



Education and Culture

Key Data on Education in Europe 2002





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Key Data on Education in Europe – 2002

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PREFACE



Now that European cooperation in education has adopted a work programme on the follow-up of the future objectives of education and training systems in Europe, the Commission is more than ever convinced of the need not only to have available a varied range of readily comparable reliable, statistical indicators on education systems but also information on how those systems are organised and the way they function.

Since 1994, the report *Key Data on Education in Europe* has provided all European citizens with a report on changes in the operation of education systems, participation in their activities, demographic trends and the transition to the job market.

This fifth edition has been enhanced with new indicators concerning fields of special importance for European cooperation, such as foreign language learning and the teaching profession. A particularly novel feature is the incorporation of a new chapter on financing which provides a clear picture of financial investment in different levels of the education system. The chapter also offers a supplementary analysis of the levels at which responsibility for budget management lies and the variety of management methods adopted, which is essential if data on the actual amounts involved is to be properly understood and interpreted.

In accordance with the *elearning* action plan, the chapter which was devoted to basic indicators on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the previous edition was the subject of a separate publication in September 2001. It will be updated and enhanced with fresh data by the Eurydice Network in 2003.

The present report is the outcome of close collaboration between Eurydice, the information network on education in Europe and Eurostat, the Statistical Office of the European Union.

It is to be hoped that the variety, interest and reliability of the data in the report, as well as the complementary nature of its various elements, will make a valuable contribution to debate at national and European levels on the quality of education and its development in relation to lifelong learning.

Viviane Reding

Commissioner

Education & Culture

Pedro Solbes Mira

Commissioner

Economic & Monetary Affairs

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INTRODUCTION

This fifth edition of the report *Key data on education in Europe* retains its principal special feature, which is the combination of statistical data and descriptive information on the organisation and operation of European education systems. It also keeps its overall structure and general presentation. Nevertheless there are many innovative aspects to this edition. They relate primarily to its content. A new chapter on financing has been included and the one on foreign languages has been expanded with much new material. The general outline of the report is presented below.

COVERAGE

Key data on education in Europe now covers 30 European countries or, in other words, all countries which take part in the activities of the Eurydice network within the Socrates programme and the statistical data collections of Eurostat. Data on Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina and the former Yugoslavian Republic of Macedonia are presented in the annexe to the report.

CONTENTS

Overall, the chapters remain structured by level of education and there has been little change to the table of contents. Two chapters (Chapters H and J in the 1999/2000 edition devoted to special education and information and communication technology, respectively) which are produced as separate publications ⁽¹⁾ have been withdrawn. A publication coordinated by the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education is undergoing preparation ⁽²⁾. Certain indicators (Figures B4, B5, D6, E3 and E11) have nevertheless been retained and transferred to the chapters on structures and schools, and on primary and secondary education. A new chapter (Chapter I) concerned with the scale on which education is financed and the amounts involved, as well as with methods of managing and allocating financial resources ⁽³⁾ has been added. Most indicators from the previous edition have been updated for the fifth edition. Some stable indicators that do not need regular updating have been dropped. New indicators have been added in each chapter. Information is now included on the number of pupils and students in post-compulsory education (Figure A8), school expectancy of pupils and students aged between 5 and 65 (Figure B2), the average minimum annual number of hours of teaching in primary education and its breakdown by compulsory subject at this level (Figures D4 and D5) and in compulsory education (Figures E4 and E5), the percentage of women students in tertiary education enrolled in different fields of education and training (Figure F11).

(1) In September 2001, Eurydice published a report entitled *Basic indicators on the Incorporation of ICT into European Education Systems: facts and figures*, which will be updated in 2003.

(2) Thematic publication: *Special Education in Europe*, European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, to be published in 2003.

(3) This part draws on the Eurydice study, *Key Topics in Education in Europe, Vol. 2: Financing and Management of Resources in Compulsory Education: trends in national policies*, Luxembourg: Office for official publications of the European Communities, 2000.

the professional experience and initial training required to become a school head (Figures G18-20), as well as the minimum and maximum salaries of school heads relative to per capita GDP (Figures G22-24), types of support offered to children whose mother tongue is different from the one or more state languages and not recognised as a minority language (Figure H16), and the explicit priorities associated with particular communication skills in foreign language curricula (Figure H17).

It should be stressed that *Key data on education in Europe* deals exclusively with education systems as such. Thus it contains no specific indicators or descriptions on initial and continuous vocational training. To obtain detailed information on these aspects of training, the reader is invited to consult the report of the European Commission and Cedefop entitled *Key data on vocational training in the European Union*, the second edition of which was published in 2000.

The statistical data on education gathered by Eurostat is also disseminated in other publications that are available via the Eurostat datashops network. We should particularly like to draw your attention to the annual publication *Education across Europe – Statistics and indicators*.

PRESENTATION

This publication is intended not only for policy makers but also to provide a very wide audience with information on many aspects of education systems in Europe. Its aim is to highlight numerous differences and similarities in the way in which these systems are organised and function, as well as trends underlying their development. The book contains numerous figures, including histograms, maps and diagrams, so that it is easier to consult and readily accessible to everyone. The basic principle underlying its conception is that descriptive, statistic and comparative diagrams should alternate with comments on various points that emerge from comparative examination of the data. The start of the book contains a summary of all its chapters, which is intended to provide readers with an approach to its content.

The most significant numerical values are indicated in a table below each diagram, while all data used to create the Figures is given in the annexes. Tables containing it are structured by chapter and have the same reference number as the corresponding Figure. Additional and explanatory notes necessary for understanding the information are placed directly under the figures.

In order to combine readability and precision, a glossary of codes and abbreviations is presented at the beginning of the book, as well as the statistical and terminological tools used.

The diversity of education systems in Europe and the lack of homogeneity of certain data give rise to the need for caution when comparing and interpreting indicators. We have therefore considered it essential to draw the attention of the reader to several specific points:

- The statistical data is structured by educational level in accordance with the Unesco International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED – 1997 edition). This does not always correspond to the structures adopted by the countries and described in the Eurydice diagrams (Figures B1, C2, D1 and E1). For this fifth edition, therefore, the Eurydice European Unit and Eurostat have agreed to add the ISCED allocations (Figure B1) when the structure of education as denoted by ISCED levels 0, 1 and 2 does not correspond to the data in international statistics. In the case of the other Figures, a note under the diagram warns the reader, whenever necessary, of the extent to which

they are comparable. This attention to detail is particularly important for the classification of ISCED level 0 and 2 statistics for countries that provide compulsory education in a single structure and therefore do not have a lower secondary level of education.

- The statistical data obtained from Eurostat relates to the 1999/2000 academic year, while the Eurydice data relates to the situation in 2000/01. For this reason, when a reform has taken place or is under way, a note indicates the subject of the changes. If the statistical data was not available for the year referred to, data for the previous or subsequent year is used. This is made clear in the notes.

PARTNERSHIPS AND METHODOLOGY

The choice of indicators to be contained in this fifth edition was made following consultation with members of the Eurydice network and Eurostat's national partners. Its contents, as well as the working procedures and timetable for preparing the report, were decided in a joint meeting of the two networks, organised in May 2000 by the European Commission.

The work was done in two main phases. First, the statistical part and the qualitative part were prepared separately. The Statistical Office of the European Communities, Eurostat, undertook the work of preparing the statistical part and prepared the commentaries on the statistical indicators. The statistical data from the European Economic Area and from the 12 EU candidate countries was taken from the joint UOE (Unesco/OECD/Eurostat) collection and the standardised Eurostat surveys.

The qualitative part of the report corresponding to the descriptive indicators was the responsibility of the Eurydice network. To collect the new information, questionnaires were developed in direct collaboration with the network's National Units. They were tested and discussed with the Units in order to ensure their feasibility and consistency. The data on teaching time (Figures D4, D5, E4 and E5) and on salaries (Figures G15-G17 and G22-G24) will soon be the subject of an online database on the Eurydice website (www.eurydice.org). The Eurydice European Unit drafted the analysis of the descriptive data.

The indicators concerned with children with special educational needs (Figures B4 and B5) were prepared in collaboration with the national agents/partners of the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, and with the Eurydice National Units in countries in which the Agency has no national representatives.

At the end of the first phase of this work, the network of Eurostat national partners and the Eurydice network went on to check the statistical part and the descriptive part respectively. The two parts were then merged. The Eurydice European Unit retained overall responsibility for the final editing and layout of the report. It also prepared all the report's maps, diagrams and graphs.

Finally, the overview entitled 'Notes for the Reader' at the beginning of the book has been prepared on the sole responsibility of the Eurydice European Unit.



The European Commission would like to thank especially all Eurostat national partners, the Units in the Eurydice network and the working partners of the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education. The Commission is deeply indebted to them for collecting the information and checking the texts, thereby ensuring the reliability and quality of the information.

The Commission would also like to thank the Eurydice European Unit and Eurostat teams for their close cooperation in preparing this book and for their common desire to make the fifth edition as consistent and as readable as possible.

The names of everyone who contributed, at all levels, to producing this collective report are given at the end of the publication.

NOTES FOR THE READER

CONTEXT

The number of young people of school age has been steadily decreasing

Since 1975, the proportion of young Europeans aged under 30 has been falling steadily, and is still tending to do so. Out of the three age-groups, 0-9, 10-19 and 20-29 years, those in the first are the least numerous (Figure A1). Except in Iceland and Cyprus, the percentage of children aged under 10 now stands at between 9.5 % and 14 % of the population in all European countries. In the European Union candidate countries, the decrease in the proportion of young people began later than in EU countries but is currently far more rapid (Figure A2).

However, national averages conceal certain regional disparities. It is in France Italy and Portugal that the proportion of all young people aged between 0 and 29 varies most depending on the region concerned (Figure A3).

The fall in the proportion of young people should result in less pressure on the school infrastructure and teaching staff resources and, as a result, lead to measures for improving the quality of education.

The level of education has a direct bearing on employment prospects in the labour market

Lifelong education is providing increasingly significant opportunities. At the same time, formal education in early life is required to be increasingly thorough. By studying for a longer period, young people today are demonstrating that they are ready to meet this challenge. In 2000, over 70 % of the 25-34 age-group in the EU countries possessed at least an upper secondary school leaving qualification, whereas the corresponding percentage among their parents' generation (the 55-64 age-group) was some 50 %. In the EU candidate countries and Norway, the percentage of young people with qualifications at this level is still higher and often over 90 % (Figure A4).

The minority of young people who leave the education system early encounter serious difficulty in securing employment on the labour market. The likelihood of unemployment is clearly linked to the level of qualification. In most countries, the unemployment rate among young people with no upper secondary school leaving qualification is at least twice that among graduates from tertiary education. These differences are still more apparent in the candidate countries except Romania (Figure A13). Similarly, temporary jobs (involving temporary or fixed-term employment) are more widespread among the least qualified wage-earners (Figure A17).

For any given level of education, women have greater difficulty than men in finding employment

Today, on average, more young women than men obtain a tertiary education qualification (Figure F14). Yet, for any given level of education, more women than men are unemployed (Figure A15). Differences between the sexes may also partly be the result of choosing certain less advantageous study options which depend on the country concerned.

The proportion of temporary jobs among young people is three times greater than among mature adults

In all countries, unemployment rates are highest among the youngest age-group concerned. In the EU as a whole, 19 % of young people aged 15-24 who have left school and are on the labour market find themselves without a job. This percentage drops to 7 % among adults aged between 25 and 64 (Figure A11). For both age groups, these percentages are not as high in the EFTA/EEA countries. Similarly, the proportion of those with temporary jobs is three times greater among young people than mature adults. While in most candidate countries this situation is less clear-cut, differences remain significant. Furthermore, at least at the outset, young people often enter the labour market at a level of employment lower than that for which they are qualified (Figure A16).

The difficulties encountered by young people in entering working life not only have serious social consequences. They also correspond to a depreciation in human capital investment. Vocational training programmes that are better adjusted to labour market requirements may provide a partial solution, but markets should also introduce measures to facilitate the transition of young people to working life.

STRUCTURES AND INSTITUTIONS

The age at which children first attend school varies between 2 and 6 years old

In some countries, children attend school from the age of 2, while in others they are admitted only after their sixth birthday. In the latter case, pre-primary educational institutions exist but not within the school system (Figure C2). In the European Union countries, compulsory education generally begins with entry to primary school at the age of 5 or 6 (Figure B1). However, in Germany, there are more children aged 6 still attending an institution at pre-primary level than those enrolled in primary schools. Compulsory education starts a year later in the EU Nordic countries and many candidate countries. In all these countries, except the Czech Republic and Slovakia, the majority of children are enrolled in primary education at the age of 7 (Figure C5).

