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# Education in Europe: Key figures

2022

4<sup>th</sup> edition

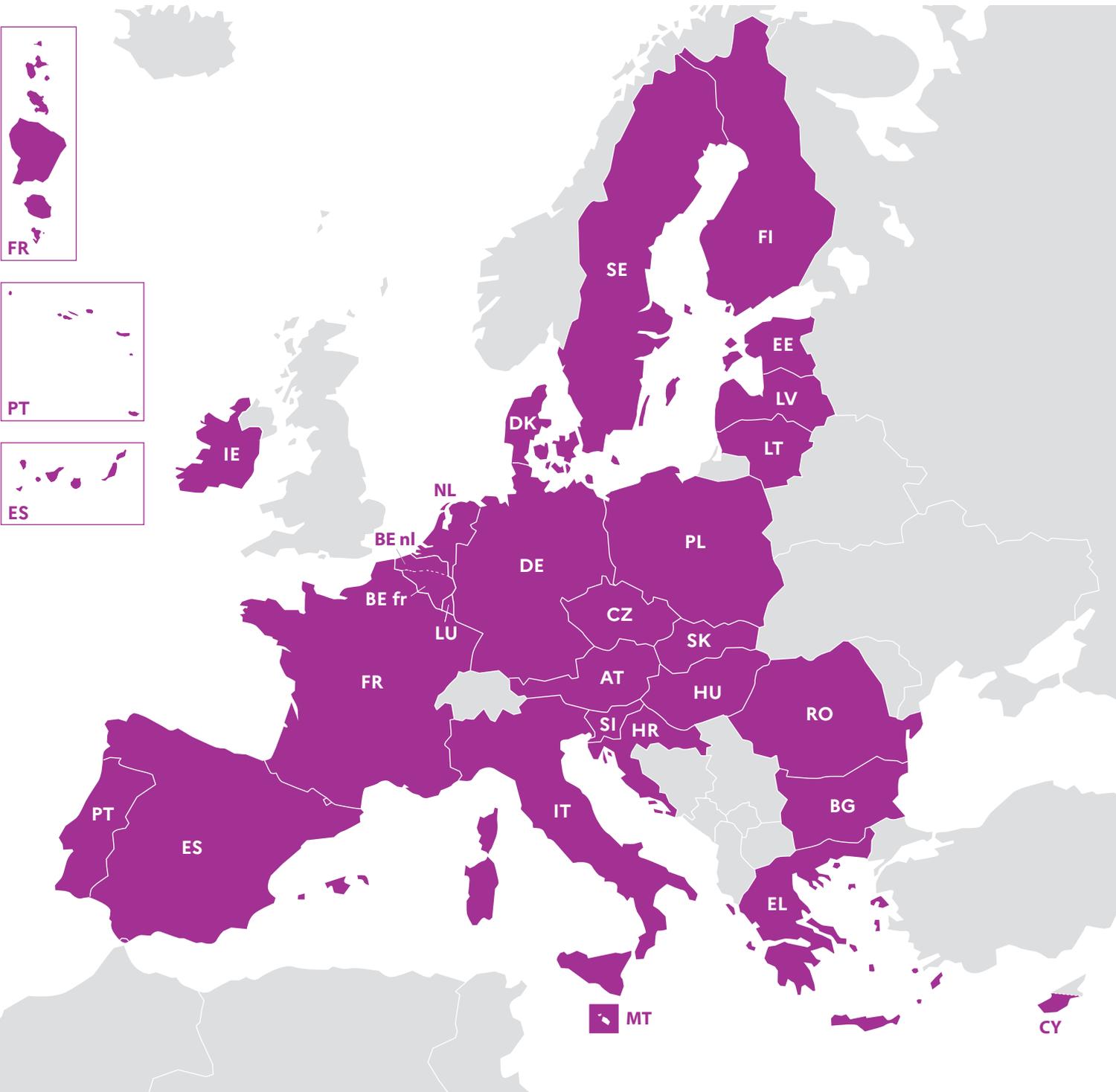


English version



## European Union

<b>BE</b> Belgium (BE nl) Flemish Community (BE fr) French Community	<b>FR</b> France	<b>AT</b> Austria
<b>BG</b> Bulgaria	<b>HR</b> Croatia	<b>PL</b> Poland
<b>CZ</b> Czech Republic	<b>IT</b> Italy	<b>PT</b> Portugal
<b>DK</b> Denmark	<b>CY</b> Cyprus	<b>RO</b> Romania
<b>DE</b> Germany	<b>LV</b> Latvia	<b>SI</b> Slovenia
<b>EE</b> Estonia	<b>LT</b> Lithuania	<b>SK</b> Slovak Republic
<b>IE</b> Ireland	<b>LU</b> Luxembourg	<b>FI</b> Finland
<b>EL</b> Greece	<b>HU</b> Hungary	<b>SE</b> Sweden
<b>ES</b> Spain	<b>MT</b> Malta	
	<b>NL</b> Netherlands	



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The international averages presented in this book do not include the United Kingdom and its components, even for pre-Brexit periods (for consistency in comparison) except for the TALIS 2018 average. These averages are weighted when using Eurostat data and are unweighted when using OECD data, except for the TALIS 2018 average. The unweighted averages give each country the same “weight” in the comparison.

The outermost regions (Azores, Canary Islands, Guadeloupe, French Guiana, Madeira, Martinique, Mayotte, Réunion, Saint-Martin) are not represented on the maps. However, the data for each of the countries presented in this publication take into account, where appropriate, the outermost regions that are part of the national territory.

The data presented refer to the most recent period at the time of writing (school year or calendar year, depending on the source). The extraction dates are specified in the Excel file available online.

**This publication does not express the official opinion of the European Union or its Member States.**

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Building Europe is building peace: in this context, cooperation in the field of education appears to be an obvious and decisive asset for achieving a common and emancipating project for society. Thus, Europe has been interested in vocational training since the Treaty of Rome, and more broadly in education since the Maastricht Treaty. Since then, the Erasmus programme has become emblematic of school and university exchanges, and with Erasmus+, endowed with 26 billion euros for the period 2021-2027, mobility has never been so strongly encouraged for European children and adolescents.

In addition to this European area of school exchanges and projects, international cooperation in education is also based on the formation of a shared horizon in terms of objectives and indicators. For the countries of the European Union, there is much to be gained by continuing to develop criteria for evaluating their education policies together, enabling them to be compared and improved. In this area, the tools of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have become fundamental, among other international bodies whose work makes it possible to form a complete picture of comparisons in the areas that I have identified as priorities for education policies: pedagogical standards (thanks in particular to the PISA assessments), the well-being of pupils, the reduction of inequalities, and the status and remuneration of teachers. This pooling of criteria and their monitoring provide a valuable basis for national analyses and decisions, with a view to a European Union that favours the progress of qualified jobs and the training of enlightened citizens. The ongoing work of the Directorate for Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance Monitoring (DEPP) to develop accurate and reliable indicators, and thus contribute to international comparisons, is essential in this respect.



**Pap Ndiaye**

Minister of National  
Education and Youth



International comparisons have become an essential support for the management of education systems and the development of public education policies. It is therefore essential to master their quality and relevance in order to use them wisely and to draw valid interpretations from them.

The Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance Monitoring (DEPP) is largely involved, through its technical and statistical expertise, in the construction and production of international data, but also in their appropriation by public actors and the educational community as a whole. To this end, it collaborates actively within the networks of the OECD, the European Commission (and Eurostat in particular), UNESCO and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). In France, it pilots international surveys on student skills (PISA, TALIS, TIMSS, and ICILS, among others).

The DEPP also takes an active part in the Eurydice network on education systems and policies in Europe. It builds on this work to put the statistics into perspective.

In all its reference works, the DEPP presents indicators on schools in France and other European Union countries. In particular, *Education in Europe: Key figures* offers a complete panorama of indicators and analyses to assess the results but also the diversity of the organisation of education in the European Union, and to situate France in relation to its neighbours.

The 2022 edition of *Education in Europe: Key figures*, which is its fourth biennial update, is set in a rich European context. The European Union's new ten-year strategy in education and training, whose objectives and monitoring indicators were set in 2021, is analysed in several of the book's fact sheets.

Similarly, the objectives of the French Presidency of the Council of the European Union, which took place in the first half of 2022, are reflected in some of the new fact sheets proposed, in particular those on teacher training and mobility. Various aspects of the teaching profession are also given greater prominence than in previous editions, in particular the issues of salary and its evolution over time.

Another important contextual element is also reflected in this edition of *Education in Europe: Key figures*: a fact sheet on the reception of Ukrainian refugees in European education systems was drawn up on the basis of reports from the European Eurydice network and in collaboration with the Brussels teams.

The main themes covered in previous editions have been taken up here: the organisation of schooling, the main actors in education (pupils, parents, teachers), the results of education systems and the social and economic returns to education. Within these perennial themes, new analyses are proposed, in particular those on upper secondary vocational education and on education in relation to environmental issues.

Most of the indicators selected or constructed for this publication are based on data collected by Eurostat, the European Commission's Directorate-General responsible for statistical information at Community level. They also include data from the OECD, the Eurydice network, the IEA and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). All the sources used are precisely referenced. Methodological annexes provide information on the main statistical concepts and sources used in the book. ■

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# PREAMBLE

## THE INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION (ISCED)

### THE STATISTICAL NOMENCLATURE OF PROGRAMMES AND LEVELS OF EDUCATION: 2011 VERSION

Given the diversity of national education and qualification systems, a common framework of definitions and nomenclatures is the first step towards international comparison of education data. The current framework is the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 2011. It is the result of a long process, which began with the creation of the International Bureau of Education in 1925 and above all that of UNESCO in 1945, to which other institutions (OECD, Eurostat) have gradually become associated.

Adopted by UNESCO in 1978, ISCED classifies programmes and levels of education and training in a unified nomenclature for international statistical comparisons in the field of education. A first revision of ISCED was proposed in 1997. In 2011, ISCED was reformed once again, jointly by the three organisations that coordinate its implementation (UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat). The new features are mainly in early childhood education and care, and in higher education. Thus, in ISCED 0, a distinction is now made between programmes for the educational development of young children (in particular children under 3 years of age), coded as ISCED 01, and those for pre-primary education (generally for children over 3 years of age), coded as ISCED 02. In line with the Bologna process (cf. 1.1), tertiary programmes are classified according to four levels instead of two (ISCED 5 to ISCED 8) (1).

In addition, the 2011 codification of ISCED levels introduces new variables to characterize programmes. It is based on five main factors, namely: level of education, programme orientation, completion of the ISCED level, access to higher ISCED levels and position in the national structure of diplomas and qualifications (2). The level, which is represented by the first digit, corresponds to the level of education (e.g. primary, secondary). The orientation (second digit) corresponds to the fields of study. The last three factors are reflected in the third digit of the coding. Thus, “completion” indicates whether the completion of the programme allows validating, fully or partially, the ISCED level concerned. Access’, reserved for

school education as well as completion, indicates whether the programme concerned gives access to higher ISCED levels. The position in the national degree structure, reserved for higher education, is based on the concepts of first degree (which can be accessed directly from secondary education) and supplementary degree (to which access is conditional on the award of a bachelor’s level degree).

ISCED 2011 has multiple advantages over previous versions. For example, it allows for a better identification of the levels of adult education and a better distinction between **formal**<sup>□</sup> and **non-formal education**<sup>□</sup>. It also differentiates more clearly between the notions of level attained and level aimed for, the latter corresponding to the programme in which the individual is evolving at the time of observation. For example, a pupil newly enrolled in a *lycée* has ISCED level 2 as “attained”, since he or she has validated his or her course at *collège* and is therefore progressing to ISCED “programme” level 3. It is only once he or she has a CAP, BEP or *baccalauréat* that he or she will have reached ISCED level 3.

### AN EXAMPLE OF CODING ACCORDING TO ISCED 2011: “CAP” AND “BACCALAURÉAT GÉNÉRAL” IN FRANCE

The two examples shown in Figure 3 provide details of the coding of two French programmes. The CAP and the *baccalauréat général* are both diploma programmes in the second cycle of secondary education: their classification will therefore begin with the number 3. The second digit indicates the orientation of the programme: the CAP is a “vocational” programme and the *baccalauréat général* is a “general” programme, which is reflected in the numbers 5 and 4 respectively. Finally, the third digit of the coding indicates whether or not the programme validates the ISCED level concerned and gives access to the higher ISCED level. Here, both programmes validate ISCED level 3, but only the *baccalauréat* gives access to higher education. The codes for the CAP and the *baccalauréat général* are therefore “353” and “344” respectively. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

## 1 ISCED 2011 programmes - main elements of the coding

Level of education		Orientation	Main French examples and name of the programme
ISCED 0 Early childhood education	ISCED 01 Early childhood educational development	(-)	(-)
	ISCED 02 Pre-primary education		From nursery to kindergarten
ISCED 1 Primary education		Pre-primary education	From grade 1 ("CP") to grade 5 ("CM2")
ISCED 2 Lower secondary education		ISCED 24: general	From grade 6 (sixième) to grade 9 (troisième)
		ISCED 25: vocational	(-)
ISCED 3 Upper secondary education		ISCED 34: general	Programmes leading to the general and technological baccalauréates
		ISCED 35: vocational	Programmes leading to the vocational baccalauréate, CAP, BP, etc.
ISCED 4 Post-secondary non-tertiary education		ISCED 44: general	Programmes leading to the Diploma of Access to University Studies and the "Capacity in Law"
		ISCED 45: vocational	Programmes leading to university degrees, post-secondary school certificates
ISCED 5 Short-cycle higher education		ISCED 54: general	(-)
		ISCED 55: vocational	University degree programmes technology, the Higher Technician's Certificate, etc.
ISCED 6 Bachelor's degree or equivalent		Same codes (4, 5)  Code 6 in the absence of internationally agreed definitions of academic and professional orientation in higher education	Programmes leading to bachelor's degree, professional degree, state nursing diploma, etc.
ISCED 7 Master's level or equivalent			Programmes leading to a Master's degree, engineering degree, medical degree, etc.
ISCED 8 PhD level or equivalent			Programmes leading to a PhD

Source : Unesco Institute For Statistics, *International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 2011*, 2012.

## 2 Coding of the third digit of ISCED concerning completion of and access to higher levels of ISCED, as well as the position in the national structure of diplomas and qualifications

	Coding (3 <sup>rd</sup> digit)	Level completion and access to higher ISCED levels
ISCED 1	1	Full and recognised completion of the programme in question is not sufficient for either full or partial completion of the ISCED level and does not provide direct access to higher ISCED levels. Note that this coding is also applicable to higher education programmes.
ISCED 2	2	Full and recognised completion of the programme is sufficient for partial completion of the ISCED level but does not provide direct access to higher ISCED levels.
ISCED 3	3	Full and recognised completion of the programme is sufficient for full completion of the ISCED level but does not provide direct access to higher ISCED levels.
ISCED 4	4	Full and recognised completion of the programme is sufficient for full completion of the ISCED level and gives direct access to programmes at higher ISCED levels. Note that this coding is also applicable to ISCED 5 (full programme) and ISCED 8 (full programme) higher education programmes.
<b>Position dans la structure nationale des diplômes et des certifications</b>		
ISCED 6	5	First degree programme - Bachelor's degree or equivalent level, lasting 3 to 4 years.
	6	Long first degree programme - Bachelor, Master or equivalent level, lasting more than 4 years.
ISCED 7	7	Second degree/certification programme or additional degree - following a degree programme or equivalent level.
	8	Second degree/certification programme or additional degree - following a Master's programme or equivalent.
	9	Not elsewhere classified.

Source: Unesco Institute For Statistics, *International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 2011*, 2012.

## 3 Examples of coding of educational programmes in France according to the 2011 classification: "CAP" and "Baccalauréat général"

CAP (Certification of Professional Aptitude)			General baccalauréate		
Level	Orientation	Completion and access to the next level	Level	Orientation	Completion and access to the next level
0		1	0		1
1	4	2	1	4	2
2	5	3	2	5	3
3		4	3		4
4			4		
5			5		
6			6		
7			7		
8			8		

Note: in France, the CAP is a diploma programme of upper secondary education, which corresponds to ISCED level 3. It is a vocational programme, which is reflected in ISCED code 5 (second digit). Finally, the CAP allows validation at ISCED level 3, but it does not give access to higher education, which is signified by code 3 (third digit). The CAP is therefore coded 353 in ISCED.

# HIGHLIGHTS

## THE RECEPTION OF UKRAINIAN REFUGEES IN THE EUROPEAN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

### Eurydice reports

The information presented here is based on two reports published in 2022 by the European network Eurydice<sup>EN</sup>. These provide comparisons on the reception of pupils and of Ukrainian refugee students in Europe in the context of the current international crisis.

The information is valid for the school and academic year 2021-2022, until May 2022.

A previous Eurydice report on integration migrants in schools (2019) were also referred to.

### LARGE COUNTRIES IN THE VICINITY ARE HOSTING SIGNIFICANT NUMBERS OF UKRAINIAN REFUGEES

Since the start of the Russian military invasion of Ukraine in February 2022, more than 6.5 million people have fled the country. UN estimates show that almost half of them are children and young people.

Within the European Union, Central Europe has received the most refugee pupils from Ukraine in primary and secondary education up to May 2022, in particular Germany (113,584 pupils), Poland (194,000) and the Czech Republic (26,711). Next in line are the southern countries: Italy (27,323), Spain (26,298) and France (15,913). At the other end of the spectrum, with few pupils enrolled, are the northern countries (3,000 pupils in Finland and 720 in Denmark, for example) and small countries such as Cyprus, with 246 pupils, or Malta, with 66 (**Map I**).

However, the pressure on each education system is assessed taking into account all pupils. For example, refugees from Ukraine who are enrolled in school increase the number of pupils already enrolled in ISCED 1-3 in 2019-2020 (the latest year available from Eurostat) by 4.13% in Poland, 2.66% in Estonia and 2.49% in Lithuania, but by 1.15% in Germany and 0.15% in France. Finally, a proportion of Ukrainian refugees of school age are not in school in their host countries. These proportions vary significantly by country: from 5% in Luxembourg to 92% in Romania.

### SCHOOLING ARRANGEMENTS FOR UKRAINIAN REFUGEES

Most education systems (e.g. French, Italian, and Portuguese) promote the integration of migrants and refugees from Ukraine into regular classes with other pupils of the same age (**II**). Intensive support in small groups, mainly during the school day, aims to strengthen the mastery of the language

of schooling. Other systems (e.g. Finnish and Austrian) prefer, at least initially, placing the newly arrived learners in separate classes, with a focus on teaching and learning of the language of schooling. Finally, in Germany and in Spain, among other countries, newly arrived migrant and refugee learners may initially be directed to regular or separate classes, depending on regional specificities. However, in both of these two examples of countries, national authorities advocate rapid integration of learners into mainstream classes, especially in primary and early secondary education.

While language support is a priority for newly arrived migrants and refugees, other services are generally available for all students, such as remedial education, help with lesson preparation or homework, speech therapy and psychosocial support. This support is often provided by professionals other than the classroom teacher, such as additional teachers, Ukrainian teachers, educational assistants or counsellors and psychologists. In addition, many countries have recently adopted policies to increase support measures and the number of educational staff available to meet the needs of learners arriving from Ukraine.

Finally, young refugees who are not in school can benefit in their host country, as well as those who are in school, from access to online education based on the Ukrainian curriculum.

### MONITORING OF REFUGEE STUDENTS FROM UKRAINE ENROLLED IN HIGHER EDUCATION

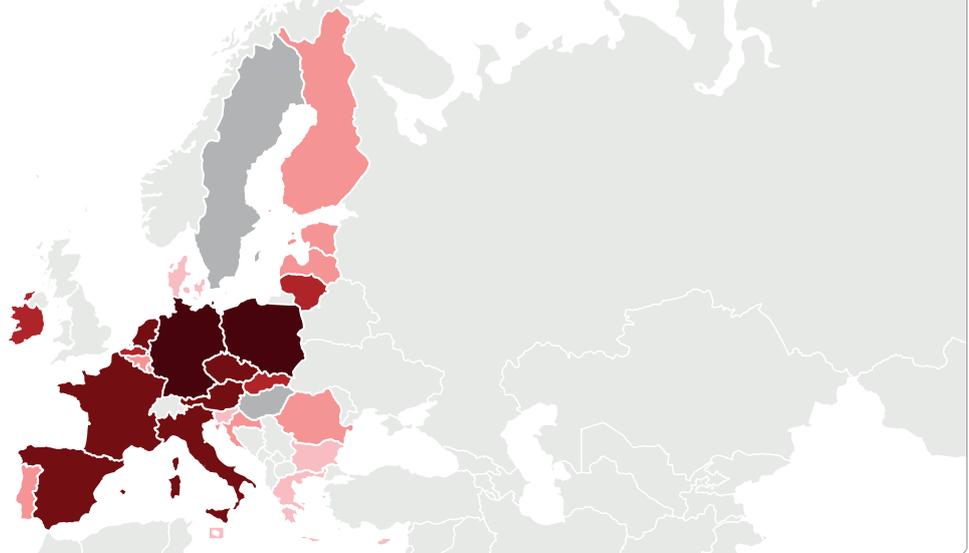
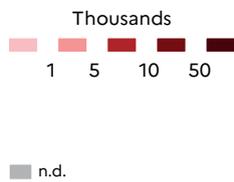
The Eurydice report identified only seven European higher education systems that have central monitoring of student refugees (**III**). Of these, Italy and Portugal are the only countries where such a monitoring mechanism existed before the arrival of refugees from Ukraine.

Elsewhere, the new international crisis has led to the development of new practices. As Eurydice shows, the Ministry of Higher Education in France has set up a platform where Ukrainian students can register to be selected by French universities and other higher education institutions. The platform provides weekly data on the number of students applying for French language courses or special preparation courses called "*DU Passerelles*". A weekly survey is also sent to higher education institutions in order to collect information on the number of Ukrainian students who register for the current or the next academic year, on their applications for financial aid or on the accommodation provided to them. Finally, the Flemish Community of Belgium is the only system that, in addition to data on refugee student participation, also collects data on their completion rates. Poland will also set up such a collection. ■

<sup>EN</sup> See Annexes.

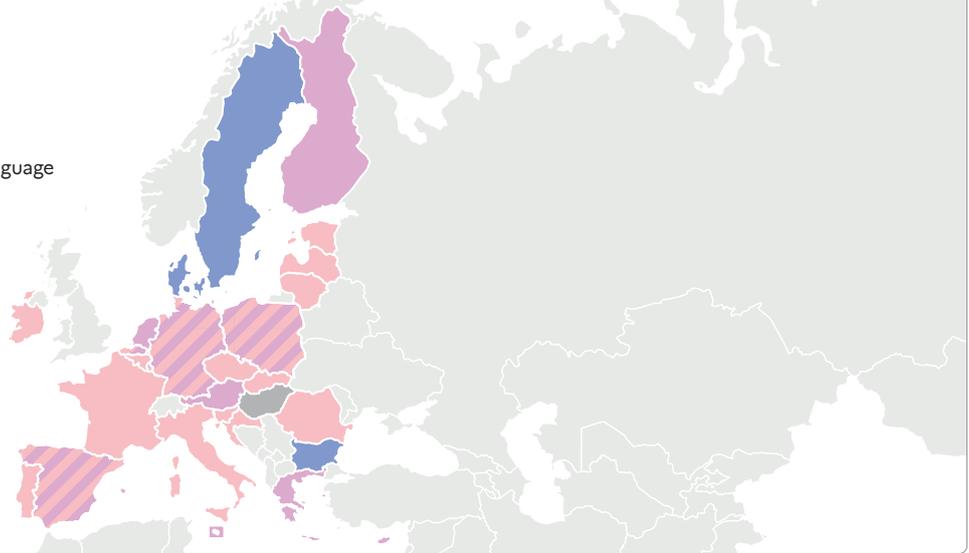
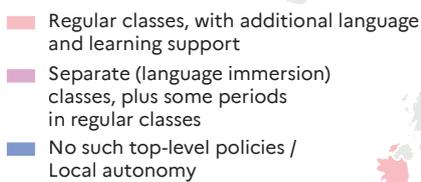
**I Number of refugee children and young people from Ukraine enrolled in education systems in European countries (EU-27), ISCED 1-3, may 2022**

↳ Eurydice, *Supporting refugee learners from Ukraine in schools in Europe, 2022.*



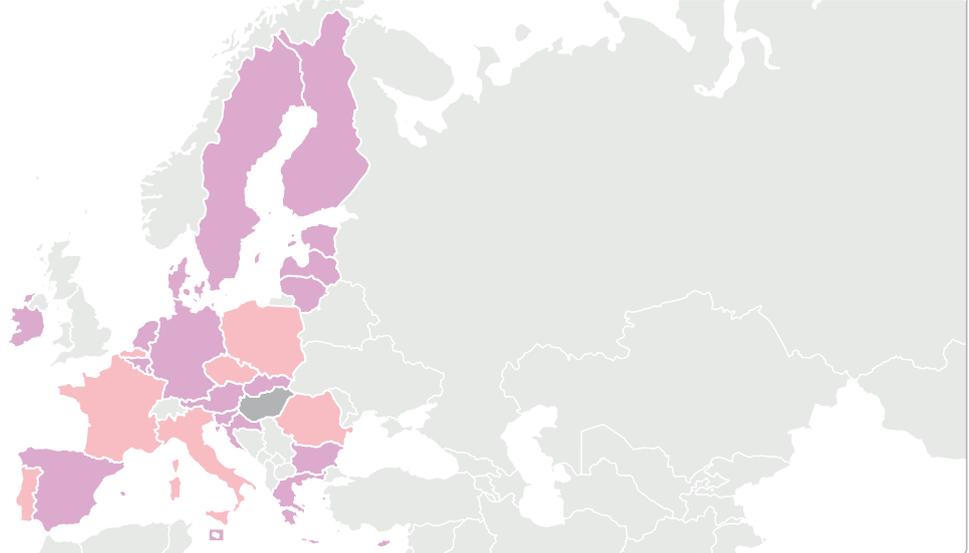
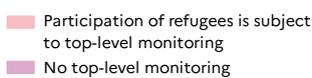
**II Main school integration approaches for newly arrived migrants and refugees promoted through top-level policies, ISCED 1-3, 2021-2022**

↳ Eurydice, *Supporting refugee learners from Ukraine in schools in Europe, 2022.*



**III Monitoring of participation of refugees in higher education, 2021-2022**

↳ Eurydice, *Supporting refugee learners from Ukraine in higher education in Europe, 2022.*





# CHAPTER 1

## EUROPEAN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

**The diversity of education systems**

**Schooling conditions**

**Education expenditure**

**Instructional time in primary education**

**Upper secondary vocational education**

# 1.1 THE DIVERSITY OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

## THREE MAIN TYPES OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN EUROPE

In 2022-2023, in the 27 countries of the European Union (EU-27), there are three main types of education systems for primary and secondary education: “single”, “common core” and “early tracking” structures **(1.1.1)**.

Single-structure systems are characterised by general education programmes for all students in a single institution covering primary and lower secondary education. These systems are present in the north and east of the EU. The core curriculum is a general education programme that is equally followed by all students but, unlike the single structure, it is delivered in two separate institutions, one for primary and one for lower secondary education. This model is the most common in the EU and is mainly found in western and southern European countries, including France. In the “early tracking” structure, pupils are oriented from the end of primary education towards general or vocational education programmes of varying content and duration. This structure is present in Germany, Austria, Lithuania, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

Finally, in some Eastern European countries, single structures and the common core coexist. In these countries, pupils' traditional education is organised in a single structure, but they may decide to move to parallel structures that cover the whole of secondary education. For example, in the Czech Republic, pupils can decide at the age of 11 to take an examination to enter technical institutions rather than remain in the traditional single-structure pattern until the age of 15.

## VERY DIFFERENT SCHOOL CAREERS FOR EUROPEAN PUPILS BEFORE AGE 16

The Finnish, French and German examples presented here illustrate the differences in the organisation of education systems within the typology discussed above. Finland has a single structure **(1.1.2)**, where “basic education”, which corresponds to primary and lower secondary education, takes place seamlessly in a single institution. It should be noted that the year of compulsory education at the age of 6 is considered to be part of pre-primary education and does not take place in the same institutions.

Primary education therefore begins at age 7. Teaching in ISCED 2 is not provided in the same way as in ISCED 1: teachers are generalists and each teach a single class until the sixth year, and then lessons are given by specialists from the seventh to the ninth year. Orientation takes place in ISCED 3, with general or vocational institutions. Finally, Finnish higher education is based on the Bologna model, with a Bachelor's degree in 3 years, a Master's degree in 2 years and a doctorate in 3 years (model “BMD”).

France has a common core structure, with general education followed by all pupils from pre-primary to the end of lower secondary school, but provided in separate institutions: école maternelle, école élémentaire (sometimes integrated within a école primaire) and collège **(1.1.3)**. Orientation takes place at ISCED level 3 and higher education is also largely structured along the lines of the Bologna model. However, ISCED 5 courses, namely the sections de techniciens supérieurs (STS) and the former diplôme universitaire de technologie (DUT), among others, attract a particularly large number of students in France. Indeed, with 547,000 students in 2019-2020 enrolled in ISCED 5, France alone accounts for more than a third of European students at this ISCED level. However, this number of students should gradually decrease with the disappearance of the DUT at the start of the 2022-2023 academic year.

Finally, Germany illustrates the early tracking structure **(1.1.4)**. At the end of the four years of primary education, pupils are directed to ISCED 2 institutions that provide differentiated general education. Pupils have an orientation period of two years from the beginning of secondary education, during which time reorientation is facilitated. There is a very wide variety of educational programmes available from ISCED 3 onwards, particularly in vocational education. Higher education is also structured on the “BMD” model.

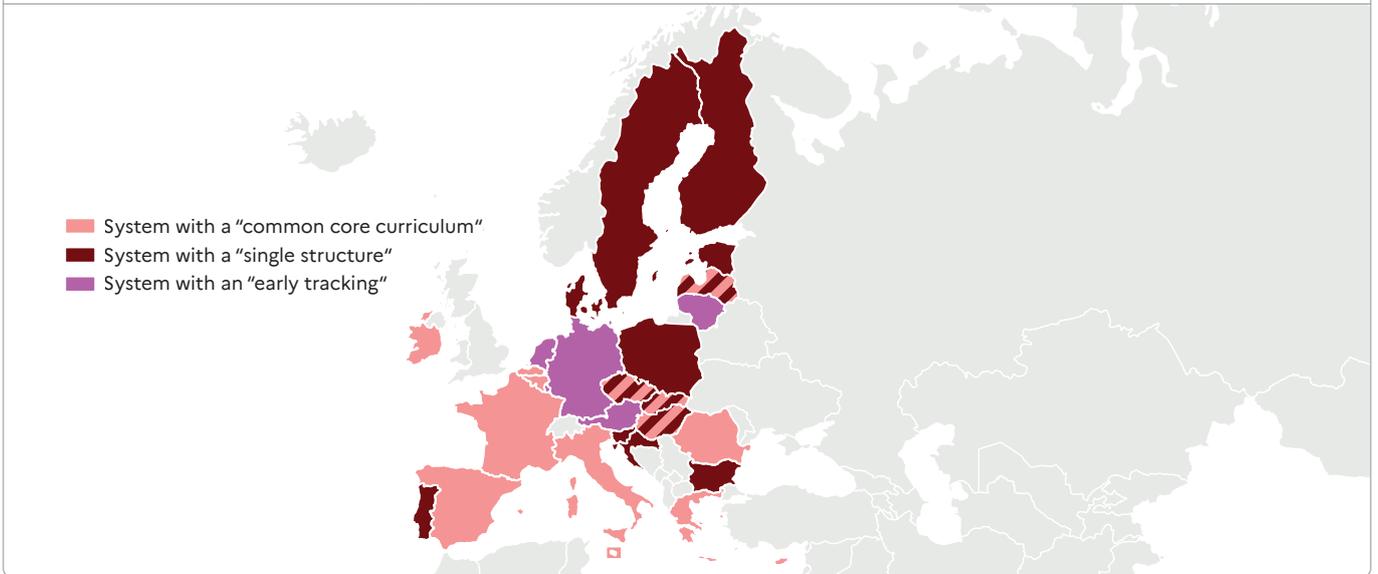
Post-secondary non-tertiary education is not represented in the same way in all countries. These courses are very present in Germany (744,000 students in 2019-2020) and often aim at direct access to the labour market. In France, on the other hand, these courses are marginal and are designed to give students access to higher education.

Finally, while diplomas often mark the end of an educational programme, there are exceptions. In Malta, there are two consecutive ISCED 3 diplomas. The Secondary Education Certificate (SEC) is a diploma taken by pupils at the age of 16, in the middle of the cycle, which only partially validates the completion of ISCED level 3 and does not give access to higher ISCED levels. The second qualification, Matriculation, is taken at age 18, fully validates ISCED 3 and gives access to higher education. ■

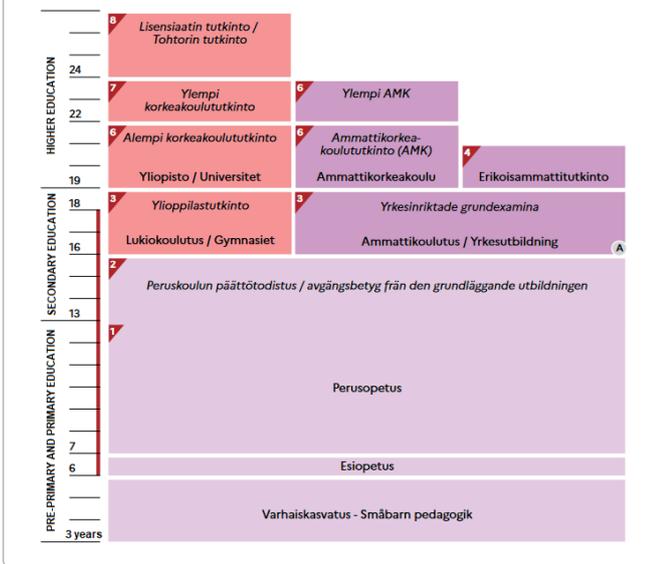
See Annexes.

### 1.1.1 Types of organisation of education systems in Europe, 2022-2023

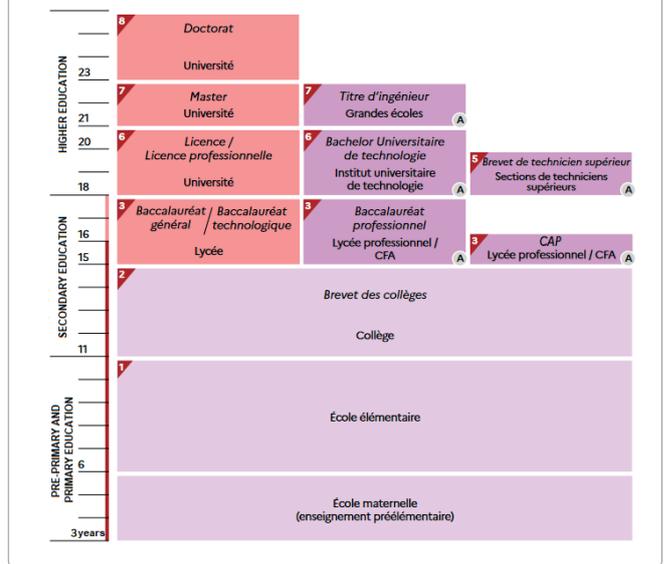
↳ Eurydice, *The structure of the European education systems 2022/2023: schematic diagrams*.



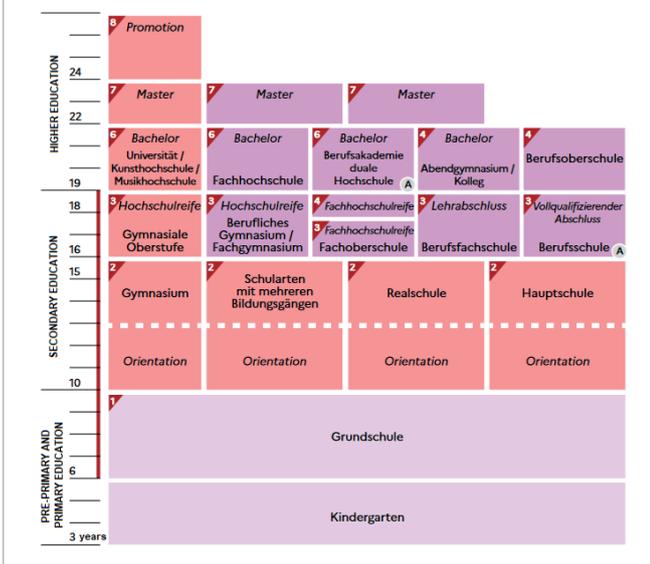
### 1.1.2 A "single structure" system: Finland



### 1.1.3 A "common core curriculum" system: France



### 1.1.4 A "early tracking" system: Germany



- Compulsory full-time education
- Compulsory training period
- Possibility to prepare the degree through apprenticeship
- Common core curriculum
- General stream
- Vocational stream
- ISCED level

↳ Official national data, OECD: Education GPS; Eurydice portal: National Education Systems.

## 1.2 SCHOOLING CONDITIONS

### UP TO 13 YEARS OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION

In 2021-2022, children in Europe start compulsory schooling or education at different ages: from 3 years (in France and Hungary), to 7 years (in Croatia and Estonia). In 10 countries (including Austria, Bulgaria and the Netherlands), compulsory schooling starts at the age of 5, while in 11 others (including Germany, Spain, Finland and Italy) it starts at 6 **(1.2.1)**.

Almost half of the EU-27 countries (including Estonia, Ireland and Sweden) set the end of compulsory schooling or training at the age of 16, but this varies from the age of 15 (Cyprus, Croatia, Greece, the Czech Republic and Slovenia) to 19 (Germany). The end of compulsory schooling is set at the end of ISCED 2 in 11 EU countries (Denmark, Greece, Latvia and Sweden), while it occurs during ISCED 3 in Spain and Italy. In total, the duration of compulsory education or training varies from 8 years in Croatia to 15 years in France.

In the EU, the duration of compulsory education or training is tending to increase. In 2020 and 2021, Belgium, Romania and Slovakia lowered the starting age of compulsory education from 6 to 5 years by introducing a year of compulsory pre-school education. In Finland and France, the end of compulsory schooling or training has been raised from 16 to 18, but with different mechanisms. Indeed, in Finland, since the 2021-2022 school year, compulsory education ends when a young person reaches the age of 18 or when he/she has obtained a diploma of upper secondary education (general or vocational). For France, but also for Austria, the Netherlands and Poland, the period of compulsory full-time education is extended by a compulsory training phase. This period allows for a vocational training programme of varying length depending on the country. It lasts three years in Austria and Poland. In France, the period lasts two years and the student can either continue a school or apprenticeship programme, or follow a support or social and professional integration programme, or be in civic service or employment. In the case of the Netherlands, the training obligation extends to the age of 18, unless the pupil obtains one of the three so-called "basic" qualifications, in which case he or she can leave the education system at the age of 16.

### FIVE COUNTRIES ACCOUNT FOR MORE THAN HALF OF ALL EUROPEAN PUPILS

In the European Union, for the school year 2019-2020, there will be more than 23 million pupils in primary education (ISCED 1) and almost 19 million pupils in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). The number of pupils per level of education is of course related to the duration of these levels of education measured in years.

The size of the school population in most countries closely mirrors that of the total national population. For the 2019-2020 school year, the five most populous countries in the EU (Germany, France, Italy, Spain, and Poland) alone account for more than 60% of school enrolments in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 **(1.2.2)**, both public and private sectors. In primary education, enrolments vary from 27,000 in Malta to 4,279,300 in France, with primary education lasting six and five years respectively in these two countries.

In lower secondary education, Malta again has the fewest pupils (13,300 spread over three years of education), while Germany has the largest number (4,478,200 pupils spread over five to six years of education depending on the stream). In total, for both levels, France has the largest number of pupils (7,725,600). These differences in pupil numbers put into perspective the challenges that these countries face in terms of material (buildings, school catering, supplies, etc.) and human (teaching and administrative staff) resources.

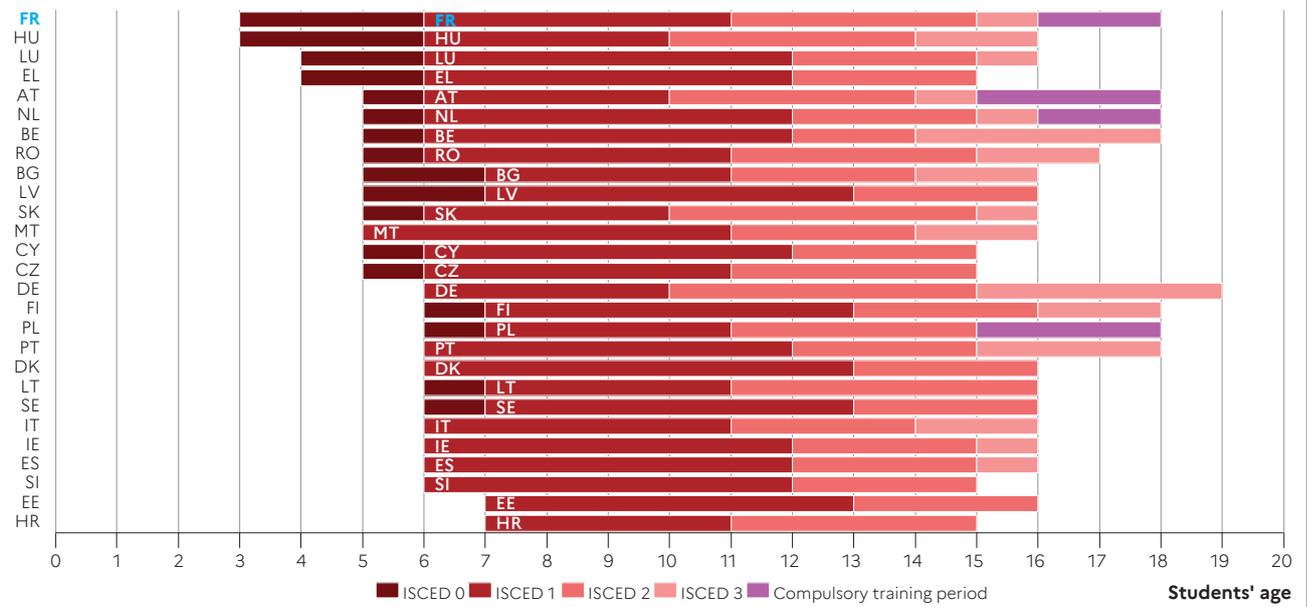
### CLASS SIZE IS LARGER IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION

The OECD concept of average class size refers to the number of students in a common class, including compulsory subjects and excluding subgroup teaching. Values are calculated by dividing the number of pupils by the number of classes. Class size is not calculated in upper secondary education (ISCED 3), where the complex organisation of teaching (multiple options, workshop work) often prevents a reliable calculation of this indicator.

In 2019-2020, average class sizes in primary education (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2), both public and private, vary significantly across the European Union. On average across the 22 OECD EU countries, there are 19 pupils per class in ISCED 1 and 21 in ISCED 2 **(1.2.3)**. France has the highest average class size in ISCED 1, with 22 pupils per class. The minimum is observed in Greece, Latvia and Poland, with 17 pupils per class. In ISCED 2, France again has the largest average class size, with 26 pupils per class, followed by Spain with 25 pupils per class, while Latvia again has the lowest average class size (17). ■

### 1.2.1 Compulsory education in Europe, 2021-2022

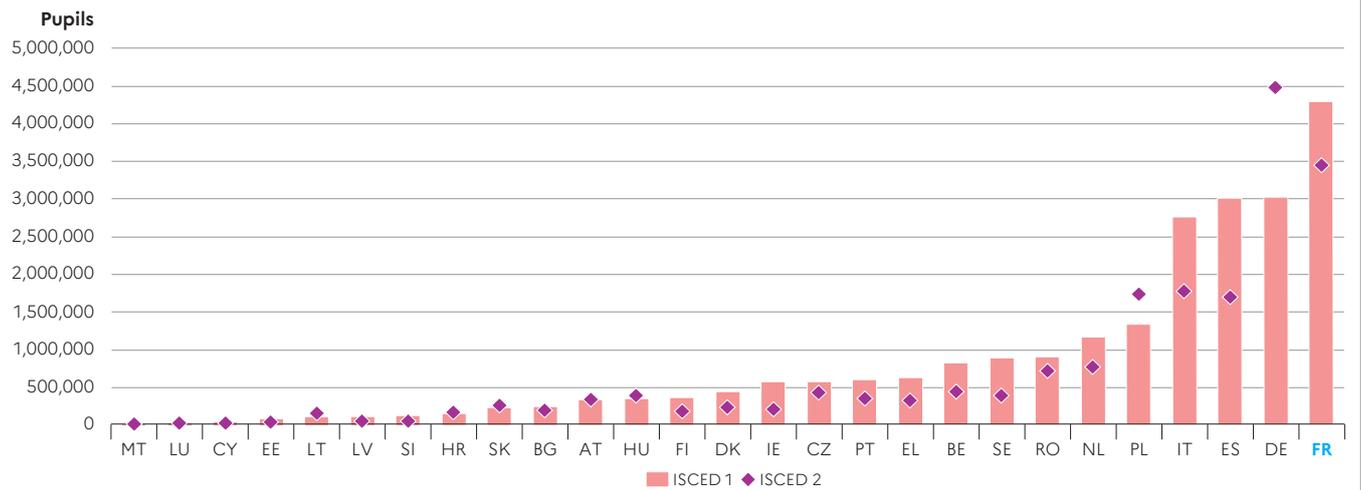
↳ Eurydice, *The structure of the European education systems 2021/2022: schematic diagrams.*



Note: from secondary education onwards, the durations used for each level of education correspond to the general stream (the most common if there are several).

