97	3.46	0.04	1.71	2.14	2.67	2.70	3.96	1.84	3.28	3.39	(-)	4.69	0.11	0.39	3.50
Pupil ability																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE			IS	LI	NO
A	7.1	35.8	17.4	44.9	0.6	11.5	1.3	1.3	(-)	0.7	3.7	4.9	42.4	56.4	34.4	47.4	5.1	0.7	40.6	0.6	4.5	(-)	1.5	0.0	28.1	0.0
se	1.93	0.26	2.72	2.60	0.47	1.78	1.33	0.72	(-)	0.67	1.59	1.73	0.06	3.58	4.20	3.03	1.72	0.50	3.15	0.64	1.19	(-)	1.03	0.00	0.32	0.00
B	3.6	25.0	21.2	6.3	3.4	12.4	0.0	1.3	(-)	3.5	4.0	11.7	7.2	18.5	35.6	5.0	21.6	0.0	9.1	2.6	0.0	(-)	1.0	0.0	48.5	0.0
se	2.03	0.27	3.18	1.85	0.98	2.23	0.00	0.84	(-)	1.55	1.20	2.79	0.03	3.21	4.52	1.67	2.89	0.00	1.92	1.31	0.00	(-)	0.98	0.00	0.44	0.00
C	89.3	39.2	61.4	48.7	96.0	76.1	98.7	97.4	(-)	95.9	92.3	83.4	50.4	25.0	30.0	47.5	73.4	99.3	50.3	96.7	95.5	(-)	97.6	100.0	23.4	100.0
se	2.78	0.24	3.62	2.60	1.08	2.66	1.33	1.11	(-)	1.69	1.99	2.98	0.06	3.27	4.42	2.96	2.82	0.50	3.16	1.46	1.19	(-)	1.43	0.00	0.48	0.00
Endorsement by parents of the philosophy of the school																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE			IS	LI	NO
A	33.6	9.0	11.4	11.0	7.0	4.0	2.5	4.0	(-)	6.4	2.5	1.8	4.9	5.8	8.8	1.9	2.0	4.4	3.3	1.8	4.1	(-)	2.6	0.0	1.2	0.2
se	4.77	0.05	2.63	2.46	1.59	1.30	1.57	1.53	(-)	1.95	1.07	1.10	0.03	1.96	2.54	1.11	1.15	1.66	1.29	1.02	1.37	(-)	1.52	0.00	0.01	0.15
B	5.4	0.0	26.7	1.6	10.1	2.0	0.0	7.1	(-)	19.3	4.4	15.8	9.3	17.6	8.5	7.9	10.4	4.5	3.5	3.4	4.4	(-)	9.6	1.8	0.0	0.7
se	2.28	0.00	3.55	0.60	2.25	1.02	0.00	1.85	(-)	3.31	1.51	3.49	0.04	3.27	2.50	2.37	2.29	1.50	0.87	1.41	1.51	(-)	3.08	0.06	0.00	0.68
C	61.0	91.0	61.8	87.4	83.0	94.0	97.5	88.8	(-)	74.3	93.1	82.4	85.8	76.7	82.7	90.2	87.6	91.1	93.2	94.8	91.5	(-)	87.8	98.2	98.8	99.1
se	5.31	0.05	3.81	2.52	2.41	1.66	1.57	2.21	(-)	3.63	1.84	3.62	0.05	3.64	3.55	2.63	2.39	2.24	1.58	1.75	2.03	(-)	3.44	0.06	0.01	0.69

A Prerequisite B High priority C Not considered /hardly considered se Standard error

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure B8: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in terms of the proportions of girls (and boys) at the school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
No girls	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Less than 1/3 girls	0.0	2.0	0.7	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.5	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0
Standard error	0.00	1.15	0.72	0.92	0.00	0.00	0.50	1.14	0.77	0.80	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.82	0.00	0.00	0.47	0.00
Between 1/3 and 2/3	100.0	98.0	98.5	94.7	100.0	99.9	99.0	98.4	99.2	99.2	100.0	100.0	99.9	95.9	99.2	98.2	99.8	99.0	100.0
Standard error	0.00	1.15	1.10	2.17	0.00	0.07	0.71	1.14	0.77	0.80	0.00	0.00	0.09	1.78	0.82	0.17	0.12	0.69	0.00
Over 2/3 girls	0.0	0.0	0.8	4.2	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	4.1	0.0	1.8	0.1	0.5	0.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.83	1.96	0.00	0.07	0.51	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	1.78	0.00	0.17	0.12	0.50	0.00
All girls	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure B9: Breakdown of pupils aged 15 in terms of the proportions of girls (and boys) at the school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
No girls	5.3	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	(-)	18.4	2.2	0.1	0.0
Standard error	2.40	0.00	0.00	0.87	0.05	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	1.77	0.94	0.06	0.00
Less than 1/3 girls	13.1	16.3	19.0	14.5	1.6	1.5	4.0	4.4	(-)	5.2	16.7	1.1	11.9
Standard error	3.03	0.27	2.35	2.35	0.90	0.52	1.49	1.55	0.00	1.66	2.14	0.52	0.05
Between 1/3 and 2/3	75.1	74.8	62.9	66.4	97.8	93.7	94.3	91.9	(-)	48.5	52.2	98.3	77.9
Standard error	3.59	0.26	2.96	2.57	0.80	1.29	1.75	1.92	0.00	2.53	3.44	0.75	0.06
Over 2/3 girls	5.6	9.0	18.1	16.8	0.6	1.7	1.7	2.3	(-)	1.8	28.9	0.5	0.0
Standard error	2.58	0.05	2.89	2.63	0.57	0.79	0.99	0.26	0.00	1.32	3.16	0.53	0.00
All girls	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	0.5	(-)	26.1	0.0	0.0	10.1
Standard error	0.98	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.11	0.00	0.49	0.00	1.89	0.00	0.00	0.05
	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
No girls	2.8	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Standard error	1.37	0.00	0.55	0.00	0.00	0.54	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Less than 1/3 girls	20.6	4.1	29.3	0.4	0.0	17.2	0.0	0.3	(-)	0.0	0.1	3.8	0.1
Standard error	2.97	1.67	2.77	0.37	0.00	2.85	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.29	0.04
Between 1/3 and 2/3	59.0	94.8	40.8	98.8	99.7	70.5	99.3	98.5	(-)	97.6	99.8	96.2	99.9
Standard error	3.40	1.85	3.25	0.76	0.21	2.64	0.66	0.76	0.00	2.30	0.02	0.29	0.04
Over 2/3 girls	17.7	1.0	26.3	0.9	0.3	11.2	0.7	1.3	(-)	1.4	0.1	0.0	0.0
Standard error	2.55	0.83	2.53	0.67	0.21	2.23	0.66	0.77	0.00	2.07	0.02	0.00	0.00
All girls	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	(-)	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	1.50	0.00	0.00	0.39	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure B11: Distribution of pupils aged 15 (in terms of the median and percentiles) by size of school attended, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
Percentile 10	404.0	274.0	264.0	217.0	120.0	258.0	169.0	326.0	(-)	320.0	216.0	166.0	671.0
Standard error	28.37	50.34	19.83	23.05	7.13	19.87	9.13	20.78	(-)	19.78	15.05	6.05	0.00
Percentile 25	495.0	345.0	404.0	315.0	307.0	383.0	221.0	461.0	(-)	416.0	380.0	318.0	1 044.0
Standard error	22.03	0.00	31.13	14.95	39.12	37.31	7.86	19.73	(-)	16.05	43.06	51.98	0.00
Percentile 50	653.0	828.0	646.0	450.0	458.0	613.0	281.0	650.0	(-)	564.0	650.0	638.0	1 227.0
Standard error	40.71	76.30	25.40	15.48	15.48	40.13	15.34	23.49	(-)	23.32	26.09	39.52	0.00
Percentile 75	918.0	1 070.0	847.0	611.0	575.0	872.0	362.0	920.0	(-)	715.0	968.0	965.0	1 735.0
Standard error	47.48	0.00	36.52	29.82	20.72	23.38	33.82	87.62	(-)	15.02	33.57	31.92	0.00
Percentile 90	1 309.0	1 106.0	1 030.0	754.0	669.0	1 090.0	543.0	1 206.0	(-)	859.0	1 196.0	1 146.0	1 966.0
Standard error	116.04	0.00	66.55	33.55	20.32	56.59	45.94	32.95	(-)	28.20	39.47	40.12	0.00
	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO
Percentile 10	188	372	134	161	521	220	176	268	(-)	545	117	86	164
Standard error	25.66	46.02	19.09	7.76	26.00	15.46	14.22	14.07	(-)	92.44	0.95	0.00	13.95
Percentile 25	288	532	263	255	694	325	277	347	(-)	765	282	121	218
Standard error	10.16	34.92	29.43	5.55	31.77	14.84	14.64	14.10	(-)	29.73	6.26	0.00	11.01
Percentile 50	469	870	483	374	929	467	369	478	(-)	951	463	168	296
Standard error	7.13	106.18	28.30	12.29	28.51	12.95	10.91	14.36	(-)	35.65	0.00	0.00	18.49
Percentile 75	634	1 314	838	597	1 203	643	456	643	(-)	1 159	591	723	402
Standard error	28.83	86.04	89.43	19.36	108.10	32.56	11.48	34.28	(-)	30.77	0.00	0.00	14.78
Percentile 90	800	1 715	1 347	744	1 535	802	572	833	(-)	1 354	714	723	479

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure B11a: Average size of schools depending on whether they are located in rural areas, small towns, towns/cities or large cities, 2003

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
<15 000	722.0	596.8	579.5	387.5	383.1	561.5	201.6	477.4	(:)	565.0	487.8	387.5	1 386.7
Standard error	71.96	1.94	46.90	16.62	15.07	30.67	12.32	22.70	(:)	26.00	40.35	27.58	1.06
15 000-100 000	724.2	852.1	675.5	523.7	501.9	748.5	354.7	697.5	(:)	694.2	667.2	866.7	1 465.9
Standard error	49.07	5.33	31.02	20.07	22.78	54.55	14.38	31.05	(:)	81.03	35.37	42.47	1.50
100 000-1 000 000	862.4	0.0	644.0	661.5	531.4	732.6	350.0	930.5	(:)	522.3	924.0	855.5	0.0
Standard error	188.54	0.00	71.10	96.24	54.98	36.27	56.11	76.64	(:)	34.47	61.23	38.49	0.00
>1 000 000	823.1	0.0	639.8	452.9	540.4	626.6	294.6	982.7	(:)	611.5	691.2	0.0	0.0
Standard error	85.44	0.00	35.15	25.21	66.38	56.32	29.04	115.49	(:)	38.87	86.60	0.00	0.00

	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO	HU
<15 000	336.5	740.3	462.6	332.2	809.6	361.6	303.0	473.7	(:)	820.1	353.8	309.0	271.6	336.5
Standard error	30.28	108.11	62.40	16.65	46.05	14.86	12.24	31.00	(:)	44.00	1.41	1.98	13.84	30.28
15 000-100 000	495.9	971.2	724.7	595.8	1025.3	577.3	441.9	527.6	(:)	1012.4	591.4	0.0	355.7	495.9
Standard error	35.08	54.92	85.37	25.20	39.86	20.03	19.88	24.79	(:)	61.44	0.94	0.00	12.42	35.08
100 000-1 000 000	567.0	1042.6	852.4	493.9	1384.7	520.0	433.9	656.7	(:)	1087.2	458.2	0.0	415.6	567.0
Standard error	34.46	72.34	105.82	27.56	195.90	36.62	23.91	75.14	(:)	57.89	1.30	0.00	15.31	34.46
>1 000 000	495.1	0.0	863.3	373.3	1117.9	0.0	0.0	650.5	(:)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	495.1
Standard error	26.27	0.00	83.87	51.84	129.03	0.00	0.00	109.24	(:)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	26.27

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure B11b: Average size of schools attended by pupils aged 15, and population density (inhabitants/km²), 2003

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
Size	749	692	644	482	433	675	317	737	(:)	583	707	656	1 441
Density Inh./km ²	(:)	(:)	(:)	123	126	231	84	80	110	56	187	36	179

	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
Size	487	964	637	433	1 000	495	379	532	1 097	965	440	309	313
Density Inh./km ²	108	437	96	123	114	111	17	20	327	64	3	(:)	14

Sources: **Size:** OECD, PISA 2003 database; **Density:** <http://www.populationdata.net/europe.html>.

Figure B12: Percentages of pupils in the fourth year of primary education who attend a school offering a childcare service on school premises before or after lesson times, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Percentages	71.4	77.8	47.3	91.4	53.5	46.6	88.7	68.9	96.4	13.0	95.0	49.5	96.6	32.4	30.2	82.9	66.4	78.4	22.3
Standard error	4.37	3.20	4.76	2.40	3.21	5.70	2.64	3.75	1.58	3.24	1.94	4.13	0.77	4.77	4.85	0.32	4.86	3.31	3.68

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure B14 a: Procedures for limiting the number of places in tertiary education, 2002/03

	Limits on the number of places at national/regional level	Limits imposed by institutions in the light of their capacity	Selection on the basis of ability	Unrestricted admission
BE fr	A competitive entrance examination has been established for all branches of veterinary science. It has been introduced for the 2003/04, 2004/05 and 2005/06 academic years.		Training in civil engineering and in a few artistic fields (selection: examination set by the institution).	Most courses
BE de		Teacher training college (<i>Pädagogische Hochschule</i>). Foreign students may not enrol once the total number of German-speaking students enrolled exceeds 20. And the majority of the students enrolled (i.e. at least half plus one) must always be of Belgian nationality.		Most courses
BE nl			Some courses: Civil engineering and, since 1997, dentistry, medicine, nautical science and some art courses (selection: examination set by the institution or the government)	Most courses
CZ	The government fixes the number of state-subsidised places and the institution has the final decision on the number of places available	All courses (selection: by the institution on the basis of the upper secondary examination results and an entrance examination) For some courses, the institution requests only the upper secondary leaving examination		
DK	Medicine and education	Most courses (selection: by the institution; specific requirements in relation to prior knowledge and, if the number of applicants exceeds the number of places, selection on the basis of school results and previous relevant work experience)	Journalism, photo-journalism, film studies, music	
DE	Generally no <i>numerus clausus</i> , but a supra-regional selection procedure for some disciplines (such as medicine) based on an inter-state agreement between the <i>Länder</i> (selection: average mark in the <i>Abitur</i> , the period spent waiting between the <i>Abitur</i> and the application, and social criteria; around 20 % of places may be allocated by the universities themselves – selection in accordance with ability, motivation or special requirements).	Almost all <i>Fachhochschulen</i> (selection: by the institution, generally on the basis of the average mark in the <i>Abitur</i> , and the period spent waiting between the <i>Abitur</i> and the application) In courses to which admission is limited at federal level, around 20% of the places may be allocated by the universities themselves. (selection: on the basis of ability, motivation or specific conditions)	Art and sports courses (selection: aptitude test)	Most university courses
EE	Number of places, subsidised by the State, decided at central level	All courses (selection: on the basis of the results in the upper secondary State examination and/or admission procedure set by the institution)		
EL	All courses (selection: national examination)		Certain courses in artistic, linguistic, musical, sports and architectural fields, and the military colleges	
ES		All courses (selection: on the basis of results in the national examination)	Some courses in art, translation or interpreting and physical education (selection: aptitude test in addition to the national examination)	

	Limits on the number of places at national/regional level	Limits imposed by institutions in the light of their capacity	Selection on the basis of ability	Unrestricted admission
FR	Medicine, odontology, pharmacy, midwifery, paramedical subjects (selection: competitive examinations organised by each institution)	Applicable to some general courses in certain institutions (selection: priority to students resident in the <i>académie</i> , with a <i>numerus clausus</i> for the rest).	Certain courses (IUT, CPGE, etc.) (selection: by the institution, on the basis of school record and interviews)	General university courses
IE	Medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine and teacher training courses including those leading to a Bachelor of Education (places limited on the basis of course capacity with an additional <i>numerus clausus</i> for medicine and education)	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of results in upper secondary school)		
IT	Courses in medicine and surgery, dentistry, veterinary medicine, architecture. Diploma courses for which there is a prescribed element of practical training (courses leading to health professions) and teacher education courses for primary education. All specialisation courses. (number of places and selection criteria determined by the government; selection organised by the institution)	Certain university courses and higher education programmes in arts and music	Higher education programmes in arts and music	Most university courses
CY		All university courses (selection: entrance examination set by the Ministry of Education and Culture)		
LV	Number of places subsidised by the State, decided at central level	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of performance in the entrance examination, or the results of upper secondary examinations)	Certain courses in art and music (selection: on the basis of an entrance examination and an aptitude test)	
LT	The institution fixes the number of state-subsidised places, subject to approval by the Ministry of Education and Science	All courses (selection: on the basis of the results of upper secondary examinations)	Certain courses – in languages, artistic and musical fields, law and computer science (selection: by institutions on the basis of results in the upper secondary school leaving examination, and an aptitude test)	
LU	Teacher training (pre-primary and primary teachers)			Other courses
HU	The government fixes the number of state-subsidised places	All courses (selection: by the institution)		
MT		All courses (selection by the institution: based on general entry requirements and specific grades in the MATSEC examination) subject to the availability of resources		
NL	Certain courses as decided by the government each year (university courses – course-related quota)	Certain courses: university courses (institutional quota) and higher professional education courses (non-university – institutional quota) (selection: by the institution)	For certain courses one of the following 4 subjects combinations is required: culture and society; economics and society; science and health; science and technology (selection: national decision)	All courses for which all 4 subject combinations are allowed