The point at which they first have to choose between different types of provision is often when they complete compulsory education

Throughout virtually the whole of full-time compulsory education in the majority of countries or, in other words, up to the ages of 14-16, pupils receive the same type of general education comprising primary education and lower secondary education. However, in the German-speaking countries, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal and Slovakia, pupils normally have to choose between several different branches or types of educational provision from the end of primary school onwards. According to PISA findings ⁽¹⁾, this early distinction between different types of education is liable to be detrimental to the weakest pupils and strengthen the relation between social background and the kind of education received, without however, improving the performance of the other pupils. This way of organising the path through compulsory education does not therefore seem to be in the interests of either equality of opportunity or the quality of education.

At upper secondary level and in tertiary education, there is a choice in most countries between general, technical and vocational courses, offered either full time or in a pattern of alternate work and training as well as in courses of varying length. Students from Luxembourg and Liechtenstein have to turn to university courses abroad in order to complete the education they have received in their home countries.

The proportion of children recognised as having special educational needs varies independently of the proportion of such children who receive separate forms of provision

In most European countries, a particular form of educational provision is adopted in the case of pupils with special educational needs. However, the percentage of children recognised as having such needs varies widely from over 10 % in Denmark, Finland, Iceland and Estonia down to under 2 % in Greece, Italy, Liechtenstein, Bulgaria, Malta and Romania. These differences are largely attributable to the range of criteria taken into account in official national definitions, involving the consideration of various kinds of learning or adjustment problems in addition to physical or sensory problems.

A high percentage of children recognised as having special educational needs does not necessarily lead to a high proportion of children enrolled in separate classes or schools and vice versa (Figure B5). Indeed, in some countries, almost all such children are integrated into mainstream education. In others, the opposite occurs. In this respect, it may be noted that countries in which most children recognised as having special educational needs receive separate provision are in many cases those in which pupils are faced with a choice between different types of education at a very early stage. In these countries, as many as 5 % of pupils in compulsory education are enrolled in separate classes or institutions.

Most pupils attend public-sector schools

The majority of pupils in primary and secondary education attend public-sector schools. In the whole of the EU, the number of pupils in private schools that are not government dependent is negligible. However, in some countries, government-dependent private schools account for a significant share of educational provision. In Belgium and the Netherlands, over half of all pupils attend schools of this kind; and in Spain and France.

⁽¹⁾ OECD, *Measuring Student Knowledge and Skills: Reading, Mathematical and Scientific Literacy: the PISA Assessment*, Paris, 2000, 104 p.

Countries offering the greatest choice between private and public-sector schools, namely the Flemish Community of Belgium, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) are often those in which public-sector schools are granted most autonomy (Figures B6 and B7), as a result of which schools compete for higher enrolments. However, it should be noted that, in Finland and Sweden in which the percentage of private schools is very small, public-sector schools are also highly autonomous.

In the candidate countries, except Malta, there are few private schools even when those that are government dependent are taken into account. On average, the proportion of pupils attending such schools is under 5%. Public-sector schools have a level of autonomy comparable to that of schools in EU countries. However, the areas in which they enjoy greatest autonomy are not the same, particularly in the central and eastern European countries. Schools in the latter are largely free to decide as they wish in the recruitment of teaching staff, but their choice of school textbooks is restricted.

Parents often act in a consultative capacity in management of the education system

Parents of pupils are often involved in decisions relating to management of the education system. In most EU countries and some candidate countries, they act in a consultative capacity within a national council. In Luxembourg, they are even granted decision-making power at this level on an ad hoc basis. They are also involved in the work of councils within the schools attended by their children. In some countries, in particular Spain, Italy and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), their power to take decisions is considerable. In Finland and Sweden, in which school autonomy is very substantial, the role of parents depends on the school concerned. Parental participation is more restricted in the candidate countries, except in Romania.

The majority of countries organise external evaluation and publish its findings, to promote transparency regarding the quality of education

To promote quality throughout the education system, most European countries have adopted monitoring arrangements in which they generally rely on external and transparent evaluation procedures. Evaluation of this kind is important where schools enjoy a considerable degree of freedom as regards the organisation and content of their provision; indeed it becomes an essential precondition in ensuring a minimum level of quality for everyone.

The majority of EU countries and half the candidate countries hold external examinations and publish the results nationally. In certain cases, generally at the end of secondary education, an external or formal examination involving some kind of certified assessment is organised, but without publication of the results at national level. The procedure nevertheless enables the performance of different schools to be compared to some extent.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Attendance in pre-primary education is increasing, but further progress in this respect has still to be made in some countries

Children throughout Europe are increasingly beginning their education at pre-primary level. Nurseries and play centres often organise provision for the very youngest children. Then, educational institutions, whether schools or other establishments, enrol children from the age of four at the latest. Children in these institutions are supervised by staff with some form of qualification specifically in education.

In the EU as a whole, around 90 % of four-year-olds attend institutions of this kind. In 1980, the corresponding proportion was already estimated at some 60 %. At 55 % in 1999, the average is much lower in the candidate countries.

The average length of time during which children in the candidate countries attend pre-primary institutions is not however, significantly less than in the case of the EU countries (Figure C6). This is because they begin their primary education at a later stage in the former, except in Cyprus and Malta.

The aims of pre-primary education are broadly similar in all countries (Figure C10) and involve nurturing development, independence, responsibility, well-being, self-confidence, an initial sense of citizenship, preparation for life at school, etc. In other words, its purpose everywhere is to teach very young children to learn to learn – a vital objective in today's world – in order to prepare them for learning throughout the remainder of their lives.

Depending on their age, children may be grouped together in two ways sometimes referred to as the 'school model' and 'family model'. From around the age of 4, the latter, in which a single group contains children of different ages, is adopted in Denmark, Germany, Finland and Sweden. In the remaining countries, children are either grouped into different classes in accordance with their age (the 'school model'), or both types of arrangement coexist. The maximum number of children per adult normally permitted tends to be higher in countries that adopt the 'school model'. In most of these countries, 20-25 children per adult is the norm.

Given the well-established role of pre-primary education in helping to prepare children for future learning, their increased attendance at educational institutions at this level is to be welcomed. If the trend is to be maintained, it will be important to minimise the entrance restrictions which still bar access to some children. The increase in provision in some countries may certainly help to encourage more widespread attendance. Figure C9 shows that the parents of all or virtually all children in Iceland, Norway, Cyprus, Lithuania and Slovakia have to pay enrolment fees. Conversely, enrolment is free for all – or almost all – children in Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Bulgaria, Latvia and Romania. However, it is impossible to establish any apparent direct relation between the requirement to pay enrolment fees and the average period of attendance in pre-primary education. It should also be noted that the amounts paid have not been surveyed.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Primary education generally begins at the start of the school year after children have reached their fifth or sixth birthday and continues for six years

The move from pre-primary to primary education generally occurs at the start of the first school year after a child has reached the age of compulsory education (Figure C12). In Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), children begin primary education in the course of the school year in which they actually reach this age. Besides the matter of age, some EU countries and the majority of candidate countries also take the maturity of children into account when considering whether they are ready to begin primary education.

Primary education generally lasts six years. In 13 countries, primary and lower secondary education are provided within a single structure. Depending on the country concerned, this corresponds to a period of between eight and ten years.

At the start of primary education in the majority of countries, just one teacher is responsible for the class and teaches most subjects. Norms regarding maximum class sizes range from 22 in Bulgaria to 36 in Estonia.

Pupils move normally from one class to the next as a matter of course in the Scandinavian countries and the United Kingdom. In the remaining countries, including the candidate countries, pupils may be able to repeat courses at the end of a year or a given two- or three-year stage of their schooling but often only a limited number of times, or not at all at the outset.

Compulsory subjects are similarly defined but the time devoted to them may be twice as much in some countries as in others. In certain countries, this amount of time is fixed by the schools themselves

The average minimum annual amount of teaching time is 980 hours in Italy but under 500 hours in Latvia. In all central and eastern European countries, the number of hours is relatively small (Figure D4).

The proportion of time earmarked for various compulsory subjects is fairly flexible from one country to the next. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), over 50 % of total teaching time may be used as the school wishes. This situation is a reflection of school autonomy which is generally quite considerable in the foregoing countries (see Figure B6). Schools in the EFTA/EEA and candidate countries are generally granted less leeway than those in EU countries when deciding how much time to devote to each subject.

Compulsory subjects as defined in curricula are very largely the same in all countries. In addition to basic subjects such as the mother tongue, mathematics and the sciences, but also sports and artistic activities, lessons in religion/ethics/philosophy are part of the curriculum in most countries. The growing tendency to include one or several foreign languages as compulsory subjects from primary education onwards (Figures H1 and H2) should also be noted. This trend is entirely consistent with progress towards European integration.

In the majority of countries, an introduction to information and communication technology (ICT) is also part of the compulsory primary education curriculum. At this level, ICT is rarely considered as a subject in its own right, but rather as a resource for learning other subjects or performing other activities more effectively. The aim is that pupils should become fully familiar with the use of what is now an essential medium of communication, without any reduction in the time devoted to basic subjects.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Until the beginning of upper secondary education, pupils generally follow a common curriculum

At the end of primary education, the transition to lower secondary education is either automatic, or depends on pupil attainment (Figure D8). In countries in which different types of education are provided from the end of primary level onwards, attainment is the main determinant of the chosen form of provision.

Except in the case of Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal and Slovakia, the allocation of pupils to a particular type of education at lower secondary level does not enable them to embark immediately on specialised technical or (pre) vocational training. Instead, it is a means of forming classes each with more uniform levels of attainment, within different patterns of general education. In most cases, young people only choose between general education and technical or vocational training at the beginning of upper secondary level.

In compulsory lower secondary education, the breakdown of taught time for the various compulsory subjects in each country is similar

During lower secondary education, differences between countries as regards the total amount of teaching time are less marked than at primary level. However, when calculated with respect to the whole of compulsory education, these differences between countries are still considerable.

In lower secondary education, the breakdown of taught time for the various compulsory subjects is fairly similar from one country to the next. The flexible part of the timetable is not as great as in primary education, but it remains substantial or even dominant in the case of certain countries (Figure E5).

Compared to primary level (figure D5), the amount of time allocated to human and natural sciences, as well as to foreign languages, is greater in secondary education. Furthermore, except in the Czech Republic, Cyprus and Slovakia, ICT becomes compulsory in countries in which it was not so at primary level. However, it is only in general upper secondary education that ICT is taught as a subject in its own right almost everywhere throughout Europe.

Given the concern that young people should acquire basic knowledge enabling them to continue their education and training beyond the compulsory stage and throughout the remainder of their lives, the importance of achieving balanced attainment across the various subjects should be emphasised. For example, major weaknesses in reading and writing will have a direct bearing on the level of proficiency in any other subject area and on the ability to cope in everyday life. Similarly, mathematics, the sciences and ICT should enable pupils to reason logically and awaken their interest in independent discovery and problem-solving, which will stand them in good stead in various areas throughout their lives. Finally, mastery of foreign languages is conducive to learning through international communication and exchange, while also providing access to working resources and tools (such as the Internet) in which material is often not available in particular national languages.

The vocational branches of upper secondary education enrol more pupils than the general branches. Among EU and EFTA/EEA countries, general education accounts for the majority of enrolments in only Greece, Spain, Italy, Portugal,

Sweden and Iceland. In Ireland, only general education is available at this level (Figure E8). With the sole exception of the United Kingdom, more girls than boys are enrolled in general education. Differences between the sexes in this respect are most marked in the candidate countries (Figure E10). As a result, the percentage of girls among young people with general upper secondary school leaving qualifications is also higher than that of boys in almost all countries and particularly the candidate countries (Figure E13).

Over three-quarters of young people successfully complete upper secondary education

In 2000, over three-quarters of young people in Europe successfully completed upper secondary education, in all branches combined. The averages are somewhat similar in all European countries. Significantly lower-than-average success rates are reported for Portugal (45 %) and Iceland (55 %). It should also be noted that success hinges on criteria that vary considerably, depending on the country concerned. In most cases, the school leaving qualification is awarded on the basis of performance in a final (centralised or local) examination. In some countries, only the standard of work during the year is taken into account. In yet others, award of the qualification is based on both forms of assessment combined.

The end of full-time compulsory education occurs at the age of 15 or 16 in most countries. In Hungary, compulsory education has been extended to the age of 18 since the 2000/01 school year. In some countries, an extension of compulsory education is organised on a part-time basis for a further two or three years. This applies to Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and Poland.

In the majority of countries, enrolment rates decrease substantially after the minimum school leaving age has been reached. In many countries, school attendance starts to fall off noticeably even in the immediately preceding year (Figure E7). Young people, therefore, do not apparently always stay at school until they have reached the official age limit for compulsory education. On average, boys tend to leave the education system earlier than girls.

TERTIARY EDUCATION

The upper secondary school leaving qualification is often not the only requirement for admission to tertiary education

In some countries, possession of an upper secondary school leaving qualification is the only requirement for securing access to tertiary education. However as the number of places available does not always match demand among students, other mechanisms are often used to select them for particular courses or institutions. In the majority of European countries, and especially those in central and eastern Europe, institutions determine quite freely their own selection requirements.