### 1.2.2 Total number of pupils in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2, 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, *educ\_uae\_enra02.*



### 1.2.3 Average class size in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2, 2019-2020

↳ OECD, UOE data collection, *oecd.stat.*



Note: data for Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands are not available.

# 1.3 EDUCATION EXPENDITURE

## Education spending according to the OECD ZOOM

The OECD defines education expenditure for educational institutions as follows: all of expenditure (educational services, ancillary services and research & development) funded by central and local government, the private sector (households and businesses) and international agencies. Excluded are household expenditure outside educational institutions, public support for certain costs pupils/students outside schools (e.g. living expenses), and expenditure on continuing education. State-funded scholarships, on the other hand, are included.

## THE CONCENTRATION OF EXPENDITURE BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION VARIES ACROSS COUNTRIES

In 2019, for the 22 European Union countries that are members of the OECD (EU-22), education expenditure per pupil is higher on average in secondary education, i.e. ISCED 2 and 3 (\$11,600 in **purchasing power parity - PPP**<sup>□</sup>), than in primary education, i.e. ISCED 1 (\$10,100 PPP), or in pre-primary education, i.e. ISCED 02 (\$9,800 PPP): **1.3.1**. Differences within the EU-22 are significant: Latvia and the Czech Republic have expenditure of less than \$7,000 PPP in primary education, while Greece, Hungary, Lithuania and the Slovak Republic have per pupil expenditure of less than \$8,000 PPP in secondary education. At the same time, Luxembourg is the only country with expenditure of \$22,000 PPP or more at each level of education. Thus, Finland and Slovenia spend significantly more on ISCED 2 than on ISCED 1 or ISCED 3. Germany and France show similar profiles: expenditure per pupil, which is relatively low in ISCED 1, increases with the level of education and reaches high values in ISCED 3.

## FOUR MAIN FACTORS INFLUENCE TEACHER SALARY COSTS IN EXPENDITURE

The cost of salaries, particularly for teachers, accounts for a large proportion of education expenditure, although other items of expenditure, such as the cost of boarding schools, school canteens, administrative services and school transport, for which international data are less complete, also account for a certain amount of expenditure.

The main factors influencing the salary cost of teachers in expenditure are: the average salary of teachers, their **statutory teaching time**<sup>□</sup>, the **statutory instruction time**<sup>□</sup> received by pupils and, finally, the number of pupils per teacher (**pupil-teacher ratio**<sup>□</sup>). High teacher salaries and instructional time increase the salary cost per pupil; high instructional time and pupil-teacher ratios, on the contrary, decrease it. These elements thus help to shed light on the differences in expenditure per pupil between countries.

For example, Germany and Italy have comparable and, in both cases, higher expenditure per pupil in ISCED 1 than France (**1.3.2**). However, the gap with France is explained differently for each of these two neighbouring countries. In Germany, ISCED 1 teacher salaries are considerably higher than in France, there are fewer pupils per teacher and teachers give fewer hours of instruction: all of these factors increase the expenditure gap between France and Germany in favour of the latter, although the fact that pupils receive fewer hours of instruction in Germany than in France tends to reduce this gap. On the other hand, in Italy, where ISCED 1 teachers earn less than teachers in France, expenditure per pupil remains higher than in France due to a higher instructional time, a lower teaching time and, above all, a much lower number of pupils per teacher than in France.

## A SIGNIFICANT INCREASE IN PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION IN MANY EUROPEAN COUNTRIES BETWEEN 2015 AND 2019

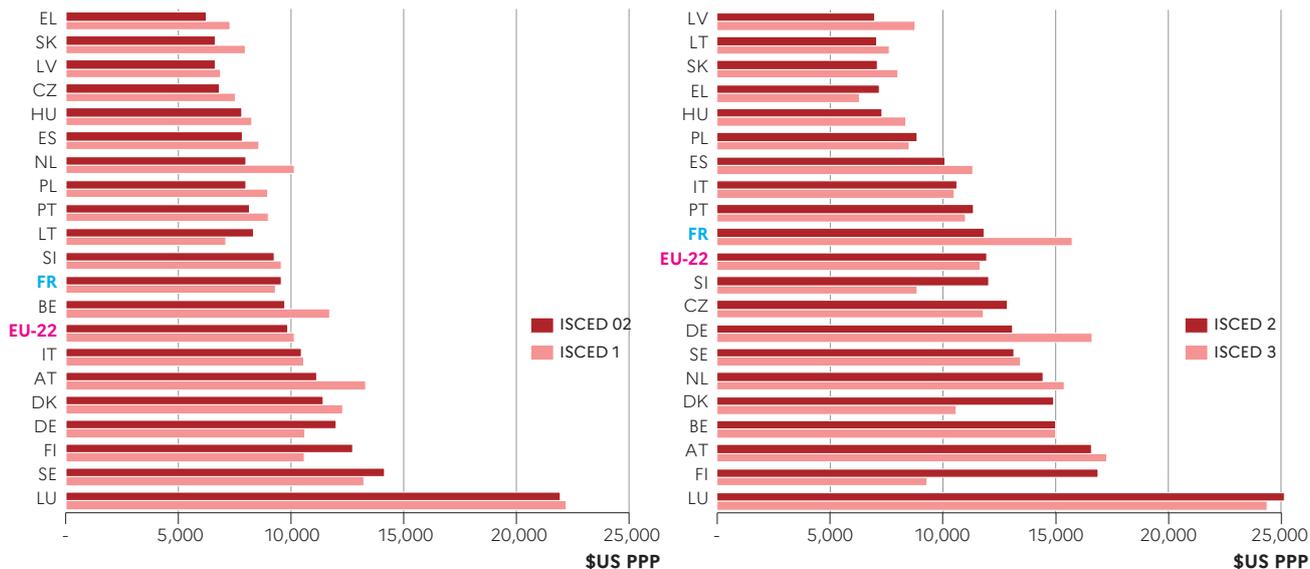
To date, the available international data do not allow for the influence of the health crisis on education spending to be observed. However, it is possible to observe public spending on education before the health crisis. Only expenditure financed by the state, local governments and international agencies is included.

Between 2015 and 2019, on average in the EU-22, public expenditure on educational institutions (ISCED 1-4) increased by 10%, while the **gross domestic product (GDP)**<sup>□</sup> of the same countries increased by 13% (**1.3.3**). Of the countries presented, all experienced an increase in GDP over this period, with a minimum of 4% observed in Greece and Italy, and a maximum of 27% observed in Ireland. In terms of public spending on education, only Latvia saw a decrease between 2015 and 2019 (- 5%). The other European countries have all increased their public spending on education, sometimes significantly (+ 33% in Estonia). France has seen less strong developments, but on the other hand public spending on education has grown almost as much as GDP: with a 6% increase in its public spending on education and a 7% increase in its GDP. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

### 1.3.1 Annual expenditure per student on educational institutions, by ISCED level, 2019

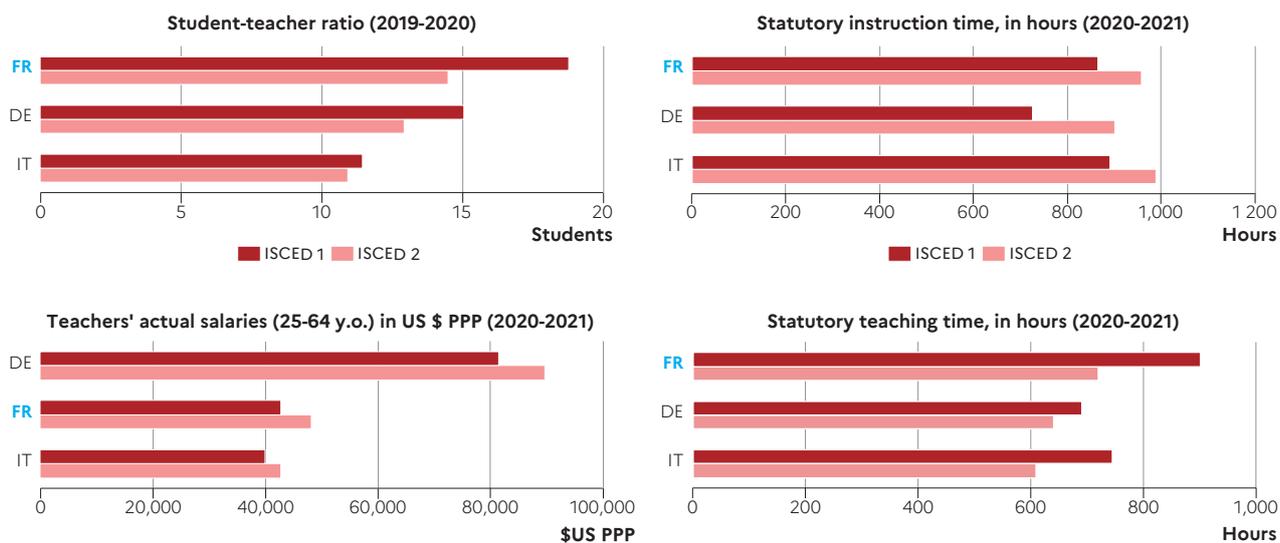
OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table B2.4 and table C1.1.



Note: data for Estonia and Ireland are not available.

### 1.3.2 Factors affecting the salary cost per student in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2

OECD, *Education at a glance 2021*, table D1.1, table D2.1; *Education at a glance 2022*, table D3.4, table D4.1.

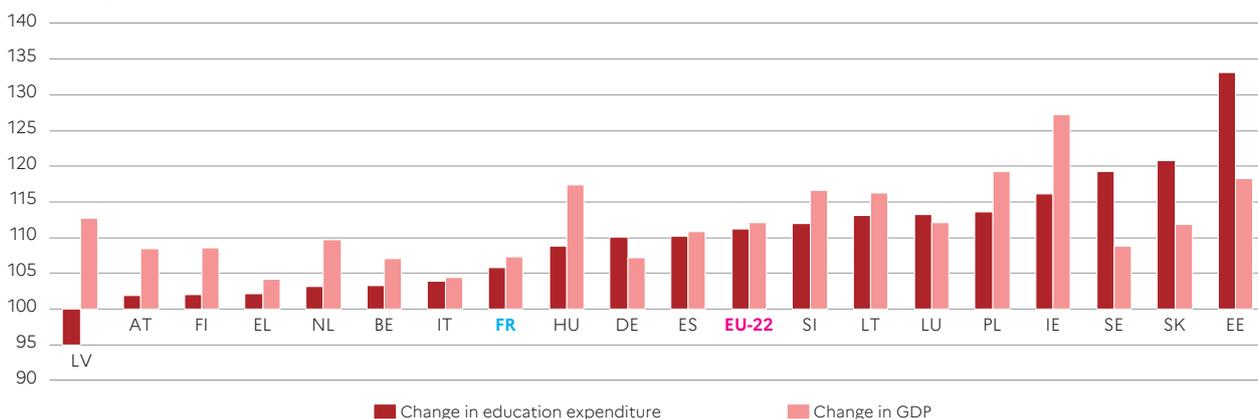


Note: see Definitions for "statutory instruction time" and "statutory teaching time".

### 1.3.3 Change in public expenditure on public institutions from ISCED 1 to ISCED 4 and change in GDP between 2015 and 2019

OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table C2.4.

Index of change: 2015 = 100



## 1.4 INSTRUCTION TIME IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

### PRIMARY SCHOOL INSTRUCTIONAL YEARS ARE ON AVERAGE DENSER IN WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

In 2020-2021, in the 27-member European Union (EU-27), primary education lasts on average six years (1.4.1). In the majority of European countries (15 of them), it lasts six years. This level of education includes four years of instruction in 8 countries (Austria, Germany, Hungary and Lithuania) and five years in 4 countries, including France. It lasts seven years in Denmark only.

For the same duration of schooling at ISCED level 1, countries may have very different annual hourly volumes according to applicable regulations. The average annual hourly volume of **statutory instruction time**<sup>□</sup> per year in the EU-27 is 760 hours. It varies from 470h in Croatia to 1,000h in Denmark. Western European countries have a higher number of hours than the EU-27 average (760h), such as France and the Netherlands with respectively 860 and 940h of instruction time on average per year. Eastern, Central and Northern European countries (except Denmark) have fewer hours of instruction on average per school year: 510h in Bulgaria, 570h in Poland, and 710h in Sweden.

### IN EUROPE, MORE HOURS OF INSTRUCTION ARE ALLOCATED TO READING THAN TO OTHER COMPULSORY SUBJECTS

France is one of the countries which, during primary education, devote the most hours to reading, writing and literature as a whole (1,660h) and mathematics (900h). Among the countries in Figure 1.4.2, Malta is unique in that it allocates more instructional hours to mathematics than to the “reading, writing and literature” block, with 860 and 670h respectively. In Europe, these two core subjects have been the subject of national reforms aimed at ensuring that all pupils master basic skills. In France, exhaustive national assessments in the early years enable teachers to better identify and deal with the difficulties of the pupils they teach. In addition, the “French Language Plan” and the “Mathematics Plan” aim to consolidate pupils’ basic skills by strengthening the in-service training of primary school teachers in these two subjects (see 5.1).

The statutory instruction time allocated to **modern foreign languages (MFL)** is the highest in Luxembourg (840h), Ireland (770h) and Malta (670h). In contrast, Hungary devotes 54h to this subject over ISCED 1 as a whole. While in most only

one modern foreign language is taught at primary level, six countries (Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Latvia and Sweden) introduce a second modern foreign language in the last years of ISCED 1.

In all the countries presented except Greece, less than 400h of instruction are allocated to natural sciences at ISCED level 1. Hungary (81h) and Germany (105h) allocate the lowest number of hours to this subject. For several EU-27 countries (Austria, Croatia, France and Malta), the hours of instruction devoted to natural sciences also include those of other subjects, such as social sciences (history, geography) or technology.

Among the other compulsory ISCED 1 subjects, information and communication technologies (ICT) are often taught as a subject in other subjects. ICT is taught as a separate subject in eight EU-27 countries, such as Greece (150h) or the Czech Republic (30h).

### A SIGNIFICANT NUMBER OF HOURS DEDICATED TO ART AND SPORT THROUGHOUT EUROPE

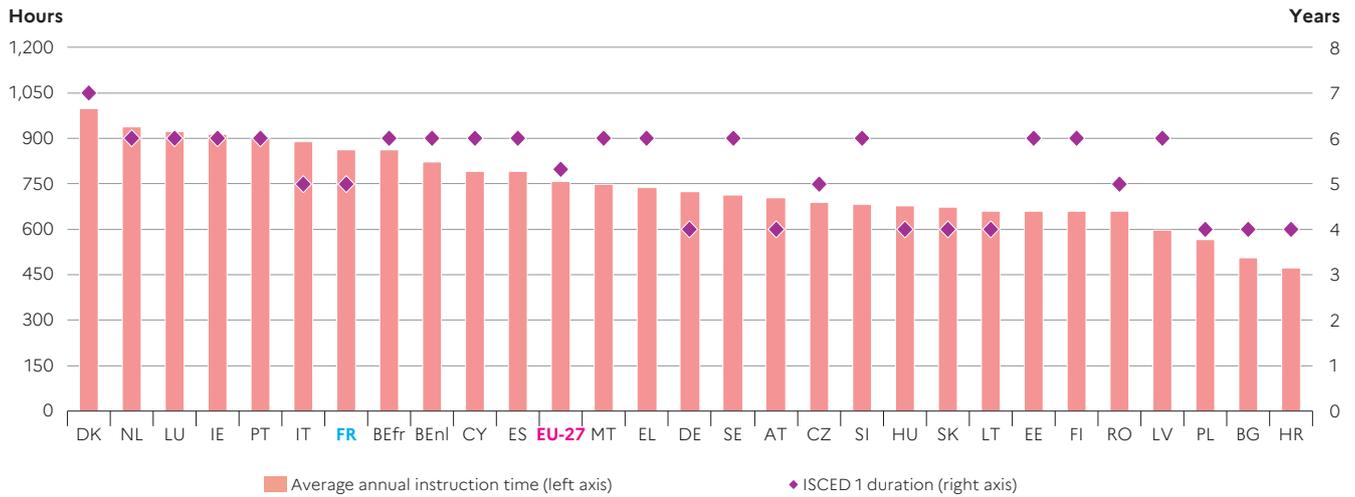
In ISCED 1, among the other subjects covered into compulsory education, arts and sports are the only ones not included in any other subject in all EU-27 countries (1.4.2). Instruction time devoted to artistic subjects (1.4.3) is generally higher in northern European countries, such as Finland and Lithuania, where these subjects account for 16% and 17% of total instruction time respectively. However, hours of physical education and sport (PES) are higher in Western and Central Europe (1.4.4). France, with 540 hours of PES, is one of the four countries that allocate more than 500h to this subject. Hungary is the only country where PES benefits from more hours of instruction than mathematics (108h more) and accounts for 20% of total instruction time in primary education.

However, in several countries and national entities, no specific number of hours is allocated to these subjects for the whole of primary schooling or for certain years only (**flexible curriculum**<sup>□</sup>). In Poland, for example, a number of hours defined by the central authorities is allocated to art (54h) and PES (108h) from the last year of ISCED 1; the first three years are subject to horizontal flexibility (see flexible curriculum). In other countries, instructional time is well defined centrally for these two subjects, but not for each ISCED level. This is the case in the Czech Republic where vertical flexibility (see flexible curriculum) covers more than 80% of compulsory instruction time. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

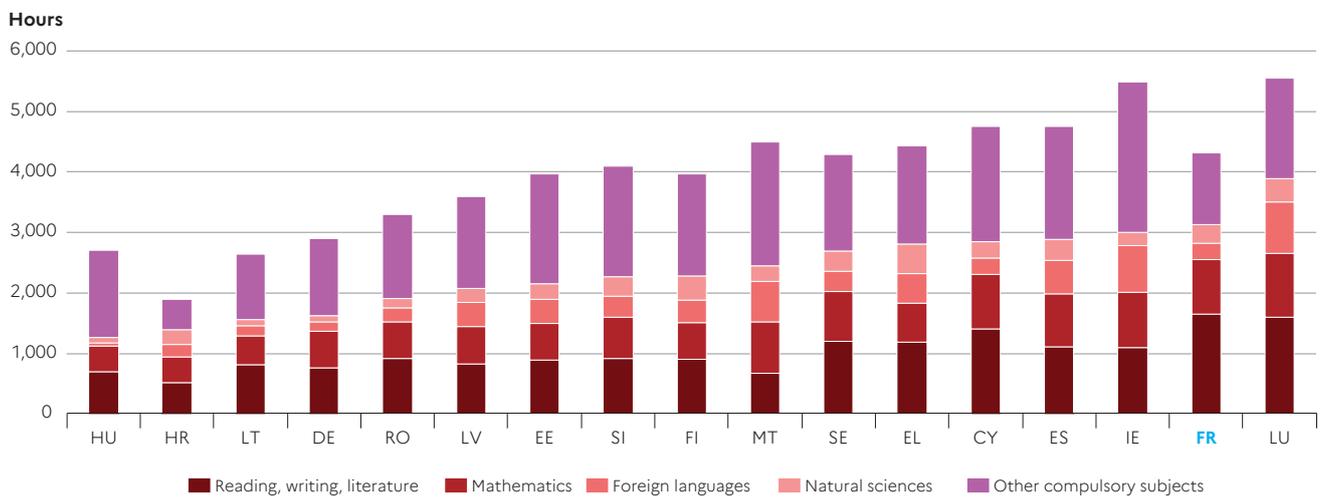
### 1.4.1 Average annual instruction time and years of compulsory education in ISCED 1, 2020-2021

↳ Eurydice, Recommended annual instruction time in full-time compulsory education in Europe 2020/2021, 2021.



### 1.4.2 Total compulsory instruction time by subject in ISCED 1, 2020-2021

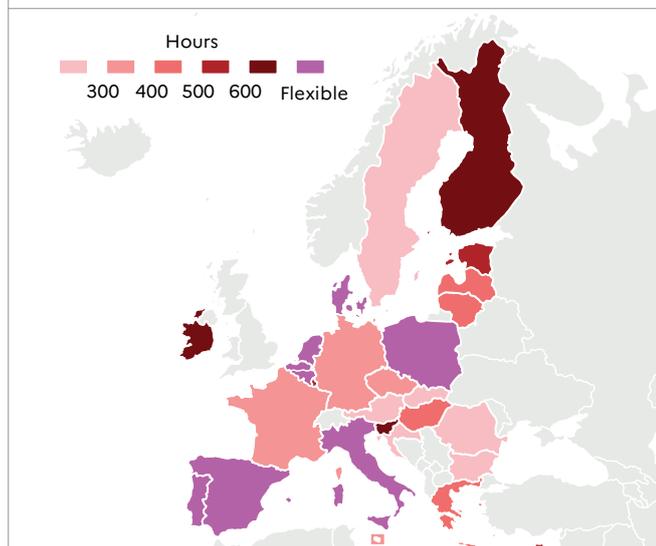
↳ Eurydice, Recommended annual instruction time in full-time compulsory education in Europe 2020/2021, 2021.



Note: countries where the organisation of instruction time is characterised by horizontal flexibility and/or countries where some subjects are included in another subject have been excluded from the figure, which explains the absence of a European average.

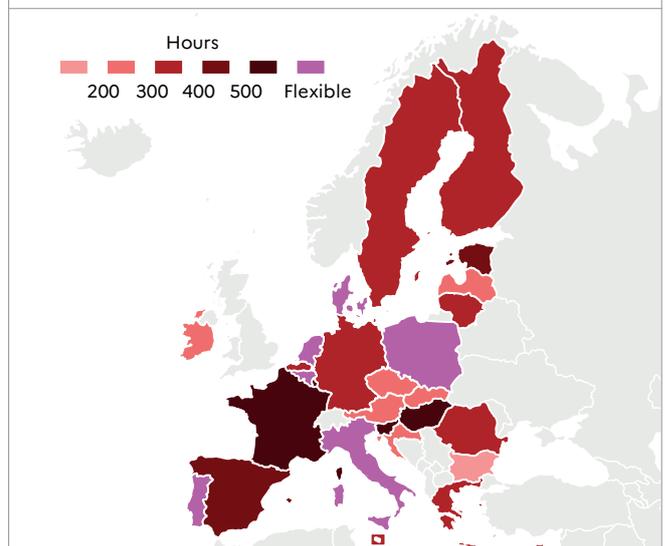
### 1.4.3 Total instruction time allocated to arts education in ISCED 1, 2020-2021

↳ Eurydice, Recommended annual instruction time in full-time compulsory education in Europe 2020/2021.



### 1.4.4 Total instruction time allocated to physical education and health in ISCED 1, 2020-2021

↳ Eurydice, Recommended annual instruction time in full-time compulsory education in Europe 2020/2021.



# 1.5 UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

## THERE ARE AS MANY STUDENTS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AS IN GENERAL EDUCATION

In 2019-2020, in the European Union (EU-27), 49% of pupils in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) are studying in vocational education (ISCED 35) and 51% in general education, which includes technological education in France (ISCED 34): **1.5.1**. Germany, Italy and Hungary, for example, have a balanced distribution between streams. In Austria, Finland and the Netherlands, the vocational stream is more significant (more than 60% of ISCED 3 pupils are enrolled), while it is smaller in France, Spain and Portugal (less than 40% of ISCED 3 pupils).

Upper secondary vocational education is offered either in school only or in the form of **combined school- and work-based programmes**<sup>1</sup>. In 2017-2018, several countries (Hungary, the Netherlands or Latvia) have only combined programmes (apprenticeship): 100% of students in vocational education are enrolled in this type of programme (**1.5.2**). In contrast, in other countries, the majority of ISCED 35 students are enrolled in school-based programmes only, and only a minority are enrolled in apprenticeship-type programmes: 25% in France, 14% in Finland, Portugal and Poland, and only 3% in Spain.

## WRITING SKILLS SEEM POORER IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In **PISA 2018**<sup>2</sup>, in 17 of the 18 EU countries with available data, 15-year-old students in vocational education do not perform as well in reading literacy as those enrolled in general education. The differences in favour of pupils in general education range from 16 points in the Czech Republic to 130 points in the Netherlands, 110 points in France and 68 points in Germany (**1.5.3**). Only in Luxembourg is there a statistically significant difference in scores in favour of pupils in vocational education, although this difference is very small (7 points). However, it is necessary to qualify these results. In some countries, the representativeness of vocational education is low at age 15: this is the case in Germany and Lithuania (where only 2% of the students surveyed were in vocational education in 2018), as well as in Slovakia (5%). Moreover, PISA assesses students at the age of 15: these results are therefore difficult to attribute to the education received in upper secondary education. Rather, they indicate a different orientation according to educational outcomes in general or vocational upper secondary education.

<sup>1</sup> See Annexes.

## MARKET ENTRY IS GENERALLY GOOD AFTER UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In upper secondary vocational education, there is both a concentration of graduates in certain fields of study and an over-representation of one or the other gender depending on the field, a finding similar to that already made for tertiary education (see 6.2). Indeed, in the EU-27 countries, on average, in the year 2020, 32% of ISCED 35 graduates come from the field of "engineering, processing and construction" (36% in France, 35% in Germany), and 19% have a degree in "business, administration and law" (22% in France, 31% in Germany): **1.5.4**. With regard to gender, there is a ratio of one boy to five girls in the European average in the field of "health and welfare" (1 to 6 in Finland) and of one girl to five boys in "engineering" (1 for 8 in France and Germany).

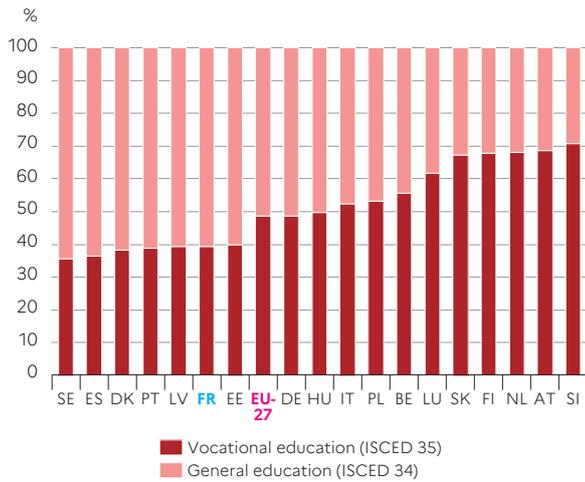
Finally, in 2021, the employment rate of recent ISCED 35 and 45 (post-secondary non-tertiary education) graduates aged 20-34 is 76% in the EU-27 countries on average, while that of all young people aged 20-34 is 79% (**1.5.5**). The employment rate for all young people aged 20-34 includes those with no qualifications, as well as those with tertiary qualifications: for the latter sub-group, it exceeds 80% in 24 EU countries (according to Eurostat). Upper secondary vocational education thus offers relatively high employment rates for its graduates. This is particularly the case with Germany and the Netherlands, where ISCED 35 results in an employment rate of over 90%. Spain, France and Portugal have lower employment rates after ISCED 35 than young people aged 20-34 as a whole, but this can be explained in part by the very high proportion of individuals with tertiary education in these countries (cf. 5.2), which pulls up the rate for young people as a whole.

Finally, the advantage of apprenticeship (combination of study and employment) on the labour market is harder to provide a definite evidence for. According to a European study, in ISCED 35 and 45, apprenticeship leads to better employment rates than schooling (38 and 36 percentage points difference in Italy and Spain)<sup>1</sup>, especially in countries where the employment rates of 20-34 year-olds after ISCED 35 and 45 are lower than elsewhere (cf. 1.5.5). However, the survey does not find any net benefit to apprenticeship in terms of the length of contract obtained by graduates. Finally, these findings do not take into account the fact that the profiles of students who follow vocational education through schooling or apprenticeship can be quite different. ■

<sup>1</sup> Cedefop, 2021, *The role of work-based learning in VET and tertiary education: evidence from the 2016 EU labour force survey*, Research paper No. 80 [ad hoc data from the **EU-LFS**]<sup>12</sup>.

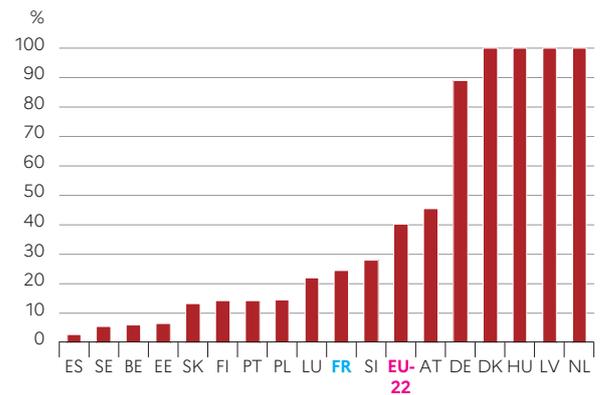
### 1.5.1 Distribution of ISCED 3 students by programme orientation, 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, educ\_uae\_enra16.



### 1.5.2 Proportion of students enrolled in combined school- and work-based programmes among the students in upper secondary vocational education, 2017-2018

↳ OECD, Education at a glance 2020, table B7.1.

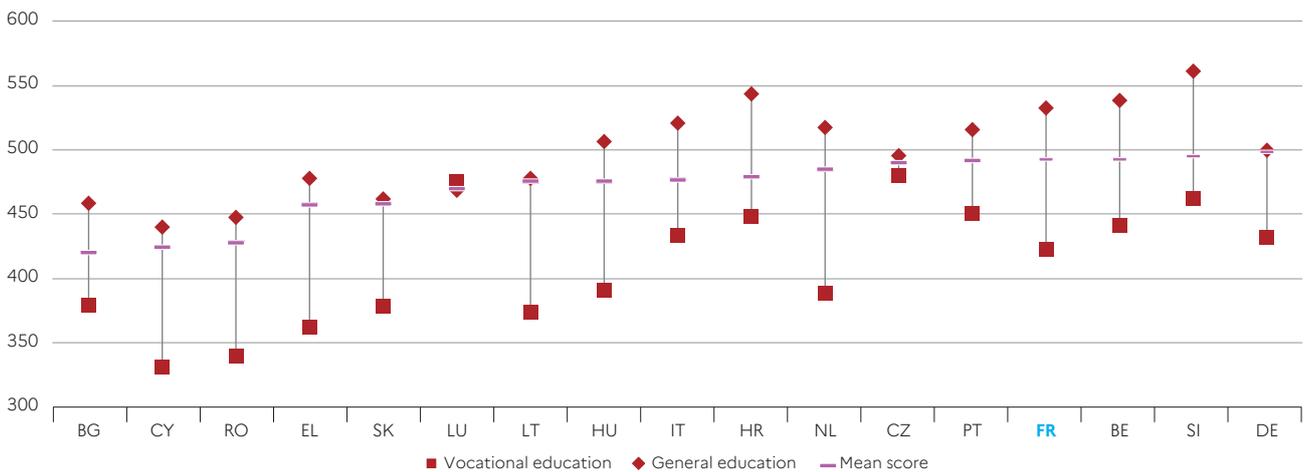


Note: programmes combined school- and work-based programmes have less than 75% but more than 10% of the curriculum presented in the school environment (apprenticeship or sandwich programmes).

### 1.5.3 Mean score in Reading by programme orientation in PISA 2018

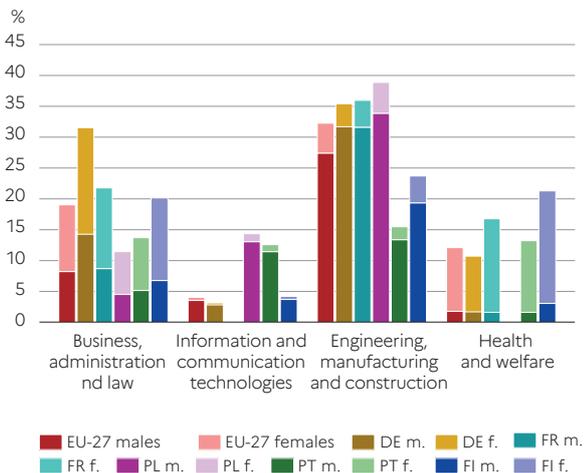
↳ OECD, PISA 2018, table II.B1.4.5.

#### Mean score



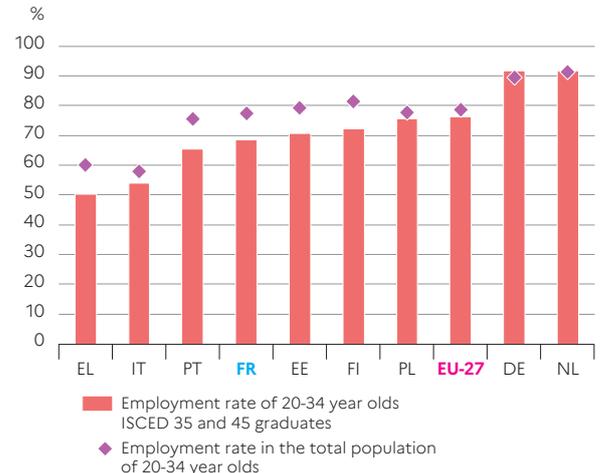
### 1.5.4 Distribution of upper secondary vocational education graduates by gender and field of study during the 2020 academic year

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, educ\_uae\_grad02.



### 1.5.5 Employment rate of recent graduates of upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary vocational education, 2021

↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, edat\_lfse\_24.





# CHAPTER 2

## STUDENTS

**The demographic context**

**Youth participation in school and higher education**

**Mobility of young Europeans in higher education**

**Early childhood education and care**

## 2.1 THE DEMOGRAPHIC CONTEXT

### AN AGEING POPULATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

On January 2021, the EU-27 will have a population of 447 million, of which 115 million will be young people aged between 0 and 24 years: this group will therefore represent 26% of the total population of the EU-27 (2.1.1). Ten years earlier, in 2011, 119 million people belonged to this age group, which constituted 27% of the total population. The EU is therefore facing demographic ageing with a median age now set at 44.1 years, up from 41.6 years in 2011 (according to Eurostat). Ireland and France are the only countries in the EU-27 in 2021 where the share of young people aged 0-24 in the total population reaches or exceeds 30%. At the other end of the spectrum, in 11 countries (including Germany, Spain, Greece and Italy), the share is below 25%. Only Belgium, France, Ireland and Sweden have a population of young people aged 0-17 that represents 20% or more of the total population. This share varies from 16% in Italy and Malta to 25% in Ireland. The share of 18-24 year olds is less variable across the EU-27: it ranges from a minimum of 6% in Bulgaria to 9% in Cyprus.

### A RELATIVELY LOW FERTILITY RATE IN EUROPE

**Life expectancy at birth**<sup>□</sup> has increased since 2011 (80.1 years) until reaching a peak in 2019 (81.3 years). Since then, it has decreased during the two years of the health crisis to return, in 2021, to the value observed ten years ago (80.1 years). Fertility, as measured by the **total fertility rate**<sup>□</sup>, was 1.54 children per woman in 2011 and has since fallen to an EU-27 average of 1.50 in 2020. This is therefore below the **generation replacement threshold**<sup>□</sup>, the threshold at which there is a replacement of generations of childbearing age by the newborn generations (2.05 children per woman in 2020). The combination of life expectancy and fertility explains the ageing of the population mentioned above. However, fertility rates vary considerably from country to country: in 2020 France is the only country with a total fertility rate above 1.80 children per woman, while this rate is below 1.20 in Spain and Malta (2.1.2).

Furthermore, European countries are characterised by the unequal scale of **natural variations** and **migratory balances** (2.1.3). In some countries migratory flows (intra- and extra-European) have a decisive influence on demographic dynamics. For example, in Croatia, in Lithuania and in Romania, the demographic decline between 2015 and 2020 is mainly due to significant emigration flows, while in Austria, Luxembourg, Malta and Sweden, a significant proportion of demographic growth is explained by positive net migration.

France and Ireland are the only countries where net growth is mainly attributable to the natural variation. Germany, Spain and Estonia are in the same situation as the average of the 27 EU countries, where only positive net migration makes it possible to maintain population growth.

### A TWO-SPEED DEMOGRAPHIC PROGRESSION IN EUROPE IN THE LONG TERM

By 2040, the total population of the EU-27 is expected to stagnate and that of young people aged 0-24 to decrease by 8%, confirming the continuation of the general ageing of the population (2.1.4). The median age is estimated to be 47 in 2040, three years older than in 2020.

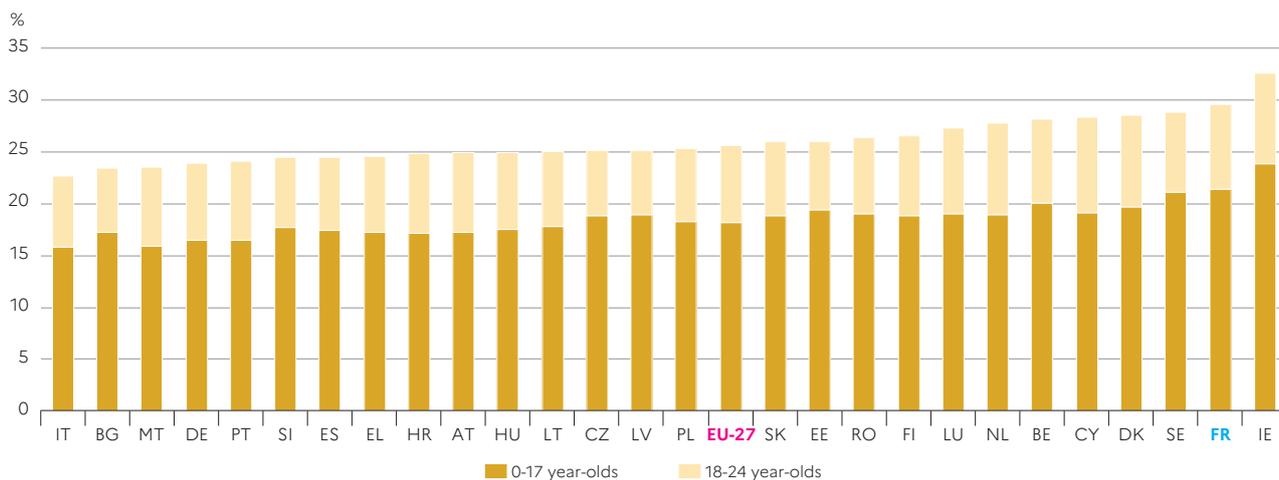
Four examples illustrate future situations and their influence on education systems. The German case represents the most "positive" situation: already the most populous nation in Europe, Germany will see its total population stagnate by 2040, but its young population will increase (+2%). It goes without saying that the provision of new (or adaptation of old) infrastructure as well as the recruitment of teachers to absorb these new pupils in the German education system will be an important challenge. In Ireland, the total population will grow faster than the young population (+19% as opposed to +1%): there is therefore both population growth and ageing in Ireland, unlike in Germany.

France, for its part, should see a growth in its total population (+4%) and a fall in its young population (-6%). France will therefore face an accelerated ageing process: if school infrastructures have fewer children to accommodate, the question of the age of teachers and their renewal in the event of significant retirements will eventually arise. On the labour market, this situation is the most precarious, given the pay-as-you-go pension system. Finally, Portugal will face a significant decrease in its total population (-5%), but above all an even greater decrease in its young population (-13%). In this case, the education system or the pension system will not especially need to be adjusted, but on the labour market, a labour shortage and a slowdown in economic activity are to be feared. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

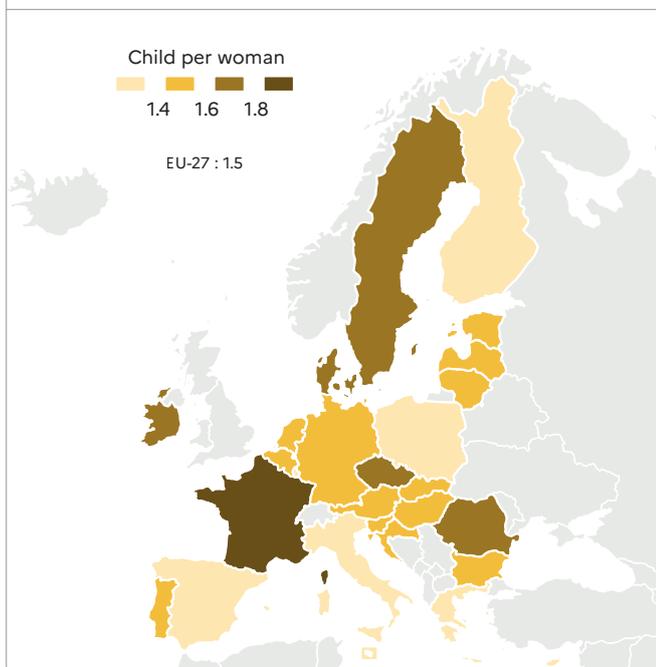
### 2.1.1 Proportion of 0-17 year olds and 18-24 year olds in the total population, 2021

Source: Eurostat, *demo\_pjan*.



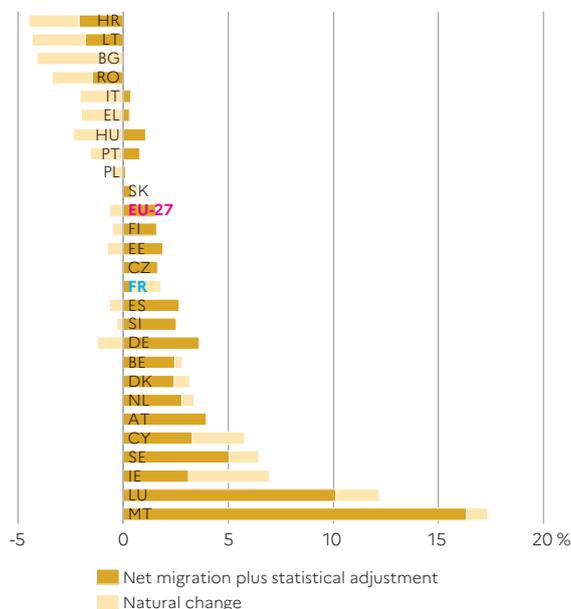
### 2.1.2 Total fertility rate, 2020

Source: Eurostat, *demo\_find*.



### 2.1.3 Natural population change and net migration between 2015 and 2020

Source: Eurostat, *demo\_gind*.



### 2.1.4 Change in the population of 0-24 year olds and in the total population, according to reference projections between 2020 and 2040

Source: Eurostat, *proj\_19np*.



## YOUTH PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL AND HIGHER EDUCATION

### A VARIABLE WEIGHT OF THE SCHOOL DEMOGRAPHY

In France, the proportion of young people in the population is falling, as in other countries (see 2.1.). However, the share of pupils from pre-school to upper secondary education in the total national population remains, in 2019-2020, among the highest in Europe: 19.2% in France compared with an average of 16.9% in European countries, 16.4% in Spain, 14.9% in Germany and 14.8% in Italy (2.2.1). Only five northern European countries, including Denmark (19.9%) and Sweden (22.4%), have a higher proportion of pupils than France.

Whatever the level of education, France is above the European average and above a very large proportion of countries, especially for pupils in primary and lower secondary education. In 2019-2020, these are 6.4% and 5.1% of the population in France, compared with an average of 5.2% and 4.2% in European countries, and 4.6% and 3% in Italy (in Germany, primary education pupils are 3.6% of the population but those in lower secondary education 5.4%). These results are partly due to the fact that education levels vary in length between countries: primary school lasts four years in Germany and five years in France (see 1.2).

Finally, these data force us to put the observation on education expenditure into perspective. Although annual expenditure per pupil in primary education is lower in France than in other countries on average and in Germany, for example (cf. 1.3), the demographic weight of pupils in this level of education, which is greater in France, helps to explain why total government expenditure on education for primary education according to Eurostat was 28.6 billion euros in France in 2019 and only 23.5 billion in Germany.

### A LARGE PROPORTION OF 15-19 YEAR OLDS ARE IN EDUCATION AND/OR EMPLOYMENT

In 2021, in the 22 European Union countries that are members of the OECD (EU-22), 91% of young people aged 15-19 are enrolled in school or higher education, according to EU-LFS<sup>□</sup> (Annual European Labour Force Surveys) (2.2.2). This indicator does not specify whether young people are graduates or not.

Of these, 81% are only in education (83% in France) and 10% in "education and employment" (8% in France), i.e. apprentices or student workers. Some young people are only in employment: 4% on average in the EU-22, 1% in Greece and Latvia, 3% in France, but 11% in Sweden and 13% in the Netherlands. Finally, 6% of young people in the EU-22 are neither in education nor in employment, making them a particularly precarious population. The proportion is higher in France (7%) than in Portugal (4%), but even higher in Italy (13%) or Sweden (14%).

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

### UNEVEN PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Not everywhere do young adults enter higher education directly after finishing secondary education. Civic and military service, long internships or gap years, either before or during higher education, are common in the European Union.