	Limits on the number of places at national/regional level	Limits imposed by institutions in the light of their capacity	Selection on the basis of ability	Unrestricted admission
AT		All non-university courses (for example, <i>Fachhochschul-Studiengänge</i>) and some other institutions in the post-secondary/tertiary education sector	All <i>Universitäten der Künste</i> courses (selection: aptitude test) and university courses in sport	Most university courses
PL	Courses in medicine (number of places limited by the Ministry of Health)	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance examination (written and/or oral), an interview, an aptitude test, results in the final upper secondary school leaving certificate)		
PT	The number of places available is determined by institutions and approved by the government.	All courses have a <i>numerus clausus</i> fixed by each institution according to its capacity. Furthermore, institutions have to specify a minimum entrance requirement for their various courses (selection: national competitive examination for candidates with satisfactory school and exam results: candidates' marks to be above a minimum set by each institution)	Some courses (music and PE teachers) (selection: exam set by the institution).	
SI	Number of places determined by the institutions and approved by the government	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of final upper secondary school examination results, upper secondary school results, or results in specific subjects)	Some courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an aptitude test)	
SK		All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance examination)		
FI	Universities: graduate quotas for each discipline agreed between the Ministry of Education and institutions. Polytechnics: field-specific student intake (polytechnics) agreed between the Ministry of Education and institutions.	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance exam and/or school results; in polytechnics (and some university fields), work experience, studies etc. are also taken into account)		
SE	No maximum limit on the number of registrations, but maximum limit for financial support. Graduate quotas fixed by the government	All courses (selection: by the institution; specific requirements in relation to prior knowledge and, if the number of applicants exceeds the number of places, selection on the basis of school results, the results of a national university aptitude test, other tests, work experience)		
UK-ENG/ WLS/ NIR	Each institution agrees target numbers with the funding authorities No absolute upper limits on student numbers, except in medicine, dentistry and initial teacher training, in which quotas apply	All courses (selection: by the institution)		
UK-SCT	Target number set for each institution	All courses (selection: by the institution)		

	Limits on the number of places at national/regional level	Limits imposed by institutions in the light of their capacity	Selection on the basis of ability	Unrestricted admission
IS		Certain courses (selection: in accordance with results in the matriculation examination taken on completion of upper secondary school) and/or professional experience or competitive examination	Courses in musical and artistic fields (selection: on the basis of school reports, interviews and an aptitude test)	Most university courses
LI		Some courses: <i>Fachhochschule</i> Liechtenstein (selection: general admission requirements and/or aptitude test results)		
NO	Number of places fixed by the government (for the majority of courses) Most courses (selection: by the institution on the basis of school results, age, and work experience)		Courses in musical and artistic fields (selection: test) Certain courses, e.g. medicine, engineering (selection: specific requirements from upper secondary school)	Some university courses
BG	Number of places fixed at central level (selection: by the institution, depending on the number of places allowed centrally)			
RO	Number of places subsidised by the State decided at central level	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance examination or results obtained in upper secondary schools)	For certain courses in art, music, sports, architecture, the entrance examination also contains eliminative ability tests	

Source: Eurydice.

Figure B20: Percentage of pupils aged 15 attending a school which, according to the school head, uses their performance to monitor its own progress or evaluate its teachers, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
A	27.2	8.5	45.7	85.6	8.4	44.0	35.6	68.6	(-)	49.5	69.3	99.2	26.1	95.8	63.3	59.2	96.6	78.5	95.0	65.0	85.4	(-)	96.7	88.1	17.5	67.7
<i>Standard error</i>	4.37	0.42	3.93	2.36	2.04	3.20	5.72	3.18	0.00	3.98	3.05	0.64	0.06	1.39	4.15	3.93	1.46	3.12	1.54	4.10	2.74	(-)	1.75	0.09	0.28	3.34
B	5.7	15.7	29.9	61.7	3.7	11.8	15.2	35.9	(-)	16.9	23.3	86.5	21.0	77.0	42.2	35.6	73.2	34.7	75.0	32.1	21.2	(-)	57.7	30.9	39.1	19.5
<i>Standard error</i>	2.44	0.39	3.81	3.41	1.37	2.34	4.36	3.51	0.00	3.25	3.22	2.84	0.04	3.49	4.37	3.45	3.25	4.42	2.67	3.48	3.14	(-)	5.21	0.16	0.46	3.03

A Monitoring the school's progress **B** Making judgements about teachers' effectiveness

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure B24: Breakdown of pupils aged 15 according to the persons or authorities identified by the school head as having main decision-making responsibilities in six areas, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

Selecting teachers to be recruited																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO			
A	6.8	4.8	24.6	1.7	69.6	9.1	3.7	13.1	(-)	64.2	0.1	8.5	0.0	48.3	7.3	0.6	0.6	3.1	11.2	13.0	3.7	(-)	9.4	12.1	76.3	12.1
se	2.61	0.32	3.54	0.86	3.21	1.96	2.21	2.27	(-)	3.61	0.07	2.54	0.00	3.96	2.67	0.56	0.61	1.41	2.05	2.34	1.49	(-)	2.93	0.14	0.37	2.45
B	55.5	68.7	73.1	96.6	27.8	8.4	0.2	22.1	(-)	21.5	6.8	86.3	0.0	51.7	90.2	21.7	99.4	4.9	88.4	56.4	95.3	(-)	77.1	87.9	5.0	52.1
se	3.35	0.32	3.68	1.37	3.20	2.09	0.11	1.85	(-)	3.56	1.78	2.95	0.00	3.96	2.96	2.64	0.61	1.21	1.94	3.50	1.48	(-)	4.58	0.14	0.28	3.71
C	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	(-)	0.0	0.6	4.4	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
se	1.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.44	(-)	0.00	0.57	1.62	0.00	0.00	1.15	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.51	0.53	(-)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
D	36.5	26.4	2.3	1.7	2.6	82.4	96.1	64.0	(-)	14.3	92.5	0.8	100.0	0.0	0.5	77.8	0.0	91.9	0.4	30.1	0.5	(-)	13.5	0.0	18.6	35.8
se	2.47	0.24	1.22	1.07	1.20	2.71	2.21	1.48	(-)	1.80	1.87	0.68	0.00	0.00	0.50	2.57	0.00	1.65	0.41	3.52	0.47	(-)	3.56	0.00	0.29	3.83
Teacher dismissal																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO			
A	19.7	9.8	48.1	1.9	24.5	1.9	3.7	13.6	(-)	66.1	0.1	17.0	0.0	42.2	34.4	0.6	1.3	2.6	21.9	15.4	12.9	(-)	3.8	18.4	76.3	5.5
se	4.59	0.30	3.93	0.90	2.34	0.97	2.21	1.84	(-)	3.05	0.07	3.17	0.00	4.20	4.16	0.56	0.90	1.24	3.39	2.62	2.86	(-)	1.90	0.14	0.37	1.70
B	48.9	44.5	46.9	96.4	38.6	4.5	0.2	22.3	(-)	4.1	7.6	82.0	0.0	55.7	64.9	7.7	97.9	4.8	78.1	19.5	70.2	(-)	10.4	81.3	5.0	40.5
se	5.61	0.26	4.16	1.40	3.54	1.45	0.11	1.81	(-)	1.84	1.72	3.31	0.00	4.11	4.18	2.05	1.07	1.55	3.39	2.80	3.81	(-)	2.83	0.13	0.28	3.83
C	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.3	(-)	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
se	0.00	0.00	0.53	0.00	0.87	0.00	0.00	0.31	(-)	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.52	0.00	(-)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
D	31.4	45.8	4.4	1.7	35.5	93.7	96.1	63.8	(-)	29.8	92.3	0.0	100.0	2.1	0.7	91.8	0.8	92.6	0.0	64.5	17.0	(-)	85.8	0.4	18.6	53.9
se	3.92	0.26	1.75	1.07	3.64	1.74	2.21	1.48	(-)	3.00	1.72	0.00	0.00	1.22	0.65	2.12	0.57	1.52	0.00	3.65	2.87	(-)	3.09	0.03	0.29	4.11
Establishing pupil disciplinary policies																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO			
A	50.1	51.4	14.7	6.6	77.4	71.1	3.3	67.5	(-)	40.4	87.9	75.9	100.0	68.1	6.9	75.7	23.9	41.1	30.2	20.2	8.4	(-)	5.2	1.0	7.7	35.4
se	4.89	0.28	2.78	1.51	2.40	3.40	2.19	3.11	(-)	4.06	2.49	4.16	0.00	4.01	2.09	3.52	3.55	4.68	3.51	3.19	2.09	(-)	2.23	0.06	0.07	3.78
B	39.5	48.6	79.2	89.0	18.6	9.8	0.5	20.5	(-)	41.3	5.6	15.3	0.0	8.3	81.8	18.5	19.3	1.6	58.0	58.3	69.7	(-)	87.7	93.9	60.7	35.0
se	4.62	0.28	3.08	2.04	2.34	1.87	0.50	2.91	(-)	3.83	1.58	3.44	0.00	2.35	3.03	3.29	2.99	0.83	3.47	3.73	3.45	(-)	3.55	0.10	0.46	3.48
C	5.7	0.0	4.4	4.4	1.9	14.6	0.0	10.9	(-)	18.3	6.5	6.4	0.0	23.6	10.7	3.2	56.8	12.4	10.9	21.4	22.0	(-)	6.1	5.1	31.7	17.1
se	2.40	0.00	1.65	1.34	0.89	2.65	0.00	2.62	(-)	3.10	1.90	2.08	0.00	3.77	2.41	1.29	3.82	2.86	2.06	3.28	2.85	(-)	2.62	0.10	0.49	2.79
D	4.7	0.0	1.6	0.0	2.1	4.5	96.1	1.2	(-)	0.0	0.1	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.5	2.6	0.0	44.9	0.9	0.1	0.0	(-)	1.1	0.0	0.0	12.6
se	2.07	0.00	0.85	0.00	1.06	1.41	2.21	0.90	(-)	0.00	0.08	1.77	0.00	0.00	0.50	1.16	0.00	4.33	0.60	0.00	0.00	(-)	0.81	0.00	0.00	2.63
Establishing pupil assessment policies																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT				
	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO			
A	35.2	24.8	8.7	2.1	46.0	25.0	0.0	18.6	(-)	15.1	7.4	32.5	5.1	65.3	0.0	6.9	19.2	20.0	8.8	15.7	5.5	(-)	1.6	0.1	13.3	6.2
es	5.44	0.13	2.36	0.81	3.70	3.44	0.00	2.85	(-)	3.31	1.71	4.54	0.03	3.89	0.00	1.91	2.96	3.40	2.42	2.82	1.37	(-)	1.36	0.01	0.28	1.96
B	39.9	47.1	82.7	73.9	29.3	15.0	0.0	22.1	(-)	55.8	18.7	28.9	0.0	6.6	77.5	26.8	25.2	0.9	44.0	47.4	40.6	(-)	73.0	82.3	35.2	33.0
es	4.61	0.28	3.22	3.04	3.03	2.03	0.00	2.74	(-)	4.13	3.14	3.70	0.00	2.02	3.77	3.14	3.43	0.52	3.59	3.57	3.86	(-)	4.54	0.16	0.39	3.97
C	11.3	15.0	8.2	22.3	8.0	47.6	0.0	55.6	(-)	26.4	73.8	25.4	0.0	28.0	21.3	43.2	55.7	32.4	36.5	35.8	51.2	(-)	21.9	17.6	37.9	22.7
es	2.96	0.13	2.45	2.78	1.94	3.52	0.00	3.51	(-)	3.72	3.30	4.17	0.00	3.79	3.65	3.81	3.58	3.90	3.28	3.19	3.90	(-)	4.51	0.16	0.49	3.23
D	13.6	13.2	0.4	1.7	16.8	12.5	100.0	3.8	(-)	2.7	0.2	13.2	94.9	0.0	1.2	23.1	0.0	46.7	10.8	1.0	2.6	(-)	3.5	0.0	13.6	38.1
es	3.36	0.24	0.41	1.00	2.68	2.93	0.00	1.41	(-)	1.39	0.16	3.69	0.03	0.00	0.86	3.05	0.00	4.21	2.02	0.65	1.33	(-)	2.27	0.00	0.12	3.73

A School board

B School head

C Teachers or head of teaching department

D Not a main responsibility of the school

se Standard error

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure B24 (continued): Proportions of pupils aged 15 who attend a school that is autonomous in seven decision-making areas as reported by school heads, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

Decisions on school enrolments																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR		UK- SCT			
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE			IS	LI	NO
A	10.4	0.0	4.9	2.6	7.6	2.3	3.7	53.2	(-)	45.7	22.9	12.8	5.1	49.2	2.6	6.1	4.3	79.9	15.9	2.5	6.5	(-)	1.2	12.7	65.7	3.5
se	3.40	0.00	1.80	1.31	2.17	1.06	2.21	3.35	(-)	4.13	3.16	2.77	0.03	3.93	1.53	1.85	1.69	3.44	2.59	1.00	1.70	(-)	1.00	0.15	0.45	1.47
B	71.6	76.8	85.8	93.5	71.6	76.9	96.3	19.3	(-)	46.7	51.1	85.7	94.9	46.0	80.9	65.4	88.6	2.6	79.4	68.2	54.8	(-)	45.4	67.6	5.0	18.6
se	4.89	0.41	2.72	1.78	2.81	2.78	2.21	2.55	(-)	4.29	3.14	2.96	0.03	3.58	3.41	3.84	2.72	1.29	3.12	3.69	3.85	(-)	4.80	0.18	0.28	3.15
C	2.8	0.0	3.1	0.0	3.4	0.2	0.0	0.3	(-)	3.5	16.3	1.0	0.0	4.5	15.7	1.6	4.5	0.0	1.0	0.3	1.8	(-)	0.0	0.3	0.0	1.9
se	1.61	0.00	1.29	0.00	1.43	0.22	0.00	0.31	(-)	1.76	2.74	1.00	0.00	1.80	3.17	0.96	1.71	0.00	0.88	0.44	1.05	(-)	0.00	0.03	0.00	1.08
D	15.1	23.2	6.1	3.9	17.4	20.6	0.0	27.2	(-)	4.1	9.7	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.8	26.9	2.6	17.5	3.7	28.9	36.9	(-)	53.4	19.4	29.3	76.0
se	3.93	0.41	1.85	1.20	2.93	2.80	0.00	2.93	(-)	1.90	1.82	0.48	0.00	0.14	0.60	3.20	1.30	3.31	1.22	3.73	3.62	(-)	4.77	0.12	0.42	3.39
Choosing which textbooks are used																										
	BE fr	BE de	BE nl																		UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR		UK- SCT			
				CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE			IS	LI	NO
A	10.2	42.0	0.5	0.2	51.2	40.6	0.0	11.1	(-)	0.0	3.0	20.9	0.0	18.6	1.8	37.2	3.0	0.7	3.2	2.8	1.1	(-)	0.0	0.0	95.0	29.2
se	3.32	0.23	0.47	0.17	3.48	3.47	0.00	2.34	(-)	0.00	1.31	3.55	0.00	3.09	0.97	4.16	1.39	0.73	1.87	1.08	0.79	(-)	0.00	0.00	0.28	4.01
B	20.1	3.7	33.7	38.8	13.4	5.5	0.0	9.7	(-)	9.9	3.9	24.1	0.0	6.2	49.6	16.0	14.0	0.0	25.8	28.5	8.2	(-)	2.1	30.3	5.0	28.8
se	3.90	0.30	4.04	3.09	2.72	1.68	0.00	1.85	(-)	2.51	1.40	3.84	0.00	2.14	4.52	2.74	2.54	0.00	2.55	3.91	1.72	(-)	1.45	0.18	0.28	3.99
C	65.8	54.4	65.4	61.0	35.1	52.4	0.0	79.1	(-)	90.1	93.0	50.7	5.1	75.2	48.2	45.7	83.0	99.3	65.1	68.8	90.6	(-)	97.9	69.3	0.0	40.3
se	4.83	0.27	4.10	3.07	3.46	3.51	0.00	2.61	(-)	2.51	1.87	4.05	0.03	3.23	4.32	3.99	2.88	0.73	3.20	4.08	1.74	(-)	1.45	0.18	0.00	4.23
D	3.8	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.3	1.5	100.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	4.3	94.9	0.0	0.5	1.2	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.4	0.0	1.7
se	1.75	0.00	0.41	0.09	0.20	0.88	0.00	0.00	(-)	0.00	0.02	1.88	0.03	0.00	0.51	0.98	0.00	0.00	1.49	0.00	0.00	(-)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.96

A School board **C** Teachers or head of teaching department *se* Standard error
B School head **D** Not a school responsibility

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure C4: Proportion of pupils with an immigrant background in the total population of pupils aged 15, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
Percentage	18.3	17.7	6.8	1.3	6.5	15.4	7.4	3.4	14.3	3.5	2.1	9.4	33.3	2.3	11.0	13.3	0.0	5.0	0.9	1.9	11.5	(-)	8.7	1.0	17.1	5.6
Standard error	1.87	1.34	0.72	0.18	0.78	1.10	0.65	0.37	1.33	0.31	0.26	0.94	0.61	0.23	1.39	0.99	0.03	1.43	0.19	0.23	0.87		1.00	0.19	1.98	0.73

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure C6: Participation rates by age in pre-primary and primary education (ISCED 0 and 1), by age, 2001/02