In many countries, students contribute to the financing of tertiary education. The levels of these contributions vary from one country to the next, as well as among different sectors and institutions. In Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta and Poland (day courses), admission to tertiary education is free of charge. In Germany, Finland, Sweden and Norway, students pay no more than a token contribution to student organisations. However, in most countries, various possible forms of conditional or unconditional financial assistance are offered to students.

Enrolments have risen significantly, particularly among women

The number of students enrolled in tertiary education has increased significantly in the last 25 years. In the EU, the number has doubled. However, differences between countries are substantial and the increase ranges from over 50 % in Germany to over 300 % in Portugal. Since 1995/96, enrolments have levelled off in some countries; in Germany, France and Italy, they have even fallen slightly since the beginning of the 1990s. In general, the rate of increase has been lower in the candidate countries.

The increase has been greater among women than men and the imbalance between the sexes noted in 1975/76 has been reversed in favour of the former. The only countries in which women are still slightly under-represented are Germany, Greece and the Czech Republic. In all countries, women are numerically dominant in the arts, human sciences and health sector fields of education, while remaining in the minority in engineering and construction.

Certain fields of study remain under-represented and, in particular, science subjects

The field of studies with the highest level of enrolment is 'social sciences, business and law'. Around a third of all students choose one of the two fields 'mathematics, science and computing' or 'engineering, manufacturing and construction'. The proportion of graduates in the field of 'science and technology' remains low. While it stands at over 15 % in France, Ireland and the United Kingdom, it fails to reach even half that level in other EU countries (Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Portugal and Finland) and in any of the candidate countries, except the Czech Republic.

In the concern to ease the transition of young people into working life, students – and women in particular – should be offered still stronger incentives to enrol in 'science and technology'. Women indeed are even less inclined than men to opt for subjects in this field which until quite recently were studied almost exclusively by young men as a result of traditional gender stereotyping. The introduction of measures to encourage greater interest among girls in scientific and technical subjects from the start of their education

is certainly one way of ensuring a more even balance in the proportions of men and women from one field of study to the next.

In the majority of countries, 85 % of students are aged under 26

The age range of students in tertiary education varies very considerably. In the majority of European countries, 85 % of students are under 26, as in the case of all candidate countries. However, in Germany, Austria and the Nordic countries, a considerable proportion of students are aged over 30. In these countries, students tend to begin tertiary level courses at a later stage and continue them for a longer period. In Germany and Austria, the gradual introduction of three-year courses enabling students to obtain a first qualification recognised on the labour market – in accordance with the terms of the Bologna Process – should henceforth shorten the average length of courses at tertiary level.

The proportion of students who undertake part of their studies abroad remains relatively small and, on average, barely 2 %

Around 2 % of European students continue their studies abroad in other European countries. The proportion of those studying abroad is much higher in countries such as Luxembourg, Liechtenstein and Cyprus, which either do not offer tertiary level courses, or only do so on a limited basis.

The proportion of those studying abroad is in itself a pointer to the effectiveness of a policy for mobility in Europe. What is more, it is likely to boost the future mobility of ordinary citizens and workers by opening up professional prospects beyond the borders of their own countries. Student exchanges are forging international bonds in Europe. They are improving knowledge of foreign languages and mutual understanding and broadening the horizons of all those involved in them.

All measures enabling students to complete some of their studies abroad thus merit special attention. Adaptation of courses, the mutual recognition of intermediate examinations, and qualifications themselves all make an important contribution in motivating a greater number of students to pursue at least part of their tertiary education in other European countries. National structures of tertiary education remain quite different (Figure B1). The adoption of more uniform university structures and a credit system – again encouraged by the Bologna Process – is a first step forward along these lines worthy of continued support.

TEACHERS

The role of teachers in the intellectual development of young people at all levels of the education system is crucial. Their remuneration also accounts for a greater share of educational expenditure than any other item (Figure 18). For this investment to be fully productive, it is vital to ensure that such an invaluable supply of human resources is trained and employed effectively.

There are 4.5 million teachers in the EU, but the pupil/teacher ratio varies considerably from one country to the next

In all EU countries, 4.5 million teachers cater for pupils in primary and secondary education. Around 25 % of them work part time though with major variations between countries. In primary education in all European countries, the great majority of teachers are women. In secondary education, the breakdown between the sexes is more balanced, but women teachers are still in the majority in most countries, in virtually all the candidate countries in particular.

The pupil/teacher ratio varies from one country and level of education to the next. The number of children per teacher is often significantly greater in primary than in secondary education. Considering primary and secondary education combined, the pupil/teacher ratio in Ireland is almost twice as high as in Denmark. The trend in pupil/teacher ratios in all countries is fairly encouraging. In certain instances, this is attributable simply to the fall in the birth rate and thus an exclusively demographic factor. Given the significance of pupil/teacher ratios for the quality of education and bearing in mind also the financial implications of lowering those ratios, reaching the best possible compromise in relation to both considerations is highly desirable.

In most countries, teachers are university trained for three to six years, depending on the level of education at which they are intending to work

The majority of European countries now provide initial university training (ISCED level 5A) for all teachers. However, in the case of those intending to work at the lowest educational levels, training in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) exists alongside training in post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 4) or in non-university tertiary education (ISCED 5B).

With few exceptions, differences between countries in the length of university teacher training mirror differences in the general duration of university studies and do not seem to relate specifically to courses in teaching or education.

The importance attached to academic training increases with the level at which prospective teachers are intending to work, while the share of (theoretical and practical) professional training provided for them is relatively greater in the case of those wishing to teach in the first years of schooling (Figures G3 to G6). There is less emphasis on this strictly professional component in university teacher training as a whole.

Teacher training is provided in accordance with two different models: the concurrent model provides for the acquisition of academic knowledge (covering general and cultural aspects as well as the subjects to be taught) at the same time as professional teacher training (Figure G1). This model is the most widespread in teacher training for pre-primary and primary education. For teachers in upper secondary education, countries have tended to adopt the so-called consecutive model, in which academic training has to be completed

The typical teacher in Europe is aged over 40 and will soon be thinking about retirement

prior to the start of professional training. In addition, some countries have introduced a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase in which classroom teaching by trainees is supervised. This phase may or may not be a part of initial training.

In Europe as a whole, around two-thirds of all teachers have reached the age of 40 or over. Ageing in the teaching profession is especially marked in some countries, such as Germany, Italy and Sweden. In certain cases, this is partly attributable to the limited availability of new jobs in recent times.

In most EU countries, teachers are able to retire at the age of 60, or even 55 in some cases (Figures G12 and G13). Once they have reached minimum retirement age, very few of them remain in service unless retirement before the official age results in considerable financial loss (as in Germany, Ireland and the Netherlands).

Salaries are linked to the length of service of teachers and, to a lesser extent, the level of education at which they work

The salary of a new teacher, at least in primary education, is generally less than per capita GDP but it rises significantly over an entire career to sometimes twice the level of the starting salary. Differences between salaries with respect to the level of education at which teachers work are far less marked, and are often associated with a change in training requirements (Figures G4 to G6). Germany, Spain, Portugal and Malta are the only countries in which teacher salaries, even in the case of new teachers, are over 1.2 times per capita GDP at all levels of education.

Length of service is the dominant factor in determining salary levels, which has several important implications. One of them is that the problem of ageing in the teaching profession leads simultaneously to a sometimes considerable increase in the cost of education. It also prompts consideration as to other additional criteria that might serve as incentives to motivate teachers during their career. Indeed, teacher motivation is an issue of considerable significance and represents a special challenge for educational policy-makers both as regards the aim of ensuring quality education and the productivity of the financial investment in teaching staff.

In most countries, specific requirements have to be satisfied in order to become a school head, a post that generally carries with it a higher level of remuneration

In almost all European countries, only teachers with already several years of professional experience can reasonably hope to become school heads. In the majority of countries, at least three years of teaching experience are required and often even five or more. In many countries, administrative experience and/or additional training are also preconditions. Only in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and Latvia does the legislation not stipulate any special requirement for appointment to the position of school head.

For a given level of education and seniority, a school head receives a higher level of remuneration than a teacher, with only a few exceptions. In international comparison, however, the additional requirements for appointment to the post of school head are not always reflected in higher remuneration. In Belgium, Greece and Italy, the conditions of appointment are relatively demanding (at least seven years of professional experience as well as, in Italy, initial training for a considerable period) but the financial rewards are relatively modest. In Germany, on the other hand, school heads

tend to earn much more than their teacher colleagues, without necessarily having to fulfil any other conditions than that of professional experience of unspecified minimum length.

The proportion of women among school heads varies significantly from one country and level of education to the next. It is five times higher in Estonia than the Netherlands. Generally, the percentage of women in these posts with a certain amount of managerial responsibility is not as great as their representation among teachers working at the same level (Figure G14). Furthermore, in the same way as in the case of teaching staff, the proportion of women decreases the higher the level of education is. Within each country, they tend to become school heads, therefore, at those levels of education that are least well remunerated. The situation in which they have less rewarding opportunities on the job market in general (Figure A15) is thus also reflected within the teaching profession.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

It is generally recognised that knowledge of foreign languages is an important prerequisite for European integration and international exchange. It facilitates human mobility in Europe and enables people to take advantage of opportunities on the European labour market, beyond those available nationally. This highly significant contribution of foreign languages is now being taken into account in all parts of the continent.

Pupils are taught foreign languages at an increasingly early age, and foreign language teaching is part of the primary school compulsory curriculum almost everywhere in Europe

In nearly all European countries, the teaching of foreign languages is now part of the compulsory curriculum from primary education onwards. At this level, the percentage of time devoted to foreign languages is already greater than 10 % in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Luxembourg, Sweden and Malta (Figure D5). In certain countries, the introduction of foreign languages into the curriculum for pupils from the age of 6, 7 or 8 is becoming the norm. As regards the whole of compulsory full-time schooling, the share of compulsory education devoted to foreign languages is close to 10 % in the majority of countries. Furthermore, schools may choose to include foreign language teaching within their flexible timetable. In some countries, pilot projects support and finance the introduction of foreign languages outside compulsory education.

The result of these developments at present is that, in the European countries under consideration, almost 50 % of pupils in primary education and virtually all pupils in general secondary education learn at least one foreign language. In the vocational branches of upper secondary education also, these proportions are generally over 75 %. In the majority of European countries for which broken down data are available, at least half of all pupils learn several languages during general upper secondary education (Figure H10). In the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Luxembourg, Finland and Estonia, almost 49 % of pupils at this level learn at least three.

English is the most commonly taught foreign language in Europe, followed by French and German

Among taught foreign languages, English is the dominant language. On average throughout the EU, 42 % of pupils in primary education (Figure H7) and almost 90 % of pupils in general secondary education learn English (Figure H12). In 13 countries, the central education authorities stipulate that the teaching of this language is compulsory.

As regards the second most commonly taught language, a clear distinction is to be noted between the EU and candidate countries. Whereas French is the most widespread among the EU countries, German is much commoner in the candidate countries. In the EU countries, on average, 3 % of children learn French in primary education and almost 24 % in general secondary education. Among the countries of central and eastern Europe, with the exception of Romania, the percentage of pupils learning German stands at 12 % and 30 % for primary and general secondary levels respectively.

When learning foreign languages, pupils are expected to acquire the four major skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. For initial teaching of the first foreign language, official curricula often attach priority to the oral aspects of listening and speaking, especially when teaching very young children. In most countries, at the end of compulsory education, the same importance is attached explicitly to the written and spoken language (Figure H17).

Support for children of foreign mother tongue is a special challenge

For some children, the official language of their country of residence is a foreign language. All EU countries have made special arrangements for the integration of these children of foreign mother tongue (Figure H16). The Nordic countries recommend that some or all teaching for such children should be given in separate classes during one or more initial years of schooling, whereas countries in southern Europe tend to favour immediate integration combined with language support. Most candidate countries have hitherto made provision for immediate integration with no special support. The PISA findings ^(*) have recently demonstrated that, in spite of these efforts, pupils of foreign origin often encounter learning difficulties that have not been overcome by the end of compulsory education. The integration of children of foreign mother tongue thus still remains a challenge in Europe requiring a more effective response.

^(*) OECD, *Measuring Student Knowledge and Skills: Reading, Mathematical and Scientific Literacy: the PISA Assessment*, Paris, 2000, 104 p.

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

All European countries invest substantial resources in the education of young people, but the amounts may be twice as much in some countries as in others and correspond, on average, to 5.5 % of GDP

In most countries, the share of expenditure on education in all public expenditure lies between 9 and 13 %

All countries make major financial investments in educating their citizens. Examined broadly, the amounts involved vary widely depending on the country concerned. These variations may be at least partly attributable to differences in individual circumstances relating, for example, to the number of pupils or the duration of education. Several indicators have been prepared to take account of such factors and it is important that they should be considered in conjunction with each other.

Average public expenditure on education for all educational levels combined stands at a little over 5.5 % of GDP in EU countries. Compared to total public expenditure, the proportion of public expenditure on education is 11.2 %, ranging from 6.4 % in Greece to 14.5 % in Denmark.