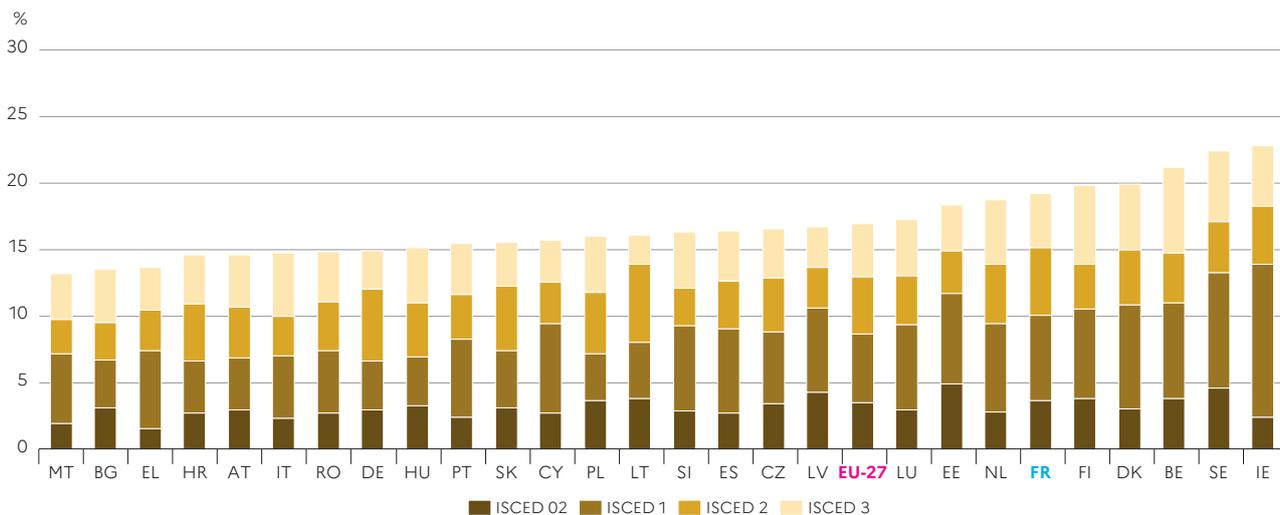
As a result, in 2019-2020, the average participation rate of 20-24 year-olds in higher education in the EU-27 countries is 35.2%, with national rates ranging from 9 % in Luxembourg to 45% in Greece (2.2.3). The low rate in Luxembourg is partly due to the fact that a large proportion of Luxembourg students (almost 70%) enrol in foreign higher education systems but continue to be counted among the residents of this age group, which mechanically reduces the participation rate for this country. In the EU-27, 22 countries, including Germany, France and Italy, have participation rates of 30% or more, while two countries (Luxembourg and Malta) have rates below 25%.

For the 30-34 age group, the average participation rate in the EU-27 is 5%, with national rates ranging from 2% or less in four countries (France, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Slovenia) to 10% in Finland and 12% in Greece. Less than half of the EU countries have a participation rate of 5% or more in this age group (2.2.4).

Does high participation in higher education in one age group always lead to high graduation rates in a higher age group? In Sweden in 2019-2020, the participation rate of 20-24 year olds in higher education is 28%, while 49% of 25-34 year olds are tertiary graduates (see 5.2). The reverse is true in the Czech Republic, which has a high participation rate (37% among 20-24 year-olds) and a population aged 25-34 with fewer qualifications than the EU-27 average (35% with tertiary education in 2021, compared with 41% for the EU-27). Various hypotheses may explain this discrepancy: a recent increase in participation in higher education which has not yet been reflected in the number of graduates in the 25-34 age group, or a large proportion of students enrolled in a higher education programme but who do not graduate (as in the case of Slovenia and Sweden). Differences in the length of courses can also partly explain this situation. Finally, some countries take in more higher education graduates than they train themselves (*brain gain*) and some young higher education graduates leave to work abroad before they are 25 to 34 years old (*brain drain*). ■

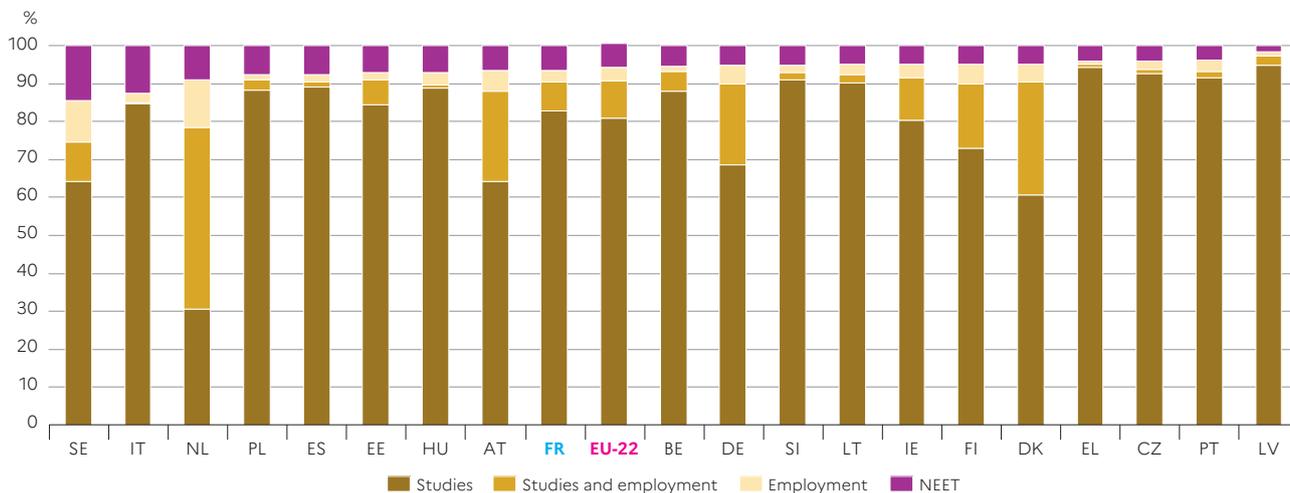
### 2.2.1 Students by education level, as a proportion of the total population of each country, 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, *educ\_uae\_enra04*.



### 2.2.2 Distribution of 15-19 year olds by education or labour status, 2021

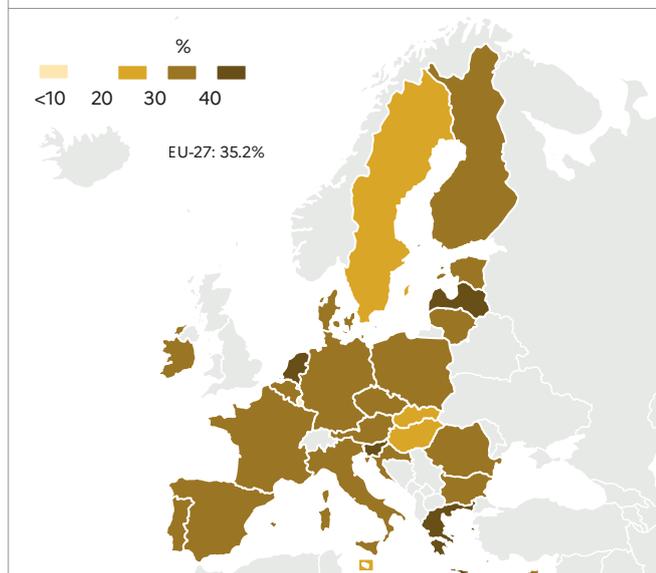
↳ OECD, labour force survey EU-LFS, *stat.oecd*.



Note : les données du Luxembourg et de la Slovaquie ne sont pas disponibles.

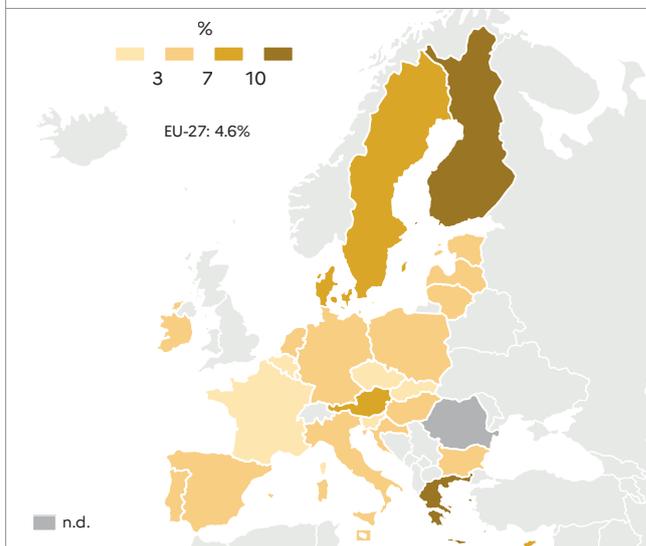
### 2.2.3 Participation rates of 20-24 year olds' in higher education, 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, *educ\_uae\_enrt08*.



### 2.2.4 Participation rates of 30-34 year olds' in higher education, 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, *educ\_uae\_enrt07*.



Note: Data for Romania are not available.

## 2.3 MOBILITY OF YOUNG EUROPEANS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

### NEARLY 750,000 YOUNG EUROPEANS ARE IN INTERNATIONAL DEGREE MOBILITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In 2019-2020, according to Unesco indicators from the annual **UOE**<sup>□</sup> data collection, nearly 750,000 young Europeans are following a higher education programme in a “host country”, whether or not part of Europe, with the aim of obtaining a degree: these young people are thus in *outgoing international student mobility*<sup>□</sup> known as “degree mobility”. Within the European Union of 27 (EU-27), these populations vary significantly: the country that sends the fewest students abroad is Malta (1,210) and the one that sends the most is Germany (123,510): **2.3.1**. In France, the number of young people in outgoing international mobility is significant (108,650). The country is the second largest “exporter” in the EU and the number of young people involved has increased by 19% since 2016-2017, while it has remained stable in Germany.

While the number of students going abroad is, to some extent, correlated with the size of the national population and in particular the youth population, some countries are exceptions to the rule. For example, in Sweden, there are more than 10 million inhabitants in total, of which nearly 30% are under 24 years old (a case similar to that of France, cf. 2.1), but the country only sends 15,180 young people on a degree mobility. Conversely, in Bulgaria, only 23% of the 6,951,480 inhabitants are under 24, but no less than 25,190 young people go abroad to study for a degree, and this without any financial support for mobility (grants or state loans), unlike many European countries, according to **Eurydice**<sup>□</sup>. Most students go to destinations that are culturally or linguistically close to their “country of origin” (international mobility): for example, according to UNESCO, Canada, Switzerland and Belgium will each attract more than 10,000 French students in 2019-2020, while Austria will host more than 30,000 German students.

### A CONCENTRATION OF MOBILE STUDENTS AT THE HIGHEST LEVELS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In 2019-2020, on average in the 22 EU countries that are members of the OECD (EU-22), 8% of all students are enrolled in the various EU countries with the aim of obtaining a degree and come from another country (including outside the EU): they are therefore said to be in *incoming international student mobility*. These are most numerous everywhere at the highest levels of education, i.e. on average EU-22: 6% at Bachelor's level, 13% at Master's level and 24% at doctoral level (**2.3.2**). In ISCED level 6 programmes (Bachelor's degree), the proportions of mobile students vary from 2% in Spain and Italy to 19% in Austria (7% in France). At ISCED level 7 (masters), their share is lowest in Greece (1%) and highest in Latvia (27%). It is 13% in France. Finally, at ISCED 8 (Doctorate), the proportions vary from 2% in Greece to 48% in the Netherlands (38% in France).

In the case of exchange programmes such as Erasmus+, students are usually exempt from paying tuition fees in the host country. However, for non-exchange degree programmes, attractive tuition fees may influence the choice of destinations. In Spain, Estonia or Italy, in public or private institutions under contract, national students and mobile students are not treated differently as regards tuition fees. This is also the case in France for students from the European Economic Area, for whom tuition fees are, moreover, significantly lower than in the other three countries.

### SOME SPECIFIC HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES MAKE COUNTRIES ATTRACTIVE TO MOBILE STUDENTS

In 2019-2020, EU countries seem to be differently attractive for mobile students according to the fields of study (**2.3.3**). In France, for example, the field of “commerce, administration and law” attracts 29% of the country's internationally mobile students; the fields of natural sciences, information and communication technologies (ICT) and engineering (STEM) account for a further 35%. France thus concentrates almost two thirds of its international students in two main fields of study. In Romania and Belgium, mobile students are mainly found in “health and social welfare” (respectively 44% and 32% of mobile students in these countries), while they are concentrated in social sciences in Poland (15%) and in STEM in Germany (49%).

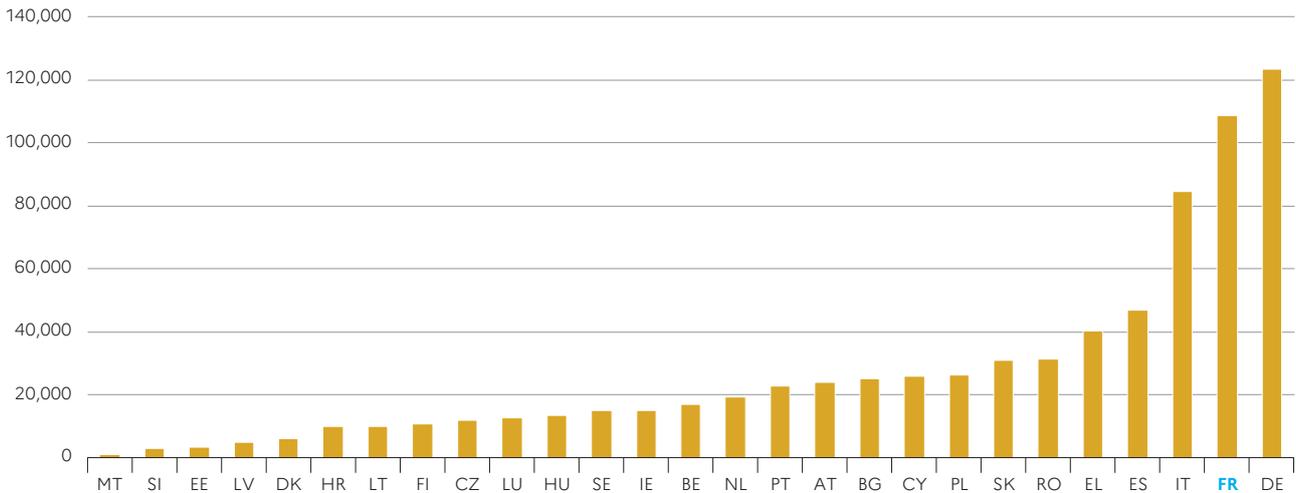
The concentration of mobile students in certain disciplines may have different rationales. In Belgium, for example, the apparent attractiveness of medical studies was until recently explained by French students wishing to study there in order to escape the *numerus clausus* in force for medical studies in France. From 2017 onwards, in response to this influx of students, the French Community of Belgium introduced an entrance and access examination as well as quotas for students with “non-resident” status in these fields. Between 2016-2017 and 2019-2020, the proportion of mobile students in this field in Belgium has already fallen from 36% to 32%. Combined with the disappearance of the *numerus clausus* in France, this concentration of mobile students should decrease further in the future. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

### 2.3.1 Students enrolled in a higher education programme abroad by country of origin, 2019-2020

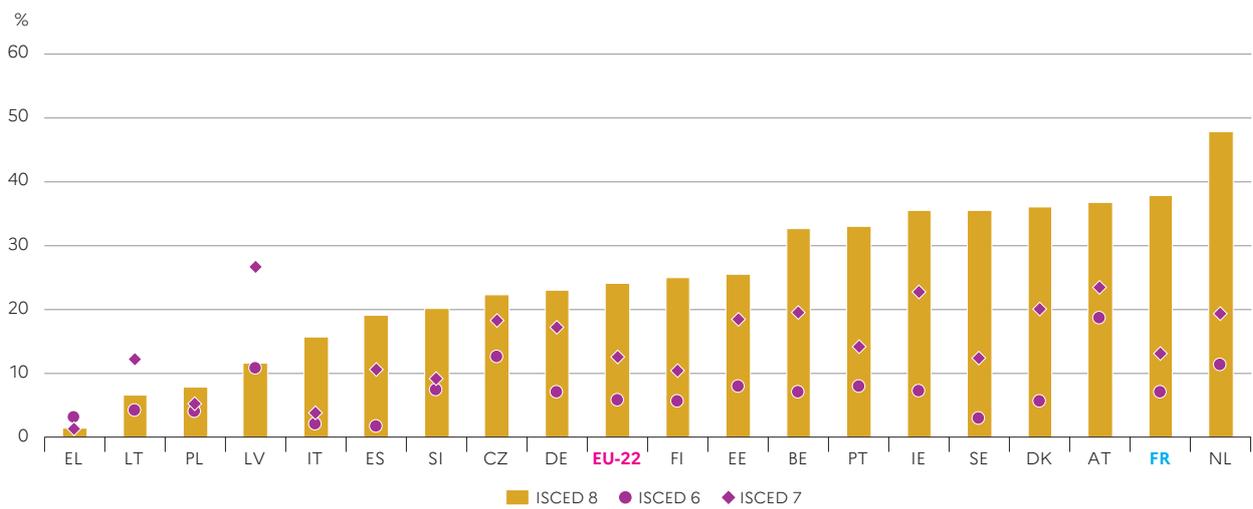
UNESCO, UOE data collection, data.uis.unesco.org.

#### Students



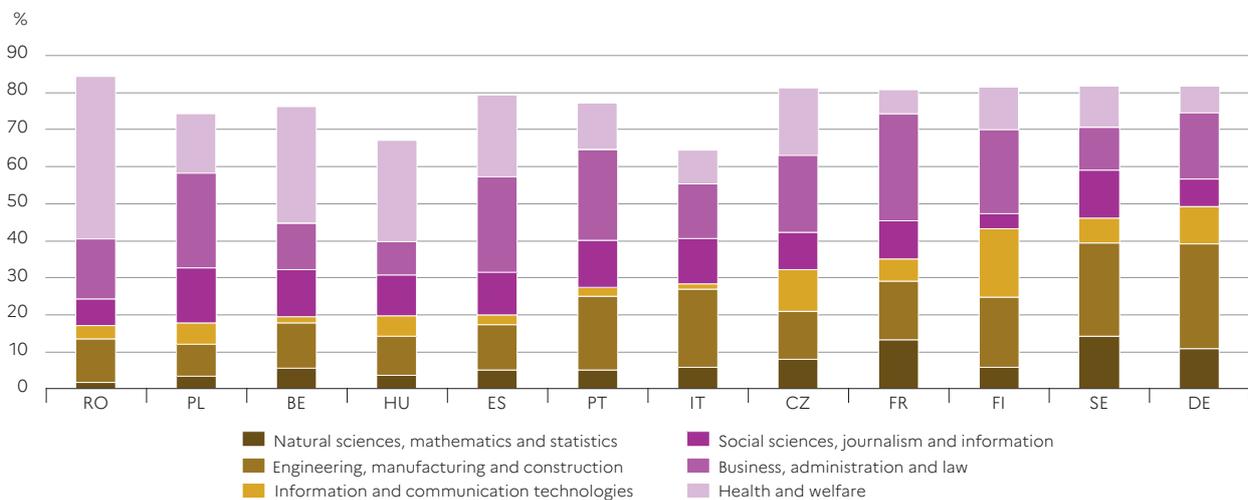
### 2.3.2 Share of internationally mobile students enrolled in higher education programmes in Europe by ISCED level, 2019-2020

OECD, UOE data collection, Education at a glance 2022, table B6.1.



### 2.3.3 Distribution of internationally mobile students enrolled in higher education by field of study, 2019-2020

OECD, UOE data collection, Education at a glance 2022, table B6.1.



Note: countries are ranked in ascending order of the cumulative proportions of students in natural sciences, ICT and engineering, which are grouped under the STEM acronym.

## 2.4 EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND CARE

### TWO TYPES OF NATIONAL CHILDCARE FACILITIES

**Early childhood education and care (ECEC<sup>4</sup>)** covers a variety of arrangements. Only formal care services, whether educational (ISCED 0) or not (non-ISCED), are covered here. In Europe, in 2018-2019, only six countries guarantee every child a place in a formal facility by law directly after postnatal leave (Germany, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Slovenia, and Sweden). Elsewhere, the childcare gap between the end of postnatal leave and the universal access to ECEC guaranteed by law is at least one year.

Two main models for the organisation of ECEC can be distinguished (2.4.1). In the so-called integrated model, a single care structure precedes primary education. It is characterised by the same facility for children of all age groups, the same level of staff qualification and the same source of funding. In general, these centres cater for children from under one to six or seven years of age. The Nordic countries and the Baltic countries (Latvia and Lithuania), but also Croatia and Slovenia fall under this first model.

The split model is the most widespread in Europe. It involves two types of structure, usually successive, each under the responsibility of a different authority, depending on the age of the children. Those which cater for children from 0 to 3 or 4 years of age are usually under the responsibility of social affairs. Those which cater for children from 3 years of age (or sometimes as early as age 2 in France, and age 2 and a half in Belgium) to age 5 or 6 (or even age 7 in Poland) are under the responsibility of education.

Finally, Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, Denmark, Spain and Estonia have both models within them – integrated and split – and families can generally choose between them, depending on the local context (e.g. available places in Estonia).

### TWO EUROPEAN TARGETS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND CARE

In the field of early childhood education and care, the EU-27 has set two quantified targets. These include providing formal childcare (pre-school, nursery or other) for at least 33% of children under 3 years of age and ensuring the educational development or pre-school education of at least 96% of children between 3 years of age and the starting age of compulsory primary education. The first is known as the Barcelona target, while the second corresponds to one of the targets set by the European Union for 2030 and has been recently reassessed

(see 5.1). In 2020, only five countries, including France, had achieved both targets (2.4.2), while seven countries (including Ireland, Portugal, Sweden and Finland) had achieved only one of the two targets.

As regards children aged 3 and over (93% on average in the EU), France and Ireland are the only two countries to achieve universal schooling from the age of 3 (2.4.2). As for the target for children under 3 years of age, it shows greater differences between countries: while 68% of the relevant children are enrolled in Denmark and the Netherlands, only 5% are in Slovakia and the Czech Republic. The particularly long leaves for childbirth or education in some Eastern European countries may account for this low rate of early childcare: just over a year in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, and 2 years in Hungary.

### THREE LEVELS OF QUALIFICATION FOR ECEC STAFF IN COLLECTIVE SETTINGS

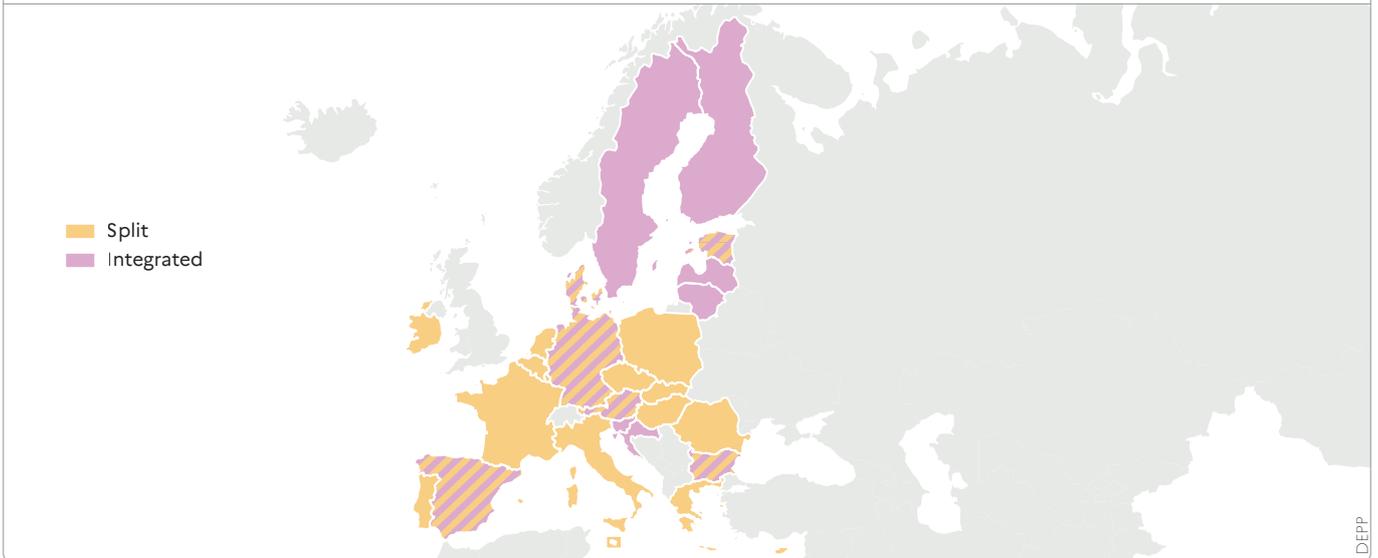
Figures 2.4.3 and 2.4.4 show the level of qualification required to work in ECEC center-based settings in 2018-2019. Of the 27 EU countries, only Denmark, Italy (only for children under 3 years of age) and Sweden have no regulations in this area. For children under 3, 14 EU countries require a minimum level of qualification ranging from upper secondary education (ISCED 3) to a short tertiary education (ISCED 3 to 5). Ten countries require a bachelor's level (ISCED 6) and one country, Portugal, requires a master's level (ISCED 7). In contrast, for children between the ages of 3 and the beginning of primary education, the most frequently required level is the bachelor's. While this is the case in 16 countries, seven countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, Romania and Slovakia) require ISCED level 3-5 and thus have the same level of requirement for all age groups. France, Italy and Portugal are the only countries that require a higher level (master's degree) for carers of children aged 3 or over. Finally, in the majority of countries with regulations, the level of qualification required is the same for all age groups. This is particularly the case in countries with an integrated system, with the exception of Poland. Conversely, seven countries, including France, require a higher level of training for carers of children aged 3 or over.

Several countries have recently undertaken reforms to improve the quality and governance of ECEC. In Italy, a comprehensive reform of early childhood services (0-6 years) has been implemented since 2019 (as a result of a 2017 decree), including the move to an integrated system (*poli per l'infanzia*) and the requirement of a higher education diploma in educational sciences for educational staff (teachers) in nursery services (0-3 years). ■

<sup>4</sup> See Annexes.

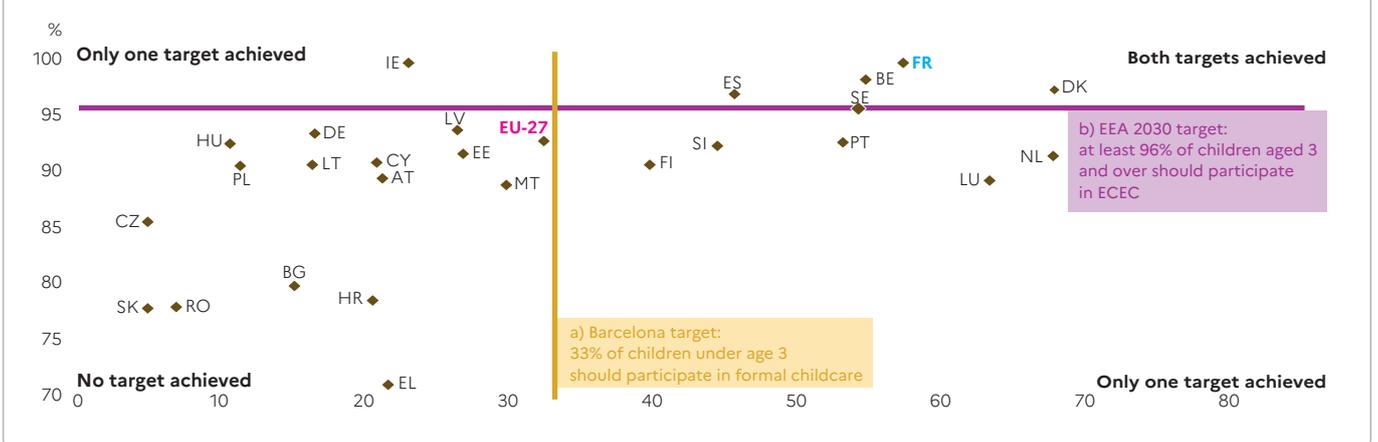
### 2.4.1 Early childhood education and care (ECEC) systems in Europe, ISCED 0 and outside ISCED

↳ Eurydice, *Key data on Early childhood education and care in Europe 2019*.



### 2.4.2 Participation rates in ECEC in Europe, 2020

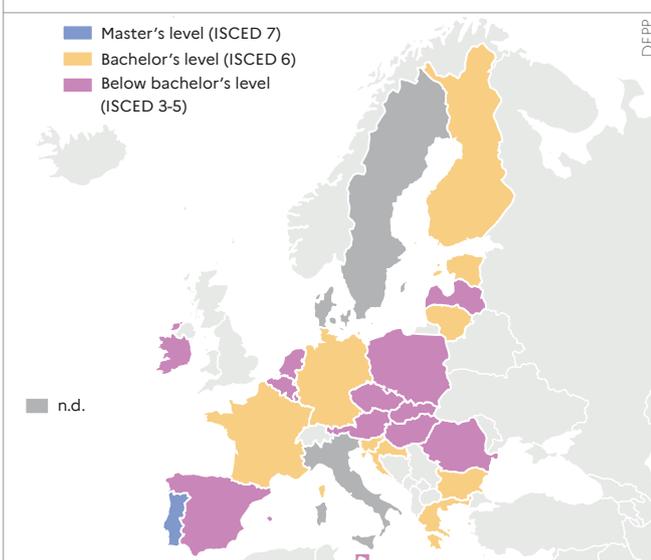
↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, ilc\_caindformal ; UOE data collection, educ\_uoe\_enra21.



Note: indicator a (Barcelona target) is currently being updated. Data not available for Italy.

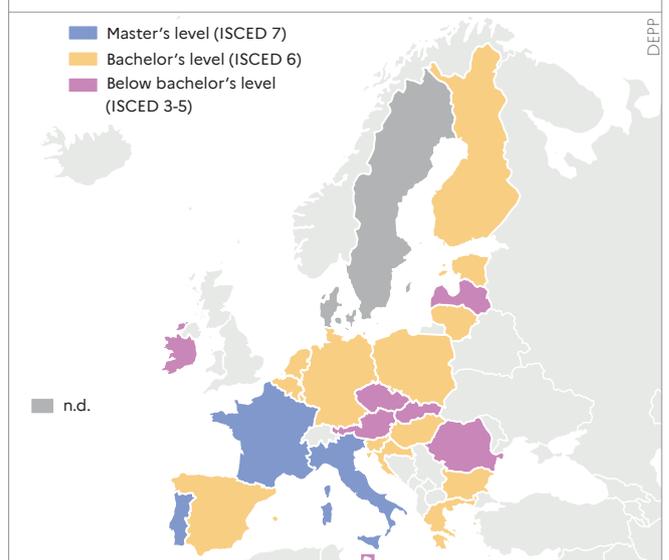
### 2.4.3 Minimum qualification level required for core practitioners working with children under age 3 (ISCED 0 and outside ISCED) in centre-based settings, 2018-2019

↳ Eurydice, *Key data on Early childhood education and care in Europe 2019*.



### 2.4.4 Minimum qualification level required for core practitioners working with children between age 3 and the starting age of compulsory education (ISCED 02) in centre-based settings, 2018-2019

↳ Eurydice, *Key data on Early childhood education and care in Europe 2019*.





# CHAPTER 3

## STUDENTS' PARENTS

**Students' family environment**

**Income and economic situation of families**

**Parents' involvement in their children's education**

## 3.1 STUDENTS' FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

### TWO THIRDS OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN ARE COMPOSED OF COUPLES

In 2021, 24% of households in the EU-27 have at least one **dependent child**<sup>■</sup> (3.1.1). This proportion varies from 34% in Ireland and Slovakia to 19% in Finland. The majority of households with dependent children are adult couples (16% of all EU-27 households, or two-thirds of households with dependent children). The share of adult couple households with children ranges by a factor of two, ranging from 11% in Bulgaria to 21% in Ireland.

In 2021, the share of single-parent households is 3% on average in the EU-27 and varies from 1% in Croatia, Greece and Slovenia to 7% in Estonia. According to Eurostat, the share of single-parent households has remained stable on average in the EU-27 over the past decade (3% in 2011), but has decreased by 3 percentage points in Denmark and Estonia. Conversely, in Finland, Latvia or Lithuania, single-parent households increased by one percentage point over the period. In Finland, however, single-parent rates were among the lowest in Europe in 2011 (1%). In France, this share stagnated at 5% between 2011 and 2021. In terms of sibling size, in 2021, 49% of European households with dependent children have one child and 39% have two dependent children.

### ACCESS TO HYGIENE IS NOT UNIVERSAL WITHIN THE HOMES OF EUROPEAN CHILDREN

There are a number of indicators that can be used to assess the living conditions of dependent children. The **rate of overcrowded households**<sup>■</sup> shows a clear difference between Western and Northern European countries on the one hand and Eastern European countries on the other (3.1.2). Indeed, with the exception of Austria, Sweden and especially Italy, there is no country in Western Europe where the overcrowding rate for households with dependent children exceeds 20% in 2020. In contrast, the rate is significantly higher in Eastern European countries, exceeding 50% in Bulgaria, Latvia and Romania. In France, the rate of overcrowding is about half that of the EU-27 average (14% versus 26%).

With regard to hygiene conditions in housing, a difference is also evident between Western and Northern Europe on the one hand, and Eastern Europe on the other (3.1.3).

In 2020, on average in the EU-27, about 2% of children aged 0-17 years have no access to a shower or bath in their home. Of the 27 countries, 17, including Germany, Spain, Finland, France and Italy, have a rate of less than 1%. Conversely, children face a severe lack of access to hygiene in Romania (26% of children), and slightly less in Bulgaria (10%), Latvia (6%) and Lithuania (5%). However, there is a clear trend towards improvement. The rates of households with dependent children without a shower or bath in these countries were much higher in 2010 than in 2020: Bulgaria and Latvia had 20% of children without access to sanitation in their homes, and Romania 44%.

### HALF OF THE PARENTS OF STUDENTS HAVE HIGHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS

In 2020, on average in the EU-27, 14% of children aged 0-17 have parents with low qualifications, and 47% have parents with higher education (3.1.4). Parental education is defined as the highest observed level of education of the father or mother.

In 14 EU-27 countries, including Belgium, Spain and France, a majority of children have parents with higher education. This proportion exceeds 60% in Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Lithuania and the Netherlands and reaches a maximum of 70% in Ireland. Spain, where 57% of children under 18 have parents with tertiary education, is doubly exceptional, as it also has a high proportion of children with lowly qualified parents (22%).

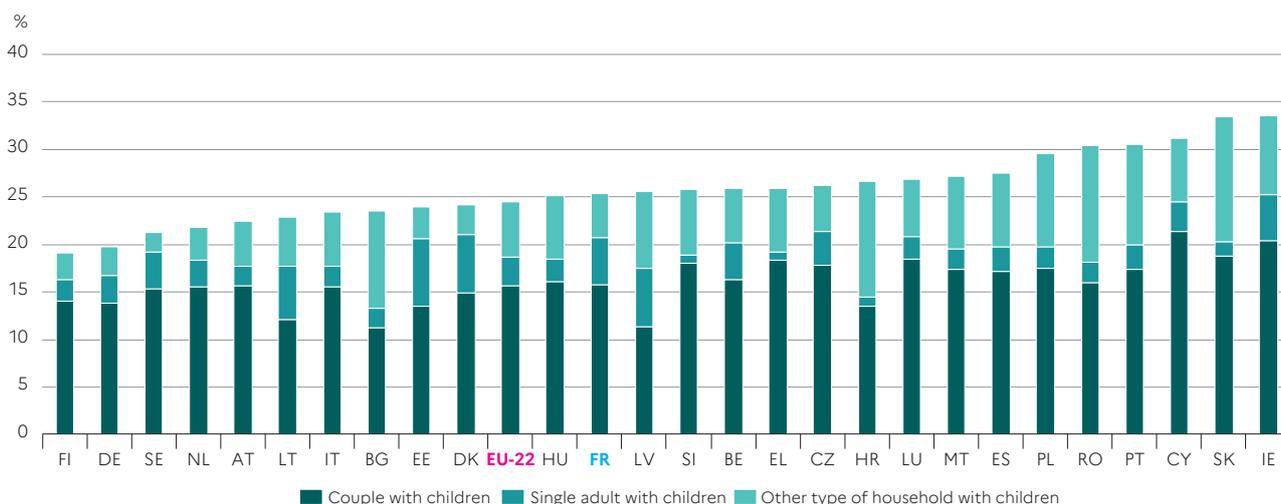
Croatia, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and Romania have low proportions of parents with low or no qualifications and equally low proportions of parents with tertiary education. Indeed, a majority of parents in these countries have upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary qualifications in 2020 (55% in the Czech Republic and Slovak Republic, 63% in Croatia).

Finally, Malta and Romania are the only countries where the proportions of children with parents with tertiary degree are very close to those with lowly qualified parents, or even lower in the case of Malta. ■

<sup>■</sup> See Annexes.

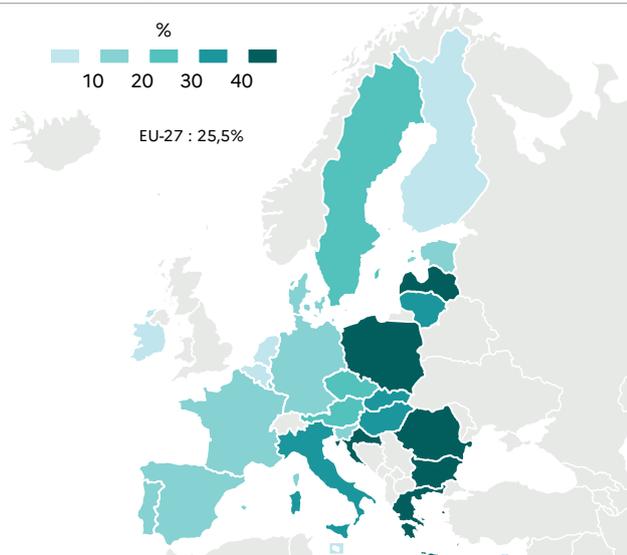
### 3.1.1 Distribution of households with dependent children by household type among all households, 2021

↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, *lfst\_hhhnhtych*.



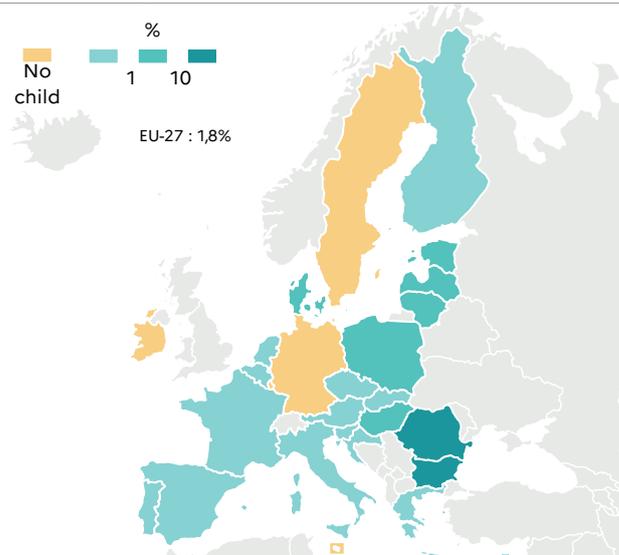
### 3.1.2 Overcrowding rate among households with dependent children, 2020

↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, *ilc\_lvho05b*.



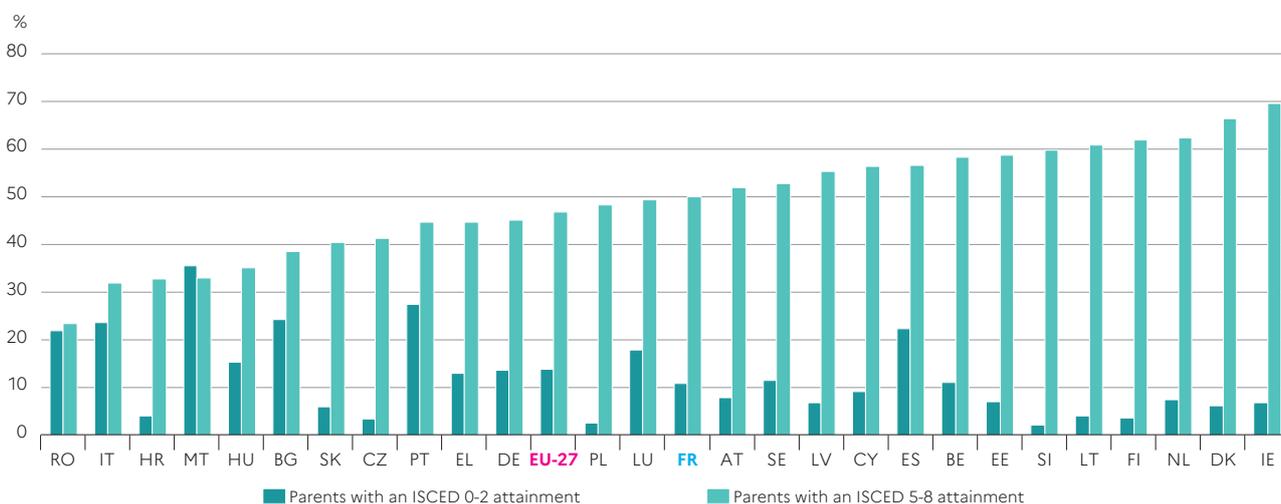
### 3.1.3 Proportion of 0-17 year olds having neither a bath nor a shower in their dwelling, 2020

↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, *ilc\_mdho02c*.



### 3.1.4 Distribution of 0-17 year old children by educational attainment level of their parents, 2020

↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, *ilc\_lvps25*.



## 3.2 INCOME AND ECONOMIC SITUATION OF FAMILIES

### FAMILY INCOME IS VERY LOW OVERALL IN EASTERN EUROPE

The annual **EU-SILC**<sup>□</sup> (*Statistics on Income and Living Conditions*) provides data on the disposable income of households in the European Union, i.e. the income that remains available to households after deduction of tax and social security contributions. This includes income from work and capital, inter-household transfers as well as social transfers (excluding imputed rents to homeowners). Median income is the value at which the population is split into two equal parts: those with incomes above the median and those with incomes below. ZOOM

In 2020, in the EU-27, the median **net disposable income**<sup>□</sup> of households with **dependent children**<sup>□</sup> is 17,100 in **purchasing power standards (PPS)**<sup>□</sup>, and varies greatly between countries: the highest incomes are found in Germany, Austria, the Benelux countries and Scandinavia, while the lowest incomes are found in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary and Romania (**3.2.1**). Within the group of countries with the highest incomes, Luxembourg stands out with a median income of households with dependent children (without their own home and without employment) of over 25,000 PPS. Romania, with 7,320 PPS in 2018, is the opposite of Luxembourg: its households with dependent children have an income that is one-third that of Luxembourg households.

Among the Western European countries, Portugal stands out as having the lowest income level, with a median income of 12,000 PPS. French households (18,500 PPS) have an income significantly above the EU-27 median.

### ONE IN TEN EUROPEAN CHILDREN LIVE IN A JOBLESS HOUSEHOLD

In 2021, many Western European Member States have high proportions of dependent children living in households where no one is in employment. These proportions are above 10% in four EU-27 countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, France, Italy and Romania), while they are below 6% in eight countries including Hungary, the Netherlands and the Czech Republic (**3.2.2**). However, an improvement can be observed in a large majority of European countries, insofar as in 2011 the proportion was above 10% in 10 countries and rose to 20% in Ireland. Finally, this indicator does not provide information on the quality of the jobs that household members may have (part-time rates, wage levels).

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

### A VERY HIGH RISK OF POVERTY AND EXCLUSION FOR LOW-SKILLED FAMILIES

The **risk of poverty and social exclusion**<sup>□</sup> ZOOM is a Eurostat summary measure of the number of people who are in at least one of the following situations: their income is below the poverty line set at 60% of the national median disposable income after social transfers; they are in a situation of severe material deprivation, which means that they have living conditions strongly affected by lack of resources (they meet at least 4 of the 9 criteria defined by Eurostat); they live in very low labour intensity households (less than 20% of potential working time).