	ISCED 0					ISCED 1				
	3 years	4 years	5 years	6 years	7 years	3 years	4 years	5 years	6 years	7 years
EU-25	67.6	87.3	73.8	26.0	1.0	0.0	0.6	16.4	72.7	99.3
BE	99.4	100.2	98.9	4.9	0.1	(-)	(-)	1.4	95.4	100.2
CZ	61.6	88.3	99.0	47.9	7.8	(-)	(-)	0.0	52.1	92.2
DK	81.5	92.3	92.3	95.8	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	99.7
DE	71.4	88.9	88.0	43.7	2.1	(-)	(-)	(-)	49.8	98.8
EE	77.1	82.1	83.3	83.4	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.0	11.4	98.8
EL	(-)	56.0	81.8	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.9	97.4	98.7
ES	93.0	100.6	101.7	0.5	0.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	101.8	102.2
FR	101.6	102.4	100.7	1.3	0.1	(-)	(-)	1.4	100.8	101.5
IE	2.6	1.8	1.1	(-)	(-)	0.5	47.7	97.6	100.9	99.5
IT	99.3	102.3	99.2	1.4	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.2	101.6	102.2
CY	30.1	58.3	75.4	1.8	0.1	(-)	(-)	2.4	94.7	99.8
LV	60.2	64.7	68.5	68.5	7.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	8.1	88.7
LT	45.8	51.6	59.6	67.1	6.8	(-)	(-)	0.2	12.5	92.7
LU	52.6	98.8	94.9	4.3	0.2	(-)	0.1	1.7	93.6	99.1
HU	71.8	90.2	96.2	73.0	4.1	(-)	(-)	(-)	26.7	95.8
MT	81.2	92.6	27.8	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	70.7	104.0	101.9
NL	0.1	99.1	99.4	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	100.2	99.0
AT	42.5	80.9	93.2	34.2	0.8	(-)	(-)	(-)	62.1	98.1
PL	23.2	32.7	42.8	99.7	1.8	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.9	96.3
PT	61.7	78.7	87.1	4.3	(-)	(-)	(-)	1.5	104.1	110.3
SI	61.1	72.3	77.1	73.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	36.4	96.0
SK	56.1	68.5	81.9	36.6	1.5	(-)	(-)	0.1	57.2	97.6
FI	35.0	44.0	52.4	96.1	1.4	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.6	96.1
SE	73.2	77.8	81.1	95.7	1.3	(-)	(-)	(-)	3.8	97.4
UK	53.4	99.9	0.0	0.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	97.4	95.6	98.1
IS	91.8	93.3	93.3	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.4	99.2	98.4
LI	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)
NO	73.6	81.4	84.8	1.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	99.4	99.4
BG	65.0	74.6	77.2	76.8	2.1	(-)	(-)	1.2	12.7	100.0
RO	41.7	64.2	80.4	92.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	19.4	93.4

Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

**Figure C7: Participation rates by age
in lower secondary education to tertiary education (ISCED 2-5), 2001/02**

	ISCED 2					ISCED 3					ISCED 4		ISCED 5		
	15 years	16 years	17 years	18 years	19 years	15 years	16 years	17 years	18 years	19 years	18 years	19 years	17 years	18 years	19 years
EU-25	54.1	19.8	5.3	1.7	0.6	45.2	74.4	80.1	58.4	27.0	1.3	4.9	1.0	14.6	28.2
BE	9.4	3.4	4.6	2.8	3.0	90.7	95.5	96.6	42.5	19.2	5.5	5.8	1.1	35.9	46.1
CZ	54.9	6.3	1.1	0.3	0.1	44.7	93.5	97.0	79.4	33.6	3.4	9.2	0.1	4.4	20.3
DK	94.3	59.8	9.8	1.6	0.4	1.4	31.4	73.2	76.3	56.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	3.1
DE	93.5	62.3	16.5	3.9	0.8	4.9	37.0	76.9	79.2	41.0	0.1	16.5	0.8	2.5	9.0
EE	76.8	19.5	7.1	2.1	0.8	20.6	78.1	82.9	50.5	18.9	4.9	10.7	0.7	19.6	35.3
EL	12.9	10.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	80.4	82.0	69.8	24.6	30.6	5.1	5.2	(-)	46.2	47.4
ES	100.7	35.5	11.8	3.9	1.8	1.8	59.0	70.5	36.1	20.6	1.1	0.8	(-)	27.5	35.3
FR	43.7	8.7	0.7	0.1	0.0	53.7	88.0	88.1	52.7	27.0	0.2	0.3	2.2	26.6	38.2
IE	63.2	6.2	1.1	0.4	0.0	36.4	87.0	71.2	26.5	2.3	15.3	10.8	6.0	35.8	41.0
IT	2.9	0.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	90.5	85.6	79.3	69.4	18.4	0.0	0.2	(-)	3.8	31.0
CY	6.5	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.0	87.6	87.6	75.8	10.6	1.7	(-)	(-)	2.0	11.8	26.5
LV	84.0	19.5	5.5	1.9	0.8	13.7	76.2	84.3	48.7	22.8	3.8	4.4	0.5	22.2	33.7
LT	99.7	77.6	15.9	5.7	3.2	0.5	20.2	78.6	57.4	18.3	2.1	5.1	0.5	19.9	43.4
LU	58.8	21.2	4.3	0.8	0.0	32.8	63.7	75.8	69.5	49.7	0.0	0.4	(:)	(:)	(:)
HU	13.6	5.1	2.4	1.2	0.7	83.5	84.5	82.8	47.4	14.3	12.8	18.7	0.2	11.9	26.0
MT	103.0	39.0	3.1	0.1	0.0	0.7	20.1	54.0	36.8	14.1	1.8	2.3	0.7	17.9	20.4
NL	77.2	43.5	15.4	5.2	2.2	25.2	57.0	67.2	52.9	33.0	0.1	0.3	5.5	18.4	27.5
AT	8.2	1.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	86.3	90.2	88.5	44.7	17.1	18.8	11.9	0.1	5.7	14.2
PL	94.9	6.4	1.8	1.6	0.2	1.1	87.6	89.0	82.5	32.0	0.1	5.7	(-)	0.7	30.2
PT	43.4	21.1	9.1	3.5	1.7	47.0	61.2	61.3	40.2	25.2	(-)	(-)	0.5	16.6	25.1
SI	8.1	1.9	0.8	0.6	0.6	94.4	92.8	93.2	78.2	29.0	0.3	1.3	(-)	4.6	40.0
SK	38.8	5.3	1.2	0.2	0.0	59.8	89.1	86.3	48.6	11.7	1.1	2.1	0.0	13.8	23.3
FI	98.2	10.0	1.0	0.3	0.1	0.9	86.1	92.8	88.5	32.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	15.8
SE	96.6	4.9	1.5	1.2	1.3	2.5	91.9	94.2	91.6	27.9	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.4	12.3
UK	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	110.6	90.7	74.2	31.8	20.0	(:)	(:)	2.2	25.1	33.9
IS	98.3	1.1	0.2	0.1	(-)	1.1	89.5	80.6	71.6	65.0	(-)	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.9
LI	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)
NO	98.6	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	1.3	93.6	92.7	84.5	39.7	0.2	1.2	0.0	0.4	12.0
BG	9.7	3.2	0.9	0.3	0.1	79.4	81.3	73.4	39.6	3.1	0.2	0.3	1.2	10.6	23.5
RO	12.9	4.7	(-)	(-)	(-)	68.0	74.6	66.0	40.8	10.7	1.3	3.6	(-)	17.1	27.2

Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Figure C10: Participation rates, overall and broken down by sex, subsequent to compulsory education, 2001/02

BE	Total	Men	Women	CZ	Total	Men	Women	DK	Total	Men	Women	DE	Total	Men	Women	EE	Total	Men	Women
X-1	102.4	100.3	104.5	X-1	100.0	100.0	100.0	X-1	95.7	94.9	96.6	X-1	94.4	94.0	94.8	X-1	98.9	97.0	100.8
X	86.6	83.9	89.5	X	100.0	100.0	100.0	X	91.2	90.2	92.2	X	85.7	85.7	85.8	X	98.3	97.7	98.9
X+1	74.0	68.7	79.5	X+1	100.0	100.0	100.0	X+1	83.0	81.6	84.5	X+1	67.3	65.1	69.7	X+1	91.1	89.1	93.1
X+2	62.7	55.8	69.8	X+2	98.3	99.3	97.3	X+2	78.2	77.0	79.5	X+2	50.3	47.3	53.5	X+2	77.0	72.5	81.8
EL	Total	Men	Women	ES	Total	Men	Women	FR	Total	Men	Women	IE	Total	Men	Women	IT	Total	Men	Women
X-1	95.1	93.7	96.8	X-1	103.0	102.2	103.8	X-1	98.4	97.9	99.0	X-1	99.8	98.3	101.4	X-1	102.2	103.3	100.9
X	93.3	91.1	95.8	X	94.6	92.9	96.4	X	97.7	98.0	97.4	X	106.0	102.5	109.7	X	93.4	93.5	93.3
X+1	92.8	90.3	95.6	X+1	82.3	77.7	87.1	X+1	91.8	91.1	92.6	X+1	95.1	91.2	99.1	X+1	86.5	85.7	87.3
X+2	69.8	66.4	73.6	X+2	68.7	63.5	74.1	X+2	80.2	78.0	82.5	X+2	82.9	76.6	89.7	X+2	79.3	77.3	81.4
CY	Total	Men	Women	LV	Total	Men	Women	LT	Total	Men	Women	LU	Total	Men	Women	HU	Total	Men	Women
X-1	97.9	98.0	97.8	X-1	97.9	98.1	97.7	X-1	100.4	100.8	100.0	X-1	92.9	91.8	93.9	X-1	97.3	97.8	96.8
X	94.5	92.1	97.0	X	95.8	94.6	97.1	X	97.9	97.9	97.9	X	91.6	90.1	93.1	X	89.7	90.2	89.1
X+1	88.7	84.7	93.0	X+1	91.6	90.4	92.9	X+1	95.0	93.3	96.8	X+1	84.9	83.7	86.1	X+1	86.0	85.7	86.2
X+2	78.5	75.9	81.3	X+2	76.6	73.3	80.1	X+2	85.2	81.0	89.7	X+2	80.1	78.4	81.9	X+2	73.3	73.1	73.5
MT	Total	Men	Women	NL	Total	Men	Women	AT	Total	Men	Women	PL	Total	Men	Women	PT	Total	Men	Women
X-1	103.8	102.2	105.6	X-1	100.7	101.6	99.8	X-1	99.6	99.4	99.8	X-1	91.0	89.6	92.5	X-1	102.9	102.9	102.9
X	60.2	64.3	55.9	X	88.4	88.7	88.1	X	94.5	94.5	94.5	X	85.0	82.4	87.6	X	93.5	96.8	90.0
X+1	59.6	55.4	64.0	X+1	76.8	76.7	76.9	X+1	91.6	93.0	90.1	X+1	68.2	66.5	70.1	X+1	83.0	80.5	85.6
X+2	56.6	50.2	63.6	X+2	63.1	63.2	63.0	X+2	88.5	90.9	86.1	X+2	61.1	57.6	64.7	X+2	71.2	66.6	76.1
SI	Total	Men	Women	SK	Total	Men	Women	FI	Total	Men	Women	SE	Total	Men	Women	UK	Total	Men	Women
X-1	99.9	100.1	99.6	X-1	98.8	98.9	98.7	X-1	99.2	99.0	99.3	X-1	99.2	97.3	101.2	X-1	110.7	110.7	110.6
X	102.6	101.4	103.9	X	94.5	94.5	94.5	X	96.1	96.5	95.6	X	97.0	96.8	97.2	X	90.9	87.3	94.7
X+1	94.8	93.7	95.9	X+1	87.5	86.8	88.3	X+1	93.8	94.3	93.4	X+1	96.0	95.6	96.3	X+1	76.5	72.9	80.3
X+2	94.3	95.5	93.1	X+2	63.8	62.5	65.0	X+2	89.3	86.8	91.8	X+2	93.6	93.3	94.0	X+2	56.9	55.2	58.7
IS	Total	Men	Women	LI	Total	Men	Women	NO	Total	Men	Women	BG	Total	Men	Women	RO	Total	Men	Women
X-1	99.3	99.4	99.3	X-1	(:)	(:)	(:)	X-1	99.9	99.1	100.8	X-1	90.1	91.5	88.8	X-1	80.9	79.6	82.4
X	90.6	89.6	91.5	X	(:)	(:)	(:)	X	93.6	93.1	94.2	X	84.8	85.9	83.6	X	79.3	78.8	79.8
X+1	80.9	79.1	82.7	X+1	(:)	(:)	(:)	X+1	92.7	92.2	93.2	X+1	75.6	75.9	75.3	X+1	66.1	63.3	69.0
X+2	71.7	67.8	75.6	X+2	(:)	(:)	(:)	X+2	85.1	83.2	87.0	X+2	50.6	50.1	51.1	X+2	59.2	52.8	66.0

X = end of compulsory education

Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Figure C16: Participation rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) by age and by sex, 2001/02

EU-25	Total	Men	Women	BE	Total	Men	Women	CZ	Total	Men	Women	DK	Total	Men	Women	DE	Total	Men	Women
18	14.6	11.8	17.5	18	35.9	28.4	43.6	18	4.4	3.8	5.0	18	0.2	0.2	0.3	18	2.5	0.6	4.5
20	32.4	27.4	37.7	20	46.5	40.1	53.1	20	28.3	26.0	30.7	20	12.0	10.2	13.7	20	16.7	11.5	22.1
22	27.5	24.8	30.2	22	30.0	29.1	30.9	22	22.3	21.0	23.7	22	28.5	23.0	34.1	22	21.1	20.1	22.1
24	18.1	17.5	18.8	24	13.1	13.7	12.5	24	13.7	13.5	14.0	24	30.5	25.1	35.9	24	20.3	21.6	19.0
26	10.9	10.8	11.0	26	6.6	7.0	6.2	26	7.0	7.0	6.9	26	22.9	20.6	25.2	26	15.8	17.9	13.6
28	6.7	6.7	6.7	28	4.0	4.1	3.9	28	4.3	4.4	4.3	28	13.7	12.9	14.6	28	10.0	11.8	8.1
30-34	3.8	3.6	4.0	30-34	3.9	3.9	4.0	30-34	1.9	1.9	1.9	30-34	5.3	4.7	6.0	30-34	4.1	4.7	3.5
35-39	1.7	1.6	1.8	35-39	0.4	0.5	0.3	35-39	0.7	0.7	0.7	35-39	2.6	1.8	3.3	35-39	1.6	1.7	1.4

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

**Figure C16 (continued): Participation rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6)
by age and by sex, 2001/02**