This proportion provides more a helpful insight than the GDP-related figure to the position occupied by education in public expenditure. In certain countries in which all public expenditure is fairly restrained, education may be an important priority without this necessarily being reflected in the proportion of educational expenditure compared to GDP. Of the EU countries, this applies especially to Ireland. However, in most countries, these differences are less conspicuous. All the indicators show that public expenditure on education is clearly below average in Germany, Greece, Italy and the Netherlands and above it in Denmark, Austria, Finland and Sweden.

To evaluate the unit cost of education, a third type of indicator relates expenditure on education to the number of pupils (Figure 111 or Figure 114). Regardless of the level of education concerned, Denmark, Austria and Sweden lead the field in this respect, whereas Greece is the EU country in which the corresponding amounts are lowest. In addition, this third indicator reveals major differences between the EU and candidate countries. While trends in the latter are similar to those of the EU when public expenditure on education is compared to total public expenditure or to GDP, they are different when unit expenditure per pupil is considered. This is very largely attributable to the relatively greater proportion of young people in the population of candidate countries (Figure A2). However, as demographic trends in these countries are now becoming increasingly similar to those of other European countries, it may be expected that these differences will, at least to some extent, be only temporary.

As far as the development of public financing of education in recent years is concerned, an increase has occurred in just four EU countries. In Greece and Portugal, it is a reflection of the general increase in public expenditure. In Denmark and Sweden, on the other hand, the public funding of education has increased notwithstanding a reduction in overall public spending. In the two latter countries, the share of educational expenditure in total public financial outlay has therefore risen substantially in the last few years (Figure 12).

Differences in types of financial support offered to students and/or their families are partly responsible for variations between countries in the amounts involved

At all levels of study, part of public expenditure on education may be directly allocated to students and their families. This direct financial support is most widespread in tertiary education. In the case of all EU countries, it accounts for 16 % of public expenditure at this level. However, there are substantial variations between countries with the figures varying in the range from 35 % in Denmark to 6 % in Portugal and 3.4 % in Greece (Figure 118).

Depending on the level of studies and on national legislation, several types of financial assistance coexist in the various countries, such as family allowances, tax relief, and student grants and/or loans (Figures 115 and 117). When interpreting differences in amounts between countries, it is important to notice that certain methods of financing, and particularly tax relief, are not taken into account in the statistics. By contrast, loan amounts are calculated without taking student repayments into consideration (Figure 116).

Of the different levels of education, secondary education accounts for the greatest share of financial resources

Secondary education receives the greatest share of financial resources in virtually all countries. On average in the EU, 28 % of resources are allocated to primary education, 48 % to secondary education and 24 % to tertiary education (Figure 110). The breakdown is similar in the candidate countries. These proportions are attributable, on the one hand, to pupil enrolments at the various levels as well as the duration of each level and, on the other, to the higher costs per student as the level of education rises.

Private schools are grant aided to the same extent as those in the public sector in just four countries

Not all public expenditure on education is earmarked for public-sector schools. In many countries, government-dependent private schools receive a share of resources. In the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom (except Scotland), private schools receive amounts of funding comparable to those in the public sector. In many countries, part of the budget (for teacher salaries and/or operational resources) is determined in accordance with the same criteria in both sectors. However, in 12 countries, the financing of government-dependent private schools is totally different from that of public-sector funding (Figure 113). In those countries, government-dependent private schools account for very few enrolments, except in Denmark and Spain (Figure B3). On the other hand, as the case of Sweden illustrates, comparable funding for public-sector and private schools does not necessarily result in marked development of the government-dependent private sector.

Teacher remuneration corresponds to the largest category of expenditure...

The financing of staff corresponds to the biggest category of expenditure in all countries. In the EU on average, it accounts for around 75 % of running expenses which, in turn, represent almost 90 % of total costs (Figure 18). The situation in the candidate countries is similar. The share allocated to the financing of staff is especially high in Germany, Spain and Portugal. At around 62 %, only Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom are well below the European average. The proportion of financial resources earmarked for staff in all educational expenditure does much to explain why policy decisions regarding teacher salaries (Figures G15 to G17) and pupil teacher ratios (Figure G8) are such key issues.

... the central authorities generally retain responsibility for decisions regarding the budget earmarked for this category

Given the importance of funding for staff, decisions regarding the general allocation of financial resources for this resource category are in most cases taken by the central authorities, which thus effectively control the purse-strings in public expenditure on education. As to the other categories of financial resources, particularly operational goods and services and capital expenditure on fixed assets (immovables), decentralised decision-making is far more widespread (Figure 16). The public authorities thus attempt to take account of the diversity of school requirements, without however relinquishing control of the major share of funding.

In nearly all European countries, schools are to some extent autonomous as regards the acquisition of operational goods and services. By contrast, decisions relating to the purchase of immovables are hardly ever taken by schools. Only in the Netherlands are most schools free to acquire resources in the three foregoing categories on their own initiative. This is the country, therefore, in which schools in general enjoy the greatest managerial autonomy. The level of school autonomy concerning the actual purchase of resources thus partly reflects how responsibility for decision-making is divided as far as the general allocation of finances is concerned (Figure 19). In countries in which decisions on general resource allocation are taken at local level, schools are often granted the most freedom to decide what resources they will acquire.

Reliance on additional private fund-raising is a marginal trend

The freedom of public-sector schools to engage in additional private fund-raising and to use such resources as they wish often go hand in hand. The legislation of some countries clearly limits the sources from which additional funding of this kind may be obtained. Their regulations do not often authorise the accumulation of financial reserves or the sale of capital assets. Only in three countries – the Netherlands, Finland and the United Kingdom (except Scotland) – is there no legislation setting limits on additional private fund-raising (Figure 112A). Even where no legislation exists, traditional practice regarding private sources of funding may vary substantially from one country to the next. Generally, however, private funds make only a very small contribution to the financing of education and are not often included in the statistics. The preponderance of public financing is justified by the fact that compulsory education is in the nature of a public service. From a statistical standpoint, if more scope is granted in future to the varied opportunities for additional private fund-raising to help schools acquire more resources, it will become increasingly difficult to estimate and compare the real costs of education.

GLOSSARY

CODES AND ABBREVIATIONS

COUNTRY CODES

EU	European Union
B	Belgium
B fr	Belgium – French Community
B de	Belgium – German-speaking Community
B nl	Belgium – Flemish Community
DK	Denmark
D	Germany
EL	Greece
E	Spain
F	France
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
NL	Netherlands
A	Austria
P	Portugal
FIN	Finland
S	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom
UK (E/W)	England and Wales
UK (NI)	Northern Ireland
UK (SC)	Scotland
EFTA/EEA	The three countries of the European Free Trade Association which are members of the European Economic Area
IS	Iceland
LI	Liechtenstein
NO	Norway
Candidate countries	
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
EE	Estonia
CY	Cyprus
LV	Latvia
LT	Lithuania
HU	Hungary
MT	Malta
PL	Poland
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia

LANGUAGES CODES

ES	Spanish	GA	Irish	CS	Czech
DA	Danish	IT	Italian	HU	Hungarian
DE	German	NL	Dutch	PL	Polish
EL	Greek	PT	Portuguese	SL	Slovenian
EN	English	FI	Finnish	SK	Slovak
FR	French	SV	Swedish	RU	Russian

ABBREVIATIONS OF STATISTICAL TOOLS AND OTHER CLASSIFICATIONS

(-)	Not available
(-)	Not applicable
(*)	Estimate
Ø	Average
x	Data merged within another category (see the annexes)
ESA	European system of accounts
EU	European average (tables and graphs)
F	Female/Women
FTE	Full-time equivalents
GDP	Gross domestic product
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ISCED	International Standard Classification for Education
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
LFS	Labour Force Survey
M	Male/Men
NUTS	Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PPS	Purchasing Power Standard
UOE	Unesco/OECD/Eurostat

NATIONAL ABBREVIATIONS IN THEIR LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN

BTS	<i>Brevet de technicien supérieur</i>	F, L
CAPES	<i>Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire</i>	F
CPGE	<i>Classes préparatoires aux grandes écoles</i>	F
CSPOPE	<i>Cursos Secundários Predominantemente Orientados para o Prosseguimento de Estudos</i>	P
CT	<i>Cursos Tecnológicos</i>	P
DBSO	<i>Deeltijds beroepssecundair onderwijs</i>	B, nl
DESS	<i>Diplôme d'études supérieures spécialisées</i>	L
DOM	<i>Départements d'outre mer</i>	F
EUD	<i>Ertuvissuddannelse</i>	DK
FHL	<i>Fachhochschule Liechtenstein</i>	LI
FP	<i>Formación profesional</i>	E

NATIONAL ABBREVIATIONS IN THEIR LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN

GCSE	<i>General Certificate of Secondary Education</i>	UK (E/W/NI)
GEST	<i>Grants for Education Support and Training</i>	UK (E/W)
HAVO	<i>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>	NL
HBO	<i>Hoger Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
HF	<i>Højere Forberedelseseksamen</i>	DK
HHX	<i>Højere Handelseksamen</i>	DK
HMI	<i>Her Majesty's Inspector</i>	UK
HTX	<i>Højere Teknisk Eksamen</i>	DK
IAP	<i>Internationale Akademie für Philosophie</i>	LI
ICT	<i>Information and communication technology</i>	
IEES	<i>Institut d'études éducatives et sociales</i>	L
IEK	<i>Instituto Epagelmatikis Katartisis</i>	EL
INCE	<i>Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación</i>	E
INValSI	<i>Istituto Nazionale per la Valutazione del Sistema dell'Istruzione</i>	I
IPSS	<i>Instituição Particular de Solidariedade Social</i>	P
ISERP	<i>Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques</i>	L
IST	<i>Institut supérieur de technologie</i>	L
IUFM	<i>Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres</i>	F
IUT	<i>Instituts universitaires technologiques</i>	F
KY	<i>Kvalificerad Yrkesutbildning</i>	S
LEA	<i>Local Education Authority</i>	UK (E/W)
LIO	<i>Leraar in Opleiding</i>	NL
LOGSE	<i>Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo</i>	E
MAVO	<i>Middelbaar Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>	NL
MBO	<i>Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
MCAST	<i>Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology</i>	MT
ME	<i>Ministério da Educação</i>	P
MTS	<i>Ministério do Trabalho E Solidariedade</i>	P
PGCE	<i>Postgraduate Certificate of Education</i>	UK (E/W/NI), MT
PPS	<i>Program Priprave na Šolo</i>	SI
QNHS	<i>Quarterly National Household Survey</i>	IRL
SEC	<i>Secondary Education Certificate</i>	MT
STS	<i>Sectionis de techniciens supérieurs</i>	F
TEE	<i>Technika Epagelmatika Ekpaideftiria</i>	EL
TEI	<i>Technologika Ekpaideftika Idryma</i>	EL
TES	<i>Techniki epagelmatiki scholi</i>	EL
UCAS	<i>Universities and Colleges Admissions Services</i>	UK
VBO	<i>Voorbereidend Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
VMBO	<i>Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
VWO	<i>Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>	NL
WO	<i>Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>	NL

DEFINITIONS OF STATISTICAL TOOLS

SOURCES OF STATISTICAL DATA

The source of the statistical data included in the present publication is Eurostat, the Statistical Office of the European Communities ⁽¹⁾.

THE UOE DATA COLLECTION

The UOE (Unesco/OECD/Eurostat) data collection is an instrument through which these three organisations jointly collect internationally comparable data on key aspects of education systems on an annual basis using administrative sources. Data are collected according to the ISCED 97 classification and cover enrolments, new entrants, graduates, educational personnel and educational expenditure. The specific breakdowns include level of education, sex, age, type of curriculum (general, vocational), mode (full-time/part-time), type of institution (public/private), field of study and nationality. In addition, to meet the information needs of the European Commission, Eurostat collects enrolment data by region and on foreign language learning. The methodology and questionnaires used for the 2001 UOE collection where the data included in the present publication come from, are available at the public Eurostat Education, Training and Culture Statistics website ⁽²⁾.

EUROSTAT DEMOGRAPHIC DATABASE

Eurostat collects the national demographic data from responses to an annual questionnaire sent to the national statistical institutes. The annual national population estimates are based either on the most recent census or on data extracted from the population register.

THE COMMUNITY LABOUR FORCE SURVEY (LFS)

The LFS, which has been carried out annually since 1983, is the principal source of statistics on employment and unemployment in the European Union. This survey is directed at individuals and households. The questions mainly cover the characteristics of employment and job seeking. It also includes questions on participation in education or training during the four weeks prior to the survey and information on the level of education attained according to the ISCED 97 classification. The definitions are common for all countries and are based in particular on the recommendations of the International Labour Organisation.