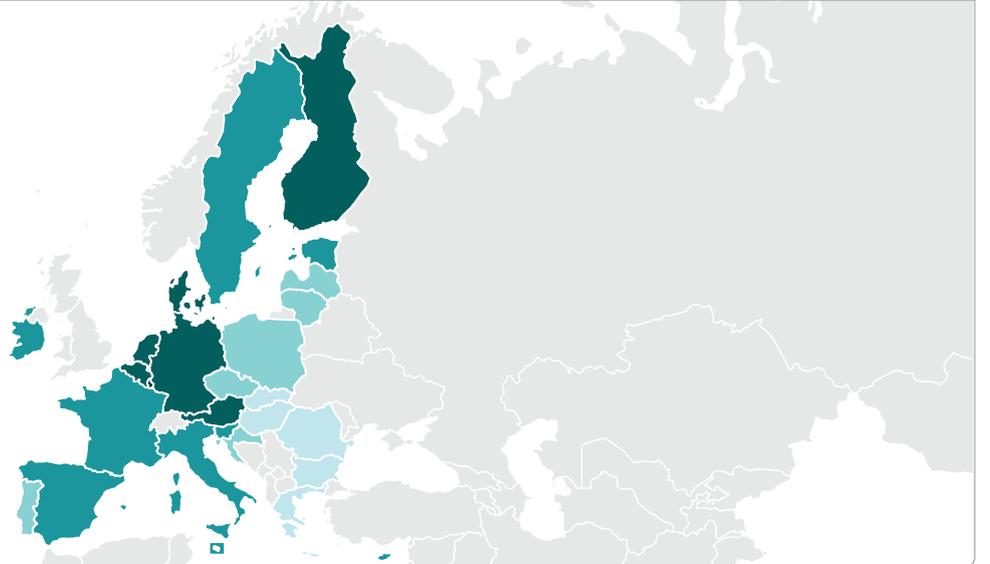
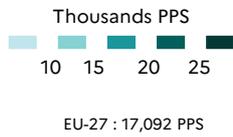
In 2020, the risk of poverty and social exclusion among the 0-17 year old population in the 27 EU countries is 23%. National rates range from 12% in Denmark and Slovenia to 36% in Romania. In 5 countries, including Spain (31%) and Italy (28%), the rate exceeds 25%. But the at-risk-of-poverty rate for young people aged 0-17 is systematically higher when parents have a lower level of education (**3.2.3**). Indeed, in the case of young people whose parents have reached ISCED level 0-2, many Eastern European countries but also Austria and Finland show a risk of poverty of over 70%, while five countries including Poland and Portugal show a risk of 50% or less. For this population, France has a contained proportion of 56%.

When looking at the profiles of households whose parents have ISCED 5-8 (highest qualification of father or mother), the at-risk-of-poverty and social exclusion rate decreases significantly: it is below 6% in five countries (Croatia, Denmark, Malta, Czech Republic and Romania) and above 10% in only eight countries (including Austria, Spain, Ireland, Luxembourg and Sweden). Finally, France has lower rates than the EU-27 average for each of the populations observed.

The Slovak Republic, Bulgaria and Romania are the countries where the risk of poverty and social exclusion varies the most according to the educational level of the parents: there is a gap of more than 70 percentage points between children of parents with a low educational level and those whose parents have a higher education. This gap is less than 40 percentage points in only three countries (Estonia, Poland and Portugal). ■

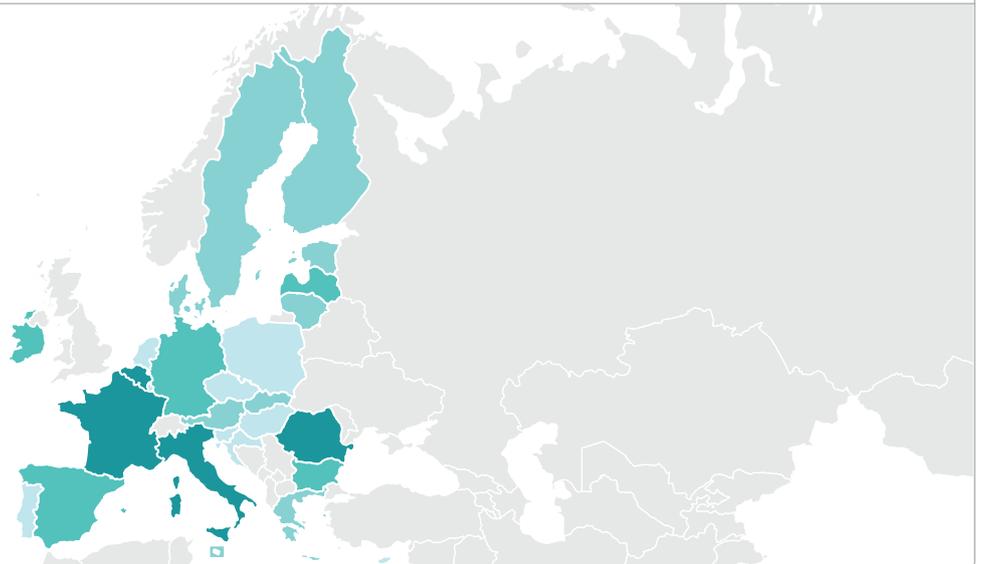
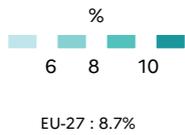
### 3.2.1 Median income of households with dependent children in PPS equivalents, 2020

↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, *ilc\_di04*.



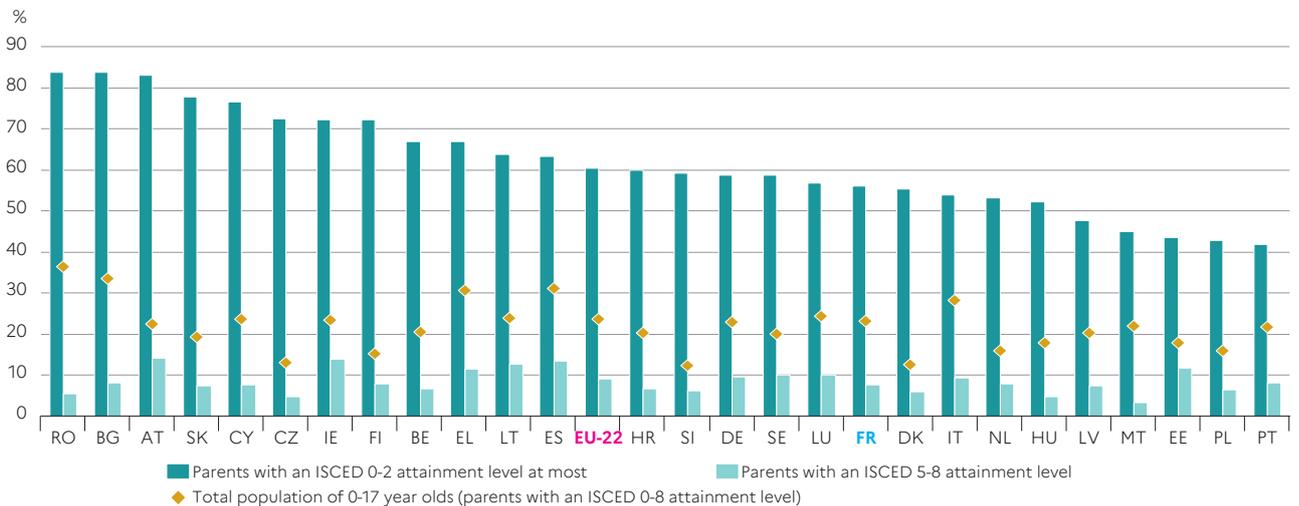
### 3.2.2 Proportion of 0-17 year old children living in a jobless household, 2021

↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, *lfsi\_jhh\_a*.



### 3.2.3 0-17 year olds at risk of poverty or social exclusion by educational attainment level of their parents and 0-17 year olds at risk of poverty or social exclusion, 2020

↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, *ilc\_peps01* et *ilc\_peps60*.



### RESULTS IN READING COMPREHENSION ARE BETTER FOR PUPILS WHO ARE SUPPORTED BY THEIR PARENTS

In OECD countries, a large majority of 15-year-old students assessed in **PISA 2018**<sup>1</sup> report that their parents provide them with support at school (**3.3.1**). In France and in several northern European countries including Denmark, Estonia, Finland or Sweden, more than 80% of students make this statement. In other countries, the proportions are lower: notably in Bulgaria (close to 60%), but also in Cyprus, Italy, the Slovak Republic and Germany (close to 70%).

Students' results in the PISA 2018 reading literacy test suggest the importance of parental support: students who report support have higher average scores than others in all countries (**3.3.2**). The situation in countries where the mean scores of pupils reporting the strongest support remain below the centre of the scale (500 points) is worrying, especially as there are also large score differences between these pupils and those reporting no support. The gap is relatively large in Portugal, Sweden, France and Italy, but the highly supported students are well above the centre of the scale in these countries except in Italy (501).

Measuring the relationship between parental involvement in education and PISA scores, however, is complex. Not only is it impossible to isolate the effect, if any, of parental support from that of any other activity that affects students' skills, but it is also not relevant, due to sample sizes, to observe the variation in scores as a function of both parental involvement and family background.

### PARENTAL INITIATIVE VIS-À-VIS THE SCHOOL IS DEPENDENT ON THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

The questionnaire administered to school heads in the PISA 2018 survey sheds light on certain parental involvement practices in schools. On average across OECD countries, school heads report that 58% of parents discuss their child's progress with a teacher at the teacher's initiative (56% for France). When discussions are initiated by parents, the proportion is 41% on average in the OECD and varies from 32% (Hungary, Ireland) to 64% (Greece) to 39% in France (**3.3.3**).

As for school management bodies (such as parent advisory committees and management committees), 17% of parents participate on average in OECD schools, according to the school heads surveyed in PISA 2018. In Europe, Ireland, Germany and France show relatively low participation (8% respectively), 10% and 11% of parents, in contrast to Italy or the Slovak Republic (34%).

<sup>1</sup> See Annexes.

While these proportions reflect in part the individual relationship that parents have with the school, they are highly dependent on various contextual elements, such as the arrangement of working hours to allow parents to visit the school, but also the culture of dialogue with families and the place reserved for them in school governance. In Italy, for example, parents are not only represented on the various school councils, as is the case elsewhere in Europe, but also participate in other bodies whose function is to decide on the allocation of performance bonuses or to evaluate trainee teachers. Consultation of parents in the evaluation of teachers is also practised in other European countries<sup>1</sup>. However, the PISA 2018 data indicate that the average participation in these countries is much lower than in Italy: this is the case, for example, in Finland (8%) and Sweden (10%).

### MANY NATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS IN EUROPE AIM TO IMPROVE THE EDUCATIONAL INVOLVEMENT OF PUPILS' PARENTS WITH AN IMMIGRANT BACKGROUND

Some categories of parents, culturally distant from school, lack the tools to support their children in their schooling and sometimes do not know the benefits of their potential involvement. Parents of pupils with a migrant background, especially those with low levels of education, may be in this situation. National regulations or recommendations to include these parents (sometimes through specific schemes) are present in many countries of the European Union, even if they are highly decentralised. Only Ireland, the French Community of Belgium, Poland, Hungary and Croatia did not introduce such regulations in 2017-2018, while the Netherlands relies on local initiatives (**3.3.4**).

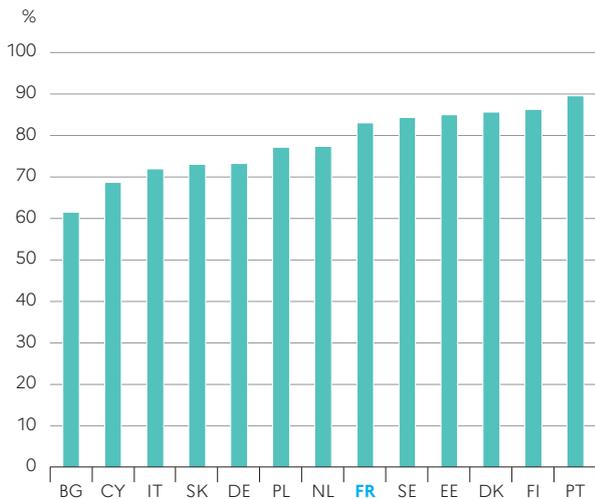
Some countries have developed a variety of strategies to help parents of pupils with a migrant background to become involved in education. Some of them propose letters of mutual commitment signed by schools and families, as in Spain and Belgium. In other countries, such as Portugal and the Czech Republic, schools are encouraged to invite all parents, including those of pupils with a migrant background, to take part in the school's governing bodies. Finally, in France, schemes such as "Opening up the school to parents for the success of their children" focus on ensuring that parents, especially those from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, are well informed about the workings of the school institution<sup>2</sup>. ■

<sup>1</sup> Eurydice, 2018, *Teaching careers in Europe*.

<sup>2</sup> Eurydice, 2019, *The integration of pupils with a migrant background in schools in Europe*.

### 3.3.1 Proportion of 15 year old students who agree or strongly agree with the statement "my parents support my educational efforts and achievements"

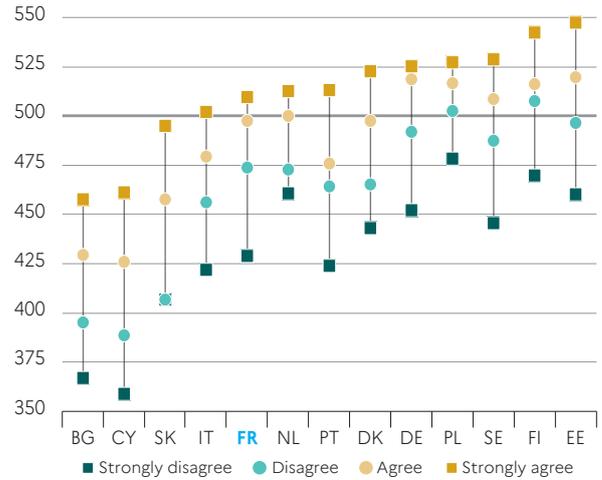
OCDE, PISA 2018, student questionnaire's extraction.



### 3.3.2 Students' average reading score according to their statements regarding their parents' support for their educational efforts and achievements

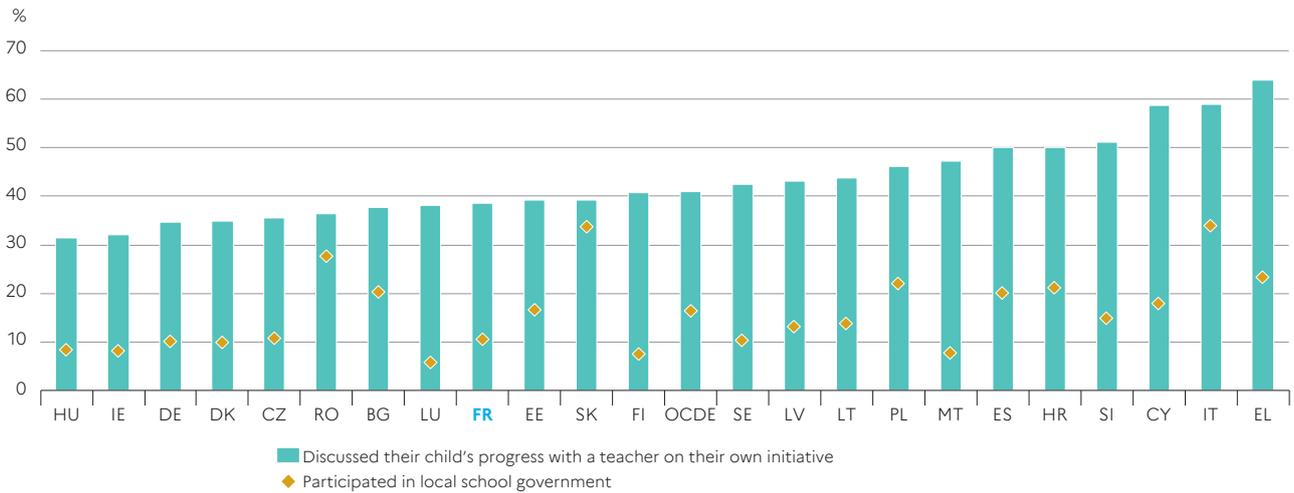
OCDE, PISA 2018, student questionnaire's extraction.

Average number of points



### 3.3.3 Percentage of students' parents who participated in school-related activities during the previous academic year, based on principals' reports

OCDE, PISA 2018, table III.B1.10.1.



### 3.3.4 Regulation/recommendation related to the involvement of migrant students' parents in schools from ISCED 1 to ISCED 3 (general and vocational education), 2017-2018

Eurydice, 2019, *Integrating students from migrant backgrounds into schools in Europe*, fig. 1.3.10.





# CHAPTER 4

## **FOCUS:** TEACHERS

**European teachers: an overview**

**Initial teacher education and entry into the profession**

**Teachers' continuous professional development**

**Working conditions of teachers**

**Statutory and actual salaries of teachers**

**Evolution of teachers' statutory salaries**

**Teachers' professional and pedagogical practices**

**International teacher mobility**

**Teachers' perception of the profession**

## 4.1 EUROPEAN TEACHERS: AN OVERVIEW

The **2018 TALIS** International Survey (*Teaching And Learning International Survey*) aims to collect declarative data on the teaching environment and working conditions of teachers in lower secondary schools (ISCED 2, i.e. collèges in France). The sample in each country consists of at least 4 000 teachers in 200 schools (public and private) and their school heads. The first round of the survey took place in 2008. In the third round, in 2018 (the second French participation and the last round published to date), 48 countries took part, including 30 OECD members and 23 EU members. Some countries have extended the survey to primary education (as is the case in France) and others to upper secondary education.

ZOOM

### TEACHERS ARE OLDER AT HIGHER LEVELS OF EDUCATION

In 2019-2020, in the EU-27, the age of teachers is on average higher when the ISCED level at which they teach is itself higher. Of the 25 countries presented here, only Italy and Lithuania have more than 50% of teachers aged over 50 at ISCED 1 (4.1.1). In ISCED 2, five countries, including Greece and Portugal, are in the same situation, while in ISCED 3 there are eight, including Estonia and Finland. Three country profiles stand out, however.

In a first group of eight countries (Belgium, Spain, France and Romania), the proportion of teachers aged over 50 is below 40% at each level of education. A second group of eight countries (Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece and Italy) is characterised by a proportion of older teachers above 40% at all three levels of education. Lithuania stands out clearly, with a proportion of teachers over 50 years of age that reaches 50% or more at each level of education. Finland and the Czech Republic constitute a third profile, which is characterised by a concentration of older teachers in ISCED 3 and relatively young teachers in ISCED 1 and 2.

### A PREDOMINANTLY FEMALE PROFESSION IN EUROPE

In school education in Europe in 2019-2020, women are systematically in the majority in the teaching profession, regardless of the ISCED level observed (4.1.2). However, the proportion of women is decreasing everywhere with the level of education. In 2019-2020, on average in the EU-27, women represent 86% of ISCED 1 teachers, 69% of ISCED 2 teachers and 62% of ISCED 3 teachers. There are significant differences between EU countries: in primary education, the proportion

of female teachers ranges from 68% in Denmark to 97% in Lithuania. This international range is similar in ISCED 2 (from 55% in the Netherlands to 85% in Latvia) and ISCED 3 (from 50% in Denmark to 80% in Latvia).

Spain, France, Luxembourg and the Netherlands are the only countries where the proportion of women is 60% or less in both cycles of secondary education.

### CHOOSING TO TEACH IS LARGELY BASED ON SOCIAL GROUNDS

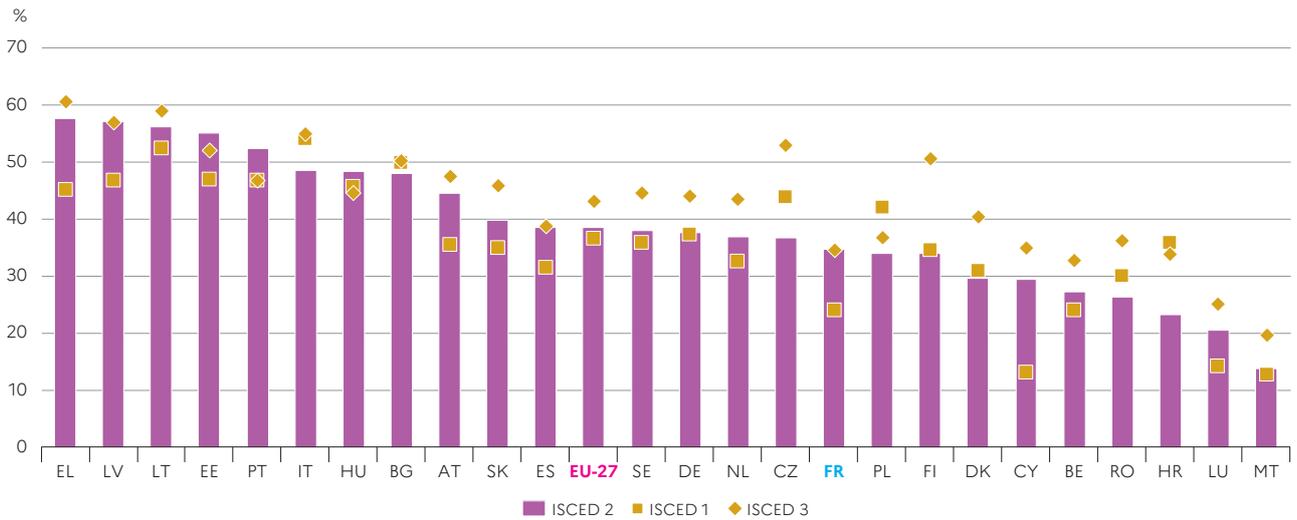
In the TALIS 2018 survey, ISCED 2 teachers were asked about their reasons for choosing the teaching profession. Social motivations (sometimes several of them) were reported by a very large number of European teachers. For example, an average of 89% of teachers in the 23 EU countries said they were strongly motivated by the possibility of making a “contribution to society” (4.1.3), 91% said they were attracted by the possibility of “playing a role in the development of children and young people” and 76% said they wanted to help socially disadvantaged young people. The opportunity to play a role in the development of young people had attracted 79% of teachers in Italy compared to 98% in Romania, while the opportunity to help disadvantaged children is stated as important by 90% of teachers in Portugal, but only 42% in the Netherlands. In France, the proportion of teachers reporting social motivations for entering the profession is close to the EU-23 average.

Teachers were also able to report more “personal” motivations that they considered important when they decided to join the profession. On average in the EU-23, 66% of teachers said they were attracted by the assurance of a stable income (4.1.4), 65% of teachers said they felt it was important that teaching was a safe profession, and 62% were attracted by a schedule that fitted well with their personal responsibilities. The Netherlands has the lowest rates for each of these three motivations, while in Estonia or Romania a large proportion of teachers reported these motivations as important. The case of Finland is unusual in that far more teachers in that country reported personal motivations than social dimensions. In France, again, the proportions are very close to the EU-23 average: 70% thought they would receive a stable income (compared with the EU average of 66%), 65% thought the job was safe (66% in the EU) and 62% thought the time commitment would be advantageous (compared with 62% in the EU). ■

See Annexes.

#### 4.1.1 Proportion of teachers who are aged 50 or more, by ISCED level, 2019-2020

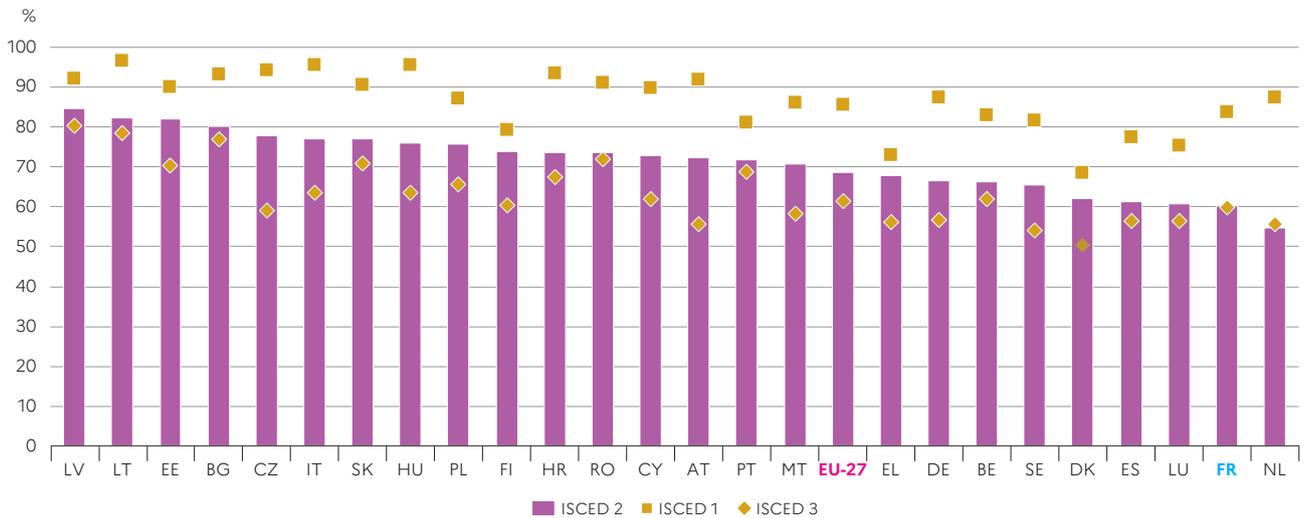
↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, educ\_uae\_perp01.



Note: data for Ireland and Slovenia are not available.

#### 4.1.2 Proportion of female teachers by ISCED level, 2019-2020

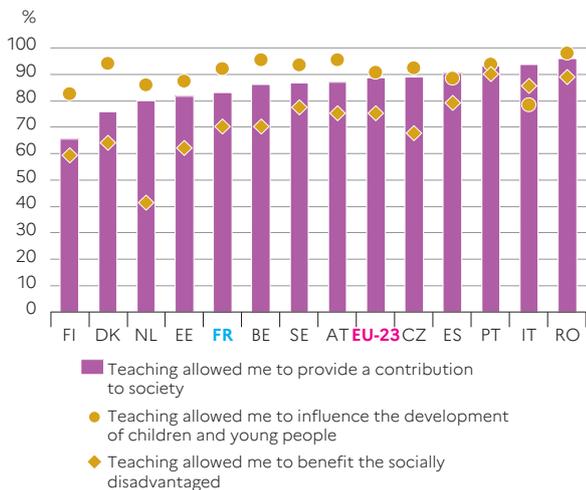
↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, educ\_uae\_perp01.



Note: data for Ireland and Slovenia are not available.

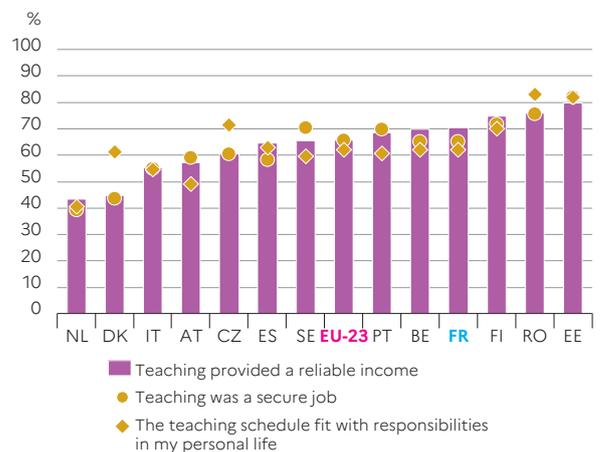
#### 4.1.3 Statements by ISCED 2 teachers regarding their "social" motivation to join the profession, 2018

↳ OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.1



#### 4.1.4 Statements by ISCED 2 teachers regarding their "personal" motivation to join the profession, 2018

↳ OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.1



## INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING AND ENTRY INTO THE PROFESSION

### IN MOST COUNTRIES, A MASTER'S DEGREE IS REQUIRED TO TEACH AT SECONDARY LEVEL AND ABOVE

In 2020-2021, the minimum qualification required of future teachers sometimes varies significantly among the OECD European Union countries (EU-22), particularly in the first levels of education. In pre-primary education, only an ISCED 3 qualification is required in the Czech and Slovak Republics, while a master's degree is required in France, Italy and Portugal. In France and Italy, in addition to the Master's degree, prospective teachers in pre-primary education must pass a competitive examination. As for primary education, 10 countries require a Master's degree, while 11 require a Bachelor's degree and only one (Poland) limits its minimum requirements to short-cycle tertiary education. In secondary education, in the EU-22, the minimum qualification is usually a Master's degree (for e.g. in Germany, France, Italy and Spain) (4.2.1).

For current lower secondary teachers, survey data provide information on their qualification levels. In the 23 EU countries that participated in **TALIS 2018**<sup>□</sup>, only 2% of teachers on average have not attained tertiary education (1% in France), 58% have attained at least ISCED 7 (70% in France) and 38% ISCED 6 (28% in France). It should be noted, however, that "ISCED 7" in the TALIS 2018 survey may include the former diploma of "*maîtrise*", now classified as ISCED 6 but corresponding, in terms of the number of years after the *baccalauréat*, to the first year of a master's degree (M1).

### INITIAL TRAINING IN PEDAGOGY IS UNEVEN IN EUROPE

The TALIS 2018 survey highlights the different experiences of European ISCED 2 teachers with regard to initial teacher training in pedagogy (4.2.2). On average in the 23 EU countries participating in TALIS 2018, 83% of teachers report having received some "general pedagogy" (general teaching methods) during their initial teacher education. 84% reported that "classroom practice in some or all subjects they teach" (as distinct from general pedagogy) was included in their initial teacher education. Finally, only 53% of them stated that they had been trained in "the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) for teaching".

However, this information needs to be qualified because of memory bias, which particularly affects the responses of teachers who have received their initial training in the relatively distant past.

Initial teacher education may also have changed significantly over time. Consequently, the responses of teachers newly entering the profession, i.e. no more than five years prior to the survey, are particularly informative. In the vast majority of European countries (except, however, Cyprus, Spain and France), the proportion of ISCED 2 teachers newly entering the profession who report having completed initial training in "general pedagogy" is above 90%. As for training in the use of ICT (in the classroom), again we observe only the responses of teachers with less seniority in the profession: those for whom initial training was more distant in time have had less exposure to this teaching. Thus, more than 90% of teachers with less than five years' seniority in Malta stated that they have had such training (the minimum rate of 68% is observed in Austria). France, with 80% of new teachers declaring that they have been trained in the use of ICT, is in a situation similar to that of Belgium or the Baltic States.

### INDUCTION SUPPORT IS MANDATORY IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

According to **Eurydice**<sup>□</sup>, in 2019-2020, almost two-thirds of EU education systems require an induction/integration phase for ISCED 2 new teachers (4.2.3). The aim of these induction programmes is to facilitate teachers' entry into the profession by providing them with individual structured support. Most often lasting one year, they usually take place at the end of initial teacher education (i.e. at the beginning of the first teaching contract), except in Germany, France and Cyprus, where they are an integral part of initial teacher education. In France, it consists of "responsibility placements" for trainee teachers who have passed the competitive examination. In all countries where these programmes are compulsory, it includes the support of a mentor.

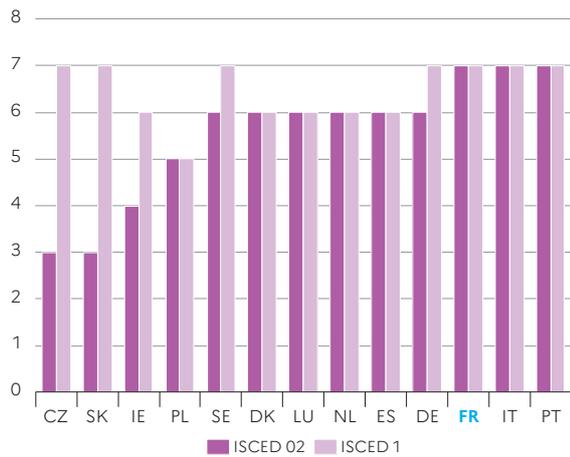
In the TALIS 2018 survey, on average in the EU, 43.6% of ISCED 2 teachers surveyed report having participated in a formal or informal induction programme during their first employment as a teacher. Only five countries are above the European average. This is particularly the case for Italy (47.7%) and France (53.3%). On average, participation in this support phase was higher in countries where it is currently compulsory (e.g. Cyprus, France, Italy and Romania) than in those where it is not regulated or where it is a local or school responsibility, such as Finland and Estonia. Furthermore, teachers under the age of 35 are more likely to report having taken part in induction programme (45.7%) compared with all teachers (43.6%). ■

□ See Annexes.

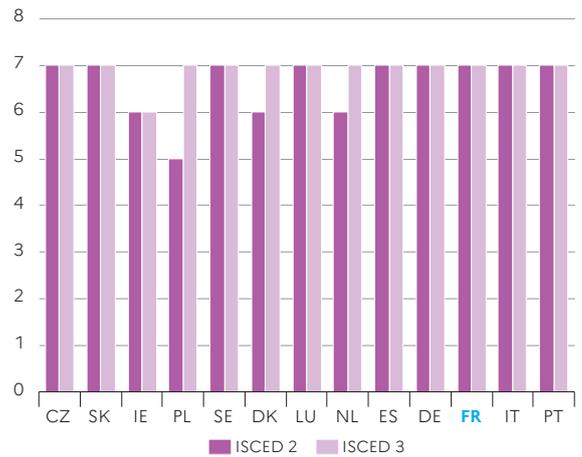
#### 4.2.1 Qualification requirements to enter the teaching profession by ISCED level of teaching, 2020-2021

OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table X3.D3.3

ISCED level required



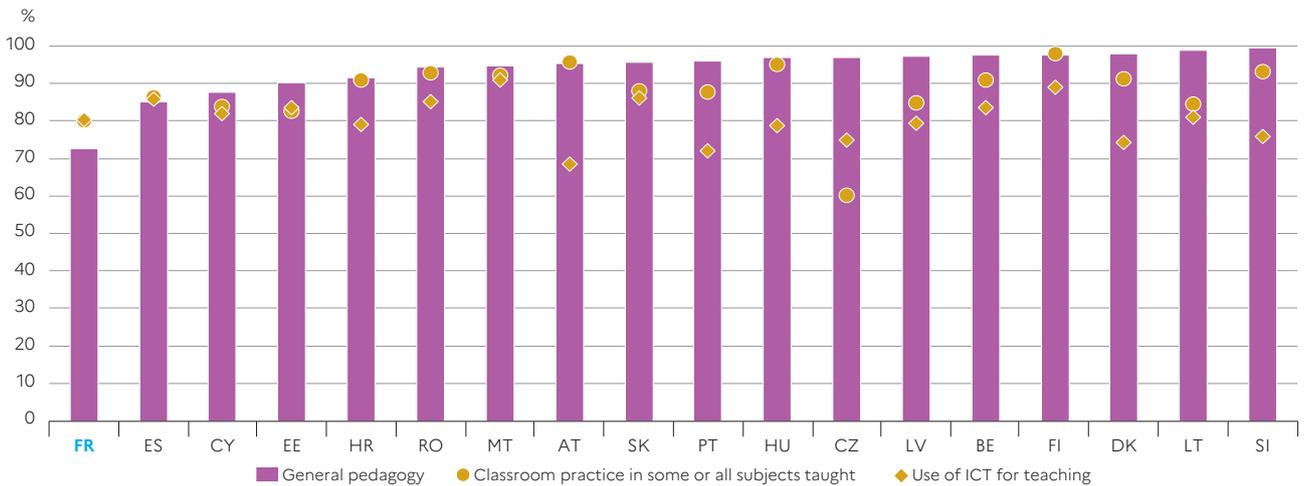
ISCED level required



Note: in the first graph, the countries are ordered according to the values for ISCED 02; the second graph shows the same order of countries.

#### 4.2.2 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who completed their formal initial teacher education in the 5 years prior to the TALIS survey and who report that the following content was included in their formal education or training

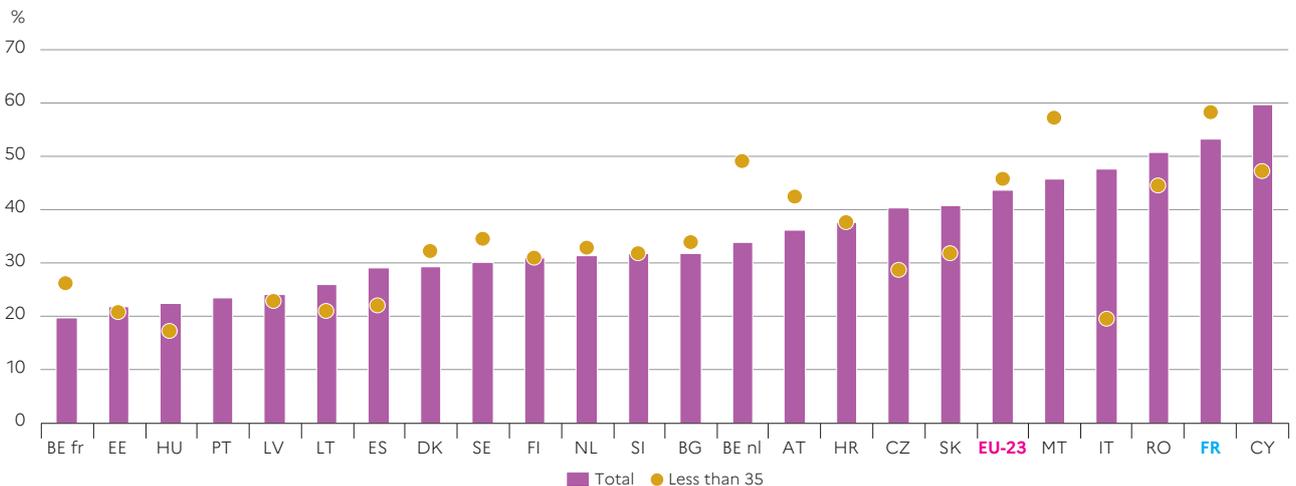
OECD, *TALIS 2018*, table I.4.13.



Note: the EU average is not calculated for teachers who left initial education less than 5 years ago in 2018. Data missing for Bulgaria, Italy, Netherlands and Sweden.

#### 4.2.3 Proportion of lower secondary teachers who participated in formal or informal induction programme during their first employment, by age groups, 2018

Eurydice, *Teachers in Europe: careers, development and well-being*, with OCDE TALIS 2018 data.



Note: data for teachers under the age of 35 in Portugal are not available.

### PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS COMPULSORY ALMOST EVERYWHERE IN EUROPE

In France, the Education Code stipulates that in-service training is compulsory for every teacher (Article L. 912-1-2). Figure 4.3.1 shows the status of in-service training for ISCED 2 teachers according to national regulations in the EU-27 countries. Training can be defined as: (1) mandatory for the teacher, without defined time (it is then generally referred to as “professional duty” in the official texts); (2) mandatory for the teacher, with defined time; (3) an entitlement for the teacher, with defined time; (4) neither mandatory nor an entitlement.

In 2019-2020, in-service training in lower secondary education is mandatory with defined time in 41% of European education systems, particularly in Central Europe (Austria, Bulgaria and Slovenia), the Baltic States and Portugal. In these countries, teachers are required to carry out an average of around 24 hours of training activities per year. In almost a third of education systems, in-service training is defined as a “professional duty of teachers”. It is mandatory without defined time. This is the case in Germany, Spain and France. The French Community of Belgium is the only education system that sets both an amount of training time that teachers are obliged to complete and another for training as a right, which teachers may or may not use. All teachers are required to attend six half-days of training per year during school time, and may also attend up to six additional half-days during school time if they wish to train further. Finally, in three EU-27 countries (Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands), in-service training is defined neither as a statutory obligation nor as an entitlement.

### HIGH PARTICIPATION IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT WITH VARYING ACTIVITIES ACROSS COUNTRIES

In the **TALIS 2018**<sup>[1]</sup> survey, the participation rate of ISCED 2 teachers in **professional development**<sup>[2]</sup> activities in the 12 months prior to the survey is high, with 92% on average in the EU-23 (4.3.2). The minimum is observed in France (83%) and the maximum in Latvia and Lithuania (99%). It should be noted that the concept of “professional development” used by the OECD may have a broader meaning than the one usually given to continuing education and in-service training: it includes, among other things, a wide range of courses (including online), observation visits to other institutions or organisations (including companies), or reading of specialised literature.

In addition, Figure 4.3.2 shows, on average in each country, the number of different activities that teachers reported having undertaken in the last twelve months prior to the survey. At the European level, teachers report an average of 3.5 different types of activities among the ten or so categories proposed. While the Baltic countries, with five or six different activities

declared, are above the European average, France stands out with the lowest number of different activities declared (2.4). However, these data do not provide information on the duration of each type of activity or on the total number of activities undertaken (only the number of different categories of activities), in other words, on the intensity of training. The TALIS survey reveals that in 2018, in Europe as in France, traditional types of activities – involving little interaction between participants – predominate.

### WHEN ATTENDED, TRAINING COURSES ARE GENERALLY CONSIDERED USEFUL BY THE TEACHERS

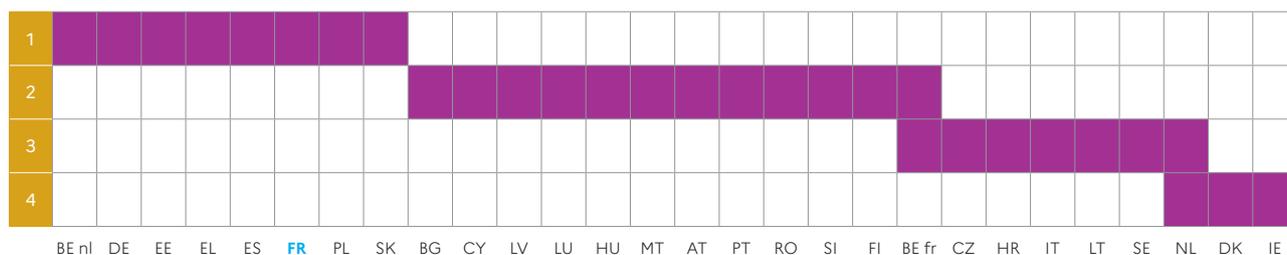
In many European countries, a large majority of teachers who have participated in at least one in-service training activity in the past twelve months consider such training to be effective. Indeed, while an average of 79% of teachers say that the development activities they attended had a positive impact on their teaching practices, only 69% in Belgium, 71% in Denmark and France and 73% in Sweden agree with this statement (4.3.3). Furthermore, the TALIS 2018 survey reveals a strong interest among teachers in training related to their discipline(s), both in Europe and in France. In 2018, on average in the EU, the most popular topics were “pedagogical skills in the subject(s) I teach” (71%), “knowledge and mastery of the subject(s) I teach” (71%), “pupil assessment practices” (63%) and “knowledge of the school curriculum” (62%).

Since 2018, there have been measures in favour of continuing education. In France, schools for continuing education at the *académie* level (i.e. regional branches of the Ministry) were set up at the beginning of the 2022 school year. They define their training courses according to the guidelines of the new ministerial master plan for continuing education, defined for three years. In Germany, the regions are responsible for their continuing education provision, but the federal government, through the Standing Conference of Regional Ministers of Education (KMK), tightened up quality standards in 2020 and introduced “common reference points” (*Ländergemeinsame Eckpunkte*). ■

<sup>[1]</sup> See Annexes.

### 4.3.1 Status of continuing professional development of lower secondary teachers, 2019-2020

↳ Eurydice, *Teachers in Europe: careers, development and well-being*, figure 3.5.



1. Mandatory without defined time (“professional duty”).
2. Mandatory with defined time.
3. Entitlement with defined time.
4. Neither mandatory, nor an entitlement.

Scope: public lower secondary schools in the 27 EU countries, except for Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands where subsidised public schools are also included.

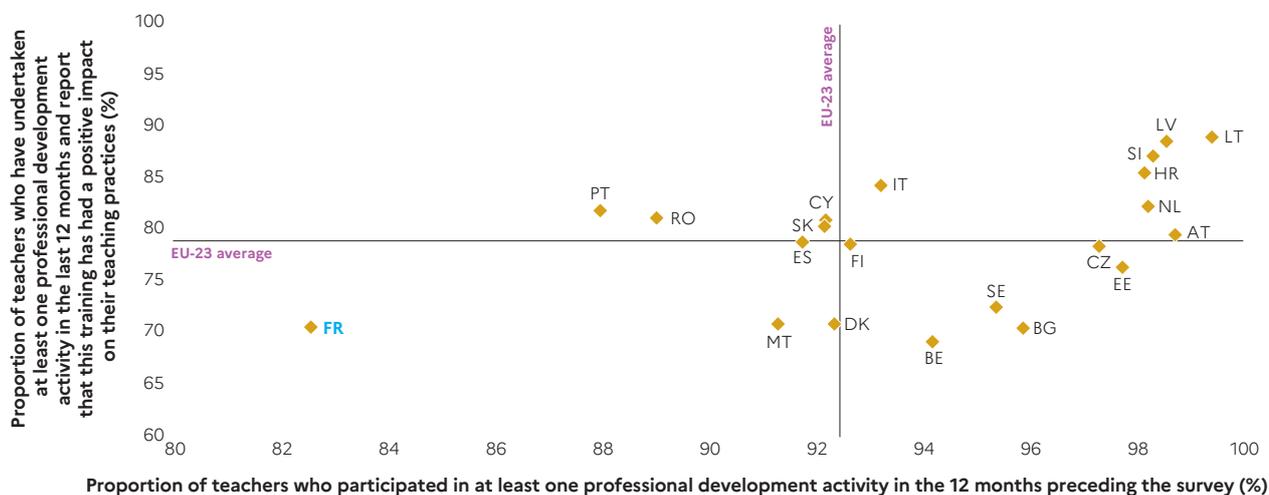
### 4.3.2 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who have participated in at least one professional development activity during the last 12 months prior to the survey and number of activities done, 2018

↳ Eurydice, *Teachers in Europe: careers, development and well-being*, with OCDE TALIS 2018 data.



### 4.3.3 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who have participated in professional development activities and, among them, proportion of those who declare that the training activities have had a positive effect on their teaching practices, 2018

↳ OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.5.1 et I.5.15.



Note: the responses presented on the vertical axis are those of the subgroup of teachers who also reported having participated in at least one in-service training activity in the last 12 months. Data on the positive impact on teaching practice are not available for Hungary.