EE	Total	Men	Women	EL	Total	Men	Women	ES	Total	Men	Women	FR	Total	Men	Women	IE	Total	Men	Women
18	19.6	13.5	25.8	18	46.2	38.8	54.4	18	27.5	21.7	33.6	18	26.6	21.5	31.9	18	35.8	29.3	42.7
20	38.9	30.4	47.8	20	50.7	43.3	58.8	20	39.1	32.7	45.9	20	40.3	35.4	45.3	20	38.4	33.6	43.2
22	28.4	23.0	34.0	22	33.6	33.3	33.8	22	33.0	29.3	36.9	22	30.4	27.7	33.0	22	20.2	19.8	20.6
24	18.9	16.1	21.8	24	20.2	20.5	20.0	24	21.0	20.4	21.6	24	16.2	15.2	17.1	24	8.5	8.2	8.9
26	13.9	11.3	16.6	26	15.4	15.8	15.0	26	12.2	12.4	12.0	26	7.2	6.7	7.8	26	5.3	5.0	5.7
28	9.2	7.0	11.5	28	9.8	10.5	9.1	28	6.7	7.0	6.4	28	3.7	3.4	3.9	28	3.7	3.3	4.1
30-34	6.1	3.8	8.3	30-34	0.6	0.7	0.5	30-34	2.7	2.9	2.5	30-34	3.4	3.1	3.6	30-34	4.5	4.1	4.8
35-39	4.8	3.0	6.6	35-39	0.07	0.08	0.06	35-39	1.6	1.8	1.5	35-39	(:)	(:)	(:)	35-39	(:)	(:)	(:)
IT	Total	Men	Women	CY	Total	Men	Women	LV	Total	Men	Women	LT	Total	Men	Women	LU	Total	Men	Women
18	3.8	3.2	4.4	18	11.8	4.2	19.8	18	22.2	17.6	26.9	18	19.9	15.5	24.5	18	(:)	(:)	(:)
20	31.9	26.8	37.2	20	21.9	18.3	25.6	20	35.5	28.3	43.0	20	44.5	35.7	53.7	20	(:)	(:)	(:)
22	26.9	22.3	31.6	22	13.1	17.7	8.6	22	28.6	22.9	34.5	22	29.9	24.2	35.7	22	(:)	(:)	(:)
24	20.0	17.2	22.8	24	6.9	9.8	3.9	24	18.1	15.7	20.5	24	17.4	13.9	20.9	24	(:)	(:)	(:)
26	11.8	10.6	13.0	26	3.1	3.7	2.6	26	12.4	9.6	15.3	26	11.3	8.5	14.1	26	(:)	(:)	(:)
28	6.9	6.4	7.4	28	2.5	2.7	2.2	28	9.9	7.3	12.5	28	8.4	6.0	10.7	28	(:)	(:)	(:)
30-34	2.5	2.3	2.7	30-34	0.4	0.5	0.3	30-34	6.8	4.3	9.2	30-34	3.8	2.8	4.9	30-34	(:)	(:)	(:)
35-39	2.0	2.0	2.0	35-39	0.4	0.3	0.4	35-39	3.8	3.3	4.4	35-39	1.8	1.1	2.5	35-39	(:)	(:)	(:)
HU	Total	Men	Women	MT	Total	Men	Women	NL	Total	Men	Women	AT	Total	Men	Women	PL	Total	Men	Women
18	11.9	9.5	14.3	18	17.9	12.5	23.7	18	18.4	15.8	21.2	18	5.7	2.4	9.1	18	0.7	0.5	0.9
20	28.7	24.4	33.1	20	19.0	13.8	24.4	20	32.6	28.8	36.4	20	19.9	16.0	23.9	20	38.4	32.1	45.0
22	25.1	22.0	28.3	22	9.8	9.4	10.1	22	30.1	29.5	30.7	22	20.5	19.8	21.2	22	36.7	32.3	41.3
24	15.3	14.3	16.3	24	3.6	3.8	3.4	24	18.5	20.3	16.7	24	17.0	17.4	16.7	24	21.9	21.6	22.3
26	9.2	8.5	9.9	26	2.3	2.4	2.3	26	8.9	10.0	7.8	26	12.0	13.0	11.0	26	9.2	9.0	9.5
28	6.7	6.3	7.1	28	2.3	2.2	2.4	28	4.5	5.0	3.9	28	7.5	8.5	6.5	28	5.4	4.7	6.2
30-34	3.6	3.2	4.0	30-34	4.4	4.3	4.4	30-34	2.1	2.3	2.0	30-34	3.7	4.2	3.1	30-34	7.3	4.9	9.8
35-39	2.2	1.8	2.6	35-39	(:)	(:)	(:)	35-39	1.3	1.3	1.4	35-39	1.3	1.4	1.2	35-39	(:)	(:)	(:)
PT	Total	Men	Women	SI	Total	Men	Women	SK	Total	Men	Women	FI	Total	Men	Women	SE	Total	Men	Women
18	16.6	12.4	21.1	18	4.6	3.3	5.9	18	13.8	13.0	14.6	18	0.4	0.4	0.4	18	0.4	0.3	0.4
20	29.0	22.4	35.8	20	45.5	36.6	55.1	20	23.9	21.4	26.5	20	30.5	24.0	37.4	20	23.8	19.9	27.7
22	28.8	24.1	33.7	22	39.9	30.7	49.8	22	21.7	20.0	23.4	22	44.8	39.7	50.1	22	32.2	28.2	36.3
24	17.8	16.6	19.1	24	24.5	20.4	28.9	24	9.4	9.2	9.6	24	36.9	36.1	37.7	24	27.3	24.7	29.9
26	10.5	10.1	10.9	26	11.9	10.7	13.1	26	4.9	5.2	4.6	26	24.8	24.2	25.4	26	17.4	15.9	18.9
28	6.8	6.8	6.8	28	7.0	6.6	7.3	28	3.1	3.3	2.9	28	16.3	15.9	16.8	28	12.0	10.5	13.5
30-34	3.4	3.3	3.6	30-34	4.1	3.9	4.4	30-34	1.5	1.4	1.5	30-34	8.9	8.3	9.5	30-34	7.3	5.7	8.9
35-39	2.0	1.7	2.3	35-39	2.9	2.3	3.4	35-39	0.98	0.88	1.08	35-39	5.3	4.4	6.1	35-39	5.1	3.1	7.1
UK	Total	Men	Women	IS	Total	Men	Women	LI	Total	Men	Women	NO	Total	Men	Women	BG	Total	Men	Women
18	25.1	22.3	27.9	18	0.1	0.0	0.1	18	(:)	(:)	(:)	18	0.4	0.2	0.6	18	10.6	9.3	11.8
20	34.5	31.4	37.7	20	15.0	13.3	16.7	20	(:)	(:)	(:)	20	25.3	17.6	33.1	20	26.9	22.7	31.3
22	18.5	17.7	19.3	22	28.7	23.9	33.5	22	(:)	(:)	(:)	22	30.3	24.6	36.1	22	25.4	21.1	29.9
24	9.8	8.9	10.6	24	23.5	19.8	27.3	24	(:)	(:)	(:)	24	26.1	24.3	28.0	24	14.1	14.1	14.2
26	7.0	6.0	8.1	26	15.1	11.2	19.0	26	(:)	(:)	(:)	26	17.8	16.3	19.3	26	8.3	8.0	8.6
28	5.6	4.8	6.4	28	10.1	8.0	12.5	28	(:)	(:)	(:)	28	11.8	10.6	13.1	28	5.4	5.0	5.9
30-34	4.5	4.0	5.1	30-34	6.0	3.7	8.3	30-34	(:)	(:)	(:)	30-34	6.4	5.2	7.6	30-34	2.3	2.0	2.5
35-39	3.9	3.3	4.6	35-39	3.9	2.3	5.5	35-39	(:)	(:)	(:)	35-39	4.7	3.3	6.1	35-39	0.9	0.7	1.1
RO	Total	Men	Women																
18	17.1	13.9	20.4																
20	25.5	21.9	29.3																
22	19.9	17.6	22.2																
24	10.4	9.7	11.2																
26	5.3	5.2	5.5																
28	3.7	3.7	3.8																
30-34	0.9	0.9	1.0																
35-39	1.30	1.41	1.20																

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Figure D1a: Changes in total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GNI by country, 1995-2001

	EU-25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
1995	5.2	(:)	4.6	7.8	4.6	5.8	2.8	4.7	6.1	6.1	4.9	4.7	6.2	5.1	4.0	5.4	4.9	5.0	6.2	5.2	5.4	(:)	4.9	7.1	7.4	5.2	5.0	(:)	7.5	3.5	3.3
1996	(:)	(:)	4.7	8.2	(:)	6.0	3.0	4.7	6.0	5.8	4.9	4.9	5.2	5.2	3.8	4.8	5.3	5.0	6.1	4.8	5.6	(:)	4.5	7.2	7.6	5.1	5.4	(:)	7.0	2.7	3.6
1997	5.1	(:)	4.5	8.1	4.7	6.1	3.3	4.6	6.0	5.7	4.6	5.6	5.1	5.5	4.1	5.0	5.5	4.7	6.0	4.9	5.7	(:)	4.8	6.7	7.8	4.9	5.7	(:)	7.6	2.7	3.2
1998	(:)	(:)	4.0	8.4	(:)	5.7	3.4	4.5	5.9	5.5	4.8	5.7	6.2	6.1	(:)	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.9	5.1	5.7	(:)	4.5	6.4	7.8	4.8	6.0	(:)	7.6	3.3	4.4
1999	5.1	(:)	4.1	8.2	4.6	6.2	3.6	4.5	5.9	5.3	4.8	5.6	5.8	6.3	(:)	5.1	5.1	4.8	6.0	4.9	5.8	(:)	4.4	6.4	7.5	4.5	6.1	(:)	7.2	3.7	3.4
2000	5.0	(:)	4.1	8.6	4.6	5.8	3.8	4.5	5.8	5.0	4.6	5.5	5.4	5.8	(:)	4.8	5.1	4.8	5.9	5.0	5.9	(:)	4.2	6.2	7.5	4.6	6.2	(:)	6.9	4.5	2.9
2001	5.1	6.0	4.3	8.6	4.6	5.8	3.9	4.5	5.7	5.1	5.0	6.2	5.5	6.0	4.1	5.4	4.9	5.0	5.9	5.6	6.1	(:)	4.0	6.3	7.4	4.7	6.7	(:)	7.1	3.6	3.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE and National Accounts.

Figure D12: Average number of pupils per computer in public-sector or private schools attended by pupils aged 15, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR	UK-SCT	IS	LI	NO
Public	16.3	7.4	5.7	13.3	7.1	16.8	21.9	14.0	(:)	8.3	12.7	20.5	6.7	7.5	7.8	6.9	21.9	15.5	35.7	7.1	7.5	(:)	3.7	6.3	4.1	7.0
Standard error	1.77	0.03	0.49	0.41	0.24	0.57	2.61	0.97	0.00	0.45	0.57	0.76	0.00	0.47	0.61	0.36	0.73	0.47	3.06	0.29	0.22		0.10	0.01	0.02	0.23
Private	14.7	11.6	8.1	8.6	6.7	15.8	5.5	21.6	(:)	14.3	7.6	11.0	6.2	7.8	8.3	9.1	3.4	16.1	20.9	11.5	10.2	(:)	3.2	3.4	4.0	3.2
Standard error	1.16	0.01	0.39	1.18	0.64	1.57	1.95	1.35	0.00	0.71	1.68	1.28	0.01	0.94	0.32	0.70	1.18	2.74	4.41	2.27	2.44		0.54	0.10	0.12	0.23

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure D13: Changes in average proportions of computers with Internet connections in schools attended by pupils aged 15, public and private sectors combined, 2000 and 2003.

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT
2000	47.2	X	42.6	39.8	65	37.3	X	26.4	40.7	26.3	46.6	24.1	X	42.4	X	87.8	58.5	X
Standard error	3.52		2.83	2.56	1.72	2.56		2.72	3.06	2.16	3.1	2.35		3.86		0.07	2.36	
2003	65.2	71.6	79.8	76.5	87.8	70.7	X	69.2	79.3	(:)	67.4	70.8	X	60.5	X	95.9	78.8	X
Standard error	2.74	0.17	2.01	1.6	1.37	1.99		3.74	1.69		2.57	2.12		3.4		0.01	1.96	
										UK								
	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	ENG	WLS	NIR	SCT		IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
2000	(:)	69.3	35.3	35.3	X	X	83.7	74.3	53.8	X	30.9	37.8		82.6	78.9	49.8	28.5	26.7
Standard error		3.4	3.1	2.32			1.56	2.37	3.42		2.38	3.8		0.08	0.2	2.32	3.06	2.77
2003	84.8	87.3	82.7	60.4	X	50.8	92.1	91.9	(:)	(:)	(:)	90.8		95.7	96.6	81.2	X	X
Standard error	2.56	1.87	2.01	2.31		1.86	0.89	1.06				1.34		0.05	0.16	1.66		

Source: OECD, PISA 2000 and 2003 database.

Figure D14: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary school who, according to the teacher, can use a school library and/or a classroom library or reading corner, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
School library and reading corner in the classroom	52.0	37.7	45.4	72.5	61.5	30.7	65.3	79.5	61.4	52.2	69.0	60.1	41.8	74.5	76.4	45.7	51.3	29.9	46.6
Standard error	4.70	3.49	3.87	4.38	3.31	4.02	4.48	3.74	3.60	4.77	4.13	4.18	2.95	4.06	3.91	0.37	4.54	3.61	4.16
School library	40.8	9.9	31.9	8.2	18.3	1.3	34.3	18.9	35.5	17.1	30.9	33.6	53.9	18.5	8.6	51.8	47.1	56.9	50.2
Standard error	4.46	1.96	3.63	2.42	2.60	0.96	4.53	3.60	3.30	3.81	4.14	3.93	2.82	3.65	2.49	0.35	4.60	3.86	4.11
Reading corner in the classroom	3.9	45.5	14.6	19.3	13.3	67.6	0.4	1.6	2.1	30.7	0.1	3.6	2.8	7.1	15.1	0.5	0.6	4.2	1.4
Standard error	1.89	3.19	3.19	3.74	2.63	4.19	0.39	1.14	1.22	4.74	0.10	1.53	1.06	2.48	3.36	0.10	0.49	1.62	0.98

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure D15: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education classified in accordance with the use made of different reading materials, as reported by the school head, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

Textbooks	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LU	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
As basis for instruction	89.9	93.1	95.4	52.9	90.9	87.3	85.7	96.5	86.2	45.7	73.2	91.2	57.6	28.3	56.1	51.4	84.7	99.4	98.5
<i>Standard error</i>	2.50	1.88	2.58	5.29	2.18	2.48	2.78	1.59	2.52	4.80	3.92	2.58	3.88	4.04	5.61	0.39	3.83	0.65	1.07
As supplement	8.0	2.9	2.3	32.3	2.5	11.0	12.4	2.1	8.7	53.1	19.4	8.1	19.2	59.4	40.3	39.1	13.4	0.0	0.0
<i>Standard error</i>	2.16	1.32	2.23	4.83	1.15	2.46	2.90	1.21	2.35	4.91	3.42	2.50	3.61	4.79	5.41	0.37	3.63	0.00	0.00
Not used	1.4	0.7	0.0	1.2	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.1	6.2	2.3	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Standard error</i>	0.97	0.69	0.00	0.07	0.68	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.53	0.00	0.72	0.00	0.12	2.24	1.47	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Varies by year of study	0.8	3.3	2.4	13.6	5.6	1.7	1.9	1.4	4.6	1.2	6.7	0.7	23.1	6.2	1.4	9.2	1.9	0.7	1.5
<i>Standard error</i>	0.82	1.44	1.35	3.34	1.67	0.09	1.09	1.02	1.60	0.89	2.06	0.65	3.00	2.28	1.00	0.18	1.15	0.65	1.07
A variety of children's books	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LU	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
As basis for instruction	4.1	2.8	1.0	46.2	5.4	4.5	3.1	3.3	0.9	18.6	6.8	6.2	36.0	47.7	16.6	11.8	15.5	4.7	8.8
<i>Standard error</i>	2.13	1.35	0.99	4.68	1.74	2.18	1.45	1.49	0.58	4.02	2.27	2.05	4.78	4.68	3.53	0.29	4.36	1.73	2.47
As supplement	89.7	86.0	50.7	41.5	78.0	67.7	90.0	88.6	85.5	79.3	87.8	87.3	52.0	46.3	80.1	77.8	75.8	78.9	68.9
<i>Standard error</i>	3.04	2.79	4.55	4.94	2.97	5.27	2.13	2.43	2.89	4.05	2.56	2.72	4.92	4.83	3.60	0.35	4.91	3.33	3.58
Not used	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.1	0.0	2.8	0.5	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.2	0.6	0.6
<i>Standard error</i>	0.00	0.00	1.65	0.07	0.00	1.83	0.54	1.24	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.21	0.61	0.56
Varies by year of study	6.3	11.2	42.5	12.2	16.6	25.0	6.4	5.6	13.6	2.1	5.3	6.5	12.0	6.0	3.3	10.3	7.5	15.7	21.8
<i>Standard error</i>	2.21	2.44	4.32	3.09	2.77	4.52	2.14	1.97	2.83	1.27	1.54	2.10	3.14	2.36	1.68	0.22	2.16	2.84	3.22
Children's newspapers or magazines	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LU	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
As basis for instruction	0.0	0.0	0.0	31.8	2.2	3.6	1.3	2.2	1.4	1.6	0.7	5.7	3.4	5.2	1.9	0.2	0.0	3.5	2.8
<i>Standard error</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.12	1.14	1.96	0.91	1.25	1.33	0.97	0.74	2.30	1.63	1.84	1.36	0.07	0.00	1.44	1.17
As supplement	65.0	55.1	22.6	48.1	39.5	54.2	71.6	65.9	50.3	63.3	85.0	74.6	48.6	49.9	38.4	29.5	43.1	49.9	55.2
<i>Standard error</i>	4.45	3.65	3.68	4.55	3.86	4.92	4.25	3.73	3.92	4.94	3.35	3.81	4.82	4.71	5.07	0.38	5.20	4.36	4.66
Not used	3.7	5.2	14.4	0.3	6.9	6.5	0.0	2.5	1.4	21.5	0.0	1.8	6.3	21.9	33.1	14.9	15.0	8.8	5.0
<i>Standard error</i>	1.67	1.67	2.92	0.25	1.91	2.61	0.00	1.24	0.81	4.52	0.00	1.07	2.24	3.51	4.40	0.22	3.49	2.20	2.38
Varies by year of study	31.4	39.7	63.0	19.8	51.5	35.8	27.2	29.4	47.0	13.7	14.3	17.9	41.6	23.0	26.6	55.3	42.0	37.9	37.1
<i>Standard error</i>	4.17	3.56	4.37	4.26	3.79	5.19	4.15	3.41	4.02	3.26	3.27	3.27	4.69	3.48	4.69	0.38	5.03	3.75	4.20

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure D20: Annual amounts of fees and other contributions paid by students studying full time for a first qualification on daytime courses in the public sector or equivalent, 2002/03

		AMOUNTS IN NATIONAL CURRENCY		CONVERSION INTO PPS EUR (2002)	
		MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	Minimum	Maximum
BE fr	Registration fees - short tertiary	EUR 150	(final) EUR 195	153	199
	- long tertiary	EUR 300	(final) EUR 390	305	397
	- university	EUR 699		712	
BE nl	Registration fees - short tertiary	125 EUR	200 EUR	127	204
BE nl	Registration fees - non-university	EUR 77	EUR 450	79	458
	- university	(:)	EUR 488	(:)	497
CZ	Tuition fees (if studies take longer)	(:)	CZK 726	(:)	412
DK		0		0	
DE	Administrative fees	EUR 2 x 40	EUR 2 x 50	75	94
	Contribution to student organisations	EUR 2 x 35	EUR 2 x 60	66	113
EE	Tuition fees (if studies take longer)	EEK 12 600	EEK 25 200	1485	2970
EL		0		0	
ES	Registration fees and tuition fees	EUR 456	EUR 700	552	848
FR	Tuition fees (basic rate)	EUR 137		137	
	- vocational training	EUR 265		265	
	- health sector vocational training	EUR 230 - 370		230 to 370	
	- engineering courses	EUR 398		398	
IE	Registration fees	EUR 670		601	
IT	Tuition fees	Variable		Variable	
CY					
LV	Registration fees	LS 5	LS 20	18	71
	Tuition fees (non-subsidised places)	LS 200	LS 2120	706	7488
LT	Registration fees	LTL 70	LTL 180	44	113
	Tuition fees (non-subsidised places)	LTL 1.200	LTL 11.000	754	6910
LU		0		0	
HU	Certification fees	Variable		Variable	
	Tuition fees (paid by a minority of students)	Estimate : HUF ((78.400 + 91000)/2)		664	
MT		0		0	
NL	Statutory fees (for those aged under 30)	EUR 1396		1363	
AT	Tuition fees	EUR 2 x 364		717	
	Contribution to the Austrian student organisation	EUR 2 x 14		29	
PL	Certification fees	(:)	PLN 50	(:)	25
	Tuition fees (if studies take longer)	PLN 2 x 1000	PLN 2 x 1800	985	1774
PT	Tuition fees	EUR 348.01		475	
SI	Registration fees – short courses	SIT 180	SIT 3000 (first year)	1	19
	- medium and long courses	SIT 180	SIT 3380 (first year)	1	21
	Certification fees	(:)	SIT 23000	(:)	145
SK	Registration fees	SKK 200	SKK 1000	11	55
FI	Contribution to student organisations	EUR 51	EUR 90	48	84
SE	Contribution to student organisations	SEK 300 (average)		29	
UK - ENG/WLS/ NIR	Tuition fees	GBP 0	GBP 1100	0	1622
UK – SCT		0		0	
IS	Registration fees	ISK 32500		317	
LI	Tuition fees	CHF 1500		748	
NO	Contribution to student organisations	NOK 220	NOK 410	22	40
BG	Registration fees	BGL 170	BGL 270	263	417
	Other payments	Variable		Variable	
RO	Registration fees	Variable		Variable	
	Tuition fees (non-subsidised places)	Variable		Variable	
	Administrative fees (re-examination)	Variable		Variable	

Source: Eurydice.