⁽¹⁾ More information on how to access these data in the Eurostat databases is available at the Eurostat web site at the address: <http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/>

⁽²⁾ http://forum.europa.eu.int/Public/irc/dsis/edtsa/library?l=/public/unesco_collection/2001

NOMENCLATURE/CLASSIFICATIONS USED

INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION (ISCED 1997)

The international standard classification of education (ISCED) is an instrument suitable for compiling statistics on education internationally. It covers two cross-classification variables: levels and fields of education with the complementary dimensions of general/vocational/pre-vocational orientation and educational/labour market destination. The current version, ISCED 97 ⁽²⁾ distinguishes seven levels of education.

ISCED 97 LEVELS

Empirically, ISCED assumes that several criteria exist which can help allocate education programmes to levels of education. Depending on the level and type of education concerned, there is a need to establish a hierarchical ranking system between main and subsidiary criteria (typical entrance qualification, minimum entrance requirement, minimum age, staff qualification, etc.).

ISCED 0: Pre-primary education

Pre-primary education is defined as the initial stage of organised instruction. It is school- or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least three years.

ISCED 1: Primary education

This level begins between four and seven years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from five to six years.

ISCED 2: Lower secondary education

It continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education.

ISCED 3: Upper secondary education

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entrance age is typically 15 or 16 years. Entrance qualifications (end of compulsory education) and other minimum entry requirements are usually needed. Instruction is often more subject-oriented than at ISCED level 2. The typical duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education

These programmes straddle the boundary between upper secondary and tertiary education. They serve to broaden the knowledge of ISCED level 3 graduates. Typical examples are programmes designed to prepare students for studies at level 5 or programmes designed to prepare students for direct labour market entry.

ISCED 5: Tertiary education (first stage)

Entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3 or 4. This level includes tertiary programmes with academic orientation (type A) which are largely theoretically based and tertiary programmes with occupation orientation (type B) which are typically shorter than type A programmes and geared for entry into the labour market.

ISCED 6: Tertiary education (second stage)

This level is reserved for tertiary studies that lead to an advanced research qualification (Ph.D. or doctorate).

⁽²⁾ <http://unesco-stat.unesco.org/en/pub/pubD.htm>

ISCED 97 FIELDS

The classification comprises nine main fields of study (adopted for *Key Data*) which are subdivided into 25 categories that may themselves be further broken down.

- 0 — General programmes
- 1 — Education
- 2 — Humanities and arts
- 3 — Social sciences, business and law
- 4 — Science, mathematics and computing
- 5 — Engineering, manufacturing and construction
- 6 — Agriculture and veterinary
- 7 — Health and welfare
- 8 — Services

THE NOMENCLATURE OF TERRITORIAL UNITS FOR STATISTICS (NUTS)

This was established by Eurostat to provide a single, uniform breakdown of territorial units for the production of regional statistics for the European Union and candidate countries. The NUTS is a five-level hierarchical classification (three regional levels and two local levels) which in most cases subdivides countries into a number of NUTS level 1 regions, each of which is in turn subdivided into a number of NUTS 2 regions, and so on. The NUTS classification is available on the Eurostat Classifications server ⁽¹⁾.

DEFINITIONS/NOTES ON THE CALCULATIONS**Unemployment**

For a comparable measure of unemployment in the EU, Eurostat applies the recommendation of the International Labour Office (ILO), according to which the unemployed comprise persons aged 15 and over who:

- are without work;
- are currently available for work, i.e. can start a job within two weeks, and
- have been actively seeking work during the past four weeks.

The unemployment rate is the percentage of the active population who are unemployed.

Participation rates

Participation rates for a given age are the ratio of the number of pupils/students of this age registered at a given level of education (or in a given type of institution) and the total population of this age.

European average

Unless mentioned otherwise, the European average is calculated on the basis of the European Union Member States for which data is available.

⁽¹⁾ http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/ramon/nuts/splash_regions.html

Purchasing Power Standard (PPS)

Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) shall mean the artificial common reference currency unit used in the European Union to express the volume of economic aggregates for the purpose of spatial comparisons in such a way that price level differences between countries are eliminated. Economic volume aggregates in PPS are obtained by dividing their original value in national currency units by the respective PPP. PPS thus buys the same given volume of goods and services in all countries; whereas different amounts of national currency units are needed to buy this same volume of goods and services in individual countries, depending on the price level.

Purchasing Power Parity (PPP)

Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) is a currency conversion rate which converts economic indicators expressed in a national currency into an artificial common currency that equalises the purchasing power of different national currencies. In other words, PPP eliminates the differences in price levels between countries in the process of conversion to an artificial common currency, called Purchasing Power Standard (PPS).

Country mean (also referred to as simple or unweighted average)

The country mean, is calculated as the unweighted mean of the data values of all countries for which data are available or can be estimated. The country mean therefore refers to an average of data values at the level of the national systems and can be used to answer the question of how an indicator value for a given country compares with the value for a typical or average country. It does not take into account the absolute size of the education system of each country.

Government dependent private institutions

A government dependent private institution is one that receives more than 50 % of its core funding from government agencies. 'Core funding' refers to the funds that support the basic educational services of the institutions. It does not include funds provided specifically for research projects, payments for services purchased or contracted by private organizations, or fees or subsidies received for ancillary services, such as lodging and meals. Additionally, institutions should be classified as government dependent if their teaching personnel are paid by a government agency – either directly or through government.

OTHER DEFINITIONS

EUROPEAN FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION

The European Free Trade Association (EFTA) was established by Austria, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and Great Britain in 1960 as a result of the Stockholm Convention. Finland, Iceland and Liechtenstein joined the Association subsequently. There are now no more than four EFTA States, namely Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland, the remaining countries having left the Association to join the European Union. All EFTA countries except Switzerland are within the European Economic Area.

EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AREA

The agreement on the European Economic Area (EEA) was signed in May 1992 and came into force at the beginning of 1994. It is binding on the 15 Member States of the European Union and three EFTA countries but not Switzerland. The aim of this agreement is to develop a single market beyond the borders of the EU countries, providing for the free circulation of goods, persons, capital and services.

CANDIDATE COUNTRIES

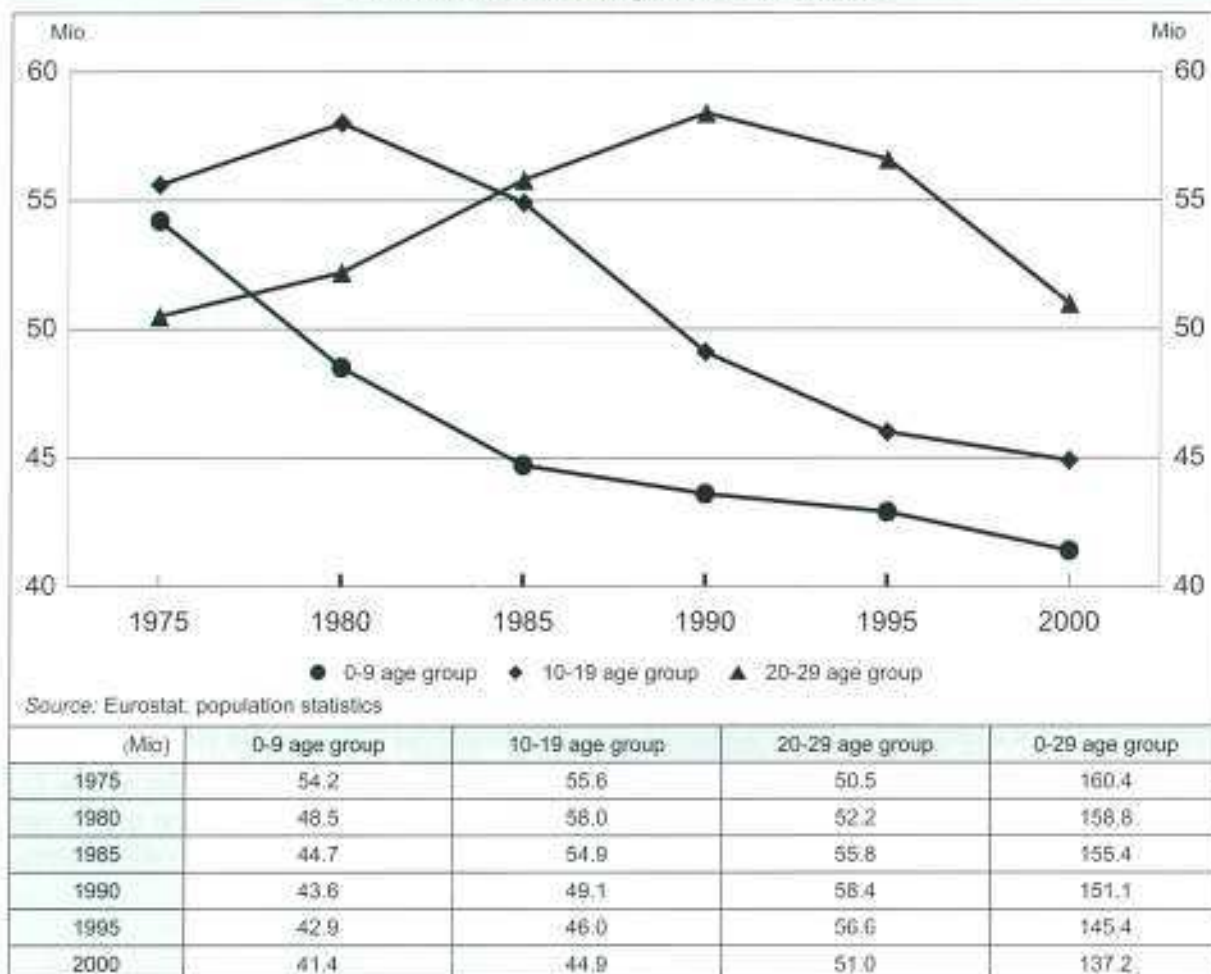
The present report covers the candidate countries already taking part in the Socrates programme under the EU pre-accession strategy. These countries are Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia.

Turkey has already applied to join the European Union and preparatory arrangements are under way with a view to its taking part fully in the Socrates programme from 2004 onwards and, more specifically, to its prior inclusion within the Eurydice Network. However, as the country is not yet a member of the Network, it has not been possible to incorporate data on Turkey within the present edition.

FEWER AND FEWER YOUNG PEOPLE IN EUROPE

In 2000, the number of young people under 30 years of age stood at 137 million in the European Union. This figure has been falling constantly since 1975.

FIGURE A1: CHANGE IN THE NUMBERS OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE 0-9, 10-19 AND 20-29 AGE GROUPS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION, FROM 1975 TO 2000



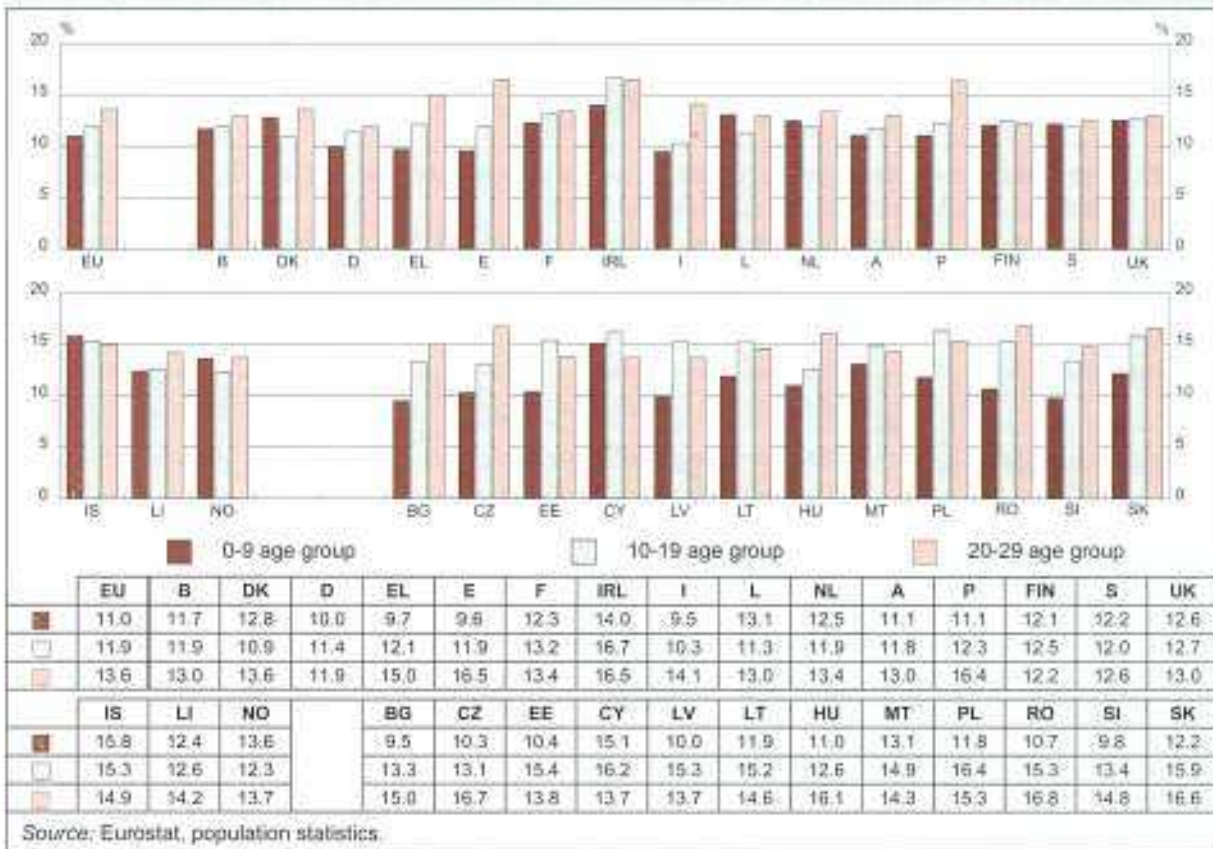
The change in the different age groups illustrates the downward trend in the number of young people; the number in the 20-29 age band actually increased regularly until 1990 and declined since then. In other words, this means that the birth rates have been dropping since the middle of the 1960s.