## 4.4 WORKING CONDITIONS OF TEACHERS

### STATUTORY TEACHING TIME IS HIGHER IN FRANCE THAN IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

In 2020-2021, in the 22 European Union countries that are also members of the OECD (EU-22) and for which information is available, **statutory teaching time**<sup>■</sup> is on average greater in primary than in secondary education. In primary education, the volume of teaching time in France (900h per year for school teachers), together with that in the Netherlands (940h) and Ireland (900h), is higher than in other countries: 871h in Spain, 744h in Italy, 691h in Germany (740h on average in the EU-22). In lower secondary education, this time in France (720h required of *professeurs certifiés*), which is identical to that in the Netherlands, is greater than in Ireland (700h), Spain (665h), Germany (641 h) or Italy (608h), the average volume for the EU-22 countries being 659h (4.4.1).

### HALF OF THE COUNTRIES REGULATE THE TIME TEACHERS SPEND IN SCHOOLS

In addition to statutory teaching time, a regulation in force in 2020-2021 sometimes defines an obligatory time of presence of teachers in the school, to teach and carry out other tasks such as tutoring or supervision. At every level of education, this is the case in about half of the EU-22 countries, but only in primary education in France. In Sweden, an hourly volume of work in schools is defined, but not the time spent on teaching itself (4.4.1).

It is uncertain at this stage whether the recent health crisis will lead to lasting changes in the regulation of face-to-face working time in Europe.

Finally, some countries regulate an overall statutory working time to theoretically cover all the tasks carried out by teachers. In France, the statutory working time (1,607 hours per year) applies to teachers as it does to all employees, unless an exception is made. However, unlike in other professions, it does not constitute the threshold for calculating overtime (this threshold is defined by the statutory teaching time). In Finland, in primary and general secondary education, a collective agreement for municipal staff defines total working time, which corresponds to teaching hours and hours of presence in the school for the purposes of cooperation and continuing education (for a total varying from 686h to 818h depending on the ISCED level). In Germany, the total working time of civil servant teachers is governed by the civil service regulations of the *Länder* (between 40h and 41h per week, depending on the *Land*) and by collective wage agreements for contractual teachers (from 39.4h to 41h).

### IN 2019-2020, FROM PRE-SCHOOL TO LOWER SECONDARY, FRANCE STANDS OUT FOR ITS HIGH PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO

In 2019-2020, in the 27 countries of the European Union, the **pupil-teacher ratio**<sup>■</sup> (number of pupils per teacher in full-time equivalents) is on average higher in primary education (12.8 pupils in pre-primary and 13.6 in primary) than in secondary education (11.8 in lower secondary and 11.2 in upper secondary). Few countries are exceptions to this rule, notably Germany in pre-primary and Slovenia in primary education, where rates are lower than at other levels of education. In France, the rate is higher than in other countries in pre-school (23.2 pupils per teacher) and primary (18.4), with only Romania being higher in the latter case, with 19.2 pupils. The difference with Germany is very marked: this country has 9.2 pupils per teacher in pre-primary and 14.9 in primary. In lower secondary education, the rate is also higher in France (14.6) than in Germany (12.8), but to a lesser extent. On the other hand, in upper general secondary education, the rate in France (11.3) is lower than in many countries and is notably higher in Germany (12.2): 4.4.2.

As regards pre-school education, another important indicator – number of pupils per contact staff – makes it possible to assess the supervision of pupils by both teachers and assistants (*Atsem* in France). Calculated by the OECD and not presented here, this second enrolment rate places France in 2019-2020 (14.4 pupils per staff member) more favourably than the rate for teachers alone compared to the 22 EU and OECD countries on average (10.3).

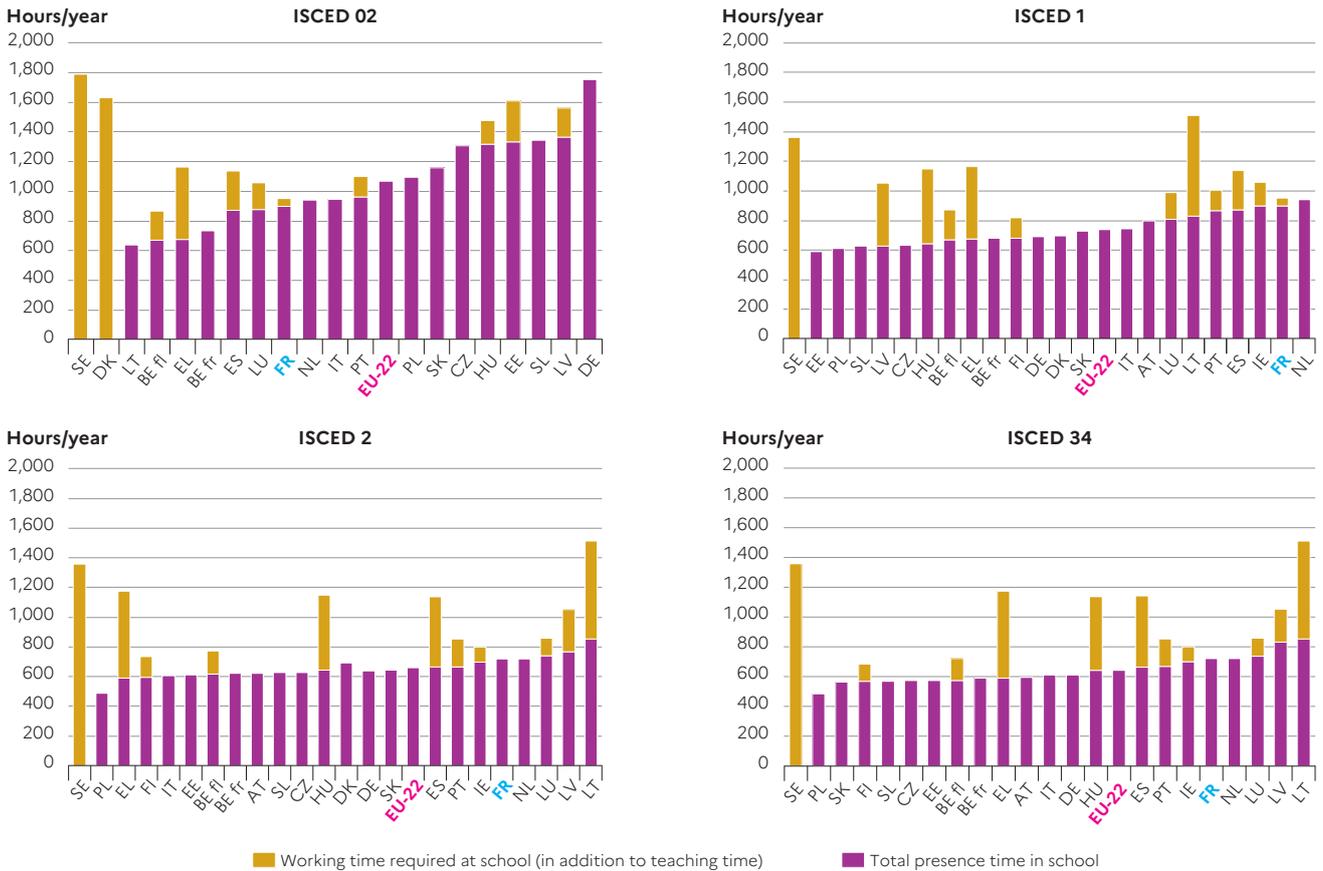
Finally, the organisation of teaching in the different countries also helps to shed light on these data and the differences between them and the data on class size (cf. 1.2). In France, in the second cycle of secondary education, the pupil-teacher ratio is more favourable due, among other things, to the specific constraints of workshop teaching in vocational education and small group teaching in general and technical education. In Portugal, where there are fewer pupils per teacher in primary education (12.1) than in other European countries on average (13.6), other teachers work in addition to the *Professor titular de turma* (equivalent to the *professeur des écoles* in France). From the first four years of primary school, non-permanent support from English and physical education teachers is allocated by the school management.

The last two years of primary school are marked by the widespread introduction of subject-based teaching, provided by specialised teachers. The last two years of primary school are marked by the widespread introduction of subject-based teaching by specialist teachers. The situation is comparable in Slovenia (10.3 pupils per teacher in primary school). ■

■ See Annexes.

#### 4.4.1 Regulation of teachers' working time, according to official texts, public sector, 2020-2021

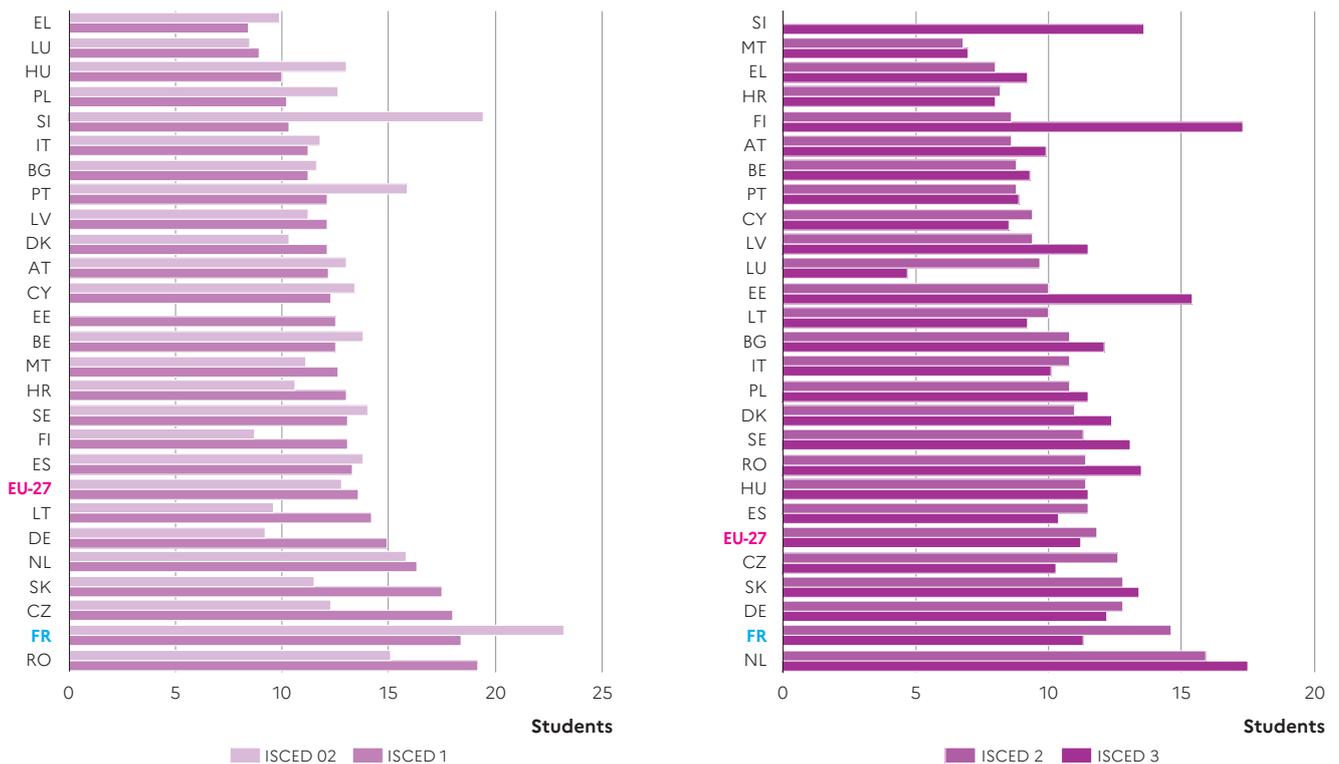
↳ OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table D4.1 et D4.2.



Note: for countries not shown on a graph, information is missing or time is not regulated.

#### 4.4.2 Ratio of students to teaching staff in educational institutions, full-time equivalents, public and private sectors, 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, *educ\_uae\_perp04*.



Note: some data for Estonia and Slovenia, and all data for Ireland are unavailable. Sorted in ascending order of values for ISCED 1 and ISCED 2.

## 4.5 EVOLUTION OF TEACHERS' STATUTORY SALARIES

### The international methodology

ZOOM

The data collected jointly by the OECD and Eurydice<sup>□</sup> focus on so-called “fully qualified” teachers (tenured teachers in France) in public schools, working full time. **Statutory salaries of teachers**<sup>□</sup> cover the majority type of teachers at each level of education, i.e., in France, the *professeurs des écoles* in public primary schools and *professeurs certifiés* in public secondary schools. The **actual salaries of teachers**<sup>□</sup> cover all teachers at each level of education (all tenured teachers in France, including the *professeurs agrégés* in secondary education) and are the observed average gross actual salaries (including bonuses, allowances, overtime salary).

### STATUTORY SALARY PROGRESSION OVER THE CAREER IN EUROPE

In the 2020-2021 school year, teachers in the 22 European Union countries that are members of the OECD (EU-22) generally receive higher statutory salaries at ISCED level 2 than at ISCED level 1 for equal seniority (4.5.1). There are some exceptions to this rule: in Poland and Portugal, there is the same salary scale regardless of the level of education, while in Austria, the statutory salary of ISCED 1 teachers is higher than the one of ISCED 2 teachers at the beginning of their career.

Three profiles of statutory salary progression throughout a career can be observed in Europe. With the “linear” progression, as in Italy, the salary evolves in a relatively balanced way from the beginning to the end of the career. The “early” progression (Germany, Finland, Poland) means that the salary evolves quickly at the beginning of the career, then remains stable or slows down between the middle and the end of the career. Finally, a “delayed” progression occurs where the statutory salary of teachers increase slightly at the beginning of the career and then accelerates significantly in the late career (Spain, France, Portugal, Austria).

In 2020-2021, the statutory salary of teachers in France, Italy and Poland is lower than the EU-22 average at all stages of their career, in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2. However, the statutory salary at the end of the career is closer to the EU-22 average in France, with less than \$2,000 difference in **purchasing power parity (PPP)**<sup>□</sup> in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2. In Portugal in ISCED 1, salaries are slightly below the EU-22 average except at the end of the career and are still higher than in France. Among the countries presented, the highest statutory salaries are observed in Germany, for both levels of education and at all career stages (but they are even higher in Luxembourg, absent from the graph).

### ACTUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE ARE LOWER THAN IN GERMANY OR AUSTRIA

In most European countries, the actual gross salary is higher when teachers work at higher levels of education (4.5.2). This is also the case in France in 2019 (the latest year available when data were collected). Here, the salary gap between primary and secondary education is mainly explained by pay scales that are more beneficial for *professeurs agrégés* and the payment for overtime in secondary education.

Portugal presents a specific situation: in 2021, ISCED 02 teachers aged 25-64 earn \$4,600 PPP more than their colleagues of the same age working in ISCED 1; \$5,800 PPP more than those in ISCED 24; \$1,900 PPP more than those in ISCED 34. This may be partly explained by the high age profile of teachers in Portugal at ISCED 02: 53% of teachers are 50 years or older at this ISCED level in 2019-2020, compared with an average of 32% in EU-27 countries.

The average gross actual salary of teachers aged 25-64 is lower in France and Italy than in Germany and Austria at each level of education. Teachers in Germany have the highest actual salary in Europe (actual salaries are not available for Luxembourg). Nevertheless, the national averages can hide sometimes substantial sub-national variations. For example, in Germany, teachers' salaries are defined at state level. Thus, according to the gross pay scales for ISCED 1, teachers in the state of Berlin earn almost twice as much as their counterparts in Saarland.

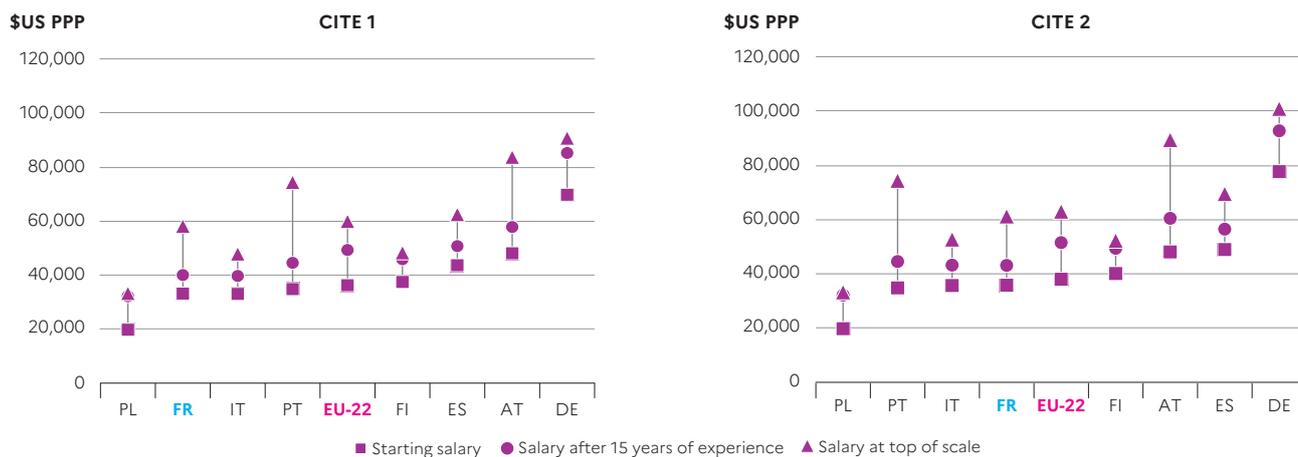
### ACTUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS ARE OFTEN LOWER THAN THE EARNINGS OF TERTIARY-EDUCATED WORKERS

The actual salary, and more broadly its attractiveness, is also assessed in relation to the remuneration received by all workers with comparable characteristics, particularly in terms of qualifications. In 2020-2021, in most European countries, the average actual salary of teachers aged between 25 and 64 is lower than the average earnings of workers with a higher education qualification working full-time and full-year (4.5.3). Portugal is the European country where the actual salary of teachers is the most beneficial compared to the average earnings of workers with tertiary education: it exceeds 130% of the average earnings at all levels of education. In Austria, France and Italy, teachers' salaries are consistently lower than earnings of tertiary-educated workers. Germany presents a situation of quasi-parity at every level. However, the indicators currently available are not able to clarify the differences in distribution by age, gender or field of study between teachers and other workers. These aspects may have an impact on the comparison of their salaries. ■

□ See Annexes.

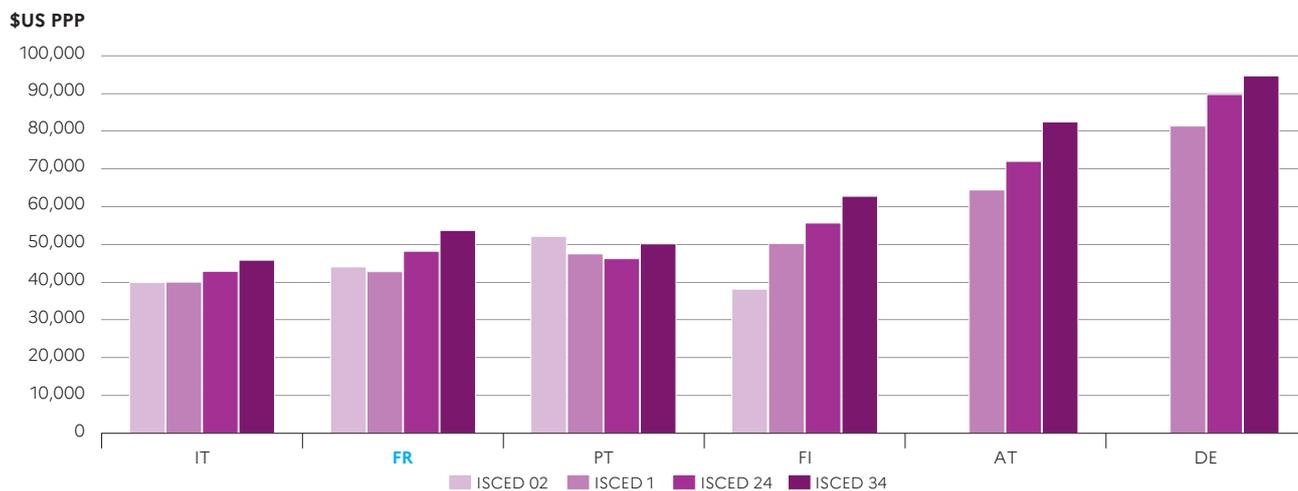
#### 4.5.1 ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 teachers' statutory salaries, based on the most prevalent qualifications at different points in teachers' careers, \$US PPP, 2020-2021

OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table D3.1. Joint data collection with Eurydice.



#### 4.5.2 Teachers' average actual salaries by ISCED level, 25-64 ans year olds, \$US PPP, 2020-2021

OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table D3.3. Joint data collection with Eurydice.

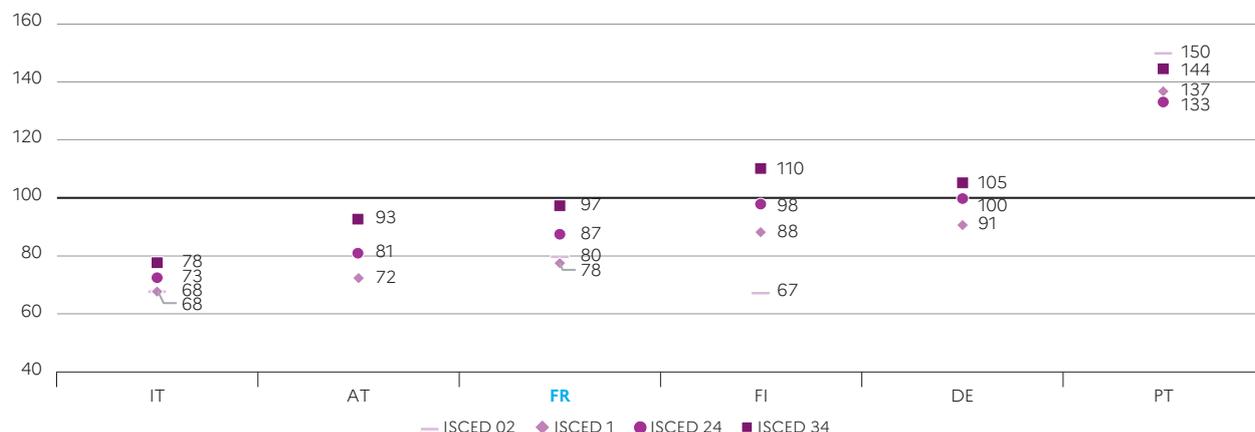


Note: the reference year for actual teacher salaries is 2019 in France, 2020 in Finland and 2021 in Portugal. Data for Spain and Poland are not available for all levels of education. Data for Germany and Austria are not available for ISCED 02. The European average is not presented due to lack of data for many countries.

#### 4.5.3 Teachers' average actual salaries relative to earnings of tertiary-educated workers, 2020-2021

OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table D3.2. Joint data collection with Eurydice.

Index 100 = Tertiary-educated workers' income



Note: when the data on earnings for all workers have a different reference year than the one used for teachers' salaries, a deflator has been used to adjust the earnings data.

## 4.6 EVOLUTION OF TEACHERS' STATUTORY SALARIES

### The international methodology

ZOOM

**Statutory salaries of teachers**<sup>□</sup> cover the majority type of teachers at each level of public education (the *professeurs des écoles* in public pre-primary and primary schools and *professeurs certifiés* in public secondary schools in France). Two approaches allow us to observe the change over time of statutory salaries. A first methodology presents the changes with an index called "base 100": in each country, salaries in national currency at constant prices for each year are compared to the salaries of that country fixed reference year (here, 2014-2015). The change of this ratio is thus observed in each country individually (4.6.1 and 4.6.2). A second methodology reports statutory salaries of EU-22 countries to those of teachers in France, in **purchasing power parity (PPP)**<sup>□</sup> in each given reference year (4.6.3).

### TEACHERS' STARTING SALARIES HAVE BEEN INCREASING SINCE 2014-2015 IN MOST COUNTRIES

In primary and lower secondary education, teachers' statutory starting salaries have increased moderately (between 1% and 3%) since 2014-2015 in Spain and France, but more significantly (increasing between 15% and 30%) in Germany, Austria and especially Poland (in primary education) over the same period (4.6.1).

Changes in the teachers' statutory starting salaries are indicative in some countries of policies implemented to improve the attractiveness of the teaching profession. For example, in 2013 Austria adopted a new federal law on the working conditions of teachers (*Dienstrechts-Novelle 2013 - Pädagogischer Dienst*). The law, implemented from 2015 and applied to all new teachers from 2019-2020, establishes a new salary scale for teachers' salary: higher statutory starting salary and seven salary steps over the whole career, instead of a salary increase every two years. In Poland, from 2017, an increase in the basic salary of all teachers was decided: it increased by 5.35% from 2018, then by 5% at the beginning of 2019 and by 9.6% at the end of 2019 (successive amendments to a law of 31 January 2005 on the basic index salary of teachers).

### STATUTORY SALARY AFTER 15 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IS HIGHER IN 2020-2021 THAN IN 2014-2015 IN ALL COUNTRIES OBSERVED

In all the countries presented and at both levels of education, salaries are higher in 2020-2021 than in 2014-2015, after

considering the effect of inflation. Poland shows the highest increase between 2014-2015 and 2020-2021: +18% at both education levels. In Germany, the statutory salary of teachers with 15 years of experience has increased by around 10% at each level of education since 2014-15. In Spain, France and Portugal, the increase in statutory salary is 5%, 4% and 3% at both levels of education respectively. In Spain, a national multi-annual framework for salary increases has been established from 2018, consisting of a first fixed component (1.75% in 2018, 2.5% in 2019 and 2% in 2020) and a second one linked to GDP growth as well as in accordance with the European public deficit criterion.

Italy and Finland are the only two countries in Figure 4.6.2 where teacher salaries increased slightly (+1%) over the period. In the case of Italy, an April 2018 agreement between the Ministry and the social partners unfroze salaries for the first time since 2009. All public service employees, including teachers, regardless of their years of service, saw their salaries increase by €75 per month. An increase in the budget allocated to teachers (€300 million) will increase salaries by around €100 per month from 2022, but this increase is not yet visible in the statutory salary data.

### TEACHERS' STATUTORY SALARIES IN GERMANY ARE INCREASING FASTER THAN IN FRANCE

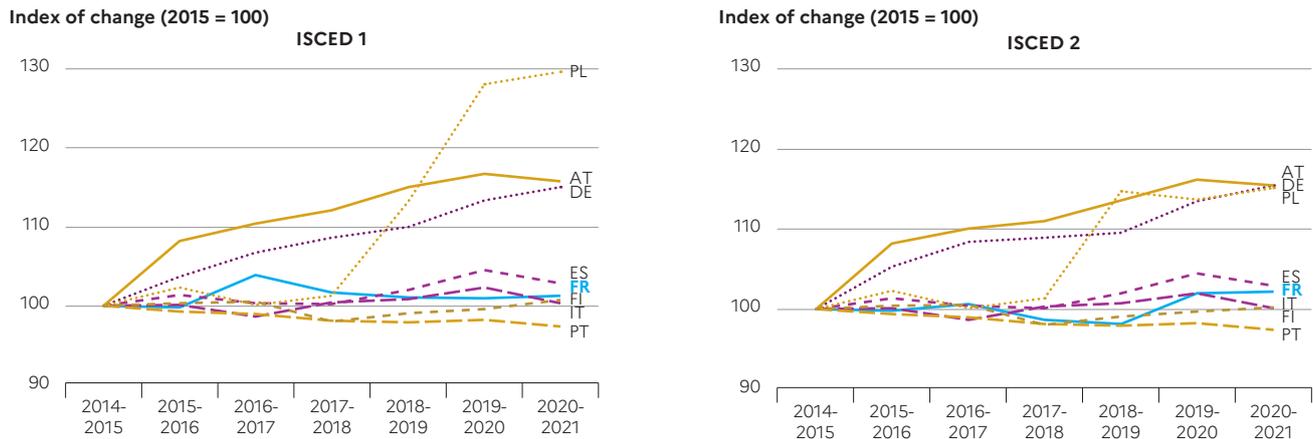
Germany, Austria and Spain show significantly higher teachers' statutory salaries after 15 years of experience than France (4.6.3). This difference tends to increase in primary education for Austria since 2016-2017, while it tends to be stable in lower secondary education. The gap with Spain remains unchanged in primary education and decreases slightly in secondary education. The statutory salary of teachers in Germany is more than twice the salary of teachers in France in ISCED 1 (since 2018-2019) and ISCED 2 (from 2016-2017). The gap between Germany and France continues to increase at both levels of education.

The salary of teachers in Poland, although lower than salary of teachers in France, has been rising faster than in France since 2016-2017. Indeed, in 2020-2021, salary in Poland represents 80% of salaries in France in ISCED 1 (70% in 2016-2017), and 74% in ISCED 2 (67% in 2016-2017). In Portugal, salaries are higher than in France over the whole period, but the gap tends to decrease in recent years. In 2020-2021, teachers' salary in Portugal represents 111% of teachers' salary in France in ISCED 1 (117% in 2016-2017) and 103% in ISCED 2 (112% in 2016-2017). ■

□ See Annexes.

#### 4.6.1 Change in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 teachers' statutory starting salaries between 2014-2015 and 2020-2021 (100% = salary in 2014-2015)

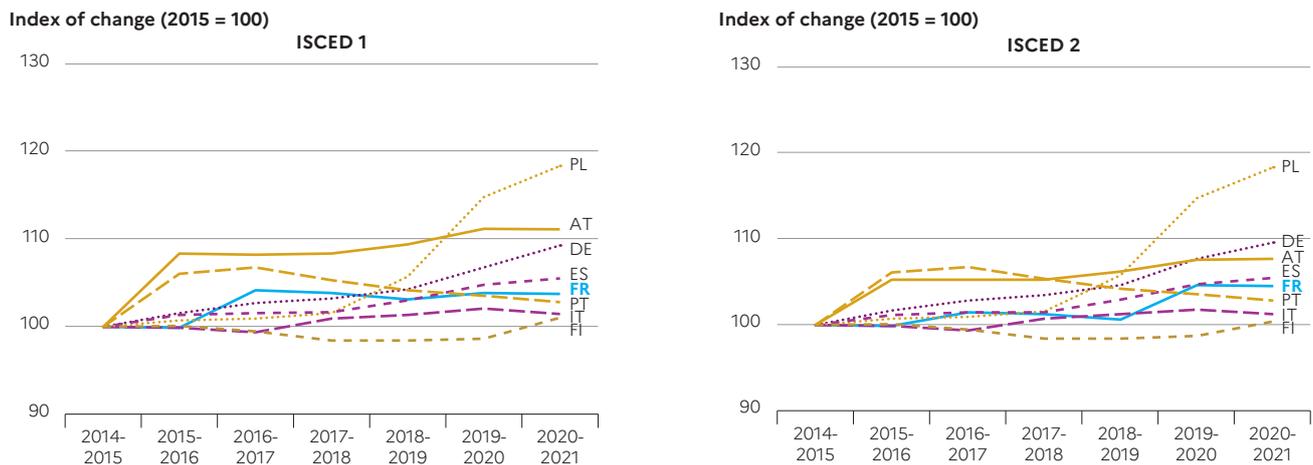
Author's calculations from Eurydice, *Teachers' and School Heads' Salaries and Allowances in Europe*, editions 2015/16, 2016/17, 2017/18, 2018/19, 2019/20, 2010/21. Joint data collection with the OECD.



Interpretation: between 2014-2015 and 2020-2021, gross statutory starting salaries of teachers decreased by 3% in Portugal at both education levels.

#### 4.6.2 Change in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 teachers' statutory salaries after 15 years of experience between 2014-2015 et 2020-2021 (100% = salary in 2014-2015)

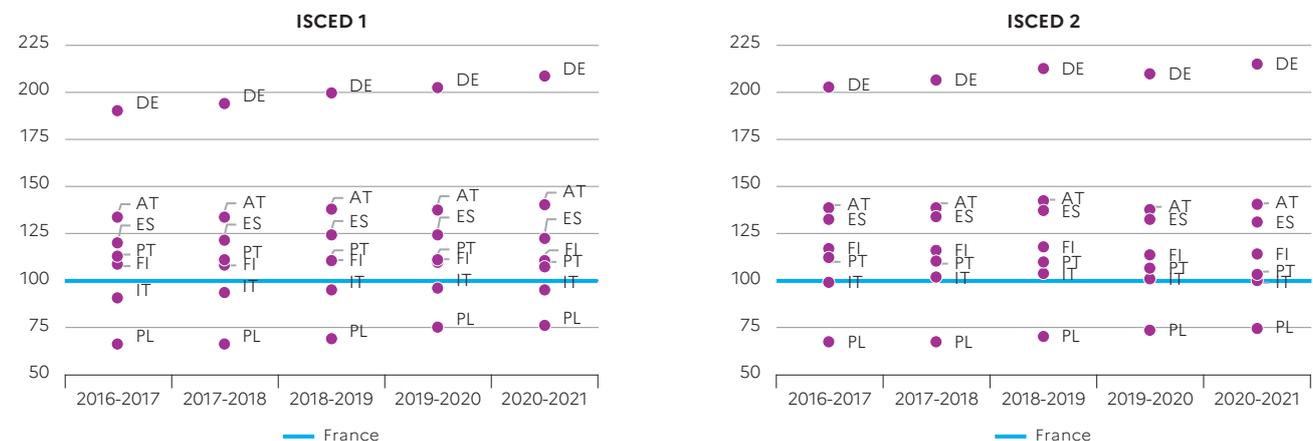
OECD, *Education at a glance 2022*, table D3.6. Joint data collection with Eurydice.



Interpretation: between 2014-2015 and 2020-2021, the gross statutory salaries of typically qualified teachers with 15 years of experience increased by 18% in Poland at both levels of education.

#### 4.6.3 ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 teachers' statutory salaries after 15 years of experience in different countries compared to teachers in France since 2016-2017

Author's calculations from OECD, *Education at a glance*, editions 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022. Joint data collection with Eurydice.



Interpretation: in 2016-2017, the statutory salary of typically qualified teachers with 15 years of experience in primary education in Germany was 197% of the salary of the same teachers in France. In 2020-2021, that same ratio is 212%.

### TEACHERS COLLABORATE LITTLE WITH RESPECT TO STUDENT ASSESSMENT

The **TALIS 2018**<sup>1</sup> survey explores the professional practices of ISCED 2 teachers and in particular the collaboration between them. The data collected are the result of teachers' self-reports. Figure 4.7.1 focuses on teachers who report engaging "at least once a week" or "between one and three times a month" in collaborative practices for pedagogical purposes, i.e. focused on learners.

In 2018, in the 23 European countries that participated in the survey, more than half of the teachers (67%) reported that they discussed the progress made by individual pupils. On the other hand, as Figure 4.7.1 shows, fewer teachers reported attending team conferences (47%), and more importantly, working with other teachers in their school to ensure common standards in evaluations for assessing pupils' progress (40%). However, in some countries, collaboration between teachers appears to be more frequent. In Sweden, for example, teachers report spending the most time per week on collaboration (3.3 hours on average): 4.7.2. In France, collaboration between teachers is much lower.

Participation in team conferences also varies between the countries surveyed. While this practice is declared by almost all the teachers surveyed in Sweden (93%), it appears to be less common in Portugal (3%): 4.7.1.

### IN THE CLASSROOM, "ACTIVE" LEARNING, WHERE THE STUDENT LEARNS BY DOING, IS UNCOMMON

The TALIS 2018 survey also asked ISCED 2 teachers about teaching practices implemented in the classroom. Among the most common, there are activities that structure learning. On average in Europe, 81% of teachers report they "frequently" or "always" set goals at the beginning of the lesson, and 85% say that they explain how new topics are linked to previous ones.

Many teachers (73%) also refer to a problem from everyday life or work to demonstrate why new knowledge is useful (4.7.3), particularly in Eastern Europe and in Southern European countries. A similar proportion says that they let students practice similar tasks until they know that every student has understood the subject matter (70%). The **PISA 2018**<sup>2</sup> data also showed that this type of teacher support for students

was positively correlated with students' performance in reading literacy in a majority of countries<sup>1</sup>.

In the case of repetition of similar exercises, France and Finland are below the European average. It should be noted, however, that the TALIS data (4.7.3) do not show the individualised support schemes that may otherwise exist in these countries (such as *accompagnement personnalisé* or "*devoirs faits*" in France) and constitute another form of support for the pupil.

Among the less recurrent classroom practices, two are representative of "active" pedagogies, such as letting pupils use ICT (Information and Communication Technology) for projects or class work (46%), or encouraging cooperation between pupils by having them work in small groups (47%): 4.7.3. However, these averages conceal a wide variety of situations. Indeed, while working in small groups seems to be widely adopted in Denmark (80%), less than a third of teachers say they use it frequently in the Czech Republic (27%), Slovenia (28%) or Croatia (31%). Again, the PISA 2018 data indicate a potentially positive effect of some practices: in particular, they show that cooperation between students is associated with higher performance and student well-being<sup>2</sup>.

### STUDENT SELF-ASSESSMENT IS POORLY DEVELOPED IN EUROPE

The TALIS 2018 survey provides information on different methods used by ISCED 2 teachers to assess student learning (4.7.4). In Europe, the vast majority of teachers surveyed (80%) say that they "frequently" or "always" administer their own assessment. Fewer (63%) report that they "frequently" or "always" provide a written feedback on student work in addition to the mark (i.e. numeric score or letter grade). Only six countries exceed these two averages: France, Spain, Belgium, Portugal, Malta and Cyprus. Teachers in these countries also reported spending more time per week correcting students' papers than the European average.

In contrast, few teachers on average use student self-assessment. In the 23 European countries surveyed in TALIS 2018, 36% of teachers said that they let their pupils evaluate their own progress. The use of this assessment method varies considerably between countries: only 21% of teachers say they use this approach in France, compared to 61% in Portugal and 66% in Lithuania. In France, although little developed in 2018 (21%), this practice is nevertheless slightly higher than in TALIS 2013 (+4 percentage points). ■

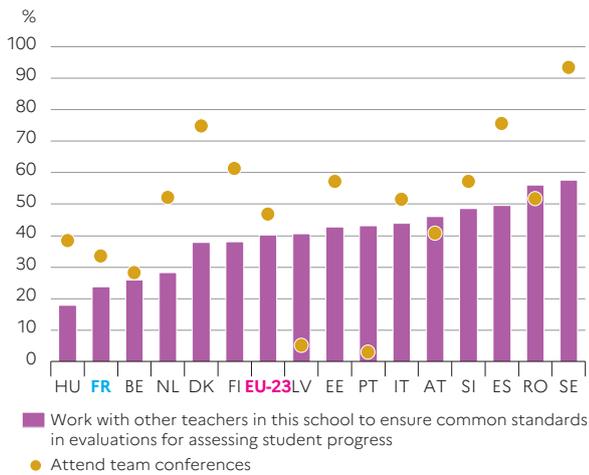
1. Source: OECD, *PISA 2018*, vol. III.

2. Source: OECD, *PISA 2018: Insights and Interpretations*.

<sup>1</sup> See Annexes.

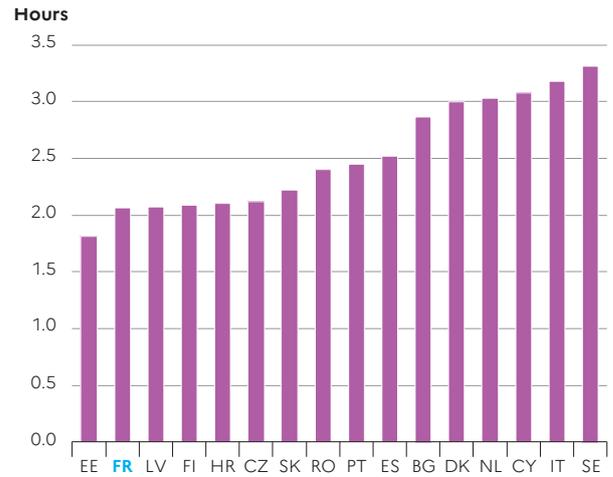
#### 4.7.1 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who report engaging at least once a month in the following collaborative activities in their school, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.4.1.



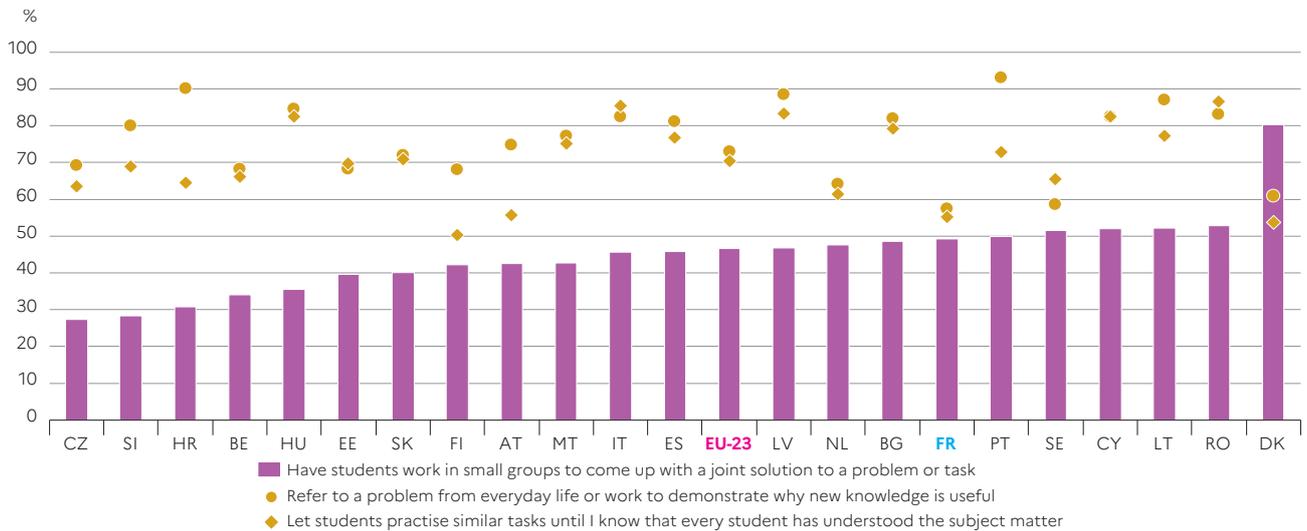
#### 4.7.2 Average number of hours teachers report having spent on team work and dialogue with colleagues within the school during the most recent complete calendar week, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.4.5.



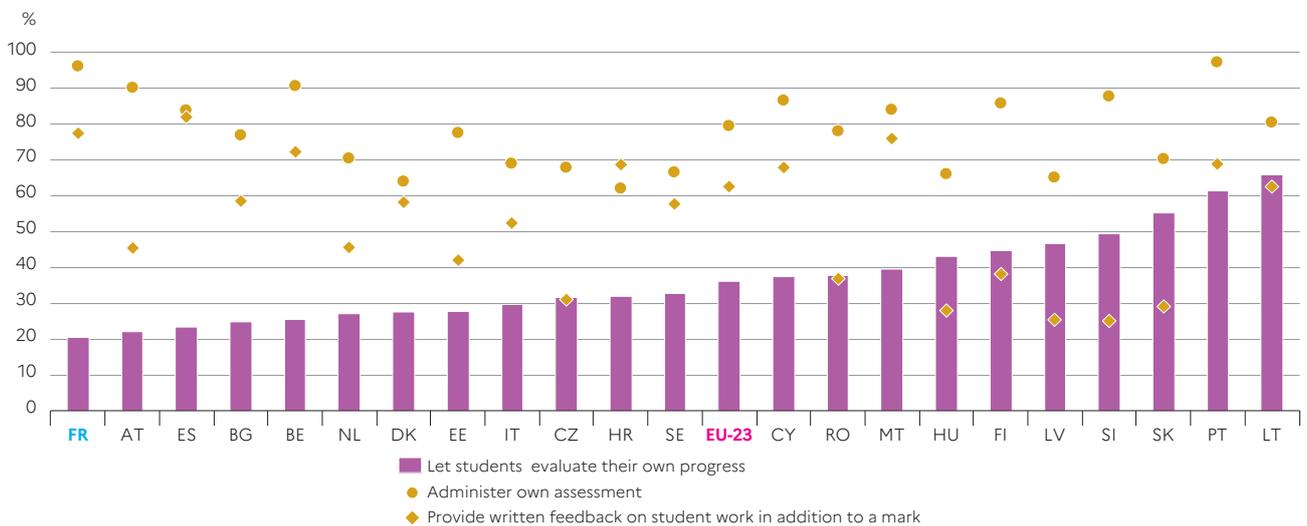
#### 4.7.3 Percentage of teachers who reported that they "frequently" or "always" use the following practices in their class, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.2.1.



#### 4.7.4 Percentage of teachers who reported that they "frequently" or "always" use the following assessment methods in their class, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.2.6.



## 4.8 INTERNATIONAL TEACHER MOBILITY

### INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY OF EUROPEAN TEACHERS IS INCREASING, BUT CONCERNS LESS THAN ONE IN TWO TEACHERS

According to the **TALIS 2018**<sup>1</sup> survey data presented in the **Eurydice**<sup>2</sup> report entitled *Teachers in Europe: Careers, Development and Well-being* (2021), a minority of lower secondary (ISCED 2) teachers in Europe have already been abroad for professional purposes **(4.8.1)**. In 2018, around 41% of teachers surveyed in the EU and in France said they had been mobile at least once for professional reasons, as a teacher and/or during their teacher education/training. The highest mobility rates can be found in Cyprus and the Nordic countries (the Netherlands, Estonia, Latvia, Denmark, Finland), where more than half of the teachers report having been mobile for professional reasons. In contrast, teachers are less mobile in southern and eastern European countries, where less than 40% report mobility. Between 2013 and 2018, **international mobility of teachers**<sup>3</sup> increased on average in the 17 European countries that participated in both rounds of the TALIS survey. The largest increases are observed in Cyprus (+26 points), the Netherlands (+24 points), Denmark and Estonia (+20 points), which are countries where the mobility rate was already among the highest in 2013. France shows an overall increase of 17 points.