Figure D28: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education whose teachers report having taken part in in-service training for teaching reading in the last two years, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
No participation	34.4	36.7	30.8	60.0	31.4	29.3	7.4	15.1	29.9	23.6	15.3	23.2	33.4	10.2	32.4	32.8	43.2	48.4	24.6
Standard error	3.14	3.09	3.75	3.52	3.84	5.25	2.19	3.17	3.81	3.39	3.08	3.41	2.96	2.61	4.46	0.38	4.52	4.07	3.33
Less than 6 hours	28.1	28.1	19.2	20.3	9.0	35.7	14.2	24.9	18.6	31.0	13.3	43.5	24.0	32.9	27.7	16.8	23.6	19.3	10.8
Standard error	3.29	2.32	3.39	3.01	2.27	5.34	3.21	3.37	2.72	3.89	2.25	4.33	2.90	4.44	4.48	0.30	3.79	3.50	2.57
Between 6 and 15 hours	22.7	19.6	22.3	6.2	20.8	22.6	32.4	34.1	19.8	20.4	33.9	21.7	18.2	26.6	23.5	20.6	17.4	15.9	23.7
Standard error	3.46	1.95	4.52	1.71	3.13	3.79	4.18	4.01	2.81	3.51	4.12	3.39	2.38	4.43	4.72	0.28	3.05	2.72	3.51
Between 16 and 35 hours	8.0	4.2	14.5	3.8	20.8	8.2	17.2	14.4	10.9	3.7	24.4	6.9	6.3	15.4	4.1	11.4	8.0	7.7	17.6
Standard error	2.24	1.10	3.50	1.39	3.08	2.48	3.31	2.84	2.50	1.68	3.45	2.14	1.48	3.12	1.87	0.28	2.65	2.25	2.43
More than 35 hours	6.3	1.2	8.0	3.8	16.8	1.3	28.4	8.9	16.8	8.0	12.4	4.8	9.9	7.3	4.6	10.4	6.5	5.9	20.1
Standard error	2.33	0.67	2.12	1.33	2.60	0.83	3.53	2.31	2.90	2.39	2.86	1.79	2.26	2.62	1.92	0.20	1.73	1.88	3.78

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure D32: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education whose teachers report that specialists or other adults are on hand to look after pupils with reading difficulties, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Specialist	30.4	6.3	(:)	8.2	4.1	8.7	35.8	(:)	13.4	43.3	32.6	15.9	17.1	13.1	18.4	26.0	9.5	13.3	6.0
Standard error	4.30	1.56	(:)	2.17	1.61	2.62	4.50	(:)	2.43	4.64	3.98	3.18	2.50	3.15	4.15	0.32	2.57	2.92	2.03
Another adult	4.0	0.1	(:)	3.2	5.0	0.2	0.0	(:)	4.7	4.8	9.3	0.0	9.8	20.8	6.0	9.6	7.4	2.5	2.1
Standard error	1.81	0.06	(:)	1.63	1.72	0.18	0.00	(:)	1.59	1.93	2.43	0.00	1.93	4.28	2.29	0.26	2.24	1.24	1.47

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure D34: Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 1	Duration of a teaching period	Number of				Teaching time without breaks				Number of school days per year		
		periods	hours			per week		annual				
	(minutes)		of teaching per week			(hours)		(hours)				
BE fr	50	22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	min	18.33*182/5	182	
		24				20	24*50/60	728	max	20*182/5		
BE de	50	24				20	24*50/60	728	min	20*182/5	182	
		26				21.67	26*50/60	788.67	max	21.67*182/5		
BE nl	50	22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	min	18.33*182/5	182	
		24				20	24*50/60	728	max	20*182/5		
CZ	45	22				16.50	22*45/60	613.8		16.5*186/5	186	
DK	45	24	18/45*60			18	720/200*5	720			200	
DE	45	27				20.25	27*45/60	761.4	min.	20.25*188/5	188	
		28				21	28*45/60	789.6	max	21*188/5		
EE	45	18				13.5	18*45/60	472.5		13.5*175/5	175	
		24				18	24*45/60	630		18.0*175/5		
EL	42.5	25				17.71	25*42.5/60	690.63		17.71*195/5	195	
ES				25		22.92	25-2.08	825		22.92*180/5	180	
FR		26				23.75	26-(15*9)/60	855		23.75*180/5	180	
IE				25.85		25.85		946.11		25.85*183/5	183	
IT				24		24		800		24*200/6	200	
CY	40	29				19.33	29*40/60	680.53		19.3*176/5	176	
LV	40			21								
LT	45	22				16.5	22*45/60	561		16.5*170/5	170	
LU	55	22				20.17	22*55/60	871.2	min	20.17*216/5	216	
		24				22	24*55/60	950.4	max	22*216/5		
HU	45					15		540	min	15*180/5	180	
MT (1)						25		760		25*152/5	152	
(2)						17.5		119		17.5*34/5	34	
(3)								879		760+119	186	152+34
NL											200	
AT	50	20				16.67	20*50/60	600	min	16.67*180/5	180	
		22				18.33	22*50/60	660	max	18.33*180/5		
PL	45	18				13.5	18*45/60	499.5		13.5*185/5	185	
PT (4)				25		25		900		25*180/5	180	
(5)				22		22		792		22*180/5	180	
SI (6)	45	21				15.75	21*45/60	641.25		175/5*15.75+90	175	
(7)		22				16.5	22*45/60	667.50		16.5*175/5+90		
SK	45	23				17.25	23*45/60	655.5		17.25*190/5	190	
FI	45	23				17.25	23*45/60	655.5		17.25*190/5	190	
SE												
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR											190	
UK-SCT				23.5		23.5		893		23.5*190/5	190	
IS	40	28				18.67	28*40/60	672.12	max	18.67*180/5	180	
LI	45	29				21.75	29*45/60	870		21.75*200/5	200	
NO	45	26				19.5	26*45/60	741		19.5*190/5	190	
BG	35	21		12.25	21*35/60			651			155	
	40	25		16.67	25*40/60			672			160	
RO						16.5	18-1.5				175	

*Italic: Estimated number*Additional notes (ISCED 1 level)**France:** Break time is 15 minutes every half-day (of which there are nine each week).**Italy:** Time at which teachers should be available at school during the year includes 40 hours for meetings.**Malta:** (1) full days; (2) half days; (3) total.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 1	Duration of breaks			Teaching time and breaks				Time available at school		
	per lesson (minutes)	per week (hours)	per week	per week (hours)	per week	annual (hours)	annual	per week (hours)		
BE fr										
BE de		2.58	(5*15+4*20)/60	22.58	20+2.58	822.03	22.58*182/5	26		
		2.58	(5*15+4*20)/60	24.25	21.67+2.58	882.70	24.25*182/5	26		
BE nl										
CZ	15	5.5	22*15/60	22	16.5+5.5	818.4	22*186/5			
DK										
DE	15	6.75	15*27/60	27	20.25+6.75	1015.20	27*188/5			
		7	15*28/60	28	21+7	1052.8	28*188/5			
EE										
EL	9.6	4		21.71	17.71+4	846.625	21.71*195/5	30	max	
ES	5	2.08	25*5/60			900	25*180/5	30		
FR		2.25		26	23.75+2.25	936	26*180/5			
IE		2.5		28.35	2.5+25.85	1037.61	28.35*183/5			
IT								25.09		920/220*6
CY	5	2.42	29*5/60	21.75	19.3+2.4	765.6	21.7*176/5	30		
LV						840				
LT								30.5		
LU	5	1.83	22*5/60	22	20.17+1.83	950.4	22.0*216/5			
		2	24*5/60	24	22+2	1036.8	24*216/5			
HU										
MT (1)								27.5		
(2)								18.75		
(3)										
NL										
AT	10	3.33	20*10/60	20	16.67+3.33	720	20*180/5			
		3.67	22*10/60	22	18.33+3.67	792	22*180/5			
PL	10	3	18*10/60	16.5	13.5+3	610.5	16.5*185/5			
PT (4)		1.67	20*5/60	26.67	25+1.67			35		
(5)		1.67	20*5/60	23.67	22+1.67					
SI (6)	5	2.58	(21*5+10*5)/60	18.33	15.75+2.58	731.67	18.33*175/5+90			
(7)		2.67	(22*5+10*5)/60	19.17	16.5+2.67	760.83	19.17*175/5+90			
SK	15	5.75	23*15/60	23	17.25+5.75	874	23*190/5			
FI	15	5.75	23*15/60	23	17.25+5.75	874	23*190/5	25	min	23+2
								25	max	23+2
SE								35		
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR								32.44		1265/195*5
UK-SCT								23.5		
IS		5.72		24.39	5.72+18.67	878.04	24.39*180/5	33.53		
LI	7.5	3.63	29*7.5/60	25.38	21.75+3.63	1015	25.38*200/5			
NO								30.14		1175.5/195*5
BG										
RO	5	1.5	5*18/60	18		630	18*175/5			

Italic: Estimated number

Additional notes (ISCED 1 level continued)

Portugal: (4) *ensino basico* 1st cycle; (5) *ensino basico* 2nd cycle.

Slovenia: Annual teaching time (with and without breaks) includes 90 hours fixed for 'other activities'. For those who teach the language of instruction, the length of breaks for each lesson is 5 minutes, with one extra daily break of 10 minutes.

Iceland: The number of days for which teachers should be available at school is calculated as follows: the number of days of teaching (180) + 5 days of cooperation + 8 days of preparation at school.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 1	Time available at school annual				Individual time (*)				Overall working time			
	(hours)		(days)		per week (hours)		annual (days)		per week (hours)	(days)		annual (hours)
BE fr												
	962 max											
BE de	946.4	26*182/5										
	946.4	26*182/5										
BE nl												
CZ									40	212		1696
DK			209				375		37			
DE					19.75	40-20.25	188		40	188		1504
					19	40-21	188		40	188		1504
EE									35	210		1470
EL	1170	30*195/5	195									
ES	1134	30*189/5	189						37	189		1398.6
FR									35			
IE												
IT	920	24*220/6 +40	220							281	365-32 -365/7	
CY												
LV									40	175		1400
										185		1480
LT	1037	30.5*170/5	170		3.5				34			
LU												
HU									40	256		256
												40*256/40
MT (1)	836	27.5*152/5	152									
(2)	127.5	18.75*34/5	34									
(3)	963.5	836+127.5	186	152+34								
NL												1659
AT									40	180		1440
												40*180/5
PL									40	185		1480
												40*185/5
PT (4)	1260	35*229/5	180						35	225		1575
(5)												35*225/5
SI (6)									40			
(7)									40			
SK									40	209		1672
												40*209/5
FI			193 min									
			195 max									
SE	1358	35*194/5	194						45	194		1767
UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	1265		195									
UK-SCT	916.5	23.5*195/5	195						35	195		1365
												35*195/5
IS	1304.6	33.53*185/ 5+64	193		9.33		495.2	9.33*185/ 5+150	42.86	193		1799.82
												42.86*185/5 +64+150
LI												
NO	1175.5		195				512					1687.5
												1175.5+512
BG									40			
RO									40	175		1400
												40*175/5

Italic: Estimated number

(*) **Individual time** is the working time that teachers have to complete independently in addition to the time during which they are meant to be present at school. In general it is equal to the difference between overall working time and time during which they are meant to be available at school.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 2	Duration of a teaching period	Number of				Teaching time without breaks					Number of school days per year		
	(minutes)	periods	hours		per week		annual						
		of teaching per week				(hours)			(hours)				
BE fr	50	22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	min	18.33*182/5	182		
		24				20	24*50/60	728	max	20*182/5			
BE de	50	22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	min	18.33*182/5	182		
		24				20	24*50/60	728	max	20*182/5			
BE nl	50	22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	min	18.33*182/5	182		
CZ	45	22				16.50	22*45/60	613.80		16.5*186/5	186		
DK	45	26	19.5/45*60			19.50	780/200*5	780			200		
DE	45	23				17.25	23*45/60	648.60	min	17.25*188/5	188		
		29				21.38	28.5*45/60	803.70	max	21.375*188/5			
EE	45	18				13.50	18*45/60	472.50		13.5*175/5	175		
		24				18	24*45/60	630		18.0*175/5			
EL	45	21				15.75	21*45/60	614.25		15.75*195/5	195		
ES				18		16.50	18-1.5	577.50		16.5*175/5	175		
				21		19.25	21-1.75	673.75		19.25*175/5			
FR	55	18				16.50	18*55/60	594		16.5*180/5	180		
IE	40	33				22	33*40/60	734.80		22*167/5	167		
IT				18		18		600		18*200/6	200		
CY	45	24				18	24*45/60	763.20		18*212/5	212		
LV	40			21									
LT	45	18				13.50	18*45/60	459		13.5*170/5	170		
LU	50	21				17.50	21*50/60	756	min	17.5*216/5	216		
		23				19.17	23*50/60	828	max	19.17*216/5			
HU	45					15		540	min	15*180/5	180		
MT (1)	45	26				19.50	26*45/60	592.80		19.5*152/5	152		
(2)	30					13	26*30/60	88.4		13*34/5	34		
(3)								681.20		592.8 + 88.4	186	152+34	
NL											200		
AT	50	20				16.67	20*50/60	600	min	16.67*180/5	180		
		21				17.50	21*50/60	630	max	17.5*180/5			
PL	45	18				13.5	18*45/60	499.5		13.5*185/5	185		
PT				22		22		792		22*180/5	180		
SI (4)	45	21				15.75	21*45/60	641.25		175/5*15.75+90	175		
(5)		22				16.50	22*45/60	667.50		16.5*175/5+90			
SK	45	23				17.25	23*45/60	655.5		17.25*190/5	190		
FI	45	17				12.75	17*45/60	484.50	min	12.75*190/5	190		
		23				17.25	23*45/60	655.50	max	17.25*190/5			
SE													
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR												190	
UK-SCT				23.5		23.50		893		23.5*190/5	190		
IS	40	28				18.67	28*40/60	672	max	18.67*180/5	180		
LI	45	28				21	28*45/60	840		21*200/5	200		
NO	45	21.2				15.9	21.2*45/60	604.2		15.9*190/5	190		
		25				18.8	25*45/60	712.5		18.8*190/5			
BG	45	30		22.5	30*45/60			648			170		
		30		22.5	30*45/60			792					
RO						16.5	18-1.5				175		
						22	24.0-2.0						

Italic: Estimated number

Additional notes (ISCED 2 level)

Italy, Slovenia and Iceland: See ISCED 1.

Malta: (1) full days; (2) half days; (3) total.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 2	Duration of breaks				Teaching time and breaks				Time available at school per week	
	per lesson		per week		per week		annual			
	(minutes)		(hours)		(hours)		(hours)		(hours)	
BE fr										
BE de			0.83	10*5/60	19.17	18.33+0.83	697.67	19.17*182/5		
			0.83	10*5/60	20.83	20+0.83	758.33	20.83*182/5		
BE nl										
CZ	15		5.5	22*15/60	22	16.5+5.5	818.4	22*186/5		
DK										
DE	15		5.75	23*15/60	23	17.25+5.75	864.80	23*188/5		
			7.13	28.5*15/60	28.50	21.375+7.125	1071.6	28.5*188/5		
EE										
EL	7.50	(10+5)/2	3.13		18.88	15.75+3.13	736.32	18.88*195/5	30	max
ES	5		1.50	5*18/60			630	18*175/5	30	
			1.75	21*5/60			735	21*175/5		
FR	5		1.50	18*5/60	18	16.5+1.5	648	18*180/5		
IE										
IT									19.1	700/220*6
CY	5		2	24*5/60	20	18+2.	848	20*212/5	30	
LV							840			
LT									27	
LU	5		1.75	21*5/60	19.25	17.5+1.75	831.6	19.25*216/5		
			1.92	23*5/60	21.08	19.17+1.9	910.8	21.8*216/5		
HU										
MT (1)									27.50	
(2)									18.75	
(3)										
NL										
AT	10		3.33	20*10/60	20	16.67+3.33	720	min 20*180/5		
			3.50	21*10/60	21	17.5+3.5	756	max 21*180/5		
PL	10		3	18*10/60	16.5	13.5+3	610.5	16.5*185/5		
PT									35	
SI (4)	5		2.58	(21*5+10*5)/60	18.33	15.75+2.58	731.67	18.33*175/5+90		
(5)			2.67	(22*5+10*5)/60	19.17	16.5+2.67	760.83	19.17*175/5+90		
SK	15		5.75	23*15/60	23	17.25+5.75	874	23*190/5		
FI	15		4.25	17*15/60	17	12.75+4.25	646	17*190/5	19	min 17+2
			5.75	23*15/60	23	17.25+5.75	874	23*190/5	25	max 23+2
SE									35	
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR									32.44	1265/195*5
UK-SCT									23.50	
IS			5.72		24.39	5.72+18.67	877.92	24.39*180/5	33.53	
LI	7.5	15/2	3.50	28*15/2/60	24.50	21+3.5	980	24.5*200/5		
NO									25.5	995.5/195*5
									29.12	1135.5/195*5
BG										
RO	5		1.5	18*5/60	18		630	18*175/5		
			2	24*5/60	24		840	24*175/5		

Italic: Estimated number

Additional notes (ISCED 2 level continued)