Moreover, the proportion of the youngest continues to decrease, giving the impression that deceleration in the birth rate is continuing.

Thus, within the Member States, the 20-29 age group is generally the largest one, except in Ireland and Finland, where the 10-19 age group is a little bit larger, reflecting a later deceleration in the birth rate in these countries (Figure A2).

In Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden (and in Iceland and Norway), the 0-9 age group is larger than the 10-19 age group.

FIGURE A2: PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION IN THE 0-9, 10-19 AND 20-29 AGE GROUPS, 2000



As a whole, young people aged less than 30 years account for approximately 36 % of the total population of the EU (against 46 % in 1975). The proportion of young people is relatively homogeneous between the different Member States. The EU country with the lowest percentage is Germany (33 %) and the highest percentage is recorded in Ireland (47 %).

Of the EFTA/EEA countries, Iceland has a relatively high proportion of young people (46 %).

In all the candidate countries, the proportion of young people is generally larger than in the EU Member States (between 38 and 45 %). However, the reduction in the number of young people can also be observed, as witnessed by the lowest percentage in the under 10 age group in all countries, except in Cyprus where the 20-29 age group is the lowest.

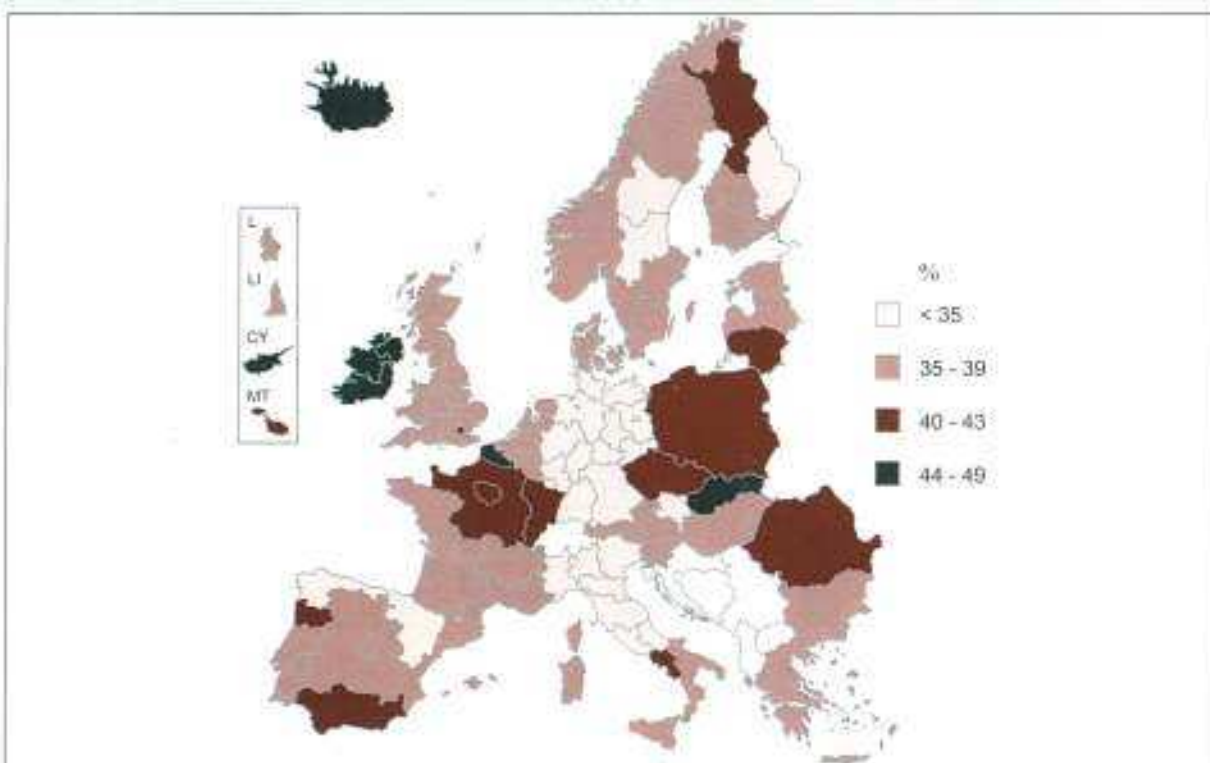
SIGNIFICANT REGIONAL VARIATIONS IN THE PROPORTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE

In the EU, the proportion of young people in relation to the total population reveals regional disparities, mainly within the southern countries.

Thus, the proportion of young people is relatively high in the south of Spain (and in the Canary Islands, not shown on the map), accounting for 43 % of the total population in these regions against 38 % or less in the rest of the country. In France the average is 40 % with a variation from 44 % in Nord-Pas-de-Calais to 36 % in Sud-Ouest and with 52 % in *Départements d'outre-Mer* (France's Overseas Departments). In the southern regions of Italy, the proportion of young people reaches or exceeds 40 % while it is 32 % or less in Lombardia, in North West, in North East, in Emilia-Romagna and in the Centro regions. In the north of Portugal (and also in the Azores and in Madeira, not shown on the map), young people represent more than 40 % of the population but the proportion is below 38 % in Lisbon, as well as in the southern regions (Alentejo and the Algarve).

Lastly, Northern Ireland and the Pohjois-Suomi region (north of Finland) have relatively high proportions of young people compared to the rest of the regions of their respective countries.

FIGURE A3: PERCENTAGE IN THE 0-29 AGE GROUP BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS,
2000



Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional notes

France: 1998 population data.

United Kingdom (SC): Data are directly from the Statistics Unit in the Education Department in the Scottish Executive.

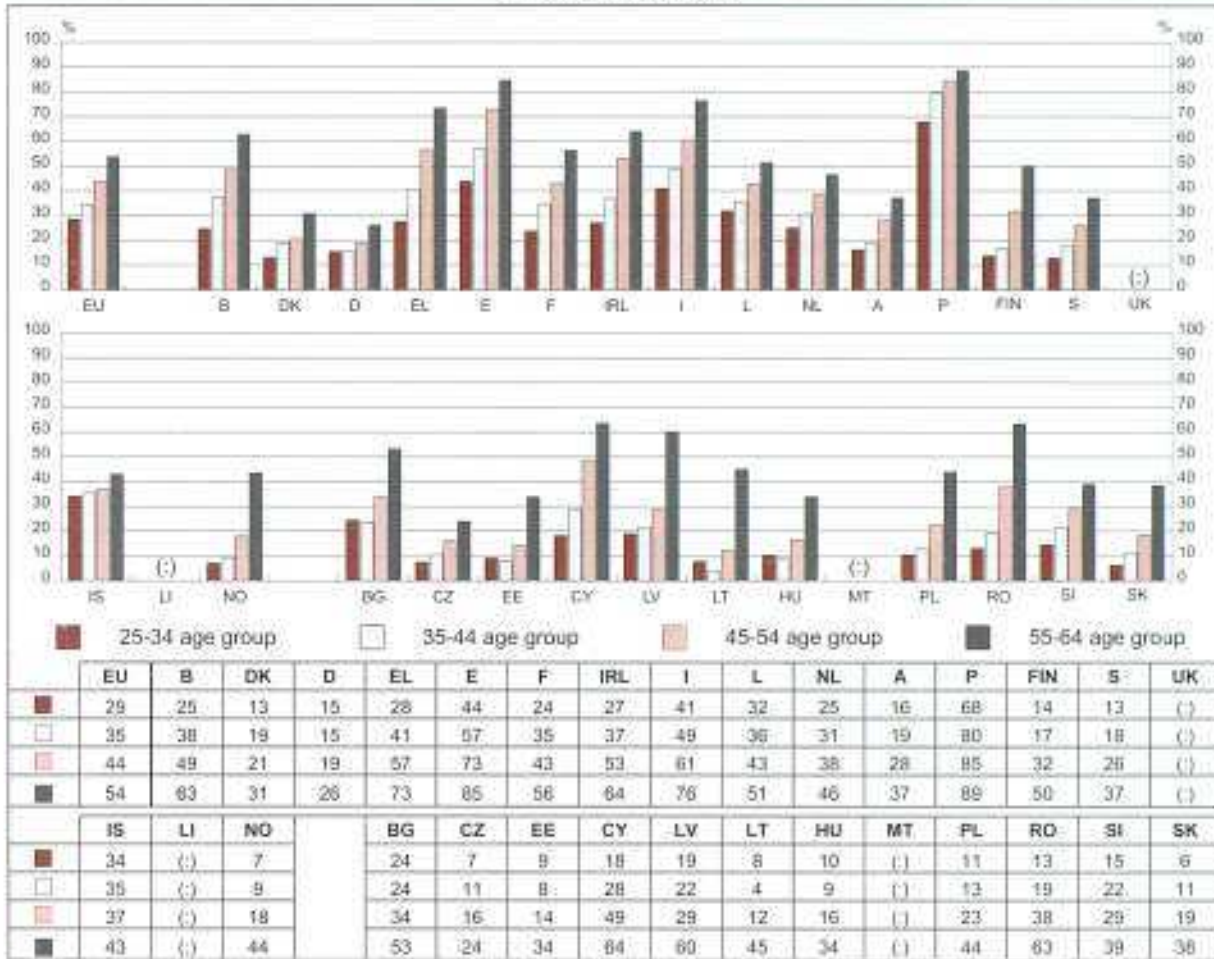
Explanatory note

For the NUTS nomenclature, see definition of the statistical tools at the beginning of the book. The breakdown by NUTS 1 and NUTS 2 regions is not shown in the case of the EFTA/EEA and candidate countries.

INCREASING NUMBERS OF WELL-QUALIFIED YOUNG PEOPLE

For several decades, increasing numbers of young people have been continuing their studies beyond upper secondary education. The percentage of the population leaving school without a qualification at this level has been progressively decreasing and as a consequence, the educational level of the population is rising. In all the countries the proportion of low-qualified persons is growing through the age groups.

FIGURE A4: PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE WHO DO NOT HAVE AN UPPER SECONDARY QUALIFICATION, BY AGE GROUP, 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Ireland: Data on Ireland is obtained directly from QNHS (LFS in Ireland), Central Statistics Office.

United Kingdom: Data for the UK are not shown. A definition of 'upper secondary attainment' in the UK has still to be agreed.

Explanatory note

The education levels are defined here according to the International Standard Classification for Education – ISCED (see definition of the statistical tools at the beginning of the book). People who do not hold a certificate of upper secondary education come in the same category as those who have achieved ISCED 0-2.

In 2000, only 29 % of young people in the 25-34 age group in the EU did not have an upper secondary education qualification; the comparable figure in the 55-64 age group was 54 %.

The increase in educational level is found in all Member States although it is particularly marked in Belgium, Greece, Finland and Sweden; in the EU southern countries, levels of education are relatively low.

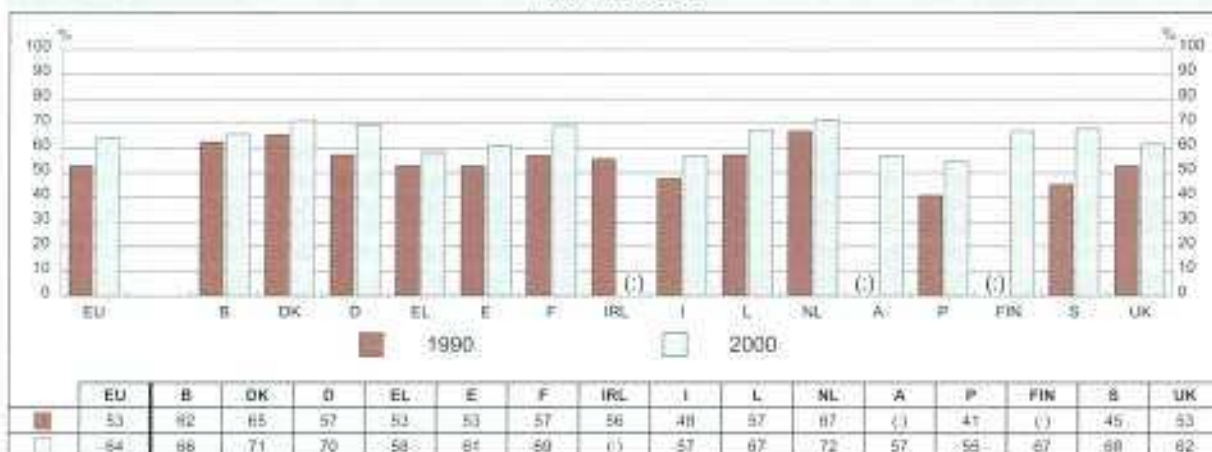
Indeed, among people aged 55-64, at least two-thirds have not achieved upper secondary education in Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal. Among the 25-34 age group, the proportion exceeds 40 % in three countries only (Spain, Italy and Portugal). In Greece the percentage of young people (25-34 years) not having an upper secondary qualification is very close to the EU-average (28 %).