The results of the TALIS 2018 survey included in the Eurydice report reveal that foreign language teachers (FLT) are on average twice as likely as other teachers to report a professional stay abroad (71% on average in the EU and 78% in France). FLT teachers who do not report mobility for a professional reason as a student, teacher or both may have been abroad for other reasons, such as an *au-pair* stay, which is also conducive to cultural and linguistic enrichment.

TALIS 2018 also shows that, on average in Europe, of all teachers surveyed, 33% had been mobile as a practising teacher (36% in France) and 8% during initial teacher education only (5% in France) **(4.8.2)**. Among those who were mobile as a teacher, about one-third were also mobile during their initial teacher education (13 % on average in Europe and 11 % in France). Finally, school trips are the main reason for mobility mentioned by teachers in France (81%), but also in Europe (52%) [Eurydice, 2021].

### NATIONAL PROGRAMMES TO SUPPORT TEACHER MOBILITY

In 2019-2020, the majority of European education systems that participated in the 2018 TALIS survey, including France, provides national funding programmes to support teachers' international mobility for **professional development**<sup>4</sup> purposes **(4.8.3)**.

While in more than a third of these countries, including France, the programmes are open to all teachers, regardless of the subject taught, only France also offers programmes targeting language teachers. Less than a quarter of the countries target only language teachers. Similarly, the duration of the proposed mobility varies greatly: from four days to a year or more [Eurydice, 2021]. France is the only country to offer mobility of up to three years ("Jules Verne" and "Codofil" programmes), but two-week programmes – language training and a professional stay to exchange good teaching practices and develop inter-school partnerships – are still the most common<sup>1</sup>.

### MOBILE TEACHERS ARE MORE LIKELY TO BENEFIT FROM EU FUNDING THAN FROM NATIONAL OR REGIONAL SCHEMES

The TALIS 2018 survey questionnaire allowed teachers to specify how their mobility had taken place: European programme, national or regional programme, programme arranged by a school or a school district in which it is located, or outside any programme (by the teacher's own initiative). The last type (outside any programme) is the most common in Europe (49% on average), and in France (55%). Fewer mobile teachers reported having benefited from a funding programme, whether national/regional or European. On average, 22% of mobile teachers had mobility supported by a European programme (such as the Comenius project, or more recently "Key Action 1" of the Erasmus+ 2014-2020 programme) and 15% had been supported by a national or regional programme. In France, they are 14% and 10% respectively **(4.8.4)**. Thus, in Europe, as in France, the use of an EU funding programme is more common than a regional or national funding scheme.

Beyond the data presented by Eurydice, data on Erasmus+ funded mobilities in 2018<sup>2</sup> show that school education staff (teachers and/or non-teaching staff such as educational, managerial or inspection staff in ISCED 1-3) received Erasmus+ funding to participate, above all, in structured courses/training events (72% of respondents on average in the EU and 53% in France): **4.8.5**. France has the highest rate of participation in job-shadowing activities (46%), which is significantly higher than the EU average (27%). However, in the absence of a breakdown by category of staff and level of education, these data should therefore be treated with caution. ■

1. Sources: MENJS (Jules Verne database) and France Education International (Codofil database, language courses and professional stays).

2. Source: European Commission, 2020, *Erasmus+ Annual Report 2018*, p. 21.

<sup>1</sup> See Annexes.



## 4.9 TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR PROFESSION

### EUROPEAN TEACHERS DO NOT REGRET THEIR CAREER CHOICE, BUT FEEL THAT THEY ARE NOT VALUED BY SOCIETY

The **TALIS 2018**<sup>21</sup> survey highlights the fact that few teachers regret having chosen this profession and at the same time quite a few feel that it is not valued by society. Indeed, on average of the 23 EU countries surveyed by the OECD, only 9% of ISCED 2 teachers say they regret having chosen this profession, but only 18% of teachers at this level of education say they feel that their profession is valued in society **(4.9.1)**.

With regard to regret about the choice of profession, many countries are close to the European average (Belgium, Finland, France and Italy) and therefore have low proportions of teachers who regret their choice. Some countries, however, have higher proportions of teachers making this statement: Sweden (12%), Lithuania (16%) and Portugal (22%).

At the same time, five EU-23 countries – Croatia, France, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia – have no more than 9% of teachers who feel that their profession is valued by society. This feeling is much stronger in Finland (58%), Cyprus (43%), Romania (41%) and the Netherlands (31%) than in France (7%), Slovenia (6%) or Slovakia (5%).

### YOUNG TEACHERS IN EUROPE ARE MORE OFTEN STRESSED AT WORK THAN OLDER TEACHERS

In 2018, on average in the 23 countries that participated in the TALIS survey, 16 % of ISCED 2 teachers declared themselves to be very stressed at work **(4.9.2)**. In the EU-23, more than one in five teachers made this statement in seven countries (including Belgium, Hungary or Portugal), with a maximum of 32% in Hungary. Romania has the lowest proportion of highly stressed teachers in the EU-23 (5%). France, with 11% of highly stressed teachers, is in a more favourable situation than the European countries on average.

Moreover, it is teachers under 30 years of age who report stress at work more often: the gap between the two generations of teachers is particularly large in Estonia and Bulgaria (10 percentage points), the Netherlands (9) and Finland (8), while it is 5 points in France. Only Bulgaria has a share of stressed individuals that is lower among younger teachers than among older teachers (11 points difference in favour of the young ones).

Many other indicators could be related to this one. For example, it is interesting to see, in Bulgaria in particular, that many teachers report stress at work (38%) and that few (23%) say that their job leaves time for private life **(4.9.3)**. In France and Italy, among others, few teachers report high levels of stress (11% and 6% respectively) and a large majority of teachers report having free time (77% and 68%), which places the countries favourably within the EU-23.

### YOUNGER TEACHERS ARE MORE SATISFIED WITH THEIR SALARY THAN OLDER TEACHERS

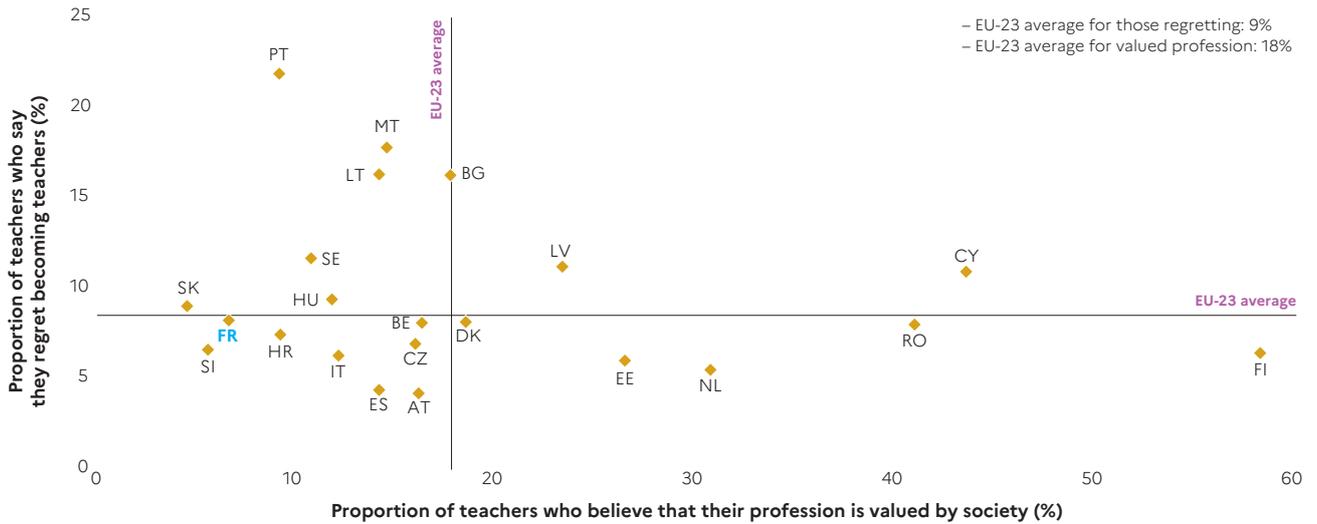
In the TALIS 2018 survey, teachers are asked whether they are satisfied with their salary. Only 38% of teachers in the EU-23 responded positively to this question. Austria and Belgium have the highest proportion of teachers who are satisfied with their salary (70% and 65% respectively), while Lithuania (11%) and Portugal (9%) have the lowest. It should be noted, however, that responses differ according to age: on average in the 23 EU countries that participated in TALIS 2018, 52% of teachers under 30 years of age are satisfied with their salary, while this proportion drops to 34% for teachers over 50 **(4.9.4)**.

However, in five EU-23 countries (Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Romania and the Slovak Republic), less than 30% of young teachers rate their salary favourably (16% in the Slovak Republic), compared with more than 60% in five others (Austria, Belgium, Spain, Denmark and Italy), with the highest value observed in Denmark (81%). As for teachers aged over 50, only in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus and Denmark over 60% of them are satisfied with their salary, while in five other countries (Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal and the Slovak Republic) less than 20% are satisfied. Teachers in Austria, Belgium and Denmark thus seem relatively satisfied with their salary at all ages. In France, 45% of teachers aged under 30 and 26% of those aged over 50 say they are satisfied with their salary, which is lower than the European average for all age groups. Two cases should also be noted: Cyprus and Italy. The former has the most positive difference between the two age groups, with a gain in satisfaction of 39 points for the oldest, while the latter has the most negative difference, with a "loss" of satisfaction of 50 points for teachers over 50. ■

<sup>21</sup> See Annexes.

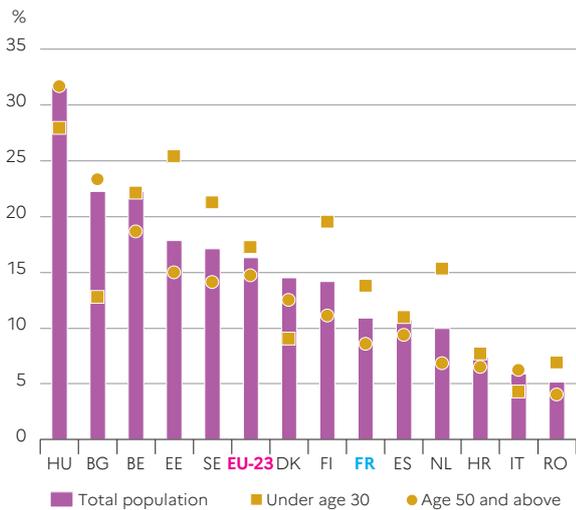
#### 4.9.1 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who believe that their profession is valued in society and proportion of teachers who say they regret becoming teachers, 2018

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018, Table I.4.34.



#### 4.9.2 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who declare experiencing stress at work "a lot" by age, 2018

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.2.39.



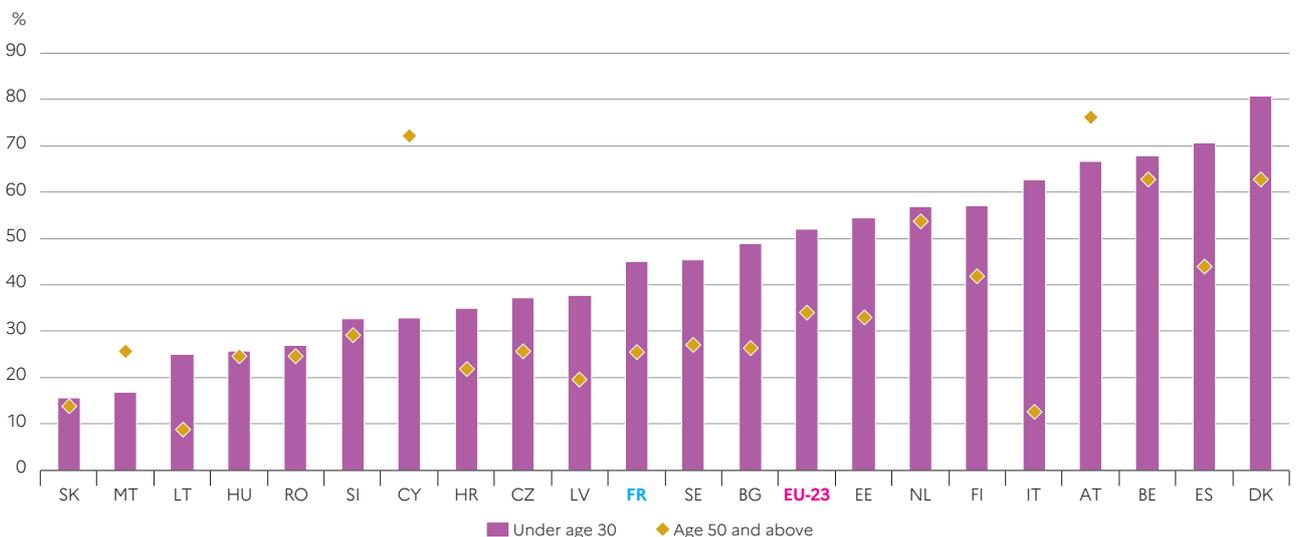
#### 4.9.3 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who declare that their job leave them time for their personal life, 2018

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.2.36.



#### 4.9.4 Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who declare that they are satisfied with their salary by age, 2018

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.3.56.





# CHAPTER 5

## THE RESULTS OF EUROPEAN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

**The objectives of the European education strategy for 2030**

**The European education strategy for 2030:  
youth participation and attainment levels**

**The European education strategy for 2030:  
young people's skills**

**Further insights into skills: TIMSS 2019**

**The Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) on education,  
from a gender perspective**

# 5.1 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE EUROPEAN EDUCATION STRATEGY FOR 2030

## A recently defined EU education strategy ZOOM

Education and training policies have become particularly important in the European Union (EU) since the adoption of the Lisbon Strategy in 2000. In 2021, the European Union established a new strategy (the third since Lisbon) in which it has set seven education and training targets for 2030. The EU education and training objectives or targets set for 2030 should be seen as reference levels of European average performance. They are monitored at European level by comparable data and taking into account the diversity of situations in the Member States. Of the seven objectives defined by the Council, five are currently the subject of comprehensive statistical monitoring.

## FIVE TARGETS ARE CURRENTLY BEING MONITORED

The European Union (EU) has set five targets 2030 which are already statistically monitored on an annual basis:

1. Participation in early childhood care and education (ECEC): by 2030, at least 96% of children between 3 years old and the age of starting compulsory primary education should participate in education.
2. Early leaving from education and training (ELET): by 2030, the share of early leavers from education and training should be less than 9%.
3. Low level of basic skills: by 2030, the share of low-achieving 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and science is expected to be below 15%.
4. Low **digital literacy**<sup>□</sup>: by 2030, the share of eighth graders with low achievement in computer and information literacy should be less than 15%.
5. Higher education graduates: by 2030, at least 45% of people aged 25-34 should have a higher education degree.

Two other targets, on work-based learning and adult education, have also been set but are not yet fully monitored by Eurostat.

## WHERE DO THE EUROPEAN UNION COUNTRIES STAND IN RELATION TO THE TARGETS MONITORED IN 2022?

At this stage, the weighted average of the 27 EU Member States is below the five targets monitored (**5.1.1 and 5.1.2**). Moreover, no EU-27 country has yet achieved all the targets.

In total, by 2022, only Belgium, France and Ireland have achieved three targets, and 10 countries (including Spain, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal and Finland) have achieved two. The target for insufficient mastery in basic skills is the least frequently achieved by countries. In **PISA 2018**<sup>□</sup>, Estonia, Finland and Poland were the only EU countries to have less than 15% of students with low proficiency in all three areas assessed by the survey.

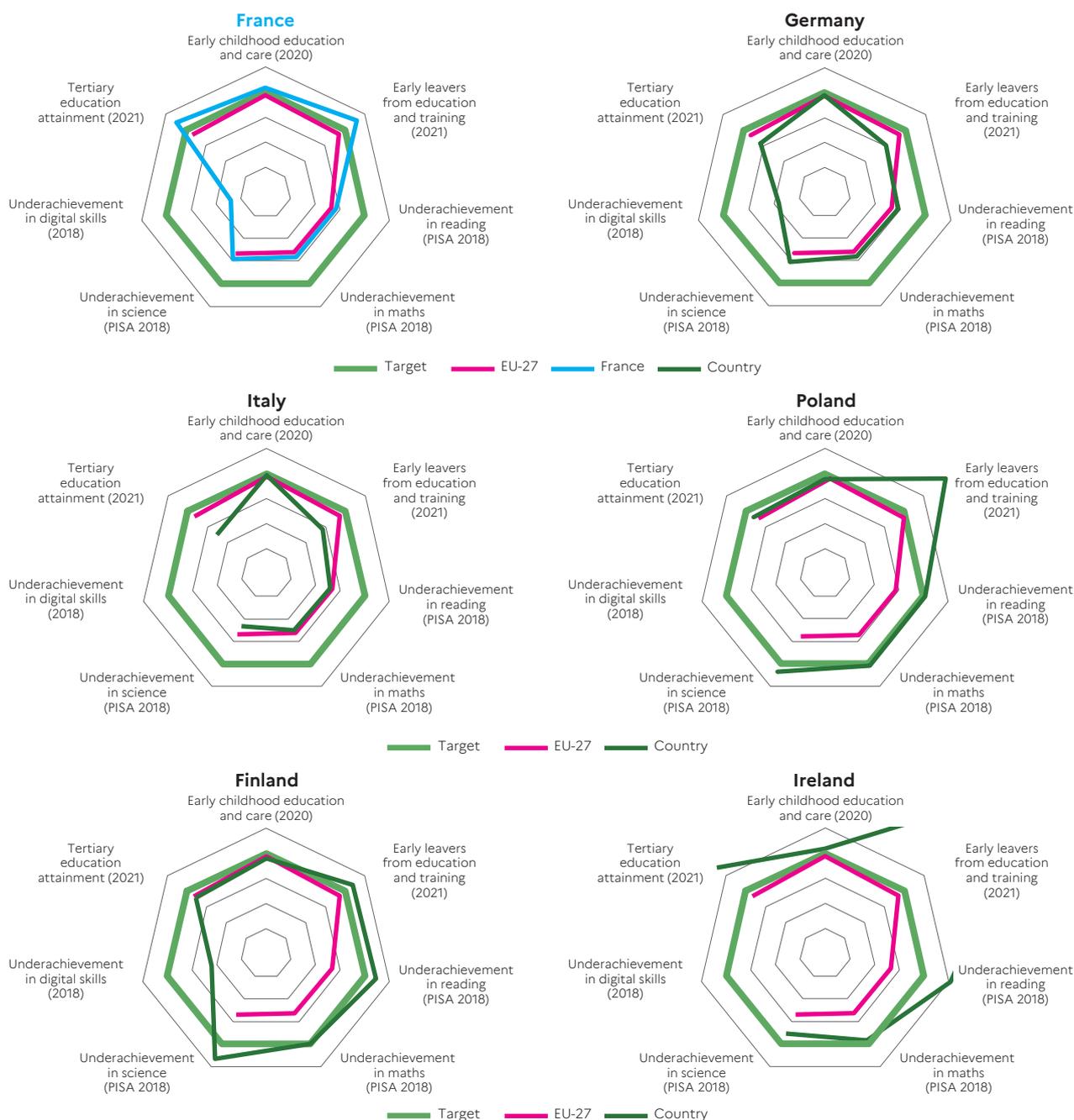
In 2022, France's performance exceeds the common targets for participation in education and training and for qualification levels. Indeed, in this country, 100% of children between 3 and 6 years old participate in education, less than 8% of 18-24 year olds are early school leavers and more than 50% of young adults aged 25-34 years old have a tertiary education. However, as in other EU countries, France's performance falls short of the collective targets for student skills : around 21% of 15-year-olds do not have a sufficient level of competences in reading, mathematical and scientific literacy, and more than 40% of fourth-grade students have insufficient digital literacy skills.

To meet these objectives, countries are developing reforms in different aspects of their education systems. In 2018, Finland implemented a major reform that aims to improve the quality and participation in early childhood education schemes (recruitment of Master's level teachers, lower costs for families from disadvantaged backgrounds, among others). In Spain, a programme aimed at supporting pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds was launched at the end of 2018 to reduce school failure and in particular early exit from education and training. Finally, although Ireland has a high average proportion of higher education graduates, the "New National Access Plan 2022-2026" aims, among other things, to increase inclusion in access to higher education among disadvantaged groups, particularly in prestigious programmes. In France, the Ministry of Education has introduced the "French plan" and the "Mathematics plan" with the aim of strengthening the basic skills of students. These two measures reinforce in-service training in the teaching of French and mathematics for all primary school teachers. Over a cycle of six school years and through "constellations" (groups of six to eight teachers) placed under the supervision of educational advisers, in-depth work is carried out combining didactic and pedagogical contributions and cross-observation within classes. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

### 5.1.1 Relative position of different countries with respect to the European 2030 strategy regarding education and training, 2022

↳ Eurostat, edat\_lfse\_03, edat\_lfse\_14, edat\_lfse\_24, educ\_uoe\_enra21, educ\_outc\_pisa.



Note: some data are provisional at the time of publication.

### 5.1.2 Results of each country presented in figure 5.1.1 with respect to European 2030 strategy regarding education and training targets, 2022

↳ Eurostat, edat\_lfse\_03, edat\_lfse\_14, edat\_lfse\_24, educ\_uoe\_enra21, educ\_outc\_pisa.

	Early childhood education and care (2020)	Early leavers from education and training (2021)	Underachievement				Tertiary education attainment (2021)
			Reading (PISA 2018)	Maths (PISA 2018)	Science (PISA 2018)	Digital skills (ICILS 2018)	
<b>EU-27</b>	<b>93.0</b>	<b>9.7</b>	<b>22.5</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>22.3</b>	-	<b>41.2</b>
Germany	93.7	11.8	20.7	21.1	19.6	33.2	35.7
Ireland	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>11.8</b>	15.7	17.0	-	<b>61.7</b>
Spain	<b>97.2</b>	13.3	23.2	24.7	21.3	-	<b>48.7</b>
<b>France</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>20.9</b>	<b>21.3</b>	<b>20.5</b>	<b>43.5</b>	<b>50.3</b>
Italy	94.6	12.7	23.3	23.8	25.9	-	28.3
Poland	90.8	<b>5.9</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>13.8</b>	-	40.6
Finland	90.9	<b>8.2</b>	<b>13.5</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>12.9</b>	27.3	40.1
<b>Target</b>	<b>≥ 96%</b>	<b>&lt; 9%</b>	<b>&lt; 15%</b>	<b>&lt; 15%</b>	<b>&lt; 15%</b>	<b>&lt; 15%</b>	<b>≥ 45%</b>

Note: figures in bold in the table correspond to cases where the target is met.

## 5.2 THE EUROPEAN EDUCATION STRATEGY FOR 2030: YOUTH PARTICIPATION AND ATTAINMENT LEVELS

### A EUROPEAN STRATEGY TO DEVELOP PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION FROM THE AGE OF 3

In 2019-2020, the proportion of children participating in education among those aged between 3 years and the age of starting compulsory primary education is 93% in the EU-27 countries on average. Only five countries have exceeded the EU target of 96%, and of these five, France and Ireland are the only countries with an 100% participation rate (5.2.1). Some countries remain far from the collective target at this stage: Greece (71.3%), the Slovak Republic (78.1%) and Romania (78.2%). However, the idea of the importance of early schooling is gaining ground in Europe. For example, Greece has gradually implemented a reform in its territory (between 2018 and 2021), which aims to lower the starting age for compulsory education from 5 to 4 years.

### A SIGNIFICANT DECREASE IN EARLY SCHOOL LEAVING FROM EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN EUROPE

In 2021, on average in the EU-27, 9.7% of young people are early leavers, i.e. are aged between 18 and 24, have no diploma and are neither in education nor training (ELET), whereas the objective is to have less than 9% in 2030 (5.2.2). This indicator includes not only the leavers of the year 2021 ("flow"), a year marked by the Covid-19 crisis, but also all individuals aged 18 to 24 who are, in 2021, in the situation described above ("stock"), whatever the year in which this situation occurred.

In 2021, France has already reached this target: 7.8% of young people aged 18 to 24 are ELET. The target has also been reached by 15 other EU-27 countries. In contrast, Germany (11.8%), Italy (12.7%) and Spain, which has the second highest proportion of the 27 in 2021 (13.3%), have not yet reached the target.

Over the past decade, the situation has improved in all EU-27 countries, with the average falling from 13.2% in 2011 to 9.7% in 2021. In France, the proportion of early school leavers has continued to decline from 12.3% in 2011 to 7.8% in 2021. Everywhere, the decrease in ELET rates is observed for both boys and girls, but there are still more early leavers among boys than among girls in 2021: 9.6 % of boys in France and 11.4% on average in the EU-27, compared with 6.1% of girls in France and 7.9% on average in the EU-27 (5.2.3). Conversely, in Germany, a significant increase in early school leavers can be observed between 2020 (10.1%) and 2021 (11.8%), after stagnating between 2015 and 2020. In this country, the increase concerns both boys (+1.8 points) and girls (+1.6 points).

In some countries, proactive and coordinated policy interventions seem to have contributed to a decrease in ELET. In Portugal, for example, the ELET rate has fallen from 23% in 2011 to 5.9% in 2021 (a 17.1 percentage point decrease, the highest in the EU-27 over the period). In this country, many reforms and strategies have been put in place since 2012. In particular, the "National Plan for the Promotion of School Success" (*Programa Nacional de Promoção do Sucesso Escolar*), implemented between 2016 and 2019, includes new assessment schemes in primary and lower secondary education and a tutoring system for repeaters. The plan is based on close cooperation between local education authorities and local clusters of schools.

### HIGHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS CONTINUE TO RISE AMONG YOUNG ADULTS IN EUROPE

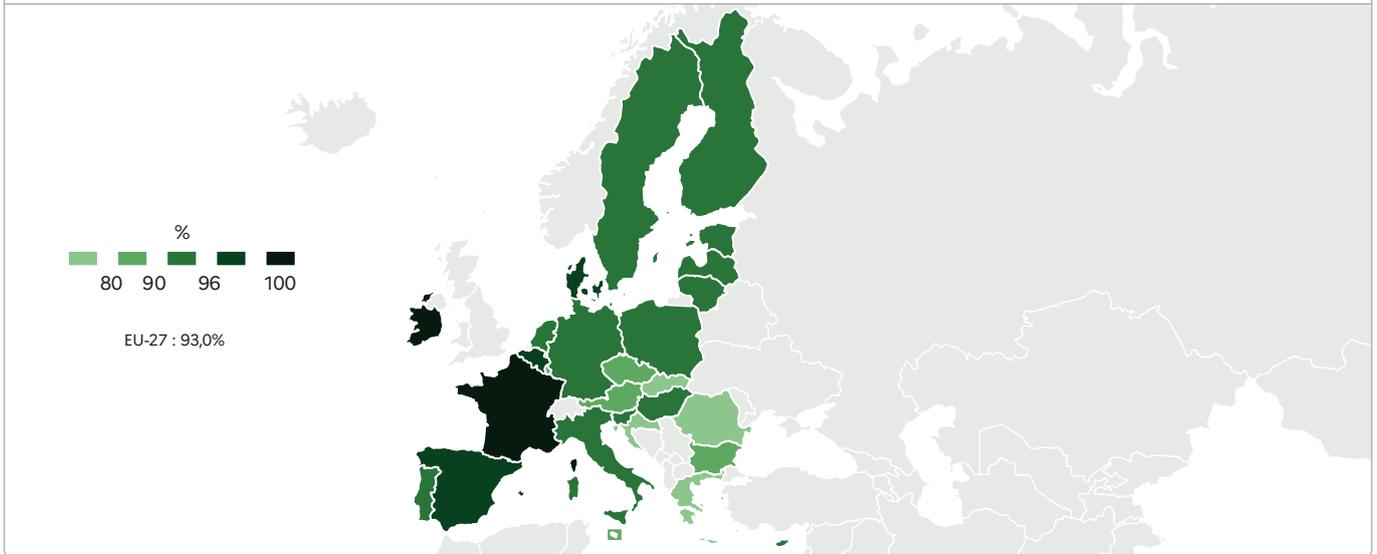
In 2021, on average in the EU-27, 41.2% of young people aged 25-34 had a higher education qualification (5.2.4). The target of 45% by 2030 has therefore not yet been reached on average, but it has been reached in 13 countries, including France (here, 50.3% of 25-34 year-olds have higher education qualifications). Among the 14 countries that have not yet reached the target are Poland (40.6%), Germany (35.7%) and especially Italy (28.3%).

Across the 27 Member States, women are more likely than men to be graduates of higher education, with an average gender gap of 11 points (5.2.5). Among the countries that already have more than 45% of graduates, France has the smallest gender gap (54.2% women and 46.0% men, a gap of 8 points). In some other countries, higher education graduates are notably rare among men: in Italy, 22.3 % of men have a degree compared to 34.4 % of women.

In addition, some disciplines are gender-biased. Women are often over-represented in courses leading to teaching (in 2020, 80% of EU-27 students in this field are women) or health professions (74%), in literary or artistic disciplines (68%) and social sciences (68%). On the other hand, there are far fewer women in courses such as Information and Communication Technologies (they represent only 21% of the EU-27 students in this field in 2020) or manufacturing (27%). The orientation of women in secondary and tertiary education helps to explain some of the gender inequalities in wages or status (see 6.2). ■

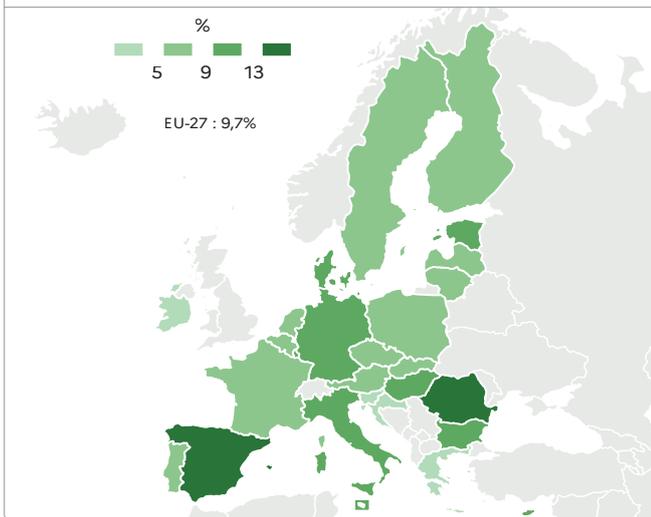
### 5.2.1 Participation rate of children between 3 years old and the age of entry into compulsory primary education in 2019-2020

↳ Eurostat, UOE data collection, educ\_uoe\_enra21.



### 5.2.2 Proportion of early school leavers among 18-24 year olds, 2021

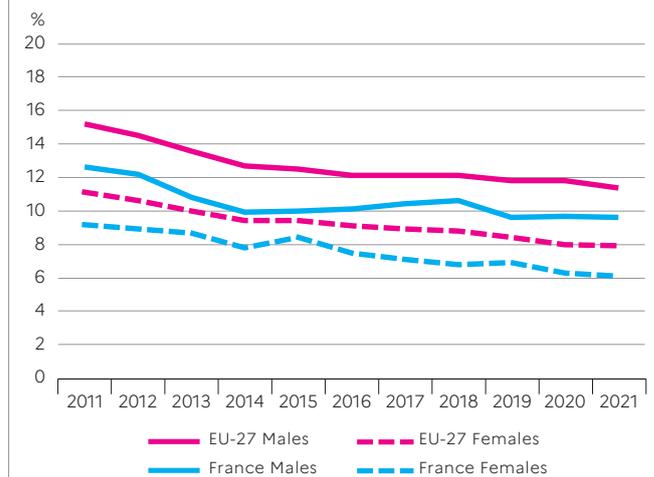
↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, edat\_lfse\_14.



Note: the data for every country is considered provisional.

### 5.2.3 Proportion of early school leavers among 18-24 year olds in the EU and in France by gender between 2011 and 2021

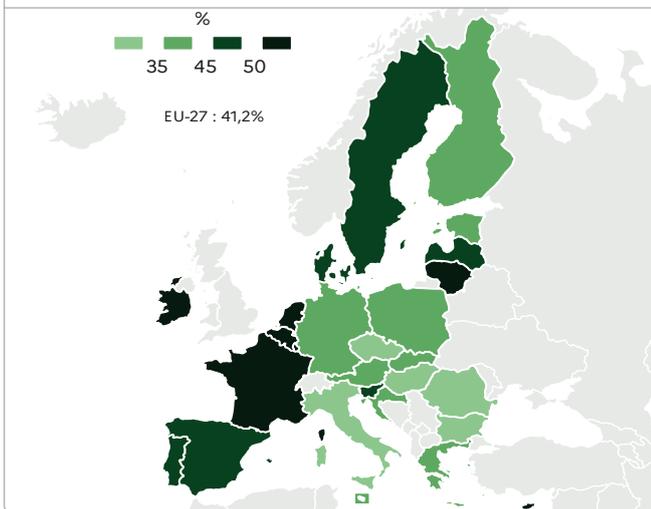
↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, edat\_lfse\_14; DEPP, Repères et références statistiques 2021.



Note: provisional data for France and EU-27 in 2021.

### 5.2.4 Proportion of 25-34 year olds with higher educational attainment in 2021

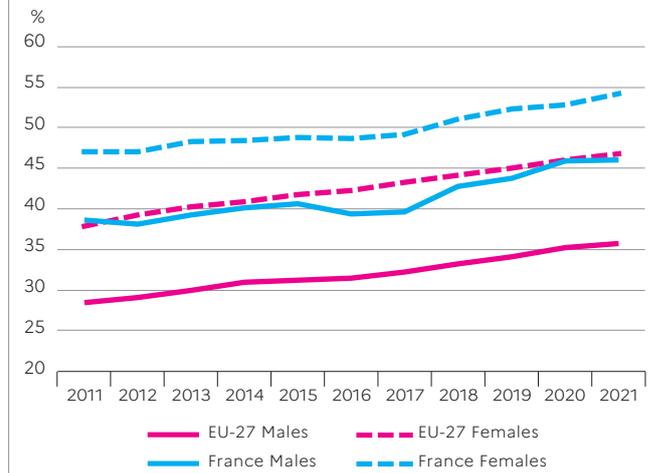
↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, edat\_lfse\_03.



Note: the data for every country is considered provisional.

### 5.2.5 Proportion of 25-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment in the EU and in France by gender between 2011 et 2021

↳ Eurostat, enquête EU-LFS, edat\_lfse\_03.



Note: provisional data for France and EU-27 in 2021.

## 5.3 THE EUROPEAN EDUCATION STRATEGY FOR 2030: YOUNG PEOPLE'S SKILLS

### LARGE PROPORTIONS OF STUDENTS WITH A LOW LEVEL OF BASIC SKILLS IN FRANCE AND IN EUROPE

The EU-27 education and training strategy for 2030 (see 5.1) sets a target of having less than 15% of students who are “low performers”, i.e. those who are in a performance group below “level 2” in each of the three domains in **PISA 2018**<sup>1</sup>. In the distribution by level group, Level 2 is the threshold at which “students begin to be able to use their reading skills to acquire knowledge and solve practical problems”.

On average in the EU-27, 22.5% of 15-year-old students do not reach the minimum proficiency threshold in the major assessment domain in PISA 2018, namely reading literacy (**5.3.1**). The situation is similar in the other two domains assessed (mathematics and science), which are minor domains in 2018, where the European average is 22.9% and 22.3% respectively. The EU wants each of these proportions to be below 15% by 2030.

In France, the situation is slightly better than the European average: there are about 21% of students with low achievement in each of the three areas assessed in France. Germany is close to France, but Spain and Italy are in more difficult situations. Only Estonia, Finland and Poland had less than 15% of students with low proficiency in all three domains in PISA 2018.

In the EU-27 countries as a whole, boys are more likely than girls to have low levels of literacy. In France, only 16.3% of girls are low achievers, compared to 25.4% of 15-year-old boys. These proportions are similar to those observed in Germany, Belgium and Portugal. Spain and Italy, on the other hand, have higher proportions: in these two countries, about 28% of boys are low achievers compared to about 18% of girls in the same situation. In scientific literacy, the same is true, as boys are more often lowly competent than girls, but in mathematics there is no significant difference between the two sexes.

According to PISA 2018, on average in the EU-27 countries, 23% of 15-year-old students have low reading literacy skills (5.3.1a web). Between 2009 and 2018, the share of pupils with low skills increased by 3 percentage points in the EU-27. In the EU, eight countries also experienced an increase in the share of low achievers, including Finland (+5 percentage points) or the Netherlands (+10 points). Only Ireland (-5 points) and Slovenia (-3 points) saw a decrease in these proportions between the two PISA editions. In France, this share remained stable (20% of students in 2009).

<sup>1</sup> See Annexes.

### ONLY A QUARTER OF EU COUNTRIES ARE BOTH EFFICIENT AND FAIR

Figure **5.3.2** relates students' average reading literacy scores in PISA 2018 (vertical axis) to the share of variation in these scores explained by the index of economic, social and cultural status, known as ESCS (horizontal axis). The EU-27 countries are evenly distributed above and below the average performance of OECD countries, but also on both sides of the OECD average equity axis.

France combines a low equity of outcomes (18% of the variation in outcomes is explained by the ESCS index), a share comparable to Germany or Belgium, and an average score slightly above the OECD average. The Netherlands, which also has a performance score close to the OECD average, is however characterised by a higher equity of outcomes than the OECD (11% of the variation in outcomes explained by the ESCS, compared to 12% for the OECD average). A particularly advantageous position is found in Estonia (where youth skills and equity are above the OECD average), while several Eastern European countries, but also Luxembourg, have low average student performance and low equity of outcome.

### NO COUNTRY IN EUROPE MEETS THE E-SKILLS TARGET

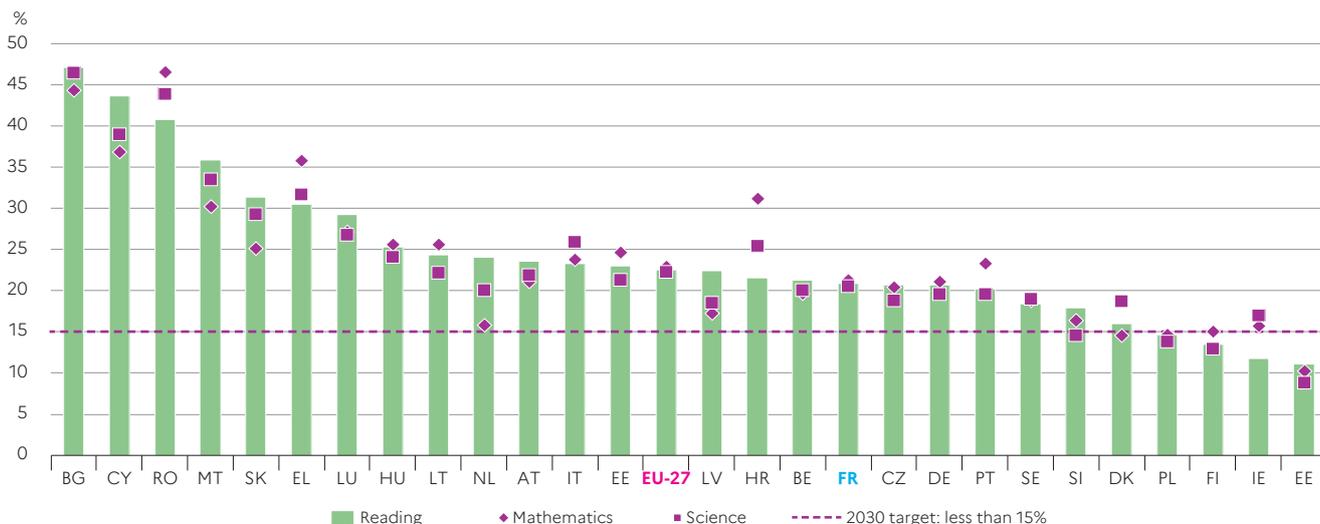
The digital literacy target is being monitored by the IEA's **ICILS 2018**<sup>1</sup> survey. To reach the target, countries will need to have less than 15% of eighth-grade students in compulsory education with low computer and information literacy, which is defined as *ability to use computers to investigate, create, and communicate in order to participate effectively at home, at school, in the workplace, and in the community*. In 2018, only six EU countries participated in the survey, and calculating a European average is impossible on such a limited number.

All six countries exceed the EU's maximum threshold of 15% of pupils with low digital skills: averages range from 16.2% in Denmark to 43.5% in France and 50.6% in Luxembourg (**5.3.3**).

Across the EU countries that participated in ICILS survey in 2018, girls outperformed boys: in France, 37.2% of girls in the fourth grade perform poorly in digital literacy, compared to 49.2% of boys. In Denmark, girls already reach the European target (10.7% in 2018), while the proportion of low proficient students is twice as high for boys (21.6%). ■

### 5.3.1 Proportion of low performers among 15 year olds in Reading, Mathematics and Science, 2018

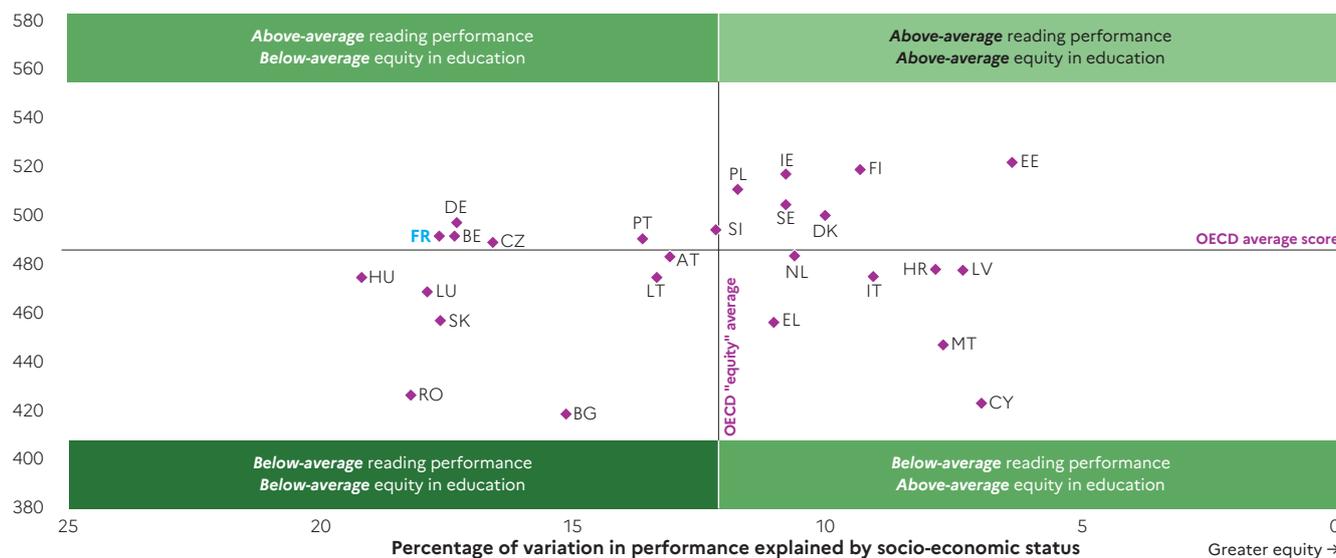
OCDE, PISA 2018 table I.B1.7, I.B1.8, I.B1.7.



### 5.3.2 Student performance in reading literacy and equity of performance in 2018

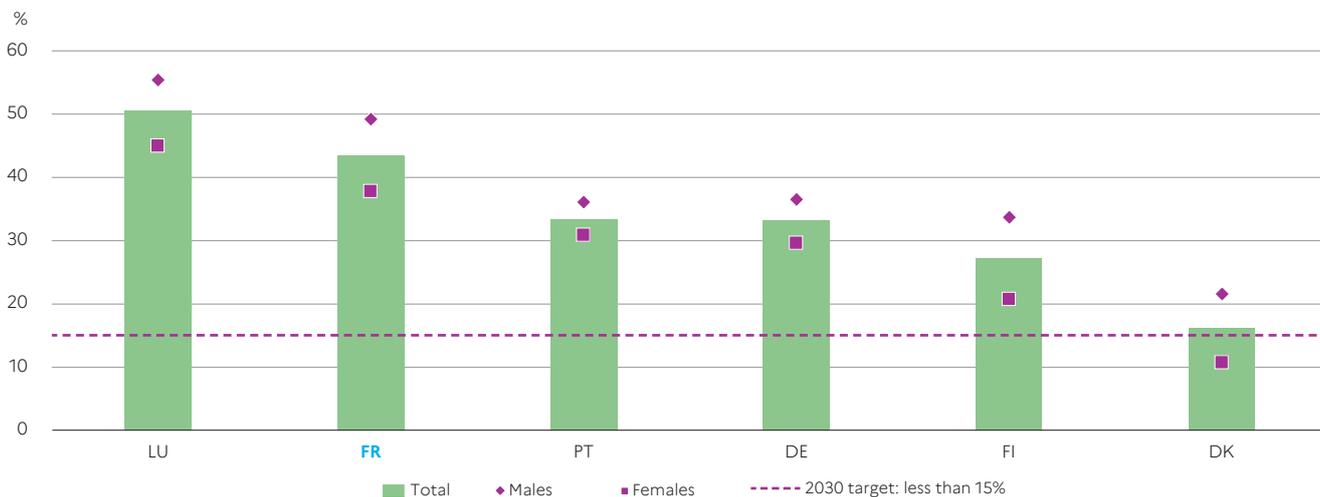
OCDE, PISA 2018, table II.B1.2.3.