Slovenia: (4) Language of instruction teachers; (5) Other teachers.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 2	Time available at school				Individual time (*)				Overall working time			
	annual		annual		per week		annual		per week	annual		annual
	(hours)		(days)		(hours)		(days)		(hours)	(days)		(hours)
BE fr												
BE de												
BE nl												
CZ									40	212		1696
DK			209				375		37			
DE					22.75	40-17.25	188		40	188		1504
					18.63	40-21.38	188		40	188		1504
EE									35	210		1470
												35*210/5
EL	1170	30*195/5	195									
ES	1134	30*189/5	189						37.5	189		1417.5
												37.5*189/5
FR									35			
IE												
IT	700	18*220/6+40	220							281	365-32-365/7	
CY												
LV									40.0	175		1400
										185		1480
LT	1053	27*195/5	195		6.8				34.0			
LU												
HU									40	256		2048
												40*256/5
MT (1)	836	27.5*152/5	152									
(2)	127.5	18.75*34/5	34									
(3)	963.5	836+127.5	186	152+34								
NL												1659
AT									40	180		1440
												40*180/5
PL									40	185		1480
												40*185/5
PT	1260	35*180/5	180						35	225		1575
												35*225/5
SI (4)									40			
(5)									40			
SK									40	209		1672
												40*209/5
FI			193	min								
			195	max								
SE	1358	35*194/5	194						45	194		1767
UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	1265		195									
UK-SCT	916.5	23.5*195/5	195						35	195		1365
												35*195/5
IS	1304.61	33.53*185/5 +64	193		9.33		495.21	9.33*185/5 +150	42.86	193		1799.82
												42.86*185/5 +64+150
LI												
NO	995.5		195		692							1687.5
	1135.5				552							995.5+692
												1687.5
BG									40			
												1135.5+552
RO									40	175		1400
												40*175/5

Italic: Estimated number

(*) **Individual time** is the working time that teachers have to complete independently in addition to the time during which they are meant to be present at school. In general it is equal to the difference between overall working time and time during which they are meant to be available at school.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 3	Duration of a teaching period	Number of				Teaching time without breaks					Number of schoo days per year
	(minutes)	periods	hours			per week		annual			
		of teaching per week				(hours)		(hours)			
BE fr	50	20				16.67	20*50/60	606.67	min	16.67*182/5	182
		22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	max	18.33*182/5	182
BE de	50	20				16.67	20*50/60	606.67	min	16.67*182/5	182
		22				18.33	22*50/60	667.33	max	18.33*182/5	
BE nl (1)	50	21				17.50	21*50/60	637		17.5*182/5	182
(2)		20				16.67	20*50/60	606.67		16.67*182/60	
CZ	45	21				15.75	21*45/60	585.90		15.75*186/5	186
DK	45	25	18.75/45*60			18.75	750/200*5	750			200
DE	45	23				17.25	23*45/60	648.60	min	17.25*188/5	188
		27				20.25	27*45/60	761.40	max	20.25*188/5	
EE	45	18				13.50	18*45/60	472.50		13.5*175/5	175
		22				16.50	22*45/60	577.50		16.5*175/5	
EL	45	21				15.75	21*45/60	614.25		15.75*195/5	195
ES				18		16.50	18-1.5	577.50		16.5*175/5	175
				21		19.25	21-1.75	673.75		19.25*175/5	
FR	55	15				13.75	15*55/60	495		13.75*180/5	180
IE	40	33				22	33*40/60	734.80		22*167/5	167
IT				18		18		600		18*200/6	200
CY	45	24				18	24*45/60	763.20		18*212/5	212
LV	40			21							
LT	45	18				13.50	18*45/60	526.50		13.5*195/5	195
LU	50	21				17.50	21*50/60	756	min	17.5*216/5	216
		23				19.17	23*50/60	828	max	19.17*216/5	
HU	45					15		540	min	15*180/5	180
MT (3)	60	18				18	18*60/60	547.20		18*152/5	152
(4)	35	18				10.50	18*35/60	71.40		10.5*34/5	34
(5)								618.60			186
(6)	60	15				15		420			140
NL											200
AT	50	20				16.67	20*50/60	600		16.67*180/5	180
PL	45	18				13.50	18*45/60	499.50		13.5*185/5	185
PT				20		22		792		22*180/5	180
SI (7)	45	19				14.25	19*45/60	498.75		14.25*175/5	175
(8)		20				15	20*45/60	525		15*175/5	
SK	45	22				16.50	22*45/60	627		16.5*190/5	190
FI	45	15				11.25	15*45/60	427.50	min	11.25*190/5	190
		22				16.50	22*45/60	627	max	16.5*190/5	
SE											
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR											190
UK-SCT				23.50		23.50		893		23.5*190/5	190
IS	40	24				16	24*40/60	560		16*175/5	175
LI (9)	45	26				19.50	26*45/60	780		19.5*200/5	200
(10)	45	22				16.50	22*45/60	660		16.5*200/5	200
NO	45	16.3				12.23	16.3*45/60	464.55		12.2*190/5	190
		23.5				17.63	23.5*45/60	669.75		17.6*190/5	
BG	45	32		24	45*32/60			648			155
		32		24	45*32/60			792			180
RO						16.50	18-1.5				175
						22	24-2				

Italic: Estimated number

Additional notes (ISCED 3 level)

Belgium (BE nl): (1) 15/16 years-old; (2) 16-19 years-old.

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 3	Duration of breaks				Teaching time and breaks				Time available at school per week		
	per lesson		per week		per week		annual				
	(minutes)		(hours)		(hours)		(hours)		(hours)		
BE fr											
BE de			0.83	10*5/60	17.50	16.67+0.83	637	17.50*182/5			
			0.83	10*5/60	19.17	18.33+0.83	697.67	19.17*182/5			
BE nl (1)											
(2)											
CZ	15		5.25	21*15/60	21	15.75+5.25	781.20	21*186/5			
DK											
DE	15		5.75	23*15/60	23	17.25+5.75	864.80	23*188/5			
			6.75	27*15/60	27	20.25+6.75	1015.20	27*188/5			
EE											
EL	7.5	(10+5)/2	3.13		18.88	15.75+3.13	736.32	18.88*195/5	30	max	
ES	5		1.50	5*18/60			630	18*175/5	30		
			1.75	21*5/60			735	21*175/5			
FR	5		1.25	15*5/60	15	13.75+1.25	540	15*180/5			
IE											
IT									19.09		700/220*6
CY	5		2	24*5/60	20	18+2	848	20*212/5	30		
LV							840				
LT									27		
LU	5		1.75	21*5/60	19.25	17.5+1.75	831.60	19.25*216/5			
			1.92	23*5/60	21.08	19.17+1.9	910.80	21.8*216/5			
HU											
MT (3)									18		
(4)									10.50		
(5)											
(6)									19		
NL											
AT	10		3.33	20*10/60	20	16.67+3.33	720	20*180/5			
PL	10		3	18*10/60	16.50	13.5+3	610.50	16.5*185/5			
PT									35		
SI (7)	5		2.42	(19*5+10*5)/60	16.67	14.25+2.42	583.33	16.67*175/5			
(8)			2.50	(20*5+10*5)/60	17.50	15+2.5	612.50	17.5*175/5			
SK	15		5.50	22*15/60	22	16.5+5.5	836	22*190/5			
FI	15		3.75	15*15/60	15	11.25+3.75	570	15*190/5	17	min	
			5.50	22*15/60	22	16.5+5.5	836	22*190/5	27	max	
SE									35		
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR									32.44		1265/195*5
UK-SCT									23.50		
IS	12.29		4.92	24*12.29/60	20.92	4.92+16	732.08	20.92*175/5	25.43		
LI (9)	7.5	7.5	3.25	26*7.5/60	22.75	19.5+3.25	910	22.75*200/5			
(10)			2.75	22*7.5/60	19.25	16.5+2.75	770	19.25*200/5			
NO									20.76		809.5/195*5
									27.73		1081.5/195*5
BG											
RO	5		1.50	18*5/60	18		630	18*175/5			
			2	24*5/60	24		840	24*175/5			

Italic: Estimated number

Additional notes (ISCED 3 level continued)

Malta: Schools under the responsibility of the Education Division: (3) full days; (4) half days; (5) total; and (6) Junior colleges. Junior Colleges: the number of days for which teachers should be available at school is calculated as follows: 140 days of teaching + 13 days for examinations in May + 10 extra days for examinations in September.

Slovenia: For those who teach the language of instruction, the length of breaks for each lesson is 5 minutes, with one extra daily break of 10 minutes. (7) Language of instruction teachers; (8) Other teachers

Figure D34 (continued): Breakdown of the workload of full-time teachers in hours per week (statutory definitions), in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education, 2002/03

ISCED 3	Time available at school				Individual time (*)				Overall working time			
	annual		annual		per week		annual		per week	annual		annual
	(hours)		(days)		(hours)		(days)		(hours)	(days)		(hours)
BE fr												
BE de												
BE nl (1)												
(2)												
CZ									40	212		1696
DK			209				375		37			
DE					22.75	39.5-17.25	188		40	188		1504
					19.75	39.5-20.25	188		40	188		1504
EE									35	210		1470
EL	1170	30*195/5	195									
ES	1134	30*189/5	189						37.50	189		1417.50
												37.5*189/5
FR									35			
IE												
IT	700	18*220/6+40	220							280.86	365-32-365/7	
CY												
LV									40	175		1400
										185		1480
LT	1053	27*195/5	195		6.80				34			
LU												
HU									40	256		2048
MT (3)	547.20	18*152/5	152									
(4)	71.40	18*34*5	34									
(5)	618.60		186									
(6)	619.40		163									
NL												1659
AT									40	180		1440
PL									40	185		1480
PT	1260	35*180/5	180						35	225		1575
SI (7)									40			
(8)									40			
SK									40	209		1672
FI			193	min								
			195	max								
SE	1358	35*194/5	194						45	194		1767
UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	1265		195									
UK-SCT	916.50	23.5*195/5	195						35	195		1365
IS	922	25.43*175/5 +32	179		22.80		878	22.8*175/5 +80	48.23	179		1800
LI (9)												
(10)												
NO	809.50		195		878							1687.50
	1081.50				606							1687.50
BG									40			
RO									40	175		1400
												40*175/5

Italic: Estimated number

(*) **Individual time** is the working time that teachers have to complete independently in addition to the time during which they are meant to be present at school. In general it is equal to the difference between overall working time and time during which they are meant to be available at school.

Additional notes (ISCED 3 level continued)

Iceland: See ISCED 1.

Liechtenstein: (9) Music, sport, arts; (10) Other subjects.

Figure D35: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary school who attend a school which plans time for teachers to discuss teaching materials and approaches, with respect to the frequency of meetings, as reported by the school head, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
At least once a week	55.6	28.9	39.3	55.2	84.1	89.8	41.8	35.0	7.6	78.4	56.9	57.8	92.4	83.5	24.2	79.3	95.9	28.5	61.3
Standard error	4.34	4.04	3.97	4.73	2.56	2.55	4.50	4.09	1.98	4.13	3.73	4.01	2.73	3.31	4.59	0.36	1.99	3.89	4.26
Once a month	30.0	26.7	37.9	38.2	9.6	3.6	32.3	48.0	47.8	17.3	33.3	22.1	4.4	10.3	34.4	14.0	3.0	45.1	32.0
Standard error	4.03	3.27	4.47	4.50	2.02	1.76	4.36	4.13	4.24	3.72	2.99	3.37	1.97	2.69	5.23	0.33	1.78	3.66	4.13
Occasionally or never	14.4	44.4	22.9	6.6	6.3	6.6	25.9	17.0	44.6	4.3	9.8	20.1	3.2	6.2	41.5	6.7	1.2	26.4	6.7
Standard error	2.85	3.90	3.89	2.47	1.97	1.96	4.00	3.35	4.26	1.95	2.71	3.31	1.88	2.33	5.44	0.22	0.87	3.79	1.80

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure D36: Proportions of fourth-year pupils in primary school, whose teachers report taking part in meetings with other teachers on instruction in reading, with respect to the frequency of such meetings, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
At least once a week	49.1	26.1	24.7	11.6	46.0	39.0	19.9	28.7	51.5	12.2	48.0	44.8	27.7	26.2	7.4	21.1	61.2	62.6	44.9
Standard error	4.44	3.06	3.42	2.15	3.50	4.54	3.42	3.98	4.17	2.91	4.49	4.23	2.76	3.61	2.48	0.33	4.13	3.61	4.29
Once a month	35.9	31.9	41.0	32.6	31.8	21.3	49.9	47.0	29.5	27.0	25.7	42.0	21.3	32.0	30.4	27.7	18.6	18.9	48.8
Standard error	4.63	3.28	4.57	3.88	3.62	3.78	4.43	4.42	4.06	4.20	3.85	4.21	2.69	4.24	4.22	0.29	3.86	3.09	4.35
Occasionally	11.4	31.0	18.3	33.4	10.3	24.8	29.0	24.4	16.9	54.5	17.9	10.6	36.8	32.9	44.5	39.8	11.1	15.8	6.0
Standard error	2.72	3.28	2.96	4.13	2.06	4.38	3.93	3.52	3.30	4.54	3.26	2.65	3.24	4.23	5.11	0.32	2.47	2.55	1.97
Never	3.6	10.9	16.1	22.4	11.9	14.9	1.2	0	2.1	6.2	8.4	2.7	14.2	8.9	17.8	11.4	9.2	2.7	0.4
Erreur standard	1.62	2.2	3.3	3.95	2.67	3.39	0.86	0	1.28	2.14	2.37	1.25	1.9	2.26	3.76	0.23	2.91	1.26	0.4

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure D45: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education, whose teachers report having completed studies at a level corresponding to upper secondary or tertiary education, public and private sectors combined, 2001/02

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
< ISCED 3	0.0	0.8	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	0.0	0.3
Standard error	0.00	0.56	0.00	0.98	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.29
ISCED 3	12.5	5.5	0.0	41.4	67.5	5.8	5.3	1.2	0.0	0.6	0.6	17.3	7.0	0.0	6.0	10.7	0.5	0.6	71.1
Standard error	2.83	0.90	0.00	3.80	3.27	2.52	1.52	0.89	0.00	0.56	0.59	3.45	2.03	0.00	2.30	0.25	0.53	0.62	3.65
ISCED 4	10.2	1.3	79.3	23.4	6.7	0.0	7.9	12.2	1.0	0.0	74.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.3	0.9	23.7	23.6
Standard error	3.00	0.63	3.88	2.68	1.98	0.00	2.04	2.73	0.72	0.00	3.38	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.28	0.62	2.95	3.42
ISCED 5 and over	77.3	92.5	20.7	33.8	25.8	94.2	86.9	86.6	99.0	99.4	24.6	82.7	93.0	100.0	94.0	76.2	98.6	75.7	5.0
Standard error	3.97	0.85	3.88	3.31	3.42	2.52	2.57	2.88	0.72	0.56	3.33	3.45	2.03	0.00	2.30	0.39	0.81	3.02	1.81

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E5: Percentages of pupils whose teachers say they use textbooks, children's literature, or educational software for teaching reading at least once a week (fourth year of primary education), public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	ENG	SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Textbooks or reading series																			
Every day or almost every day	68.0	43.2	95.1	28.5	68.0	95.9	95.0	93.3	98.6	21.7	56.3	98.1	27.0	42.9	66.9	68.7	62.8	96.6	86.5
Standard error	4.14	2.85	1.95	4.27	3.67	1.76	1.62	2.13	1.05	3.70	4.44	1.17	3.43	4.72	3.94	0.36	4.58	0.95	3.31
Once or twice a week	29.8	43.7	1.9	51.9	24.5	3.3	5.0	6.7	1.4	54.6	38.7	1.9	31.3	40.9	32.3	26.0	34.3	2.9	13.2
Standard error	3.91	2.95	1.20	4.54	3.19	1.63	1.62	2.13	1.05	4.79	4.45	1.17	3.49	4.62	3.84	0.30	4.53	0.76	3.29
A variety of children's books																			
Every day or almost every day	6.7	6.2	3.6	14.7	12.8	4.4	12.0	9.1	2.2	29.8	7.4	5.8	63.0	56.0	33.0	42.1	24.0	9.4	20.3
Standard error	2.31	1.53	1.74	2.99	2.14	1.77	3.30	2.20	1.24	3.65	2.17	2.14	3.56	4.40	4.91	0.36	4.09	2.19	3.55
Once or twice a week	53.7	28.4	28.3	49.2	40.0	30.5	51.9	45.9	49.0	38.9	31.7	38.3	27.5	40.6	47.5	33.9	50.6	41.7	58.4
Standard error	4.14	2.83	3.91	4.07	3.95	4.27	4.14	4.28	3.89	3.70	3.76	4.26	3.03	4.36	4.77	0.35	4.76	4.18	4.13
Computer software for reading instruction (e.g. CD-ROM)																			
Every day or almost every day	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.3	0.8	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.02	0.00	0.00	0.48	0.94	0.84	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Once or twice a week	0.7	5.1	0.0	5.0	4.1	0.9	0.7	0.6	1.1	7.7	2.4	0.0	15.4	9.1	9.8	9.2	7.9	0.6	0.7
Standard error	0.69	1.63	0.00	1.44	1.39	0.51	0.65	0.64	0.98	2.04	1.20	0.00	2.33	2.82	2.73	0.19	2.33	0.59	0.72