In the EFTA/EEA countries, as well as in the candidate countries for which data is available, the increase in education levels is also noted, although in the candidate countries, the increase in education levels is bigger than in EU countries, and almost all percentages are lower than the EU average (for all categories).

Figure A5 also illustrates the trend towards a longer period of education. It shows the increase, between 1990 and 2000, in the percentages of young people between 15 and 24 years old who are currently in education or training.

In 1990, 53 % of young people aged 15 to 24 years old in the European Union were still studying. By 2000, there were 64 %. The increase is relatively similar throughout the Member States. The largest rises occurred in France, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In Germany there has been a change of territory, and the effect of the reunification on the percentage is not known.

FIGURE A5: PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE IN EDUCATION OR TRAINING AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 24, 1990 AND 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey

Additional notes

Germany: 1990 figures refer to the Former Territory of the Federal Republic.

Austria: 2000 data from national statistics.

Explanatory note

Persons in education or training are the ones who have, during the last four weeks before the survey, attended a school (general or vocational), university or apprenticeship-type training course, whether full-time or part-time.

ALMOST A QUARTER OF THE POPULATION IN EUROPE IS IN SCHOOL OR STUDYING

During the 1999/2000 academic year, there were slightly more than 85 million pupils and students in the EU, representing about 23 % of the total population.

In the same year, there were more than one million pupils and students in the EFTA/EEA countries, i.e. virtually a quarter of the total population.

In the candidate countries, the 24 million pupils and students represented slightly more than 23 % of the total population in 1999/2000.

FIGURE A6: PUPILS AND STUDENTS (IN THOUSANDS),
1999/2000

EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
85 060	2 635	1 258	16 847	2 031	8 904	14 351	993	10 623	82	3 559	1 682	2 247	1 279	2 430	16 138
IS	LI	NO		BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
88	5	1 132		1 569	2 205	355	155	655	860	2 272	88	9 993	4 578	446	1 287

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: In tertiary education advanced research programmes (ISCED 6) are excluded.

Greece: Includes public institutions of the Ministries of Labour, Health and Defence. Excludes institutions of Commercial Navy.

Ireland: In general there is no official provision of ISCED 0 education. Many children attend some form of ISCED 0 education but provision is private and data are missing for the most part. Data are available for official provision of ISCED 0 to a small number of disadvantaged children and for those private schools that also cater for children aged six or over.

Luxembourg: Since 1998/99 private institutions are included in ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3. Pre-primary includes pupils in *éducation précoce*. In tertiary Luxembourg does not have a complete university system, most students study abroad.

United Kingdom: The number of reported enrolments in further education colleges (upper secondary vocational education) has increased significantly on previous editions of this publication, because they are based on whole-year counts rather than point-in-time counts as in previous years.

Liechtenstein: In tertiary Liechtenstein does not have a complete university system, most students study abroad.

Cyprus: Excludes tertiary students studying abroad who account for 54 % of the total number of Cypriot tertiary students.

Explanatory note

Pupils in special education as well as pupils in pre-primary education controlled by the education ministries are included.

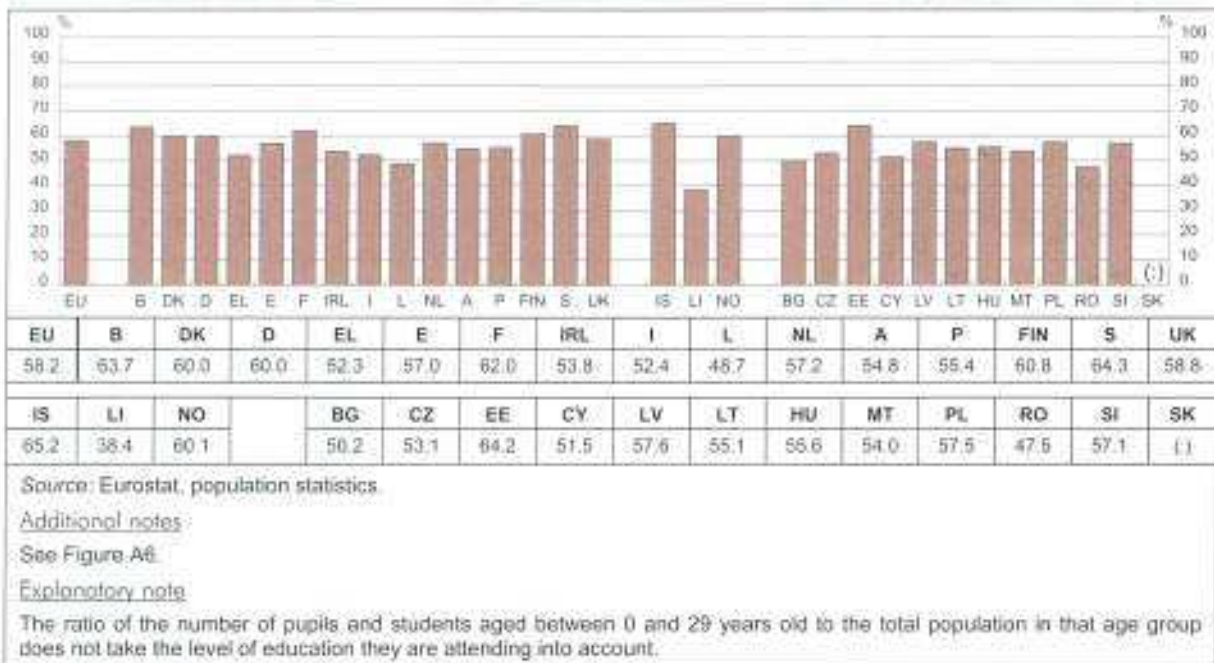
In the European Union as a whole, 58 % of young people under 30 years of age are pupils or students.

As Figure A7 shows, the highest participation rates are found in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Finland and Sweden (60 % or more). By contrast, the lowest are found in Greece and Italy where a little more than half of those aged under 30 are students or pupils (52 %). Luxembourg has only 49 % but it has to be noted that most students in tertiary education are studying abroad.

In Iceland and Norway, the proportion of young people who are in education is above the EU average. In Liechtenstein, the students studying abroad are not counted. Their number is particularly high in post-secondary and tertiary education.

In the candidate countries, with the exception of Estonia (64 %), the proportion of young people who are in education is below the EU average. The lowest percentages are found in Romania (47 %), Bulgaria (50 %) and Cyprus (52 %). It has to be noted that more than half (54 %) of the total number of Cypriot tertiary students are studying abroad.

FIGURE A7: PROPORTION OF PUPILS AND STUDENTS IN THE 0-29 AGE GROUP, 1999/2000



The total number of pupils and students in post-compulsory education and the percentage of the population in education that they represent are indicated in Figure A8. The typical ages for the end of compulsory education explain the differences between countries to some extent. These are presented in Figure B1 which describes the organisation of the education systems.

FIGURE A8: STUDENTS IN POST-COMPULSORY EDUCATION, IN THOUSANDS AND IN PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION MINUS THE POPULATION OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE, 1999/2000

EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
29 388	738	457	4 211	880	3 398	4 357	367	4 366	21	863	636	933	574	1 045	6 525
10 %	9 %	11 %	6 %	10 %	10 %	9 %	13 %	9 %	6 %	7 %	9 %	11 %	14 %	15 %	14 %
IS	LI	NO		BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
30	0	411		475	824	116	40	189	272	774	13	4 431	1 175	201	()
16 %	1 %	12 %		7 %	10 %	11 %	8 %	10 %	9 %	9 %	4 %	14 %	7 %	12 %	()

Source: Eurostat, population statistics.
 Additional notes:
 See Figure A6.
 Explanatory note:
 The percentage is derived by dividing the number of those enrolled in education who are older than the compulsory school age by the total number of persons in the population excluding (or minus) those of compulsory school age.

In most countries the end of compulsory school is 15-16 years for compulsory full-time education (except Hungary where it is 18 years). Besides that, the following countries have compulsory part-time education: Belgium (15-18), Germany (15-18/16-19), the Netherlands (16-17), and Poland (16-18). In Belgium most pupils remain in full-time education. The high ages of the end of compulsory school reduces the proportion of post-compulsory pupils and students.

In the EU as a whole, 10 % of the population concerned are pupils and students of post-compulsory education. The percentage varies in the EU countries between 6-7 % (Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) and 14-15 % (Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom).

The differences are due to the age of end of compulsory school, to the participation rate in the respective post compulsory educational programmes and to the number of students abroad. The last element counts especially for Luxembourg in the EU-countries, for Liechtenstein in the EFTA/EEA countries and for Cyprus and Malta in the candidate countries.

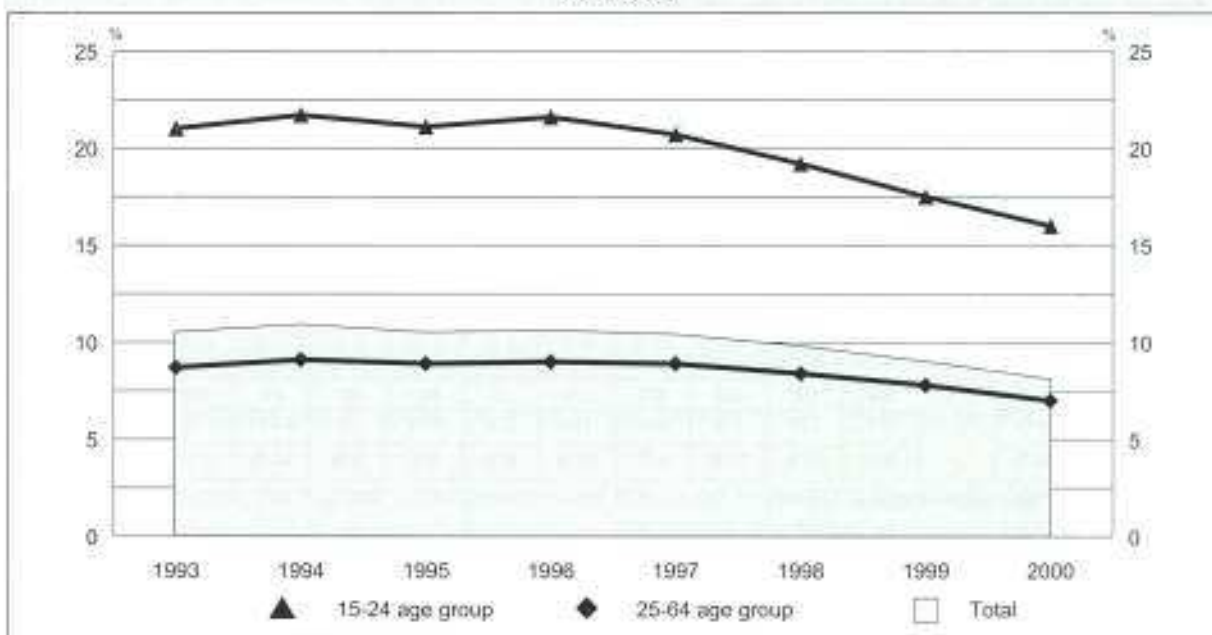
Taking these reserves into account, the EU-countries that register a percentage above the EU-average are Denmark, Ireland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom and those that show a lower percentage are Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria.

In the EFTA/EEA and the candidate countries, except for Liechtenstein and Malta, where they are lower, the percentages are rather close to the EU figures, all being between 7 and 15 % Bulgaria, Cyprus and Romania having 7-8 % and Iceland and Poland having 14-15 %.

TRENDS IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES VARY ACROSS COUNTRIES

During the last decade, unemployment rates across the different age groups have followed similar trends in the EU (Figure A9). Unemployment rates fell during the second half of the 1990s, reaching their lowest point in 2000. The recovery between 1997 and 2000 does not seem to have benefited one age group more than another. Until 1997, levels of unemployment seem to be stable at a level slightly over 10 %.