Mean score



### 5.3.3 Proportion of students in grade 8 with insufficient computer and information literacy, by gender, 2018

IEA, ICILS 2018.



## 5.4 FURTHER INSIGHTS INTO SKILLS: TIMSS 2019

Within the programme called “Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS<sup>□</sup>)” an assessment is carried out every four years by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Performance in mathematics and science of students in grades 4 and 8 is assessed (in France, grades *CM1* and *4<sup>e</sup>*). In 2019, 21 countries in the European Union of 27 (EU-27) participated in the TIMSS test for pupils in grade 4 and 10 countries for eighth graders.

ZOOM

### FRANCE LAGS BEHIND WITH REGARDS TO STUDENT SKILLS AT THE END OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

In 2019, in the latest round of TIMSS survey, pupils in the fourth grade of education (*CM1* class in France) in the participating EU-27 countries achieved an average score of 527 points in mathematics and 522 points in science. While some EU countries scored above these averages – such as Latvia (546 in mathematics and 542 in science) or Finland (532 and 555 respectively) – others had average scores that were sometimes much lower, such as Italy (515 and 510) or Spain (502 and 511). This is also the case in France, where *CM1* pupils scored 485 in mathematics and 488 in science.

The TIMSS survey divides students according to their score into skill groups: “advanced” (score of 625 points or more); “high” (550 or more); “intermediate” (475 or more); “low” (400 or more). Students with a score below 400 points do not demonstrate basic knowledge. In the EU-27 countries that participated in the fourth grade, on average 94% of students reached at least the intermediate level.

The proportion of insufficiently proficient pupils varies from 2% in Austria, Latvia and the Netherlands to 15% in France for mathematics (5.4.1). The proportion of insufficiently proficient students ranges from 2% in Austria, Latvia and the Netherlands to 15% in France for mathematics (5.4.1). In science, the proportion ranges from 2% in Croatia and Latvia to 14% in France and Malta (5.4.2).

### IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, FRANCE'S POSITION ALSO LAGS BEHIND EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Pupils in the eighth grade (*classe de 4<sup>e</sup>* in France) in the 10 EU Member States which took part in TIMSS 2019 obtained an average score of 511 points in mathematics and 515 points in science. Again, some EU-27 countries scored high in both tests – Ireland (524 in maths and 523 in science) and Lithuania (521 and 534 respectively) – while Italy (498 and 500) and especially France (483 and 489) were lower.

□ See Annexes.

Compared to primary education, the distribution by skill groups in lower secondary education in France is better aligned with the EU average. The proportion of students who do not reach the “low” level is 12% in mathematics and 11% in science on average in Europe, compared to 12% and 13% respectively in France. In mathematics, the proportions range from 6% in Ireland to 22% in Romania (5.4.3), while in science it ranges from 5% in Portugal to 22% in Romania (5.4.4).

However, while France has a proportion of pupils who do not reach the “low” level of competences very close to that of European countries on average, it stands out for a high proportion of pupils whose competences are precisely at the “low” level of the scale. The proportions of eighth-graders in France who have a “low” level are 33% in mathematics and 28% in science, compared with an average of 23% and 20% respectively in the EU countries. For the “advanced” level group, the gap is again to France's disadvantage: only 2% of students in France are at the “advanced” level in mathematics (11% on average for the EU) and 3% in science (10% for the EU).

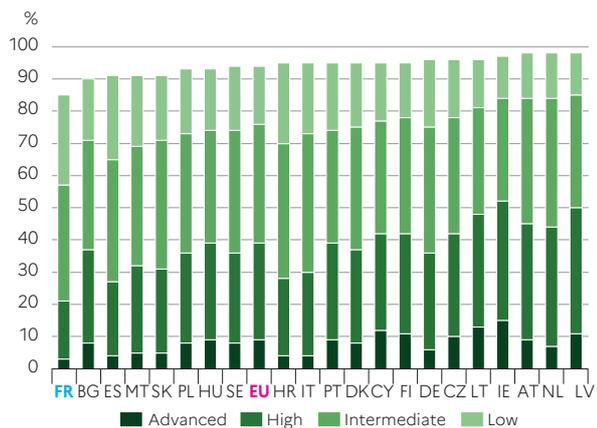
### IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, NATIONAL STANDARDISED TESTS ARE MORE COMMON IN MATHEMATICS THAN IN SCIENCE

The **Eurydice**<sup>□</sup> report on learning mathematics and science highlighted regular assessment of achievement as a tool contributing to student success<sup>1</sup>. In addition to international assessments, all European countries – except Greece, Croatia and Poland – have national standardised tests in mathematics in 2020-2021 (5.4.5). In primary education, these are most often exhaustive tests, taken by all pupils, although some countries (France, French-speaking Belgium) also use sample tests (Cedre programme in France). Certifying examinations are rarer at this level of education (French-speaking Belgium, Bulgaria). National tests in science are less common than in mathematics (i.e. in 41% of education systems) and more frequently conducted on a sample basis (5.4.6). ■

1. Source: Eurydice, 2022, *Increasing achievement and motivation in mathematics and science learning in schools*.

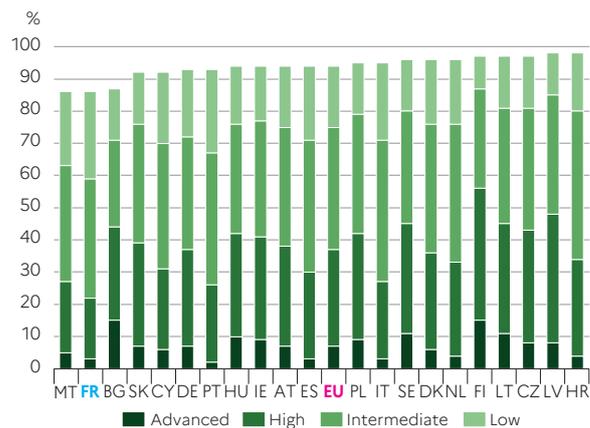
### 5.4.1 Proportion of students at each level of competence in mathematics in Grade 4, 2019

☞ IEA, TIMSS 2019, exhibit 1.8.



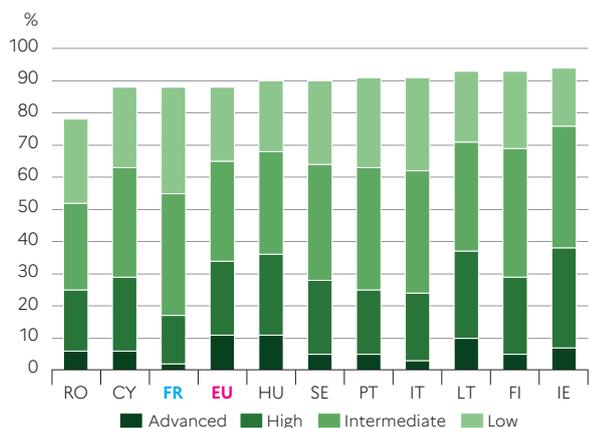
### 5.4.2 Proportion of students at each level of competence in science in Grade 4, 2019

☞ IEA, TIMSS 2019, exhibit 2.8.



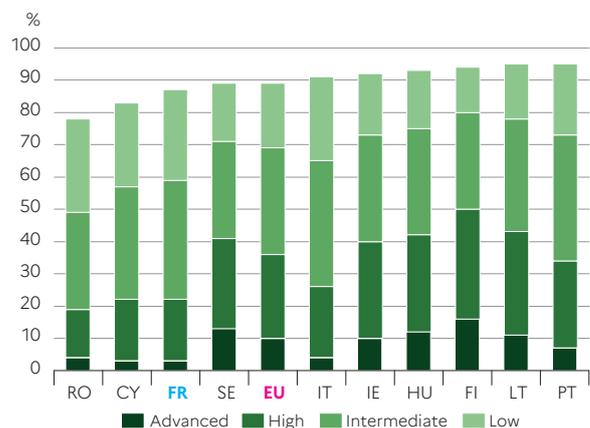
### 5.4.3 Proportion of students at each level of competence in mathematics in Grade 8, 2019

☞ IEA, TIMSS 2019, exhibit 3.8.



### 5.4.4 Proportion of students at each level of competence in science in Grade 8, 2019

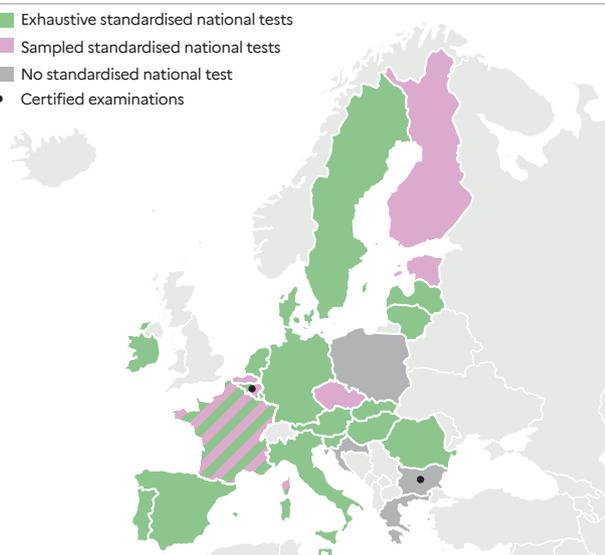
☞ IEA, TIMSS 2019, exhibit 4.8.



### 5.4.5 Presence of certified examinations and national tests in mathematics in primary education, 2020-2021

☞ Eurydice, *Increasing achievement and motivation in mathematics and science learning in schools*, figure 4.6.

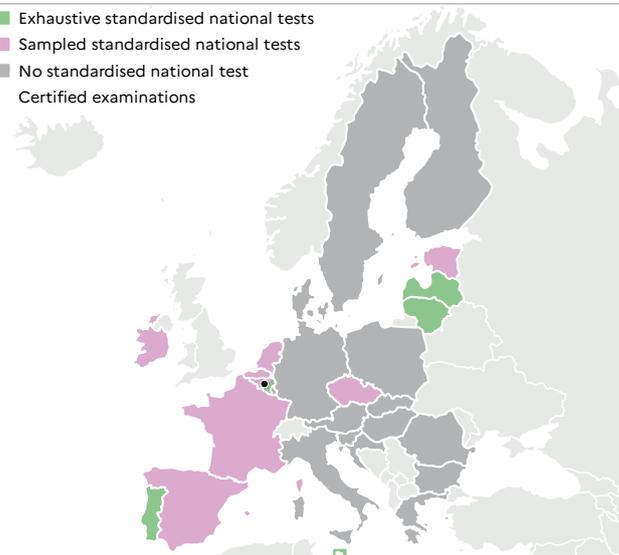
- Exhaustive standardised national tests
- Sampled standardised national tests
- No standardised national test
- Certified examinations



### 5.4.6 Presence of certified examinations and national tests in science in primary education, 2020-2021

☞ Eurydice, *Increasing achievement and motivation in mathematics and science learning in schools*, figure 4.6.

- Exhaustive standardised national tests
- Sampled standardised national tests
- No standardised national test
- Certified examinations



## 5.5 THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL (SDG) ON EDUCATION, FROM A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

### IN HIGH-INCOME COUNTRIES, SCHOOLING IN ISCED 3 IS ALMOST EQUAL BETWEEN GIRLS AND BOYS

In 2015, the member states of the United Nations adopted the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the fourth of which focuses on education. Composed of several targets, the SDG 4 aims for all girls and boys to complete free and quality primary and secondary education by 2030. One of the monitoring indicators measures the **proportion of girls and boys out of school**<sup>[1]</sup> (at any level of education) and who are of an age that corresponds to the upper secondary education age group (ISCED 3).

High-income countries generally show high participation rates of school-age young people in ISCED 3. Gender disparity is also generally low; where there is one, girls are usually advantaged. In 2019-2020 among the countries presented here (**5.5.1**), Australia has the highest gender difference, by 3 percentage points in favour of girls. Germany and France show almost gender parity, but very different proportions of out-of-school individuals: France counts 3% of them among girls and boys, while there are 17% of such young people in Germany among both sexes.

In less advantaged countries, by contrast, there is a greater gender disparity. According to a 2022 UNESCO report, more girls than boys are out of school worldwide. In Mozambique, for example, 66% of girls of ISCED 3 school age girls are not enrolled, compared to 57% of boys. Nevertheless, according to UNESCO, several low and middle-income countries are experiencing a reversal of the situation and are thus moving closer to high-income countries. In the Philippines, Thailand and Fiji, for example, there is respectively a 10, 12 and 15 point gap between girls and boys, in favour of girls.

### GIRLS PARTICIPATE LESS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION THAN BOYS

Another target of SDG 4 is that all women and men should have access to affordable, quality technical, vocational and higher education by 2030. In most regions of the world, boys aged 15-24 participate more than girls of the same age in vocational secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary or short-cycle tertiary education (**5.5.2**). This advantage is particularly noticeable in the countries of the European region, where average participation (regardless of gender) is also often high. Italy is the country with the highest gender disparity: 16% of

girls participate in vocational education, compared to 26% of boys. In France, 17% of girls and 22% of boys participate, similar to the situation in Germany (18% of girls and 23% of boys).

Lower participation of girls in vocational education may indicate a phenomenon of girls dropping out of school, as in developing countries: in Côte d'Ivoire, for example, 2% of girls aged 15-24 are enrolled in vocational education, but 63% of girls of the theoretical upper secondary school age are not enrolled at all in 2019-20. Conversely, this may indicate a higher participation of young women in general education or tertiary education, or lower access to apprenticeships.

In tertiary education, women are still under-represented in engineering, computer science and agriculture. For example, in Germany in 2019-2020, girls represent only 22% of students in the field of engineering in tertiary education (Eurostat).

### BOYS GENERALLY USE DIGITAL DEVICES MORE OFTEN THAN GIRLS

Another target of SDG 4 is to increase the number of people with relevant skills to improve access to decent job and entrepreneurship. In most countries that participated in **PISA 2018**<sup>[2]</sup>, more boys than girls aged 15 report using Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to send and receive e-mail every day or almost every day (**5.5.3**). Among all the countries observed here, Russia and Turkey show a particularly strong gender disparity, with a 16 percentage point difference in favour of boys. Australia has almost as many girls (46%) as boys (47%) who report using email every day or almost every day.

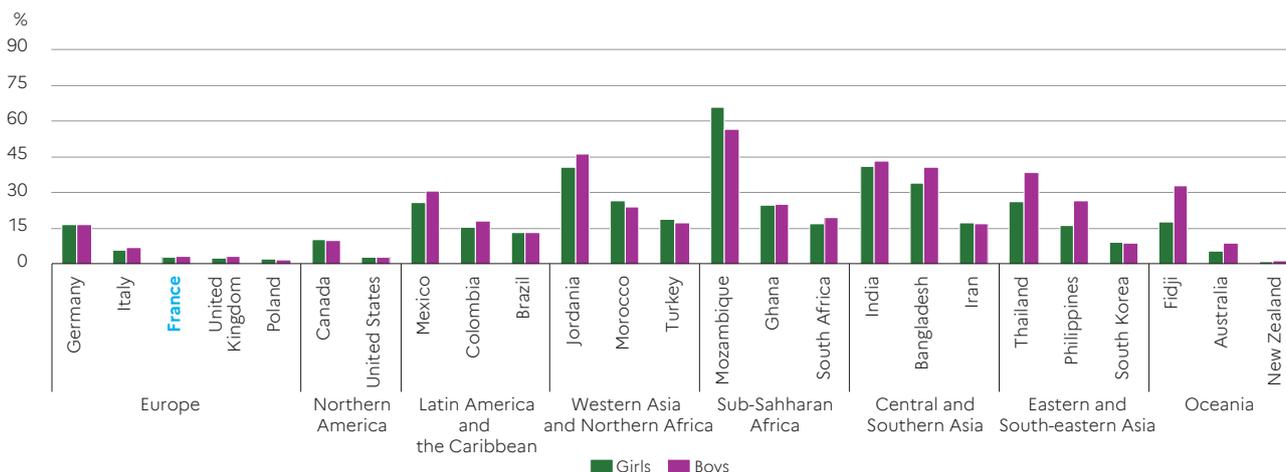
When it comes to obtaining practical information on the Internet, the gender disparities are less pronounced but generally still in favour of boys. In South Korea, however, girls report this digital practice more often than boys (39% and 35% respectively). In France, the gender difference is not so pronounced (less so than in the United Kingdom and Japan), but to the advantage of boys (46% of girls and 50% of boys).

In addition to digital practices, the level of competence in computer and information literacy (see 5.3) is decisive for the professional future of young generations. The **ICILS 2018**<sup>[3]</sup> survey showed that girls generally outperformed boys in this particular digital skill (see 5.3), but not in computational thinking, which consists in conceptualising certain specific problems and proposing solution. France follows this logic, with slightly higher results for boys in computational thinking. ■

<sup>[1]</sup> See Annexes.

### 5.5.1 Proportion of out-of-school girls and boys being in the theoretical age group of upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2019-2020

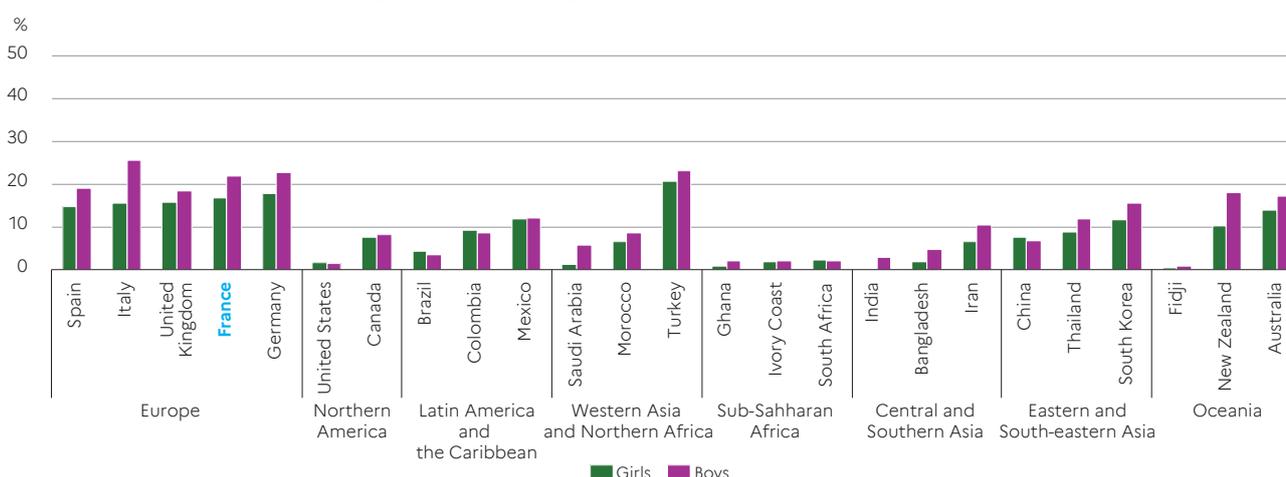
UNESCO, UOE data collection, [sdg4-data.uis.unesco.org](https://sdg4-data.uis.unesco.org).



Interpretation: in France in 2019-2020, 3.0% of girls and 3.2% of boys old enough to be enrolled in ISCED 3 are not enrolled at any level of education. Note: Estimates are subject to uncertainty due to possible discrepancies between the general and school population databases.

### 5.5.2 Proportion of 15-24 year olds girls and boys who participate in vocational programmes from secondary to short-cycle tertiary education, 2019-2020

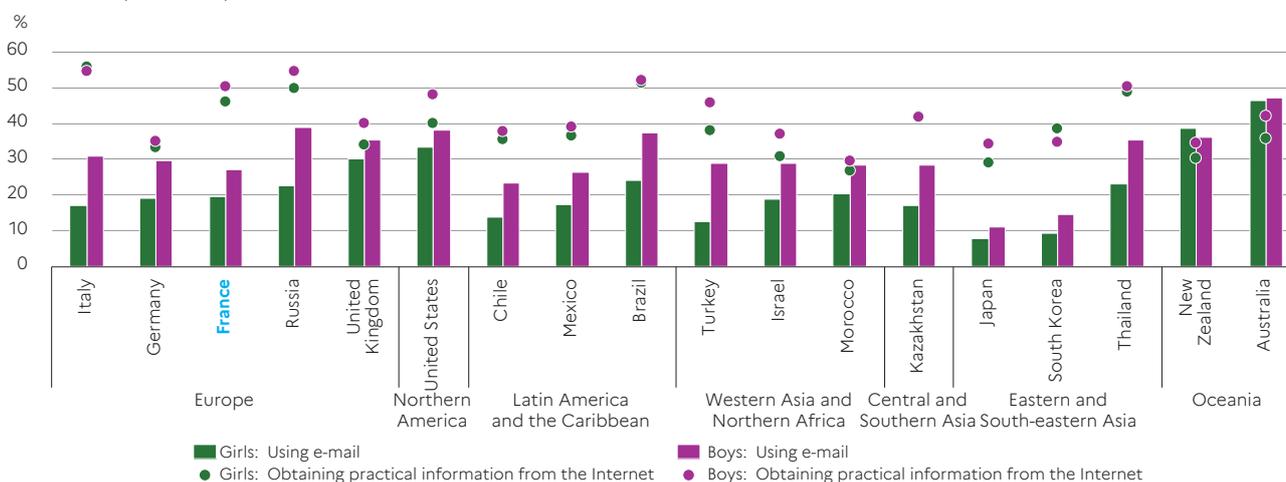
UNESCO, UOE data collection, [sdg4-data.uis.unesco.org](https://sdg4-data.uis.unesco.org).



Interpretation: in France in 2019-2020, 16.8% of girls and 21.9% of boys aged 15-24 participate in vocational secondary (for France, ISCED 35 only), post-secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 45) and short-cycle tertiary (ISCED 55) education.

### 5.5.3 Proportion of 15 year olds girls and boys who declare using every day or almost every day digital devices for the following activities, 2018

OCDE, PISA 2018, table II.B1.8.6.



Interpretation: in France in 2018, 46.1% of girls and 50.3% of boys aged 15 said that they use Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) every day or almost every day to obtain practical information on the internet.



# CHAPTER 6

## EDUCATION THROUGH THE LENS OF SOCIETY: WORK, HEALTH, VALUES

**Education, employment, unemployment, NEET**

**Income by level of education and gender**

**Education and health**

**Education and environmental issues**

# 6.1 EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT, UNEMPLOYMENT, NEET

## NEETs

ZOOM

NEET (Neither in employment, education or training) is defined as unemployed persons or inactive as defined by the ILO, who are not in initial education and who reported no formal or non-formal education in the four weeks prior to the survey (EU-LFS<sup>□</sup> survey). It therefore takes into account people's employment status rather than their level of qualification. The NEET indicator for a certain age group is a proportion of this specific population in the overall population of the same age.

## THE MOST PRECARIOUS POPULATION IS AT THE CROSSROADS OF NEET AND ELET

Two indicators – ELET (early leaving from education and training: see 5.2) and NEET – refer to young people who have left the school system and are not in training. However, the former only includes young people without qualifications (who have reached ISCED 2 or less), regardless of their labour market status, while the latter only includes young people who are unemployed, regardless of whether they have a qualification or not. These are therefore complementary indicators, the first being more relevant to the management of education policies and the second to labour policies.

Figure 6.1.1 shows the situation of young people aged 18 to 24 with regard to these two indicators in 2021. In the EU-27, 14% of young people in this age group are NEET, of which 8% have at least upper secondary education and 6% are early school leavers (ELET). Here, 10% of young people in this age group are early school leavers, of which 4% are in employment and 6% unemployed. The latter 6%, unemployed early school leavers, correspond to NEETs without qualifications. France is relatively well placed on the early leaver indicator, but not on the NEET indicator. In France and Italy, only one third of early school leavers are in employment, while this share approaches 50% in the EU-27 as a whole or in Germany. Moreover, in France and Italy, about two thirds of NEETs are graduates, while this share is below 50% in Germany. Access to employment is therefore more difficult for young people in France and Italy, whether they are graduates or not.

## THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION SYSTEMATICALLY OVER-DETERMINES ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT

The higher the level of education of young adults aged 25-39, the lower the risk of unemployment. In 2021, in the EU-27, the **unemployment rate**<sup>□</sup> of young adults with a tertiary education is 5%, while it reaches 17% for those with a low level of education (6.1.2). With the exception of Denmark, where unemployment rates for those with intermediate qualifications are lower than for those with tertiary qualifications, unemployment decreases as ISCED level rises in each of the EU-27 countries, irrespective of the national average unemployment rate. In contrast, unemployment differences between ISCED levels differ across countries. In Slovakia, where it is the highest in the EU-27, the unemployment gap is 39 percentage points between tertiary graduates and low graduates (national average unemployment rate: 7%). The same gap is 3 points in Portugal (average unemployment rate: 8%) and 13 points in France (average unemployment rate: 8%). In the case of Slovakia, the gap is emphasized by the fact that “low levels” of education are in reality “very low”.

## WOMEN ARE MORE AFFECTED THAN MEN BY INACTIVITY OR PART-TIME WORK

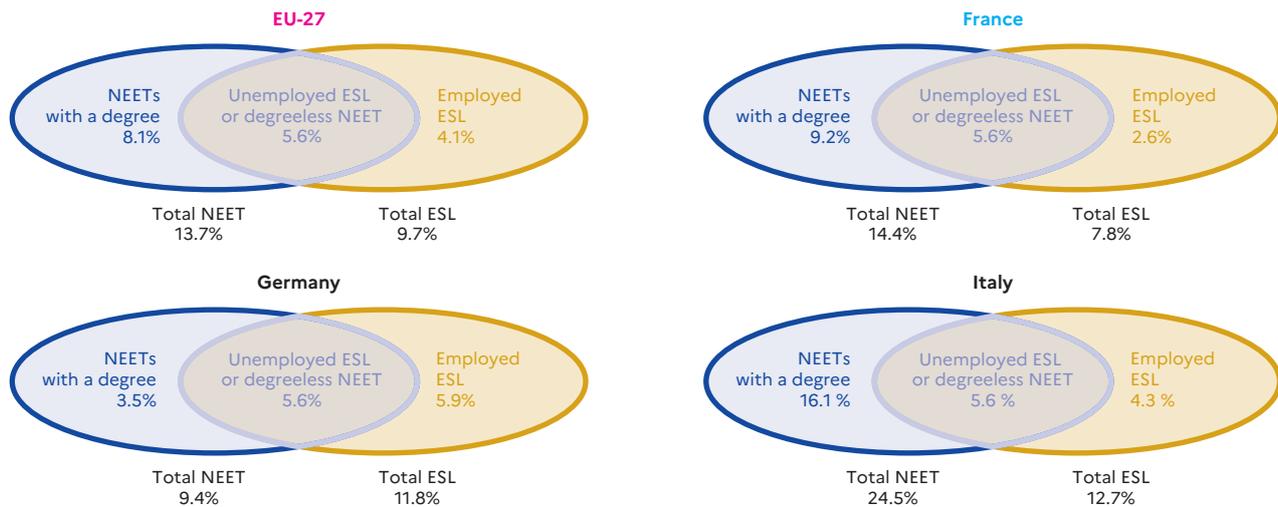
In 2021, men aged 15-39 in the EU-27 countries are more likely than women to have the status of **employed person**<sup>□</sup>: 66% of men have this status and only 58% of women (6.1.3). As the **unemployment shares**<sup>□</sup> are relatively close (7% for men, 6% for women), the difference in status is due to a higher share of **inactivity**<sup>□</sup> for women (36%) than for men (27%) in the age group in question. The inactivity status covers both the situation of training without parallel employment and that of withdrawal from the labour market, situations that cannot be distinguished here. In France, the employment rate is 64% for men and 59% for women and the inactivity rate is 34%.

The share of inactive women in the age group concerned is systematically higher than that of inactive men. Among the countries presented here, Italy and Poland show an inactivity rate gap of more than 10 points between men and women in this age group, whereas this gap is only 2 points in Portugal. Part-time work, which is largely practised by women, helps to reduce the gender gap in employment rates. It concerns about 16% of women aged 15-39 in the EU-27 countries on average, exceeds 25% in Germany and Denmark, and reaches a maximum of 49% in the Netherlands. In contrast, Spain, France and Italy have female part-time employment rates of 15% or less. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

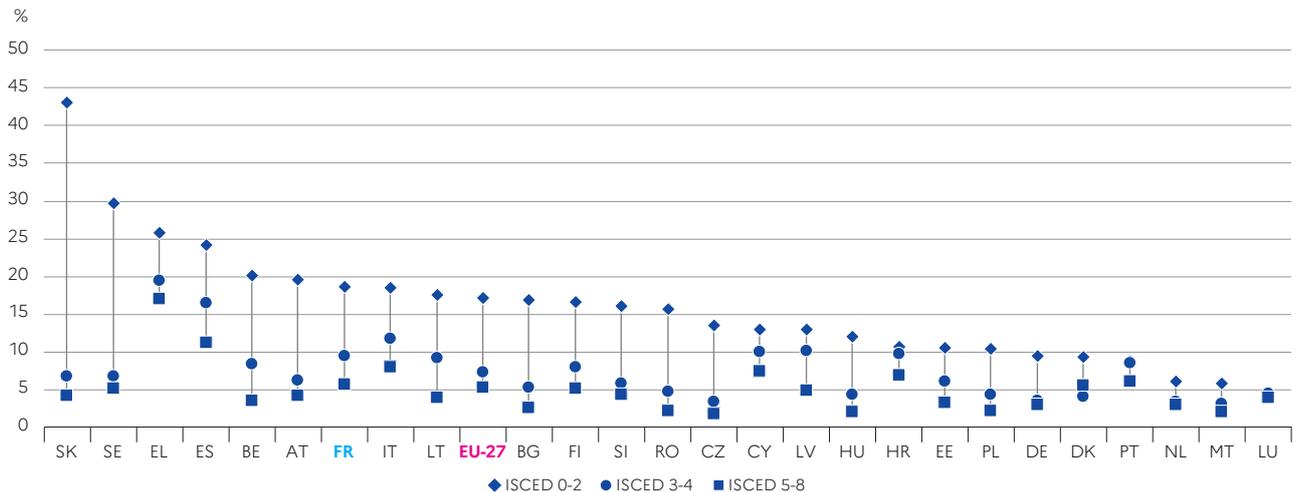
### 6.1.1 NEET and ELET in the European Union, France, Germany and Italy, 2021

↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, *edat\_lfse\_14* and *edat\_lfse\_21*.



### 6.1.2 Unemployment rate among the 25-39 year olds by educational attainment level, 2021

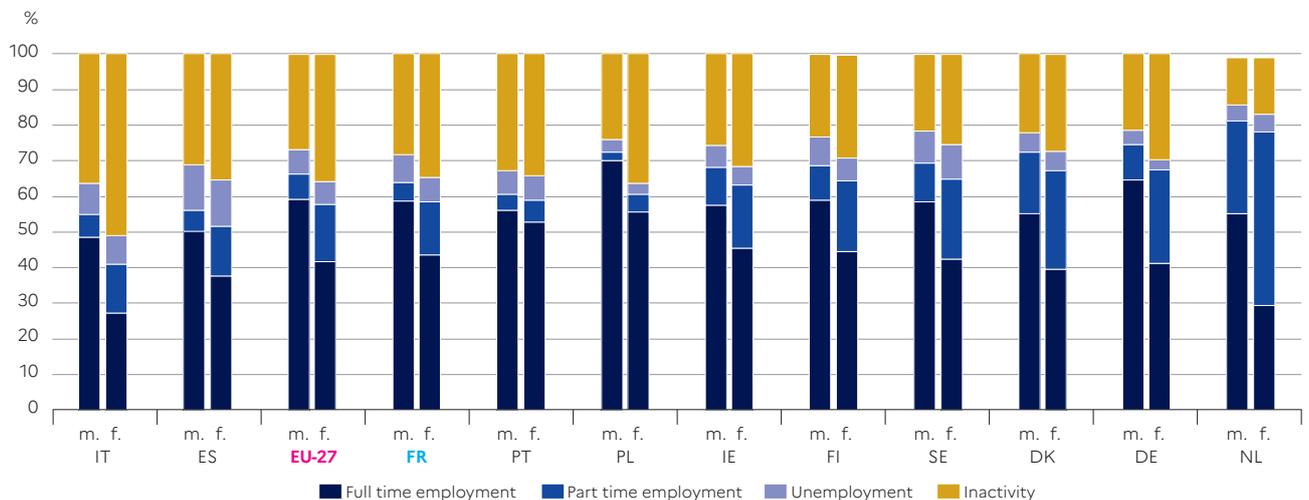
↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, *lfsa\_urgaed*.



Note: data for Ireland are not available.

### 6.1.3 Distribution of the 15-39 year olds by gender and work status, 2021

↳ Eurostat, labour force survey EU-LFS, *lfsa\_pganws* and *lfsa\_epgaed*.



Interpretation: in 2021, in Italy, among men aged 15-39, 48.6% are in full-time employment, 6.2% are in part-time employment, 8.8% are unemployed and 36.4% are inactive. Also in Italy, for women of the same age, the proportions are 27.4%, 13.5%, 8.0% and 51.1% respectively.

## 6.2 INCOME BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND GENDER

### WOMEN WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION ARE LESS WELL PAID FOR THE SAME LEVEL OF EDUCATION

In 2020, in the 22 EU countries that are members of the OECD (EU-22), women with tertiary education who are working full-time have systematically lower incomes than men, whatever the age group observed (**labour income measured by the OECD**<sup>1</sup>). Indeed, on average across the 22 EU countries, women aged 25-64 receive an income equivalent to 77% of that of men, and those aged 35-44 receive an income equivalent to 78% of that of men of the same age (**6.2.1**). For the 25-64 age group, Germany has the lowest relative income for women (66%), while Hungary has the lowest relative income for 35-44 year olds (67%). In contrast, Belgium and Slovenia have the highest ratio for 25-64 year olds (84%), and Belgium alone for the 35-44 age group (92%). In France, the income of women with tertiary education is equivalent to 74% of that of men in the 25-64 age group, and 79% in the 35-44 age group, which is comparable to the European average in both cases.

### WOMEN WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION DIPLOMA ARE LESS PRESENT IN SCIENTIFIC FIELDS OF STUDY

In the 2019-2020 academic year, the proportions of students enrolled in the different fields of study in higher education are uneven across the EU-27: the field with the highest concentration of graduates is "business, administration and law" (25%), followed by "engineering, manufacturing and construction" (15%), and finally "health and social care" (14%). The field with the lowest proportion of graduates is "agriculture, forestry and fisheries and veterinary science" (2%). A concentration of graduates appears in certain fields: in France, for example, 35% of graduates in the year 2019-2020 came from the field of "business, administration and law" alone (**6.2.2**).

In 2019-2020, some disciplines are gender marked. Women are often over-represented in education (1 man for every 8 women graduates in Poland) or in the health professions (1 man for every 5 women in Finland), <sup>i</sup>

### HIGHER EDUCATION: AN "ADDITIONAL DEGREE" ALWAYS PAYS OFF

In 2020, the labour incomes of non-graduates are lower than those of ISCED level 3 in almost all EU countries. On average, in the 22 EU countries that are members of the OECD, the labour incomes of non-graduates are 15% lower than those of ISCED level 3 graduates (**6.2.3**). Among the countries presented, this gap is more than 20% only in Germany and Austria. Finland is the only country where there is income parity between non-graduates and ISCED 3 graduates. In France, the gap is 10% in favour of non-graduates, reflecting a more equal situation than in the EU-22 countries on average.

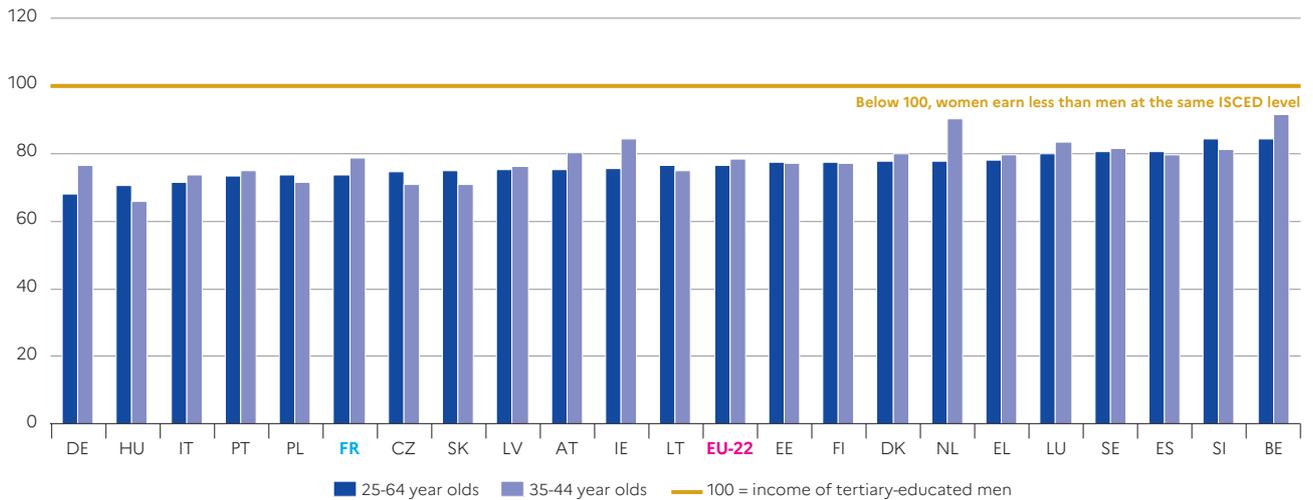
Similarly, obtaining a tertiary qualification is always profitable compared to an ISCED 3 qualification and the "next qualification" within tertiary education is also better paid (**6.2.4**). Indeed, in the EU-22 on average, people aged 25-64 with an ISCED 5 qualification earn 20% more than those with an ISCED 3 qualification, those with ISCED 6 earn 35% more, and those with ISCED 7 and 8 earn 68% more.

While in countries such as France and Hungary, obtaining a master's degree or a doctorate has a significant advantage over ISCED 3 qualifications, it is important to observe these labour incomes in relation to the structure of the population by level of education achieved. Indeed, Hungary is the country in the panel with the lowest proportion of tertiary graduates among 25-64 year-olds (27% in 2020, compared with 40% in France). Conversely, the countries with the lowest income gains (Estonia, Finland, Sweden) systematically have graduate rates of 40% or more. The small number of highly educated individuals thus seems to guarantee them a higher salary. ■

<sup>1</sup> See Annexes.

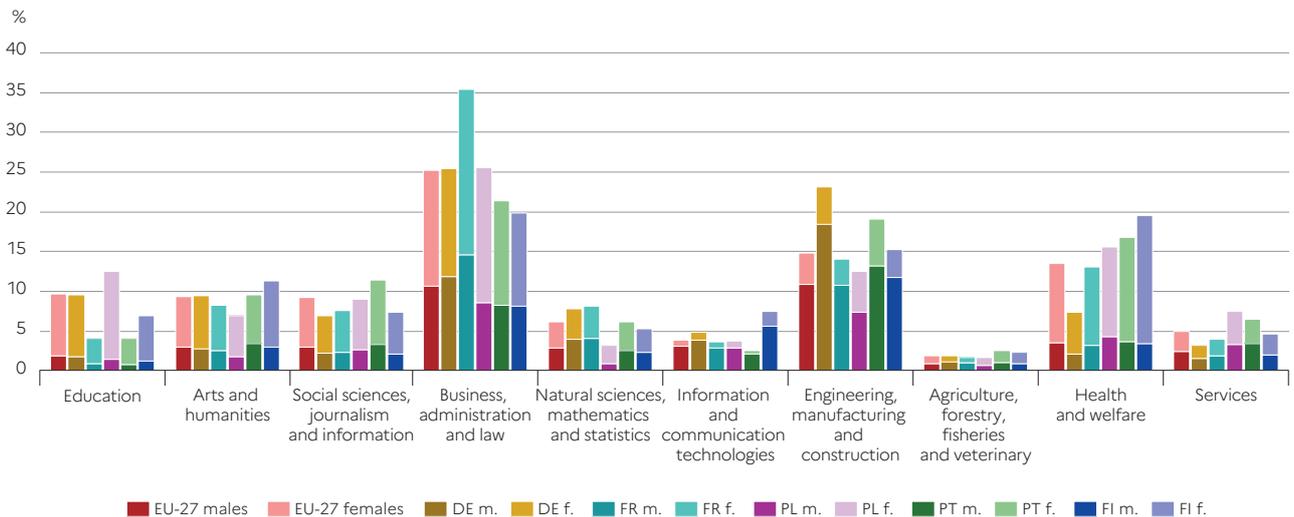
### 6.2.1 Labour income of women (with an ISCED 5-8 educational attainment) compared to men (with an ISCED 5-8 educational attainment) by age group, 2020

Source: OECD, labour force survey EU-LFS, *Education at a glance 2022*, table A4.3.



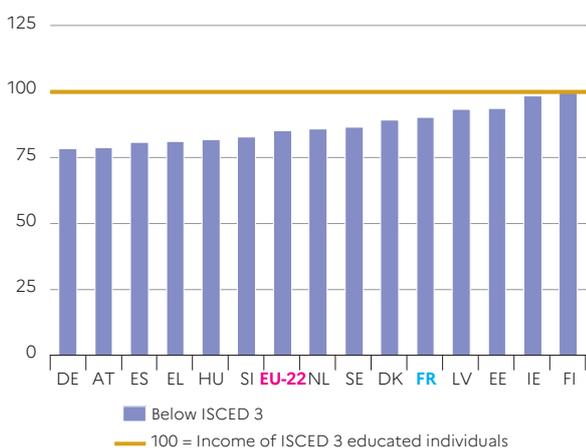
### 6.2.2 Distribution of tertiary education graduates by gender and field of study during the 2020 academic year

Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection, *educ\_voe\_grad02*.



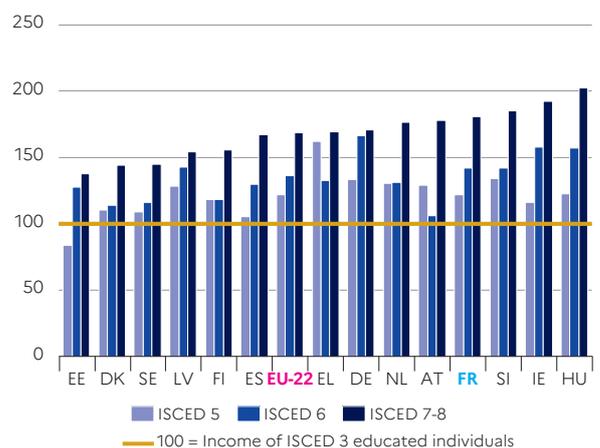
### 6.2.3 Labour income of low qualified individuals compared to ISCED 3 graduates, 2020

Source: OECD, labour force survey EU-LFS, *Education at a glance 2022*, table A4.1.



### 6.2.4 Labour income of individuals with tertiary education compared to ISCED 3 graduates, by ISCED level attained, 2020

Source: OECD, labour force survey EU-LFS, *Education at a glance 2022*, table A4.1.



### HEALTH STATEMENTS ARE MORE POSITIVE AMONG MORE QUALIFIED INDIVIDUALS

It is very difficult to isolate the direct effects of educational level on health because of the multifactorial socio-economic determinants that act both on education and on health. Consequently, it is very difficult to establish a cause-and-effect relationship between education and health. The present analysis therefore highlights simple correlations, without controlling for effects related to income, geographical location or the age of individuals.

In 2020, in the EU-27, people without tertiary education are less likely to report good health than people with tertiary education, according to the **MEMH**<sup>□</sup> (European Module on Health of the **EU-SILC**<sup>□</sup> survey). Indeed, on average in the EU-27, 56% of individuals with ISCED level 0-2 report being in good or very good health, while this is the case for 82% of individuals with ISCED level 5-8 (**6.3.1**).

Lithuania has the lowest share of non-graduates reporting good health in the EU-27 (24%) and Ireland has the highest (69%). In Germany (52%) and France (54%), the shares of non-graduates in good health are close to the EU average. For those with tertiary education, the share of those in good health ranges from 62% in Latvia to 92% in Malta; France (81%) is close to the EU average and Germany is below (76%).