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E6: Percentages of pupils in the fourth year of primary school whose teachers say they take them to the school library at least once a week, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	ENG	SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Not applicable because no library in the school	7.2	52.6	22.3	19.1	20.0	68.0	0.4	1.6	3.1	30.0	0.1	6.3	4.3	7.1	15.1	2.4	1.7	13.1	3.2
Standard error	2.52	3.36	3.07	3.71	2.96	4.15	0.39	1.13	1.42	4.62	0.10	1.92	1.50	2.48	3.36	0.15	0.92	2.56	1.08
Every day or almost every day	2.8	1.1	3.5	6.4	4.2	0.4	13.0	17.0	11.0	10.7	45.1	4.5	23.4	10.3	1.4	26.9	5.7	13.0	13.7
Standard error	1.66	0.64	1.39	2.11	1.55	0.32	3.06	3.06	2.78	2.99	4.55	1.70	3.12	3.07	1.00	0.30	2.05	2.68	2.96
Once or twice a week	29.9	18.8	35.7	51.2	12.5	9.8	50.6	55.7	46.8	30.8	45.8	21.0	47.7	50.0	52.2	56.2	48.3	40.5	53.6
Standard error	3.41	2.54	4.10	4.34	2.80	2.96	4.68	4.17	4.07	4.50	4.36	3.26	3.61	5.17	4.61	0.36	4.52	3.66	4.21
Once or twice a month	47.0	16.2	29.3	16.3	33.1	9.7	33.4	23.9	38.0	17.1	8.2	63.2	21.7	26.1	20.6	14.2	37.8	33.0	27.0
Standard error	4.12	2.21	4.36	3.09	3.52	3.31	4.39	3.60	3.78	3.73	2.36	3.85	2.83	4.38	4.02	0.28	4.47	4.07	3.94
Never or almost never	13.1	11.3	9.2	7.0	30.2	12.1	2.7	1.8	1.1	11.4	0.9	5.1	2.9	6.5	10.7	0.2	6.5	0.3	2.5
Standard error	2.81	2.26	2.54	2.46	3.33	3.31	1.37	1.33	0.53	2.37	0.85	1.82	1.15	2.09	3.05	0.06	1.90	0.33	1.48

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E7: Percentage of pupils in the fourth year of primary education, whose teachers say they give them homework on the language of instruction, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Never	0.0	0.4	0.5	3.7	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	37.4	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0
Standard error	0.00	0.32	0.46	1.29	1.26	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.98	0.00	0.00	1.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.45	0.00	0.00
Less than once a week	2.2	0.8	2.0	7.6	2.4	2.6	0.0	0.6	0.0	33.4	1.0	19.6	10.6	9.9	3.5	0.0	0.4	2.5	0.9
Standard error	1.21	0.64	1.04	2.17	1.21	1.77	0.00	0.64	0.00	4.21	0.74	3.64	1.99	3.08	1.96	0.00	0.41	1.50	0.85
Once or twice a week	39.6	15.3	19.1	30.3	45.7	15.0	8.2	5.8	12.6	28.5	14.2	39.3	75.7	75.1	47.8	13.8	23.3	5.7	2.9
Standard error	4.12	1.98	4.22	3.97	3.21	3.74	2.42	1.73	2.65	4.24	2.67	4.07	3.04	4.41	5.49	0.21	3.88	1.87	1.31
3 or 4 times a week	49.9	42.1	32.9	36.1	39.5	33.0	45.3	54.7	38.6	0.7	67.8	34.1	4.7	11.5	37.4	36.1	36.4	48.4	34.8
Standard error	4.61	2.73	3.98	3.72	3.15	4.25	4.61	4.62	4.03	0.66	4.16	3.64	1.35	3.21	5.24	0.38	4.11	4.06	3.94
Every day	8.3	41.5	45.5	22.4	9.9	49.4	46.5	38.9	48.9	0.0	17.1	7.0	5.8	3.6	11.3	50.1	39.4	43.4	61.4
Standard error	1.93	2.59	5.00	3.79	1.89	4.79	4.49	4.38	4.19	0.00	3.41	2.02	1.01	1.65	3.22	0.39	3.89	3.91	4.09

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E8: Distribution of 15-year-old pupils by number of hours a week that they report spending on homework and study at home, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
Percentile 10	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0	1.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.59	1.24	0.89	0.22	0.22	0.63	0.00	0.00	0.00
Percentile 25	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	2.5
Standard error	0.00	0.13	0.32	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.64	0.00	0.25
Percentile 50	5.0	4.0	5.0	2.0	5.0	5.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	10.0	8.0	5.0
Standard error	0.00	0.27	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.50	0.00	0.00
Percentile 75	8.0	7.0	9.0	5.0	7.0	8.0	12.0	10.0	10.0	11.0	15.0	13.0	8.0
Standard error	0.39	0.25	0.65	0.00	0.00	0.74	0.59	0.00	0.92	0.95	0.00	1.48	0.00
Percentile 90	13.0	10.0	14.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	20.0	15.0	14.0	15.0	21.0	20.0	12.0
Standard error	1.20	0.00	0.00	1.55	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.58	0.00	0.00	1.02	0.00
	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK-SCT	IS	LI	NO
Percentile 10	2.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	1.5	1.0	1.0	(:)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.22	0.00	0.80	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Percentile 25	5.0	2.0	1.5	3.0	2.0	4.0	1.5	1.5	0.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Standard error	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.45	0.55	0.36	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Percentile 50	9.0	5.0	3.0	6.0	4.0	7.0	3.0	3.0	0.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	4.0
Standard error	0.94	0.56	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.62	0.00
Percentile 75	14.0	8.0	5.0	10.0	6.0	12.0	5.0	5.0	0.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Standard error	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.22	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.68	0.74
Percentile 90	20.0	12.0	8.0	17.0	10.0	18.0	7.0	8.0	0.0	10.0	10.0	9.0	10.0

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure E13: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in accordance with how teaching and school subject responsibilities are divided among teachers, as reported by teachers themselves, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK- ENG	UK- SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
One teacher responsible for the school week	54.1	38.0	47.4	50.5	1.7	60.5	55.1	100.0	28.2	59.0	48.3	42.9	40.0	52.3	69.7	80.2	59.5	18.8	51.4
Standard error	5.12	2.40	4.14	3.19	0.88	5.32	4.60	0.00	2.61	4.64	3.79	4.29	3.66	4.61	4.36	0.31	3.77	3.13	4.80
Different teachers for different subjects	39.2	50.0	40.6	29.6	85.3	31.6	41.2	0.0	51.2	1.6	34.0	38.0	18.1	30.4	8.5	7.6	17.9	31.6	46.3
Standard error	4.95	2.97	4.40	2.73	2.57	5.39	4.52	0.00	2.79	1.10	3.60	3.90	2.49	4.32	2.86	0.25	3.11	4.17	4.86
Two teachers sharing teaching responsibilities	1.8	2.0	0.0	9.4	10.7	1.1	0.0	0.0	9.5	25.2	5.8	2.8	29.5	9.8	16.3	5.4	15.9	25.1	0.3
Standard error	1.05	0.82	0.00	1.82	2.08	0.73	0.00	0.00	1.97	3.85	2.20	1.44	3.05	2.69	3.46	0.09	3.16	3.49	0.34
Other	4.9	10.0	12.1	10.5	2.3	6.8	3.7	0.0	11.1	14.3	11.9	16.3	12.4	7.6	5.6	6.8	6.7	24.5	2.0
Standard error	1.80	2.11	2.76	2.22	1.23	2.38	1.72	0.00	2.14	3.39	2.59	3.18	2.24	2.50	2.05	0.19	1.80	3.42	1.18

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E17: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in accordance with the organisational approach most often used to teach reading, as reported by their teachers, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

Whole-class teaching of reading

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Always or almost always	38.1	30.4	71.1	25.7	56.9	31.5	57.8	27.7	10.9	15.1	8.1	39.7	14.9	25.3	1.1	29.7	14.5	77.5	80.3
Standard error	4.05	3.17	4.79	2.59	3.45	4.16	4.11	3.93	2.02	3.03	2.26	4.05	2.27	3.89	1.06	0.34	2.95	3.43	2.97
Often	54.1	47.8	20.4	45.2	40.4	51.1	35.9	36.6	64.5	46.7	45.6	48.8	22.1	48.3	12.7	33.0	47.4	22.1	16.2
Standard error	4.55	3.39	4.30	3.01	3.38	4.93	4.03	3.34	3.36	4.72	4.48	4.03	2.32	4.66	3.62	0.34	4.30	3.39	3.15

Ability groups

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Always or almost always	2.4	1.2	0.0	4.8	2.1	0.5	2.3	4.2	5.7	7.3	0.0	0.9	5.6	26.5	65.7	6.7	3.0	1.1	4.4
Standard error	1.41	0.57	0.00	1.56	1.30	0.53	1.37	1.71	1.30	2.56	0.00	0.70	1.51	4.30	5.00	0.16	1.36	0.75	1.93
Often	13.5	19.8	16.0	21.8	8.7	9.9	25.7	24.0	38.9	30.3	24.8	28.4	21.9	54.7	31.5	15.8	13.5	28.6	48.3
Standard error	3.11	2.84	3.44	2.72	2.23	2.83	3.83	3.57	3.22	4.33	3.83	3.61	2.12	5.11	4.74	0.35	2.52	3.71	4.80

Individualised instruction

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Always or almost always	7.7	6.7	10.4	3.5	7.7	11.9	5.7	6.6	2.2	4.7	6.3	6.5	7.4	3.5	6.0	19.9	11.0	24.4	29.3
Standard error	2.66	1.64	3.37	0.80	2.33	2.45	1.94	1.90	0.93	1.96	2.16	1.77	1.90	1.60	2.46	0.41	2.46	3.18	3.84
Often	36.2	20.3	44.1	11.0	39.0	34.1	24.7	35.6	38.0	27.6	40.3	29.2	17.8	21.9	16.2	37.8	42.0	41.9	35.2
Standard error	4.88	2.89	4.79	1.83	3.58	4.11	3.47	4.22	3.34	3.66	4.31	3.89	2.12	3.99	4.44	0.35	4.59	3.75	4.48

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E18: Breakdown of pupils in the fourth year of primary education in accordance with how the programme of instruction is geared to pupil reading levels, as reported by the school head, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Same programme for everyone, at different speeds depending on pupil reading levels	90.3	72.7	68.6	80.4	73.1	80.0	77.3	78.1	83.5	58.7	75.8	58.3	41.1	37.3	58.3	29.9	52.9	73.8	63.0
Standard error	2.79	3.81	4.58	3.77	3.27	4.40	3.41	3.13	3.02	4.85	3.51	4.78	4.52	4.37	4.84	0.33	5.23	3.28	4.40
Different programmes depending on pupil reading levels	0.9	23.9	9.3	13.5	20.6	9.1	4.3	16.3	7.1	32.3	21.8	19.2	57.7	62.7	40.8	70.1	40.6	1.8	28.2
Standard error	0.85	3.65	3.22	2.91	3.26	3.22	1.76	2.95	1.84	4.69	3.20	3.31	4.34	4.37	4.92	0.33	5.04	1.03	4.12
Same programme for everyone, at the same speed	8.9	3.4	22.0	6.1	6.2	10.9	18.4	5.6	9.3	9.0	2.4	22.5	1.3	(:)	1.0	(:)	6.5	24.4	8.8
Standard error	2.67	1.23	3.69	2.43	1.87	3.13	3.42	1.71	2.41	2.02	1.41	4.01	1.29	(:)	0.98	(:)	2.01	3.25	2.51

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E21: Distribution of pupils aged 15, by size of their mathematics class, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU
Percentile 10	12	10	11	18	12	16	17	12	19	14	15	13	15
Standard error	1.47	0.39	0.39	0.32	1.00	0.95	1.34	0.84	0.77	0.59	0.81	0.87	1.28
Percentile 25	15	14	15	20	15	20	20	17	23	20	18	17	18
Standard error	1.22	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.05	1.05	0.55	0.00	1.26	0.32	1.36	0.00
Percentile 50	20	18	19	25	18	24	24	22	27	24	20	23	21
Standard error	0.00	1.18	0.87	0.00	0.00	0.81	0.39	1.12	1.14	0.00	0.00	0.45	0.00
Percentile 75	24	20	22	28	20	28	26	27	31	28	24	28	24
Standard error	1.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.10	1.41	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.74	0.00
Percentile 90	26	23	25	30	23	30	28	30	34	30	27	30	26
Standard error	0.22	0.59	0.00	0.00	0.45	0.00	0.84	0.00	0.59	0.00	0.77	0.00	0.00
	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
Percentile 10	14	15	12	18	15	18	13	11	(:)	15	10	10	14
Standard error	0.63	0.00	0.81	1.18	0.89	0.71	1.22	1.16	(:)	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.50
Percentile 25	17	20	17	20	19	22	16	15	(:)	20	15	12	19
Standard error	0.87	0.00	0.92	1.30	0.87	0.22	0.00	0.63	(:)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.55
Percentile 50	23	24	23	24	23	26	18	20	(:)	25	20	14	22
Standard error	1.73	0.00	0.32	0.00	0.32	1.43	1.05	0.00	(:)	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00
Percentile 75	31	27	28	27	26	30	20	23	(:)	30	24	16	25
Standard error	1.05	0.32	0.00	0.74	0.00	1.16	0.00	1.36	(:)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.92
Percentile 90	35	30	32	29	28	33	23	26	(:)	30	27	18	28

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure E22: Proportion of pupils aged 15 attending a school in which, according to the school head, assessments are used when forming groups or classes, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
Percentage	15.4	43.7	22.8	35.2	14.1	35.8	11.1	47.6	(:)	78.1	51.5	40.1	29.7	34.8	88.7	31.8	33.0	26.1	54.9	17.1	45.2	(:)	87.0	56.1	57.7	37.8
Standard error	3.62	0.28	3.23	3.25	2.61	2.98	2.15	3.50	(:)	3.26	3.95	4.25	0.07	3.54	2.67	2.30	4.07	3.79	3.84	3.01	3.97	(:)	3.62	0.19	0.39	4.05

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure E24: Proportions of pupils in the fourth year of primary education whose parents say they receive information from the school on their children's performance in the language of instruction, public and private sectors combined, 2000/01

	CZ	DE	EL	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	NL	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-SCT	IS	NO	BG	RO
Often	41.7	17.3	31.0	34.3	39.8	(:)	47.2	(:)	68.2	(:)	52.6	62.1	25.8	(:)	(:)	18.0	15.0	73.5	50.5
Standard error	1.71	0.68	1.25	1.23	1.12	(:)	1.56	(:)	1.07	(:)	1.41	1.09	0.94	(:)	(:)	0.63	0.84	1.28	1.90
Sometimes	48.2	49.0	29.0	42.6	32.1	(:)	39.7	(:)	28.2	(:)	39.7	35.8	64.2	(:)	(:)	58.6	60.4	22.6	31.5
Standard error	1.49	0.78	1.27	1.02	0.89	(:)	1.26	(:)	0.93	(:)	1.25	1.10	0.72	(:)	(:)	0.85	1.16	1.14	1.46
Never or almost never	10.1	33.7	40.0	23.1	28.2	(:)	13.2	(:)	3.6	(:)	7.7	2.2	10.0	(:)	(:)	23.4	24.6	3.9	18.0
Standard error	0.77	0.88	1.43	0.91	0.89	(:)	0.84	(:)	0.43	(:)	0.62	0.33	0.66	(:)	(:)	0.83	1.23	0.53	0.98

Source: IEA, PIRLS 2001 database.

Figure E26: Proportions of pupils aged 15 attending a school in which their attainment is taken into account when deciding whether they should progress to the next year, public and private sectors combined, 2002/03

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	UK- SCT	IS	LI	NO
Promotion	98.8	100	99.4	91.8	3.8	96.3	99.4	99.5	(:)	43.7	83.7	94.1	100	94.7	96.8	93.2	84.2	96.6	96.7	95.2	38.9	(:)	59.6	14.8	96.7	(:)
Standard error	0.98	0.00	0.62	1.87	0.95	1.19	0.51	0.33	0.00	4.19	2.76	2.68	0.00	1.91	1.58	2.30	2.83	1.56	1.04	0.91	4.05		5.44	0.14	0.03	

Source: OECD, PISA 2003 database.

Figure F8: Distribution of tertiary education graduates (ISCED 5 and 6) among the different fields of education and training, 2001/02

Field: Unknown

EU- 25	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
(:)	0.02	(-)	(-)	0.37	(-)	(:)	0.10	0.18	4.10	0.29	(-)	(-)	(-)	(:)	(-)	(-)	0.04	0.17	23.6	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(:)	4.30	(-)	3.30

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

GLOSSARY AND STATISTICAL TOOLS

I. CLASSIFICATIONS

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997)

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is an instrument suitable for compiling statistics on education internationally. It covers two cross-classification variables: levels and fields of education with the complementary dimensions of general/vocational/pre-vocational orientation and educational/labour market destination. The current version, ISCED 97 ⁽¹⁾ distinguishes seven levels of education. Empirically, ISCED assumes that several criteria exist which can help allocate education programmes to levels of education. Depending on the level and type of education concerned, there is a need to establish a hierarchical ranking system between main and subsidiary criteria (typical entrance qualification, minimum entrance requirement, minimum age, staff qualification, etc.).

ISCED 0: Pre-primary education

Pre-primary education is defined as the initial stage of organised instruction. It is school- or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least 3 years

ISCED 1: Primary education

This level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years.

ISCED 2: Lower secondary education

It continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education.

ISCED 3: Upper secondary education

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entrance age is typically 15 or 16 years. Entrance qualifications (end of compulsory education) and other minimum entry requirements are usually needed. Instruction is often more subject-oriented than at ISCED level 2. The typical duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education

These programmes straddle the boundary between upper secondary and tertiary education. They serve to broaden the knowledge of ISCED level 3 graduates. Typical examples are programmes designed to prepare pupils for studies at level 5 or programmes designed to prepare pupils for direct labour market entry.

ISCED 5: Tertiary education (first stage)

Entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3 or 4. This level includes tertiary programmes with academic orientation (type A) which are largely theoretically based and tertiary programmes with occupation orientation (type B) which are typically shorter than type A programmes and geared for entry into the labour market.

ISCED 6: Tertiary education (second stage)

This level is reserved for tertiary studies that lead to an advanced research qualification (Ph.D. or doctorate).

⁽¹⁾ <http://unesco.stat.unesco.org/en/pub/pub0.htm>

Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS)

See the Eurostat's Classifications Server (RAMON): <http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/ramon>

International Standard Classification of Occupations, 1988 (ISCO-88)

See the Eurostat's Classifications Server (RAMON): <http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/ramon>

II. DEFINITIONS

Active population (economically active population/labour force): In accordance with the definition in the Labour Force Survey, the total of persons in employment and unemployed persons.

Basic gross annual salary: The amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances, such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month (where applicable), and holidays, etc. less employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary does not take account of any taxation at source, or other salary adjustment or financial benefit (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime or additional responsibilities, geographical area or the obligation to teach mixed or difficult classes, or accommodation, health or travel costs).

Capital expenditure: Assets that last longer than a year. This refers to construction, renovation or major repairs to buildings (immovables) as well to equipment, furniture, computers (movables). Minor expenditure under a certain fixed amount is, however, included in operational expenditure.

Civil servant: A teacher employed by the public authorities (at central, regional or local level), in accordance with legislation distinct from that governing contractual relations in the public or private sector. In structured career systems, teachers are appointed for life as **career civil servants** by the appropriate central or regional authorities where these correspond to the top-level authority for education.

Concurrent model: An initial teacher education programme which, from the outset, combines general teacher education in one or more subjects with theoretical and practical professional training.

Consecutive model: A two-stage initial teacher education programme. Students first receive general education in order to obtain a degree in a particular subject or branch of study. At or near the end of this period of study, they enrol in a programme of initial professional training, enabling them to qualify as teachers.

Current expenditure: Goods and services that are used during the ongoing year and have to be annually renewed. This includes expenditure on staff and operational expenditure.

Education-oriented pre-primary institutions or settings: Institutions or settings in which staff (responsible for a group of children) have to hold qualifications in education are shown here, irrespective of whether those institutions or settings come under the ministry of education.

Employed persons: In accordance with the definition in the Labour Force Survey, those who did any work for pay or profit during the reference week (even for as little as one hour), or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent. Family workers are included.

Employees with fixed-term contracts: In accordance with the definition in the Labour Force Survey, a job may be considered temporary if employer and employee agree that its end is determined by objective conditions such as a specific date, the completion of a task or the return of another employee who has been temporarily replaced. Where there is a work contract of limited duration, it usually states the terms of the end of the contract.

Employing authority: An authority with direct responsibility for appointing teachers, specifying their working conditions (in collaboration with other partners, if appropriate) and ensuring that these conditions are met. This includes ensuring payment of teachers' salaries, although funds for this purpose may not necessarily derive directly from the authority's budget.

Evaluation of schools as entities: Evaluation that focuses on activities carried out by school staff without seeking to assign individual responsibility for those activities to one or more members of the school concerned. Evaluation of this kind seeks to monitor or improve the performance and results of schools, and its findings are presented in an overall report containing no individual appraisals. Where school heads are among the focal points of an evaluation covering all school activities (including those for which they are not themselves responsible) and its findings are used with a view to improving the quality of the school concerned, this is regarded as an evaluation of the school as an entity. By contrast, cases in which school heads are evaluated solely in relation to their own personnel management or resource management activities by the school board or council are not considered.

Evaluation of teachers on an individual basis: A judgement about teachers' work in order to guide them and help them as individuals to improve it. The teacher subject to observation receives personal verbal or written feedback.

Final 'on-the-job' qualifying or induction phase: A compulsory period of transition between the initial education of teachers and their entry into professional life as fully-fledged teachers. It is treated as the final phase of initial education. This phase includes an important supportive and supervisory dimension, as well as a formal evaluation of teaching skills. During this period, teachers are still not fully qualified and are usually regarded as 'candidates' or 'trainees'. They spend a significant amount of time in a real working environment (a school) in which they carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on fully qualified teachers, and are remunerated for their activity.

Financial support for students: In accordance with the definition in the UOE questionnaire, this is understood as covering grants and other assistance on the one hand, and student loans on the other. The first category theoretically includes grants in the strict sense, grants in the wider sense (endowments, prizes etc.), the value of any special assistance provided for students in cash or in kind (such as free travel or reduced prices on public transport) as well as family allowances and tax allowances for students who are dependent children. Tax advantages are not included. The second category comprises loans, of which the gross amount is considered here (i.e. without deducting repayments made by borrowers from previous years).

Flexible timetable: Indicates either that the time to be allocated to the various compulsory subjects has not been fixed or that, as a supplement to the time allocated to them, the curriculum provides for a certain number of hours that pupils or the school can devote to subjects of their choice.

General teacher education: General courses and courses for mastery of the subject(s) that trainees will teach when qualified. The purpose of these courses, therefore, is to provide trainees with a thorough knowledge of one or more subjects and good general knowledge.

Gross domestic product (GDP): Final result of the production activity of resident producer units.

Gross national income (GNI): GDP minus primary income payable by resident units to non-resident units, plus primary income receivable by resident units from the rest of the world. It reflects the growing difference between the GDP and the GNI in small open economies, which is due to large and increasing profit repatriations by overseas companies that have installed their production plants there.

Inactive persons: In accordance with the definition in the Labour Force Survey, those not classified as either employed or unemployed.

Internal evaluation of schools: Evaluation which is carried out by members of the school community, meaning individuals or groups that are directly involved in school activities (such as the school head, teaching and administrative staff and pupils) or have a direct stake in them (such as parents or local community representatives).

Level successfully completed: In accordance with the definition in the LFS survey, an expression associated with obtaining a certificate or a diploma, where there is certification. In cases where there is no certification, successful completion must be associated with full attendance. When determining the highest level, both general and vocational education/training should be taken into consideration.

Monitoring of the education system: Such monitoring has several aims, which include that of examining the system closely, reporting on its quality and enabling it to adjust so as to improve its performance. It may be assumed that the standards and goals it should strive to achieve are clearly defined, as well as the regulatory mechanisms enabling it to adjust as appropriate. It may take place at school level, or at local, regional, or national levels. Different reference criteria

may be used depending on the level concerned, as well as the particular country. They may relate to school development (or action) plans, the results of school self-evaluation, external examinations, specially prepared performance indicators, the definition of competence thresholds or final requirements, national or international evaluations (including PIRLS, TIMSS, PISA, etc.), or reliance on experts or a special authority (for example, a council set up to monitor a reform).

Overall working time (of teachers): The total of the number of teaching hours, the number of hours of availability at school, and the amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities, which may be done outside the school. This overall weekly amount normally corresponds to the time negotiated in collective bargaining agreements (40 hours a week).

Part-time work: In accordance with the definition in the UOE questionnaire, a workload lower than 90 percent of the full-time workload. All degrees of part-time work are taken into account.

Professional training of teachers: Provides prospective teachers with both a theoretical and practical insight into their future profession. In addition to courses in psychology and teaching methods and methodology, it includes (usually) unremunerated in-class placements (supervised by the teacher in charge of the class concerned and with periodic assessment by teachers at the training institution).

Private schools/institutions: Schools/institutions which are directly or indirectly administered by a non-governmental organisation (church, trade union, a private business concern or other body) and which, according to the definition in the UOE questionnaire, are considered to be government dependent if they receive over 50 % of their funding from the public authorities. Private schools are regarded as independent if they get less than 50 % of their funding from the public sector.

Public-sector employee with contractual status: A teacher employed generally by the local authorities or by schools on a contractual basis in accordance with general employment legislation.

Public-sector schools/institutions: Schools/institutions which are directly or indirectly administered by a public education authority.

Purchasing power parity (PPP): A currency conversion rate which converts economic indicators expressed in a national currency into an artificial common currency that equalises the purchasing power of different national currencies. In other words, PPP eliminates the differences in price levels between countries in the process of conversion to an artificial common currency, called Purchasing Power Standard (PPS).

Purchasing power standard (PPS): The artificial common reference currency unit used in the European Union to express the volume of economic aggregates for the purpose of spatial comparisons in such a way that price level differences between countries are eliminated. Economic volume aggregates in PPS are obtained by dividing their original value in national currency units by the respective PPP. PPS thus buys the same given volume of goods and services in all countries, whereas different amounts of national currency units are needed to buy this same volume of goods and services in individual countries, depending on the price level

Registration fees: Fees related to registration and/or certification, which are paid by students.

School: An entity represented either by a school head or a management body. The school management body is only considered if it is located at school level. It may, however, include persons outside the school, such as those who represent the local authority.

School expectancy: Estimate of the number of years a typical 5-year-old child can expect to be enrolled in the education system during his or her lifetime if current enrolment patterns remain unchanged. Adding single-year net enrolment rates for each age (expressed in years) gives an estimate (in years) for the period covering those ages. Adding the single-year enrolment rates for all ages gives us an estimate of the expected number of years of education over a lifetime. This type of estimate will be accurate if current patterns of enrolment remain unchanged. Estimates are based on head-count data, meaning that there is no distinction between part-time and full-time studies.

School head: Any person heading a school who, alone or within an administrative body such as a board or council, is responsible for its management/administration. Depending on circumstances, the person concerned may also exercise educational responsibilities (which may include teaching tasks, but also responsibility for the general functioning of the institution in areas such as the timetable, implementation of the curriculum, decisions about what is to be taught and the materials and methods used, appraisal of teachers and their performance, etc.) and/or financial responsibilities (often limited to responsibility for administering the resources allocated to the school).

Single structure system: Education is provided in a continuous way from the beginning to the end of compulsory schooling, with no transition between primary and lower secondary education and with general education provided in common for all pupils.

Teaching time of pupils: The notional minimum workload of pupils which is based on minimum national recommendations. For each year of primary education or full-time compulsory general secondary education, the workload is calculated by taking the average minimum daily load multiplied by the number of teaching days a year. Recreational or other breaks of any kind, as well as the time given over to optional lessons, are not taken into account. The total annual amounts of minimum teaching time are added up to give the total minimum workload in hours for primary education and full-time compulsory general secondary education. These values are divided by the number of years corresponding to each of the two levels.

Teaching time (of teachers): Number of teaching hours spent by teachers with groups of pupils (excluding time set aside for clearly identifiable breaks).

Time of availability at school (of teachers): Number of hours available for performing duties at school or in another place specified by the school head. In some cases, this refers to an amount of time further to the hours spent teaching and, in others, to hours of availability that include the time spent teaching (where the latter is not centrally determined).

Total public expenditure on education: Total public expenditure on education, which includes direct public funding for educational institutions and transfers to households and firms.

In general, the public sector finances educational expenditure by assuming direct responsibility for the current and capital expenditure of schools (direct public financing of schools), or by offering financial support to pupils/students and their families (public-sector grants and loans) and by subsidising the education or training activities of the private business sector or non-profit organisations (transfers to households and firms). Direct public funding for tertiary education may include research and development expenditure in certain countries in which tertiary education institutions are funded from global budgets covering resources earmarked both for teaching and for research and development activities.

Tuition fees: Covers differing concepts from one country to the next. In some countries, it refers solely to the amounts paid by students. In others, it refers to the costs of education borne by tertiary education institutions, which may be paid on behalf of all or a majority of students by a public authority. In the present publication, the second of these two situations is regarded as equivalent to education being free of charge.

Unemployed persons: In accordance with the definition in the Labour Force Survey, persons aged 15 to 74 who during the reference week were a) without work, i.e. neither had a job nor were at work (for one hour or more) in paid employment or self-employment, b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment before the end of the two weeks following the reference week, and c) actively seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in the four weeks period ending with the reference week to seek paid employment or self-employment, as well as those who found a job to start later, i.e. within a period of at most three months.

Unemployment rate: Unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force.

III. DATABASES

UOE Database

The UOE (UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat) data collection is an instrument through which these three organisations jointly collect internationally comparable data on key aspects of education systems on an annual basis using administrative sources. Data are collected according to the ISCED 97 classification and cover enrolments, new entrants, graduates, educational personnel and educational expenditure. The specific breakdowns include level of education, sex, age, type of curriculum (general, vocational), mode (full-time/part-time), type of institution (public/private), field of study and nationality.

The methodology and questionnaires used for the 2001/02 UOE collection, from which the data included in the present publication are taken, may be accessed by the public at the Eurostat Education, Training and Culture Statistics website ⁽²⁾.

DEMOGRAPHY Database

Eurostat collects national demographic data from responses to an annual questionnaire sent to the national statistical institutes. The annual national population estimates are based either on the most recent census or on data extracted from the population register. The reference year for the demographic data in this edition of *Key Data* is 2002.

The Community Labour Force Survey (LFS)

The Community Labour Force Survey, which has been carried out annually since 1983, is the principal source of statistics on employment and unemployment in the European Union. This sample survey is directed at individuals and households. The questions mainly cover the characteristics of employment and job-seeking. The survey also includes questions on participation in education or training during the four weeks before it is carried out, and information on the level of education attained according to the ISCED 97 classification. The concepts and definitions used in the LFS are based on those contained in the Recommendations of the 13th Conference of Labour Statisticians convened by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 1982.

Commission Regulation (EC) No 1897/2000 offers a precise definition of unemployment in order to improve the comparability of statistical data within the European Union. This definition is consistent with the recommendations of the International Labour Organization. All the following definitions are applicable to individuals aged 15 and over who live in private households. The definitions are therefore common for all countries.

In order to achieve maximum uniformity of the reference period for the various countries and ensure that data within the *Key Data* series remain consistent, the present edition contains the data for the second quarter of the reference year (April to June). The results for the United Kingdom and Ireland are those of the spring of the reference year while those for France and Austria correspond to the first quarter. The reference period for the statistics taken from the LFS is the spring of 2002.

Like all surveys, the LFS is based on a population sample. Its findings may thus be affected by sampling conditions and errors associated with them. The national data contained in the present edition conform to the highest reliability thresholds as recommended by Eurostat. Data that did not conform to an adequate reliability threshold have been regarded as not available and indicated with the sign (:).

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS Database

The European System of National and Regional Accounts (abbreviated to 'ESA 1995', 'ESA', or sometimes also 'the system') is an internationally comparable accounting framework for systematic and detailed description of a 'total economy' (i.e. a region, a country or a group of countries), its components and its relationships with other 'total economies'.

The reference year of data in this edition that involve national accounts is 2001.

⁽²⁾ http://forum.europa.eu.int/Public/irc/dsis/edtcsl/library?l=/public/unesco_collection/2001

OECD and IEA Databases (PISA 2000/2003 and PIRLS 2001 respectively)

Besides measuring performance, the PISA and PIRLS surveys include questionnaires to identify variables in the school and family context which may shed light on their findings. The questionnaires were sent to school heads and pupils during the PISA survey, as well as to teachers and the parents of pupils in the case of PIRLS. The 30 indicators contained in the present publication have been prepared using replies from these further surveys.

- The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then pupils (35 pupils aged 15 or a class in the fourth year of primary education). It sought to offer each pupil the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size or location of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted prior to sampling in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size ⁽³⁾. The consequences of this procedure when interpreting the Figures are indicated in the explanatory notes.
- Where data is taken to apply to the entire population of countries, it is essential to comply with certain strict requirements such as standard error analysis (measurement of sampling-related errors), as a result of which a perceptible difference between two items of data may be considered insignificant in statistical terms. The standard errors are shown at <http://www.eurydice.org> in annexes to the publication. For a definition of standard error, see section IV (statistical terms).
- The survey response rate also has to be taken into account. If it is too low for the data to be regarded as representative, they are not included in the Figures but in an additional note underneath them. This applies to the Netherlands in the PISA 2000 survey and to the United Kingdom (except Scotland) in PISA 2003. Where the response rate is too low in the case of a particular question and country, data for that country are said to be lacking.

IV. STATISTICAL TERMS

Correlation coefficient: the degree of association between two variables, of which the values may vary within the limits from -1 to +1. Negative values of the correlation coefficient reflect an inverse relationship between the two variables: the values of one variable decrease as the values of the other variable increase. For instance, the coefficient of variation between the age of an individual and his remaining life expectancy tends to -1. When the values of two variables increase or decrease more or less simultaneously, the correlation coefficient is positive. For instance, there is a positive correlation between the size of an individual and the size of his feet. The closer a correlation approaches -1 or +1, the stronger the relationship between the two variables. A correlation coefficient with a value of 0 reflects the absence of any relationship between the two variables.

Decile: this divides the entire set of data into ten groups with equal frequencies.

Median: the middle value in a distribution, at which the number of values below and above that value is the same.

Percentile: a value on a scale of one hundred that indicates the percentage of a distribution that is equal to or below this value. The median is defined conveniently as the 50th percentile. For example, the smallest test score that is greater than 90 % of the scores of the people taking the test is said to be at the 90th percentile. In short, percentiles are the 99 values that divide a set of statistical data or a frequency distribution into 100 sub-divisions, each containing the same (or approximately the same) number of individuals.

Standard deviation: this measures the dispersion or spread in a distribution with respect to the mean.

Standard error: the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of a population parameter. It is a measure of the degree of uncertainty associated with the estimate of a population parameter inferred from a sample. Indeed, due to the randomness of the sampling procedure, one could have obtained a different sample from which more or less different results could have been inferred. Suppose that, on the basis of a given sample, the estimated population average were 10 and the standard error associated with this sample estimate were two units. One could then infer with 95 % confidence that the population average must lie between 10 plus and 10 minus two standard deviations, i.e. between 6 and 14.

⁽³⁾ In PISA, small schools (with under 35 pupils aged 15 who had the same probability of being selected given that all of them were selected) were sampled separately in countries in which they were sufficiently representative (over 5 % of schools in this category).

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Production

Printing: Imprimerie Bietlot, Gilly, Belgium

European Commission; Eurydice; Eurostat

Key data on education in Europe 2005

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

2005 – Website version: 390 pp. – 21x27 cm

ISBN 92-894-9422-0

Price (excluding VAT) in Luxembourg: EUR 30

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NC-AF-05-001-EN-C

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This general report on education in Europe is published by the European Commission and prepared jointly by EURYDICE, the information network on education in Europe, and EUROSTAT, the Statistical Office of the European Communities.

This document is also available on the Eurydice website: <http://www.eurydice.org>

Price (excluding VAT) in Luxembourg: EUR 30



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OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES
L-2985 Luxembourg

ISBN 92-894-9422-0



9 789289 494229 >