### THE MAJORITY OF ADULTS IN EUROPE ENGAGE IN MORE THAN ONE HOUR OF LEISURE TIME PHYSICAL ACTIVITY PER WEEK

In the **EHIS**<sup>□</sup> (European Health Interview Survey) in 2019, one third of Europeans aged 18 years and over report doing 150 minutes or more of physical activity outside of working hours each week, but this proportion differs significantly according to the level of education attained by individuals. Indeed, on average in the EU-27 countries, half as many adults who declare that they engage in physical activity to improve their health are non-graduates (21%) as are graduates (42 %): **6.3.2**. This is true in all EU countries except Latvia, where there is no difference between education levels. The proportion observed in France is close to the EU average for non-graduates (22%), but lower for graduates (33%).

In addition, the survey collected the **body mass indexes (BMI)**<sup>□</sup> of the respondents, which show that the least qualified individuals are more often obese. On average in the EU in 2019, this is the case for 20% of those without qualifications and 11% of those with higher education (**6.3.3**). For both populations observed here, Malta has the highest proportions of people in an obese situation, and Romania the lowest. In France, the proportion of individuals with obesity is slightly lower than the European average, regardless of their level of education.

### SLIGHTLY MORE FREQUENT USE OF GENERAL PRACTITIONERS AMONG NON-GRADUATES

In almost all countries, non-graduates use the services of a general practitioner more frequently than those with tertiary qualifications. In 2019, on average in the EU-27 countries, more than 7% of non-graduates reported having consulted a general practitioner two or more times in the four weeks preceding the survey, compared with more than 5% of ISCED 5-8 individuals (**6.3.4**). The situation is not significantly different in France, where 7% of non-graduates and just over 4% of tertiary graduates report having consulted a general practitioner. In countries such as Luxembourg, Denmark and Germany this is particularly evident, while Poland is an exception.

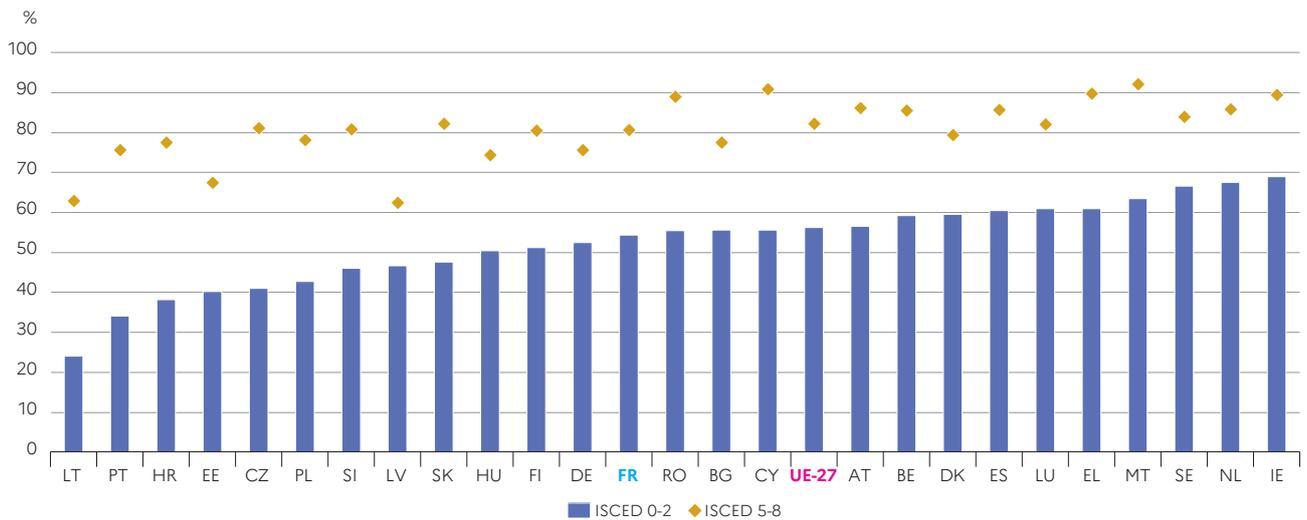
It is possible to see in these results the sign of a more fragile health among people without diplomas, an observation already made elsewhere (**6.3.1**). As for the more highly educated, their behaviour seems to differ according to the type of medical service. Indeed, in the EU-27 countries on average, individuals with tertiary qualifications use general practitioners less often than non-graduates, but specialists more often (**6.3.5**).

However, international comparisons of the use of medical services remain difficult. This analysis does not capture the differences between national social protection and private insurance systems, and thus the principles governing access to health care services for different profiles of people, which may vary from one country to another. Nor does it capture territorial differences, whether in terms of availability of services or levels of education of the population. Finally, as mentioned at the beginning, there are other factors with a potentially strong effect on health, such as the age or income of individuals. ■

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

### 6.3.1 Proportion of individuals who are 16 years old or older and declare being in good or very good health by level of education, 2020

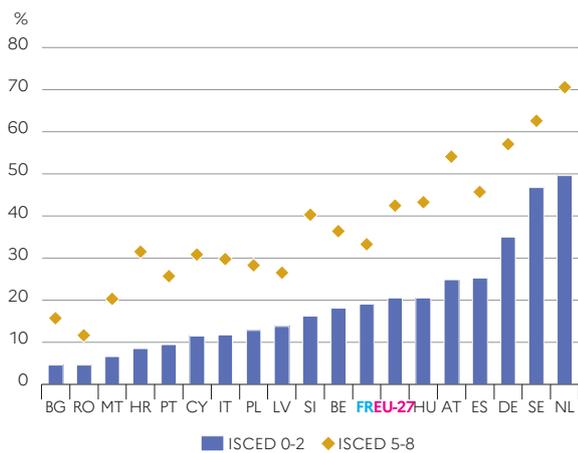
↳ Eurostat, survey on income and living conditions EU-SILC, *hlth\_silc\_02*.



Note: data are not available for Italy.

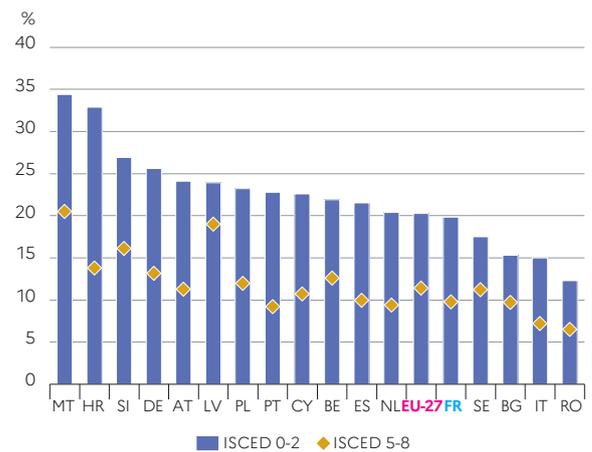
### 6.3.2 Shares of individuals aged 18 years and over who report doing 150 minutes or more of non-work physical activity to improve their health each week by level of education, 2019

↳ Eurostat, EHIS survey, *hlth\_ehis\_pe2e*.



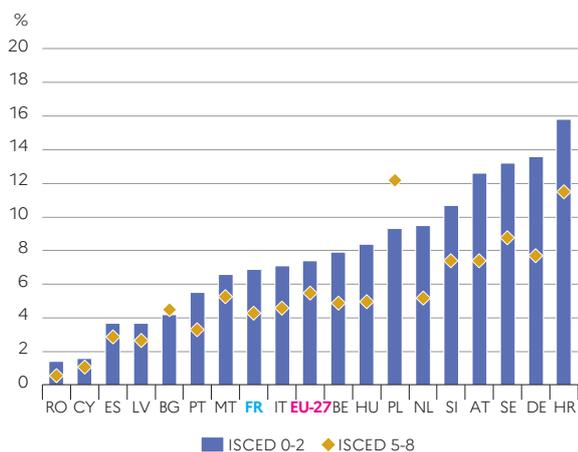
### 6.3.3 Proportion of individuals aged 18 years and over who are obese by level of education, 2019

↳ Eurostat, EHIS survey, *hlth\_ehis\_bm1e*.



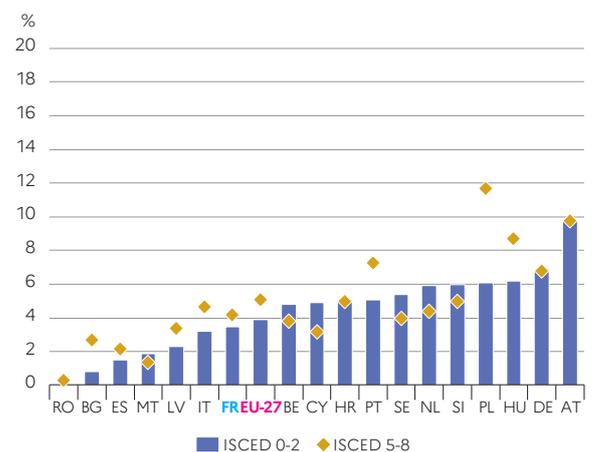
### 6.3.4 Proportion of persons aged 15-64 having consulted a general practitioner two or more times in the 4 weeks preceding the survey, by level of education, 2019

↳ Eurostat, EHIS survey, *hlth\_ehis\_am2e*.



### 6.3.5 Proportion of persons aged 15-64 having consulted a specialist two or more times in the 4 weeks preceding the survey, by level of education, 2019

↳ Eurostat, EHIS survey, *hlth\_ehis\_am2e*.



## 6.4 EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

### ENVIRONMENTAL KNOWLEDGE AND LEARNING IN PRIMARY EDUCATION VARY ACCROSS COUNTRIES

The **2019 TIMSS**<sup>□</sup> survey in science was conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) in the 4th grade of compulsory primary education (CM1 in France). An **environmental knowledge scale**<sup>□</sup> has been developed based on 33 items from the survey. In 2019, in the 21 European Union countries that participated in the survey, the average score of students in environment-related questions ranged from 493 points in France to 559 points in Finland (**6.4.1**). For most countries, the observed scores are correlated with students' overall performance in science in TIMSS 2019 survey (see 5.4). For example, students in Finland and Sweden are among the best performers in both environmental knowledge and science. In France, Malta and Portugal, they are among the lowest performers in both subjects.

For some countries, the scores seem to be linked to the presence or absence of environmental themes in the national curriculum. For example, according to **Eurydice**<sup>□</sup>, Finland has the highest average score for environmental knowledge and includes a whole range of themes such as recycling, renewable and non-renewable energy, air, soil and water pollution, biodiversity and the greenhouse effect<sup>1</sup> in its 2020-2021 national curriculum. In contrast, France and Malta, with the lowest average scores, only include recycling and biodiversity.

Furthermore, environmental knowledge scores do not differ significantly by gender in most European countries, with the exception of Latvia, Italy and Germany. France even has perfect gender parity. The gap is the highest in Latvia: 530 points on average for girls and 518 points for boys.

### AT AGE 15, A HIGH SCORE IN SCIENCE DOES NOT GUARANTEE HIGH PARTICIPATION IN ENVIRONMENT-FRIENDLY ACTIVITIES

The **PISA 2018**<sup>□</sup> survey had already measured the participation of 15-year-old students in activities in favour of environmental protection. Among the EU countries that participated in the survey and with data for this activity, this proportion is highest in Bulgaria (53%) and Romania (51%). It is lowest in France (24%) and Germany (25 %): **6.4.2**.

When these results are compared with the PISA 2018 score for scientific literacy, a paradox can be noted. The countries where more students report participating in activities in favour of environmental protection are also those where the scientific literacy scores in PISA are lower than the EU average (e.g. Romania, Bulgaria or Latvia).

<sup>□</sup> See Annexes.

Conversely, in most countries with low participation in these activities, the scientific literacy scores are higher than the EU average (e.g. France, Germany or Portugal). This observation, which needs further investigation, could reflect social desirability biases in some responses, but also real cultural differences that do not depend on the skills assessed directly in PISA.

Furthermore, participation in environmental activities differs according to the socio-economic background of the students. Hungary shows the most significant difference, with 35% of "very disadvantaged" students reporting participation in such activities, compared to 44% of "very advantaged" students. Romania is the only EU country with both a high average reported participation in such activities (51% of 15-year-old students) and parity by socio-economic background with 50% of pupils among both "very disadvantaged" and "very advantaged".

### AT AGE 15, LESS THAN A THIRD OF STUDENTS COMBINE KNOWLEDGE OF ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES, APPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR AND SCIENTIFIC PERFORMANCE

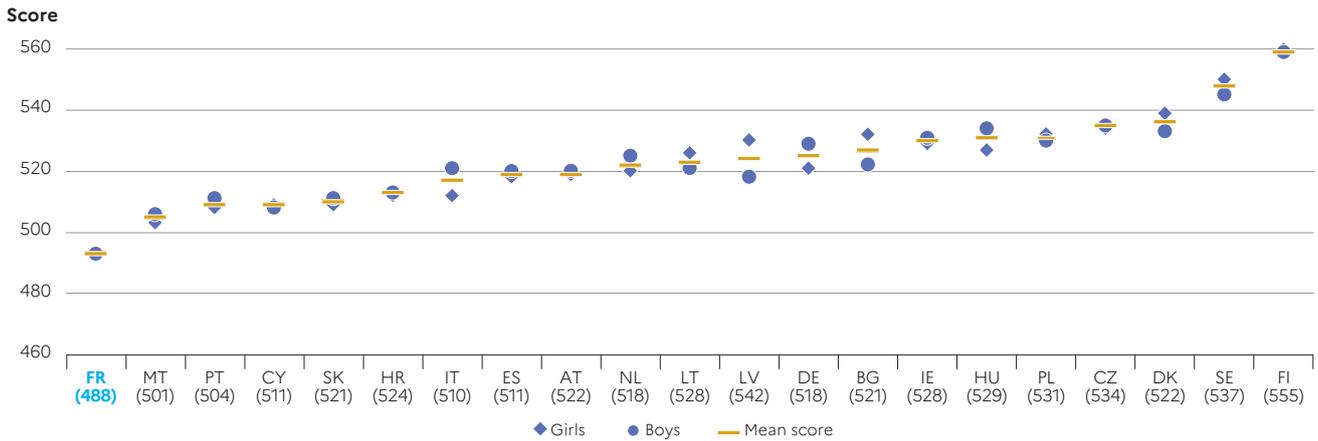
In a joint report published in 2022, the OECD and the European Commission (Joint Research Centre) distinguished among the students who participated in PISA 2018 those who combine the identified ingredients of "environmental literacy", namely: reporting being informed and concerned about environmental issues, considering oneself able to explain their causes and consequences, and reporting being active in environmental protection<sup>2</sup>. These students, called environmental sustainability all-rounders, are further divided into two groups: those with basic level of scientific literacy (PISA level 2 or above) and those with advanced level of scientific literacy (level 4 or above). In 2018, on average across the 19 EU countries with the full data set, 31% of students are environmental sustainability all-rounders with basic level of scientific literacy (**6.4.3**). This proportion varies from 19% in the Slovak Republic to 42 % in Malta, including 35% in France and 34% in Germany. The proportion of all-rounders students with advanced competences in science is 13% in the EU countries on average. Romania has the lowest proportion (4.5%) and Germany the highest (20%), followed by Estonia and France (both 17%). ■

<sup>1</sup> Eurydice, 2022, *Increasing achievement and motivation in mathematics and science learning in schools*.

<sup>2</sup> OECD, 2022, "The environmental sustainability competence toolbox: from leaving a better planet for our children to leaving better children for our planet", *OECD Working Papers*, No. 275.

### 6.4.1 Environmental knowledge scores of Grade 4 students by gender, 2019

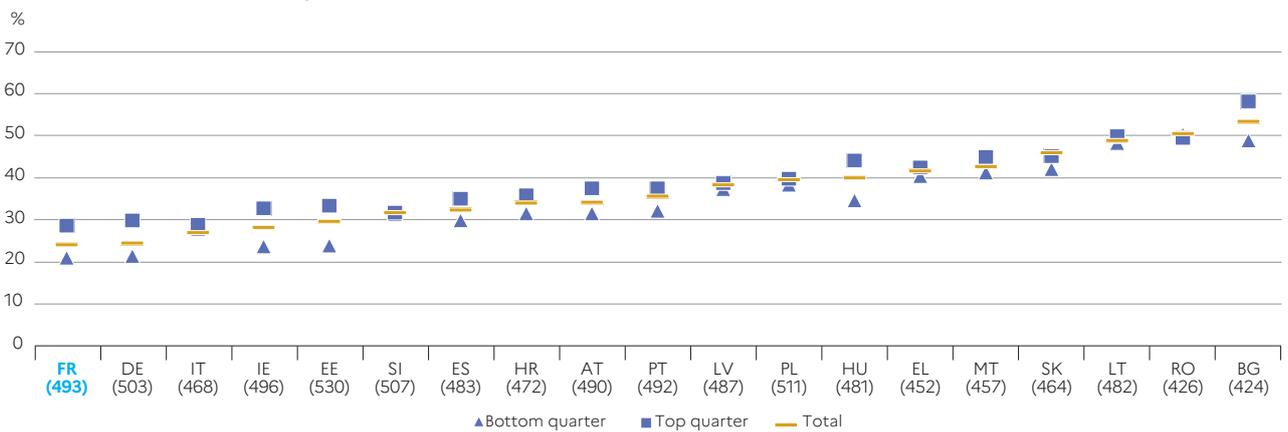
IEA, TIMSS 2019.



Interpretation: in 2019 in France, students in Grade 4 (CM1) obtained an average score of 493. Both boys and girls in Grade 4 obtained an average score of 493. Note: Scores shown in dark blue correspond to cases where the difference in score by population is statistically significant. The overall TIMSS 2018 performance in science is shown for each country in brackets below the graph.

### 6.4.2 Proportion of 15-year-old students who report participating in activities for environmental protection by students' economic, social and cultural status (ESCS), 2018

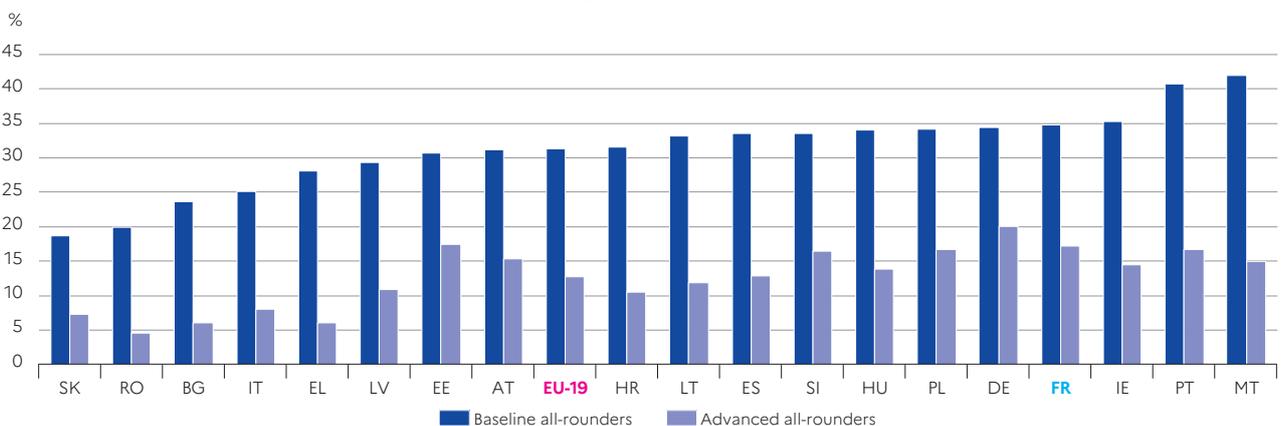
OECD, PISA 2018, students' questionnaire extraction.



Interpretation: in 2018 in France, 24.2% of students aged 15 declared that they were involved in activities for environmental protection. This is the case for 21.1% of "very disadvantaged" students (bottom quarter) and 28.7% of "very advantaged" students (top quarter). Note: The average PISA 2018 score in scientific literacy is shown for each country in brackets below the graph. The average scientific literacy score for EU countries is 485 points.

### 6.4.3 Proportion of 15-year-old students who are environmental sustainability all-rounders by scientific literacy performance in PISA 2018

OECD, The environmental sustainability competence toolbox: From leaving a better planet for our children to leaving better children for our planet, OECD working papers, n° 275.



Reading: in 2018 in France, 34.8% of 15-year-old students are baseline all-rounders in PISA 2018, i.e. they meet or exceed PISA level 2 in scientific literacy, report being informed and concerned about environmental issues, can explain the causes/consequences of these issues and act in favour of the environment. In France, 17.2% of 15-year-old students are considered to be advanced all-rounders i.e. they reach or exceed level 4 in scientific literacy in PISA 2018 and show the environmental skills mentioned above.

**Actual salaries of teachers (public general education)**

At each level of education, they relate to all fully qualified teachers (all tenured teachers in France: in primary education – *professeurs des écoles*; in secondary education – *professeurs certifiés*, *professeurs agrégés*, physical education and sports teachers, associate teachers, teaching assistants and lecturers). Actual salaries consist of the average gross salaries observed on the “payslip” (including bonuses, allowances and overtime pay).

**Body mass index**

The World Health Organisation (WHO) has adopted the Body Mass Index (BMI) to monitor overweight and obesity in populations. BMI is calculated by dividing mass in kilograms by height in metres squared ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ). The WHO has set BMI thresholds to classify individuals: a “normal” BMI is situated between 18.5  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  and 25  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ , above which the risk of mortality increases significantly; overweight is between 25  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  and 30  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ; above this, it is obesity.

**Combined school- and work-based programme**

Programmes are classified as combining school- and work-based programmes if less than 75% but more than 10% of the curriculum is delivered in the school environment or by distance learning. These programmes include: apprenticeship programmes organised in collaboration with educational authorities or institutions which involve simultaneous training in schools and workplaces; sandwich programmes, organised in collaboration with educational authorities or institutions, which alternate between attendance at educational institutions and participation in work-based training.

**Computational thinking (ICILS)**

Computational thinking is defined as the ability of an individual to identify aspects of real-world problems that can be formulated that can be formulated by algorithms, and to evaluate and develop to evaluate and develop solutions to these problems in order to implement them with the aid of a computer. It includes two sub-dimensions: conceptualising problems and proposing solutions and implementing them.

**Dependent child**

A dependent child is a member of a household who is under 25 years of age and is economically and socially dependent on other household members (parents/adults). All household members under 17 years of age are considered dependent by default. Individuals aged between 18 and 24 are considered dependent if they are not in employment.

**Digital literacy (ICILS)**

Digital literacy is defined in the ICILS survey as the ability of an individual to use a computer effectively to collect, manage, produce and communicate information at home, at school, at the workplace and in society. It comprises four sub-dimensions: ability to use of the computer, collecting information, producing information and information and, finally, communicating with digital technology.

**Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC)**

In international work, ECEC covers all formal care services (*i.e.* organised/controlled directly by a public/private structure or its intermediary) for children from the earliest age up to the age of primary education. The care can be “collective” (in a centre) or “individual” (in the carer’s home). Looking at the age of the children, there are two main categories of provision. For the youngest children (*i.e.* generally under 3 years of age), there are, on the one hand, childcare services with no explicit educational intent (not classified according to ISCED) and, on the other hand, services with an educational intent (ISCED 0). In the case of non-ISCED services, this care can be either collective, in an authorised structure, usually under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs (e.g. in France: *crèches* and other collective structures such as kindergartens and drop-in centres), or individual (in France, in the home of an approved childminder).

For ISCED 0, the scope includes, for this age (under 3 years), especially early childhood development services (ISCED 01) – not represented in France – where care can also be collective or individual. Exceptions to this general pattern are also possible: ISCED 01 may extend beyond the age of 3 (e.g. to 4 years in Greece, or 4 years and 8 months in Cyprus). Also, for older children (*i.e.* generally over 3 years of age), the ECEC refers essentially to the set of pre-primary education programmes (ISCED 02) offered to the child in a group childcare centre until the age of primary education (in France, in a pre-primary school). However, it is possible to enter ISCED 02 before the age of three (France and Belgium, French and Flemish communities), just as it is possible to attend ISCED 02 in individual care (Finland).

**Employed person**

The employed population as defined by the International Labour Office includes persons aged 15 years or more who worked (even for one hour) in a given week (called the reference week), whether as employees, self-employed, employers or helpers in the family business or farm. It also includes persons who are employed but temporarily absent for reasons such as illness (less than one year), paid leave, maternity leave, industrial dispute, training, bad weather. Military contingent personnel, apprentices and paid trainees are included in the employed population.

**Environmental knowledge scale**

The IEA has developed a scale for environmental knowledge (*Environmental Awareness Scale*) based on 33 items dealing with environmental issues included in the Timss 2019 science questionnaire for students in the fourth grade of compulsory primary education. The questions selected by the IEA to construct this scale assess the scientific knowledge of students as applied to the environment issues. For example, some questions ask students to describe the effects of plastic pollution in the oceans, to assess the benefits of renewable energy for electricity production or to explain the consequences of cutting down trees on animals.

**Flexible curriculum**

In the work of Eurydice and the OECD, this is the part of the compulsory curriculum for which schools/local authorities

have greater autonomy to organise educational time. There are two main types of flexibility: horizontal and vertical. In the case of *horizontal flexibility*, the central authorities define a total number of hours of instruction for each grade, without specifying the number of hours for each subject, which is distributed locally. Scotland, for example, has chosen horizontal flexibility for the whole of compulsory education. In the case of *vertical flexibility*, the central authorities determine a total number of hours per compulsory subject, without specifying how many hours should be devoted to these subjects per year of education.

### Formal education

Institutionalised, voluntary and planned education through public bodies and recognised private entities which together constitute the formal education system of a country. Formal education programmes are therefore recognised as such by the national education authorities or by equivalent authorities, i.e. any other institution in cooperation with the national or sub-national education authorities. Vocational education, special needs education and parts of adult education are often recognised as belonging to the formal education system.

### Generational replacement threshold

This is the fertility threshold at which there would be a replacement of generations of childbearing age by new generations. A generation ensures its replacement if the number of girls in the children's generation is equal to the number of women in the parents' generation. Due to low infant mortality, 2.05 children per woman would be sufficient to ensure the replacement of a generation – 2.05 and not 2, because 105 boys are born for every 100 girls ("sex ratio at birth").

### Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

The aggregate representing the final result of the productive activity of resident producer units. GDP is equal to the sum of domestic final uses of goods and services (actual final consumption, gross fixed capital formation, changes in inventories), plus exports, minus imports.

### Inactivity

The status corresponding to inactivity conventionally includes people who are neither employed nor unemployed: young people under 15 years of age, students and pensioners not working in addition to their studies or pensions, housewives and men, people unable to work, etc.

### International mobility of teachers

International teacher mobility refers to physical mobility for professional development purposes (e.g. to study, research, teach, participate in an international cooperation project or seminar) which is not permanent (a return to the home institution is expected) and which involves the transnational crossing of geographical borders. International mobility can be carried out in the framework of programmes set up for this purpose, or on an individual basis. International mobility may be carried out in the framework of programmes set up for this purpose, or on an individual basis.

### International student mobility (incoming and outgoing)

According to the "UOE" data collection, an internationally mobile student is a student who has left a country known as the "home country" of an internationally mobile student is the country from which the student comes to attend a higher education programme in another country. Several criteria can be used to define the "home country" of an internationally mobile student, depending on the constraints of national statistical systems. These criteria are, in order of preference: the country where the upper secondary education diploma was obtained, the country where the secondary education was provided, the country of residence and finally the nationality. In France, the country of origin of an internationally mobile student is defined by a combination of two criteria: nationality (only foreign students are considered) and diploma (only holders of a foreign secondary education diploma are considered; thus, holders of the French baccalaureate, even if they obtained it in a French *lycée* abroad, are excluded). Two types of mobility exist: the so-called "exchange" mobility and the so-called "diploma" mobility. In the first case, the student is enrolled in the framework of a partnership (e.g. Erasmus+ grant), completes only part of the teaching programme abroad and does not aim to obtain a diploma from the "host country". In the second case, the student does not depend on any partnership, completes the majority of the teaching programme in the host country, from which he/she aims to obtain a degree. In the case of **incoming mobility**, students in international mobility in a given host country are counted, regardless of their country of origin. In the case of **outgoing mobility**, students in international mobility from a given country of origin are counted, regardless of their host country.

### ISCED: International Standard Classification of Education

See preamble.

### Labour income as measured by the OECD

The OECD labour income indicator refers to full-time employed persons, paid during the whole of the reference year. It is based on gross labour income. For European countries, the sources are the EU-SILC survey (in the case of France), the EU-LFS labour force survey or national sources.

### Life expectancy at birth

Life expectancy at birth (or age 0) represents the average life span - in other words, the average age at death - of a fictitious generation under the mortality conditions of the reference year. It characterises mortality independently of the age structure. It is a special case of life expectancy at age X. This expectation represents the average number of years remaining to live beyond this age X, under the age-specific mortality conditions of the year in question.

### Median net disposable income

See net disposable income of households. The median disposable income divides the population in two: 50% of people have a lower income, 50% of people have a higher disposable income. The use of the median rather than the average avoids too great an impact of extreme values.

## **Migratory balance**

Difference between the number of people who entered the territory and the number of people who left during the year. This concept is independent of nationality.

## **Modern foreign languages**

Modern foreign languages (MFLs) refer to other languages learnt by pupils outside the language of instruction. In some cases, they may correspond to other national and/or regional languages. For example, German, French and Lëtzebuergesch are the three official languages in Luxembourg. During primary education, French is taught as an MFL and the other two languages are languages of instruction. From the first cycle of secondary education onwards, French becomes the language of instruction and German an MFL.

## **Natural variation**

The natural variation (also called natural balance, natural increase or natural surplus of population) is the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths registered during a period.

## **Net disposable income**

The disposable income of a household includes income from work (net of social contributions), income from assets, transfers from other households and social benefits (including pensions and unemployment benefits), net of direct taxes. The median disposable income divides the population in two: 50% of people have a lower disposable income, 50% of people have a higher disposable income. The use of the median rather than the mean avoids too great an impact from extreme values.

## **Non-formal education**

Institutionalized, voluntary and planned education by an education provider, but which is an addition, alternative and/or complement to formal education in the lifelong learning process of individuals. It is often offered to ensure the right of access to education for all. It is aimed at people of all ages but is not necessarily structured as a continuous pathway; it may be of short duration and/or low intensity and is usually provided in the form of short programmes, workshops or seminars. Non-formal learning most often leads to qualifications that are not recognised as formal (or equivalent) by national education authorities, or it may not lead to any qualifications at all.

## **Professional development**

According to the OECD TALIS survey, professional development activities include “face-to-face courses/seminars”, “online courses/seminars”, “educational conferences where teachers, school heads and/or researchers present their work or discuss educational issues”, “institutional qualification programme (e.g. degree)”, “observation visits to other schools”, “observation visits to companies, public organisations or non-governmental organisations”, “observation of colleagues or myself and coaching in a formal school setting”, “participation in a teacher network focusing on in-service teacher training”, “reading of specialist literature” or any other activity (“other”).

## **Proportion of girls and boys out of school (SDG4 indicator)**

The indicator measures the number of girls and boys who are of official age for a given level of education but who are not enrolled in any level of education. Thus, for the theoretical age of primary education, enrolment in pre-primary (ISCED 0), primary (ISCED 1) and secondary (ISCED 2 and ISCED 3) education is observed. For the theoretical age of the two cycles of secondary education, enrolments in ISCED 1, 2, 3 and tertiary education (ISCED 5 to 8) are observed. The theoretical age of a cycle of education varies from country to another. In France, it is 6 to 10 years in ISCED 1, 11 to 14 years in ISCED 2 and 15 to 17 years in ISCED 3. When broken down by gender, social background or territory, this indicator makes it possible to identify population groups with no or limited access to education.

## **Pupil-teacher ratio**

In the “UOE” data collection, the pupil-teacher ratio at a given level of education is obtained by dividing the number of pupils and students into full-time equivalents (in some countries, part of the pupils and students are in full-time education) by the total number of full-time equivalent teachers. Replacement teachers or teachers on long-term leave are counted. This ratio does not take into account the instructional time per student, nor the teaching time of a teacher. The teachers counted are classroom teachers. In France, this category therefore includes both permanent and contract teachers, including staff such as those in Rased, but also teachers on leave and their replacements, as well as primary school heads with partial release from teaching obligations. On the other hand, management and administrative staff – including primary school heads with full release from teaching obligations – as well as teaching assistants and para-professionals are excluded from the calculation.

## **Purchasing power parity (PPP)**

Purchasing power parities (PPPs) are currency conversion rates that are intended to equalise the purchasing power of different currencies by eliminating differences in price levels between countries. The basket of goods and services whose prices are determined is a sample of all those that make up final expenditure, namely household and government final consumption, capital formation and net exports. This indicator is measured in national currency units per US dollar. PPPs exist for Gross Domestic Product (GDP), for private consumption and for actual individual consumption.

## **Purchasing Power Standard (PPS)**

The Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) is an artificial currency unit that eliminates differences in price levels between countries. Thus, one PPS allows the same volume of goods and services to be purchased in all countries.

## **Rate of overcrowded households**

The overcrowding rate refers to the number of households living in an overcrowded dwelling as a proportion of all households. The overcrowding of a dwelling is based on the number of rooms, considering that the following are required: one living room for the household, one room for each couple,

one room for single people aged 19 and over; and one room for two children if they are of the same sex or under 7 years old. In order not to be overcrowded, a dwelling must also have a defined minimum area: 25 m<sup>2</sup> for a single person living in a one-room dwelling or 18 m<sup>2</sup> per person for other households.

### **Risk of poverty or social exclusion**

The Eurostat measure of the risk of poverty and social exclusion provides a summary measure of the number of individuals whose disposable income is below the poverty line (set at 60% of the national median disposable income after social transfers) and/or living in material deprivation (access to some basic necessities) and/or live in households with very low labour intensity, i.e. less than 20% of potential working time.

### **Statutory Instruction time**

Instructional time is the time during which a public school is expected to provide students with instruction in all subjects of the compulsory and non-compulsory curriculum to pupils, during the school day or in activities organised before and after the school day, which are official components of the compulsory curriculum. The instruction time is calculated without taking into account breaks between classes and other types of interruptions, non-compulsory time outside the school day, time spent on homework and lessons, and time spent in the classroom as part of the formal curriculum. Instruction time is calculated without taking into account breaks between classes and other types of interruptions, non-compulsory time outside the school day, time spent on homework and lessons, individual tutoring or private lessons.

### **Statutory salaries of teachers (public general education)**

They relate, at each level of education, to the most representative body of teachers among those considered fully qualified (in France: *professeurs des écoles* in primary education and *professeurs certifiés* in secondary education). Statutory salaries correspond to gross indexed salaries plus the bonuses and allowances due to all or most of the teachers concerned.

### **Statutory teaching time**

As presented in the OECD comparisons, the regulation of teachers' working time covers three main categories: statutory teaching time, compulsory school attendance time and total statutory working time.

– **Statutory teaching time** is the number of teaching hours that a full-time teacher gives to a group or class of students according to regulations, employment contracts or other official documents. It is converted into hours (60 minutes) in order to ensure better comparability of data. It excludes the time spent in preparation of lessons or supervision of pupils during breaks (except for short breaks of less than ten minutes).

– The **time of compulsory presence** in the school may be dedicated, according to the texts, to teaching or to other activities.

– The **total statutory working time** may coincide with statutory teaching time, include compulsory attendance at

school and even time for activities outside school, or even correspond to the legal working time common to one or more groups of employees.

These three categories exclude paid overtime. Statutory working time (regardless of category) may be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

### **Total fertility rate**

The total fertility rate, or sum of reduced births, measures the number of children a woman would have over her lifetime if the fertility rates observed in the reference year at each age remained unchanged. It should be kept in mind that the rates used in the calculation are those observed in a given year in the entire female population (composed of several generations) and therefore do not represent the rates of an actual generation of women. It is likely that no real generation will have the observed rates at every age. The total fertility rate therefore only serves as a summary of the demographic situation in a given year, and no definite conclusions can be drawn about the future of the population.

### **Unemployment rate**

The unemployment rate is the percentage of unemployed in the labour force (employed + unemployed).

### **Unemployment share(s)**

The unemployment share is the proportion of unemployed in the total population. This indicator is different from the unemployment rate, which measures the proportion of unemployed in the labour force alone (employed + unemployed). The unemployment share is used to qualify the very high unemployment rate among young people under 25. As many young people are in school and relatively few are employed, their unemployment rate is very high while the proportion of unemployed in the age group is much lower (Unemployment share = Unemployment rate × Labour force participation rate).

## **EHIS: European Health Interview Survey**

Based on the responses of a representative sample of the total population, the *European Health Interview Survey* (EHIS) covers the following topics: health status (perceived health, chronic diseases, accidents, etc.); health determinants (smoking and alcohol consumption, body weight, etc.); the health system (use of health services and use of medicines, but also uncovered needs for health services). EHIS is used as a data source for important health and social policy indicators such as the European Health Indicators (ECHI) or the long-term health and care indicators developed for social protection and social inclusion (European social indicators).

## **EU-LFS: Labour Force Surveys**

The European *Labour Force Surveys* (LFS) aim to obtain information about the labour market and related issues from a series of personal interviews conducted at household level. They cover all members of private households and therefore exclude all citizens living in collective households (boarding schools, pensions, hospitals, etc.). All national operators (INSEE with the *Enquête Emploi en continu* in France) use common definitions based on the recommendations made at international level by the International Labour Organisation - ILO.

## **EU-SILC: European Statistics on Income and Living Conditions**

The European Statistics on Income and Living Conditions is Eurostat's reference framework for the collection of data for the compilation of comparative statistics on income distribution and social inclusion in the European Union. The survey collects data mainly on individual income and its various components, but does not exclude a range of components of household income. In addition, EU-SILC surveys collect information on social exclusion, housing, working conditions, education and health. The reference population comprises all private households and their current members residing in the territory of each Member State at the time of data collection.

## **Eurydice**

A network for European cooperation in the field of education, which is coordinated by the European Commission's Education and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) based in Brussels. Funded by the "Erasmus+" programme, the network is composed of 37 countries: the 27 EU Member States, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Republic of Northern Macedonia, Iceland, Montenegro, Serbia, Turkey, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland. The French unit is part of the Directorate for Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance Monitoring (DEPP), French ministry in charge of education. Member countries exchange information on different aspects of their education systems, enabling the EACEA to produce comparative reports.

## **ICILS 2018: International Computer and Information Literacy Study 2018**

The ICILS international survey is an assessment survey conducted by the *International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement* (IEA), which was first conducted in 2013. Based on a sample, it assesses the computer and

information literacy of students in the eighth grade, starting in the first year of primary schools. In 2018, 12 countries (including France) and 2 local authorities participated. In addition, the 2018 edition of the survey introduced a new option of computational thinking, in which only 8 countries (including France) participated.

## **MEMH: European Module on Health of the EU-SILC survey**

The EU-SILC survey collects data on the health of people aged 16 and over in Europe. It only includes three specific concepts: perceived health, chronic morbidity and limitation of functional activity (partial or complete). These data are based on self-reporting. For perceived health, the data are derived from the answers to the following question: "How is your health in general? Very good, good, fairly good, bad, very bad".

## **PISA 2018: Programme for International Student Assessment 2018**

Every three years since 2000, under the auspices of the OECD, PISA has assessed the skills of 15-year-old students in three areas: reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy. PISA targets the age group near to the end of compulsory schooling in most OECD countries, regardless of the past and future schooling of students. Students are not assessed on knowledge in the strict sense, but on their literacy, which is not a single skill but rather an ability to mobilise and apply knowledge in a variety of situations, sometimes outside the school setting. In 2018, 80 countries and economies around the world took part in the survey.

## **TALIS 2018: Teaching and Learning International Survey 2018**

The aim of the TALIS international survey is to collect declarative data on the teaching environment and working conditions of teachers in lower secondary schools (ISCED 2, i.e. *collèges* in France). The sample for each country is made up of at least 20 teachers from 250 schools (public and private) as well as the heads of these schools (*principaux de collège* in France). The first round of the survey took place in 2008 (France did not participate). In the second round, in 2013, 34 countries took part, including 24 OECD countries and 19 EU countries. Some countries have extended the survey to teachers and school heads in lower and upper secondary education. This was partly the case in France in the 2018 round, where the country administered the questionnaires in primary and lower secondary education. A total of 48 countries participated in TALIS 2018, including 30 OECD countries and 23 EU countries.

## **TIMSS 2019: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study 2019**

The TIMSS international survey is organised every four years by the *International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement* (IEA). It assesses the performance in mathematics and science of students who are in the fourth and eighth grades of schooling, counting from the first year of primary education in participating countries. In 2019, in the latest round of the survey, 22 EU countries participated in the

survey of pupils in the fourth year of compulsory education, and 10 countries participated in the survey of pupils in the eighth year of compulsory education.

### **UOE (data collection)**

A joint data collection of the three international institutions, UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat, created in 1993. This data collection provides inter-country administrative data on key aspects of education systems, in particular on enrolment (distribution by ISCED, by type of school, by programme, etc.) and completion rates for education programmes, costs and resources allocated to education systems, as well as a set of data on teachers, class sizes, pupil-teacher ratios, etc.



# DEPP PUBLICATIONS

The Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance Monitoring (DEPP) of the Ministry of National Education and Youth offers various publications presenting complete statistical data resulting from systematic surveys, but also series of analytical indicators, methodological or summary articles, and results of studies or research. This range of DEPP publications allows for an update and different readings of the functioning and results of our school.



## Repères & références statistiques sur les enseignements, la formation et la recherche (2022)

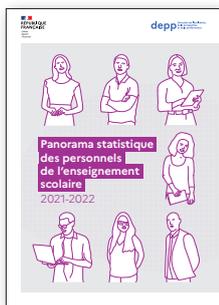
All the statistical information available on the French education and research system broken down into more than 180 themes.

↓ The book can be leafed through and downloaded online.

Provision of data tables in Excel format.

📅 New annual edition.

📖 Hardback, 404 pages.



## Panorama statistique des personnels de l'enseignement scolaire (2021-2022)

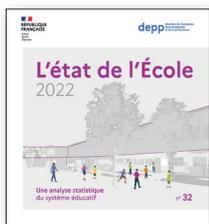
An overview of all teaching staff and non-teaching staff, which brings together the indicators useful for steering the Ministry's human resources.

↓ The book can be leafed through and downloaded online.

Provision of data tables in Excel format.

📅 New annual edition.

📖 Paperback, 368 pages.



## L'état de l'École (2022)

Overview of the evolution of activities, results and costs of the French education system, informed by international comparisons.

↓ The book can be leafed through and downloaded online.

Provision of data tables in Excel format.

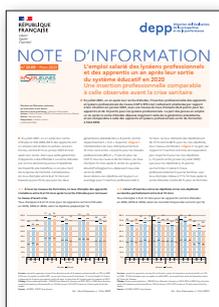
📅 New annual edition.

📖 Paperback, 108 pages.



## Documents de travail

DEPP working papers present the results of technical work or detailed statistical analyses not available on other media.



## Notes d'Information

The most recent results from surveys and statistical studies: update on periodic data (back-to-school report, baccalaureate results) or cyclical (assessment of pupils' achievements), on the conclusions of more structural analyses (teacher mobility) and international comparisons (Eurydice report on language teaching in Europe).

↓ Leaflet and downloadable online.

Provision of data tables in Excel format.

📅 40-50 Notes per year.



## L'Éducation nationale en chiffres (2022)

The characteristics and trends of the French education system in some key figures.

The book can be leafed through and downloaded online. ↓

New annual edition. 📅

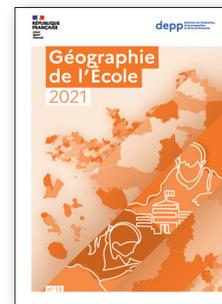


## Filles et garçons sur le chemin de l'égalité (2022)

The main statistical data on the comparative achievements and educational pathways of girls and boys.

The book can be leafed through and downloaded online. ↓

New annual edition. 📅



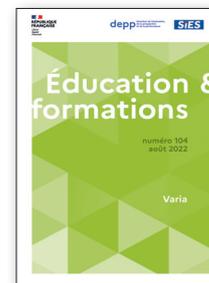
## Géographie de l'École (2021)

Analysis of the territorial disparities of the education and training system, illustrated by maps and accompanied by detailed data at different levels of observation (department, academy and academic region).

Ouvrage feuilletable et téléchargeable en ligne. ↓

édition trisannuelle. 📅

Ouvrage broché, 108 pages. 📖



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Original analyses and statistical studies on the major issues in education, training or research.

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# Education in Europe: Key figures 2022

International comparisons have become an essential support for the management of education systems and the development of public education policies. It is therefore essential to master their quality and relevance in order to use them wisely and to draw valid interpretations from them.

Through Education in Europe: Key figures, the DEPP offers a complete panorama of indicators and analyses to appreciate the results but also the diversity of the modes of organisation of schooling in the European Union, and to situate France in relation to its neighbours.

As in previous editions, the following major themes are covered: the organisation of schooling, the main stakeholders in education (students, parents, teachers), the performance of education systems and the social and economic impact of education.

New analyses have been added to these themes, in particular those on upper secondary vocational education and on education for environmental issues. An additional fact sheet, developed in collaboration with the European network Eurydice, provides information on the reception of refugees from Ukraine in education systems in the European Union.

The *Mission aux relations européennes et internationales* coordinates and leads the DEPP's European and international activities. It carries out comparative studies on education systems and policies and is involved in OECD committees, the European Commission and Unesco. It is also the French correspondent of Eurydice, the European network for information on education in the European Union.



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