FIGURE A9: CHANGE IN THE UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY AGE GROUP IN THE EUROPEAN UNION, 1990-2000



	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
TOTAL	()	()	()	10.5	10.9	10.5	10.6	10.4	9.8	9.0	8.1
15-24 AGE GROUP	()	()	()	21.0	21.7	21.1	21.6	20.7	19.2	17.5	16.0
25-64 AGE GROUP	()	()	()	8.7	9.1	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.4	7.8	7.0

Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

The EU-15 figures are not shown for the years 1990-1992 as the numbers for all Member States are not available.

Explanatory note

Unemployment is defined in accordance with the guidelines of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (see definitions of the statistical tools at the beginning of the book). At EU-level, unemployment rates are calculated on the basis of the twelve Member States of the EU between 1993 and 1994. Since 1995, they include data for the three most recent Member States, Austria, Finland and Sweden.

Figure A10 presents the evolution over time in unemployment rates in each of the fifteen Member States, between 1990 and 2000. It can be seen that unemployment rates differ considerably between countries.

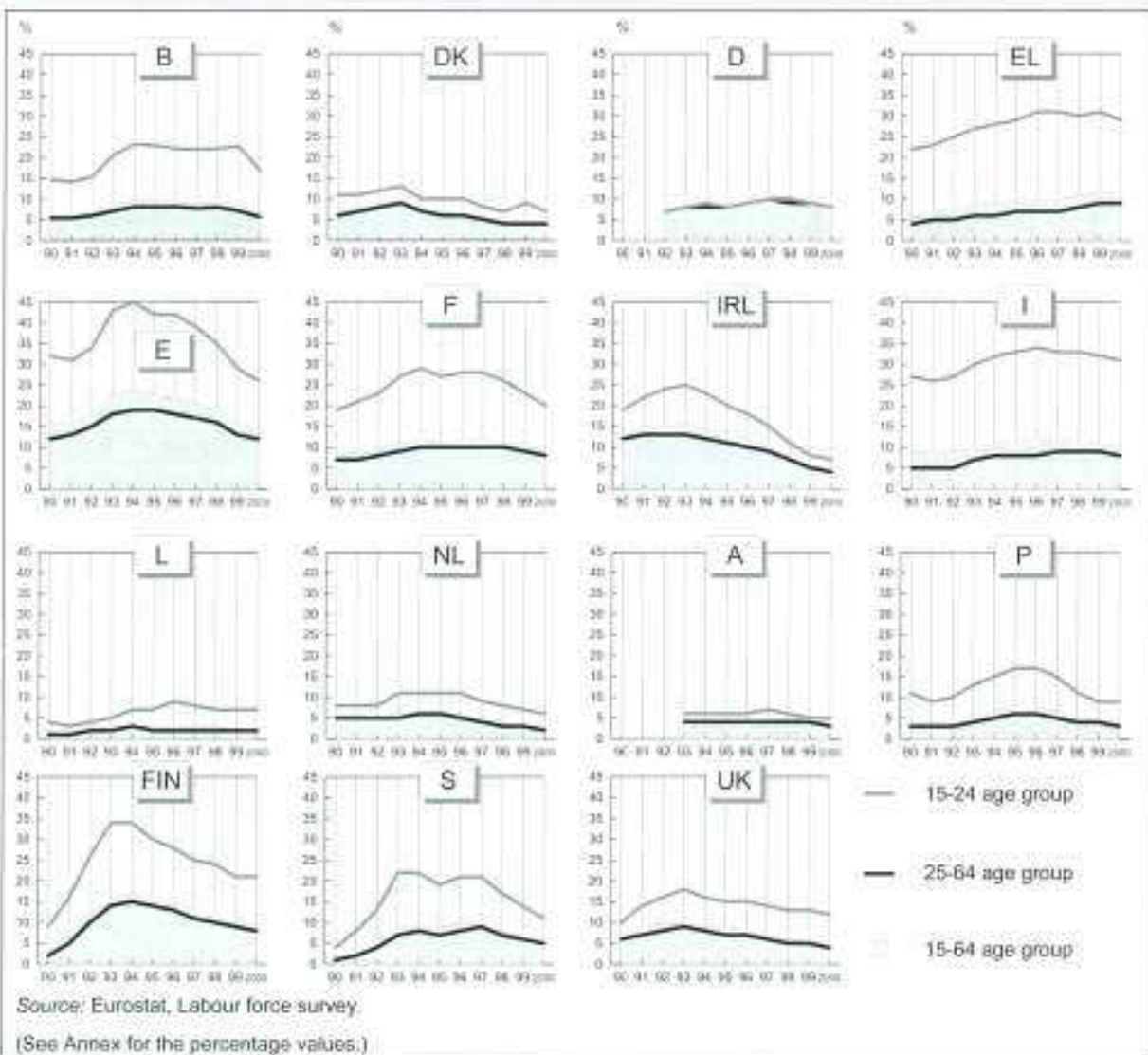
For some countries, the trend is close to the EU average with an increase until 1993 (in this period the EU-numbers are not shown, because there are no data for all countries), with stability until 1997 and a fall in unemployment from 1997 to 2000. This is the case in Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden.

In some countries the peak in unemployment was reached earlier: Denmark (1993), Ireland (1993), Finland (1994), the United Kingdom (1993), where the decline started.

In some countries there has been a later and smaller downward trend: Germany (1999), Greece (1999), Italy (1998) and Austria (1998). In Spain there has been a fall since 1994.

In general, since 1993, people in the 15-24 age group have been affected more by unemployment than those in the 25-64 age group. This pattern is found everywhere in the EU except in Denmark, Germany (apprentices being included in the working population), Ireland and Austria where unemployment rates remain relatively close for the different age groups. In Belgium and to a lesser extent in the United Kingdom, differences between unemployment rates in the 15-24 and 25-64 age groups have tended to become more pronounced.

FIGURE A10: TRENDS IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (PERCENTAGES) BY AGE GROUP AND MEMBER STATE, 1990-2000



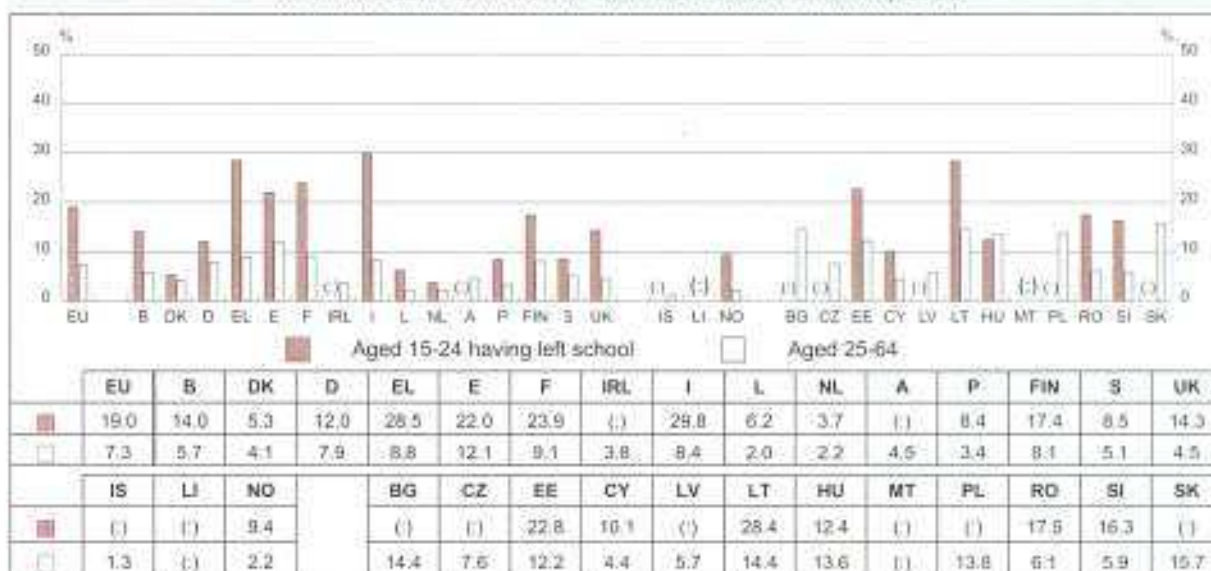
YOUNG PEOPLE ARE MORE AFFECTED BY UNEMPLOYMENT

Young people find it difficult to enter the labour market; their integration is often delayed and progressive. Thus, in the EU, 19 % of young people who have left education and are currently available for work are without a job. For adults aged 25 to 64 years the level is 7 %.

This observation applies to all countries, including Germany (young people in apprenticeship systems being excluded of the active population). In Denmark, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands and Sweden, the ratio of unemployment in the 15-24 age group to unemployment in the population of working age as a whole is the lowest of the EU. At the other end of the scale, youth unemployment is proportionally much higher than unemployment in the population of the working age as a whole in Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom (approximately twice as high).

However, unemployment rates differ considerably between Member States, both for young people aged 15 to 24 years who have left education (from 4 to 30 %) and those aged 25-64 (from 2 to 12 %). For both age categories, the highest unemployment rate is found in Greece, Spain, France and Italy, while Denmark, Luxembourg and the Netherlands have the lowest rates.

FIGURE A11: UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN THE 15-24 AGE GROUP WHO HAVE LEFT SCHOOL AND IN THE 25-64 POPULATION, 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

Iceland: Some data is not shown because of the small size of the sample.

Explanatory note

For the specific purposes of Figure A11, young people still in education have not been included in the active population although they are part of the denominator in the common definition of unemployment rate as soon as they have worked at least one hour during the reference week or if they are actively seeking a job.

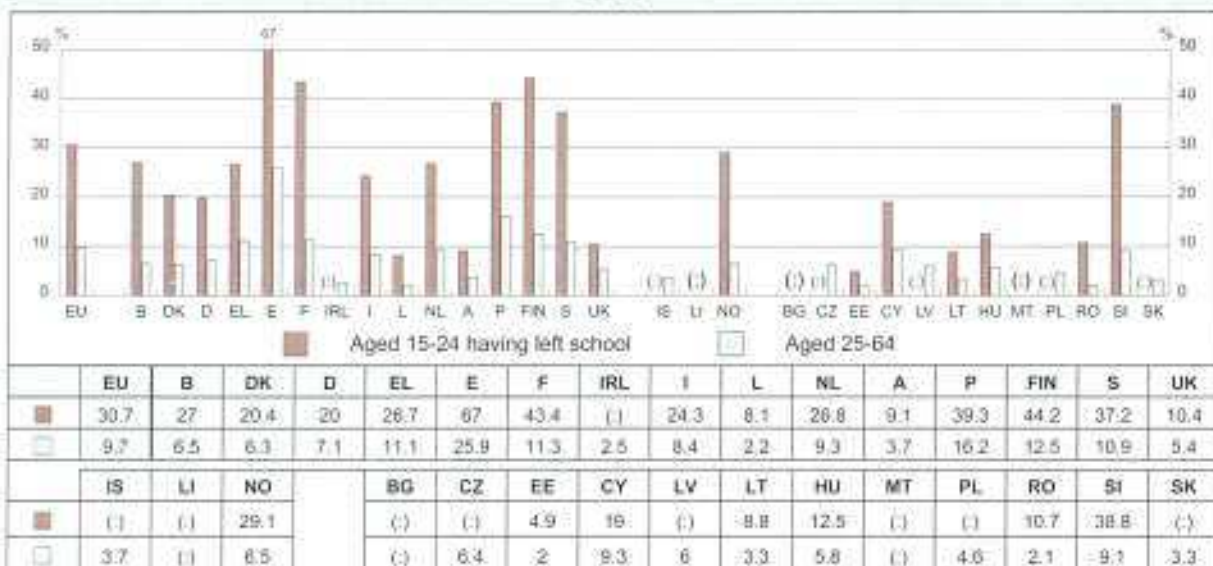
Both Iceland and Norway have percentages much below the EU-average, although the unemployment rates for young people in Norway are more than three times as high as that of their elders.

Among the candidate countries for which data are available, Cyprus has the lowest unemployment rates for both age groups (less than 11 %). In Estonia and Lithuania on the other hand, unemployment affects approximately one quarter of the youth labour force who have left school.

TEMPORARY JOBS: A CHARACTERISTIC OF YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

In the EU Member States in general the proportion of young employees with temporary jobs is almost three times that of adults.

FIGURE A12: PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES WITH TEMPORARY JOBS BY AGE GROUP,
2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional note

Iceland: Some data is not shown because of the small size of the sample.

Explanatory note

Temporary jobs refer to 'jobs/contracts of limited duration'.

There are big differences between the Member States. In some the difference is about four times e.g. in Belgium, France and Luxembourg (the general level is very low in Luxembourg) and in the United Kingdom it is about twice as much.

In France, Portugal, Finland and Sweden more than one in three young employees have temporary jobs. In Spain, this applies to two third of young employees.

Among the EFTA/EEA countries Iceland has a very low percentage for adults and Norway has percentages a little lower than the EU-average for both groups.

In the candidate countries for which data are available, temporary jobs are also more frequent among young people, although in general, the level of temporary jobs seems to be lower than in the EU countries. The differences between young employees and adults are sometimes relatively small, as in Cyprus and Hungary, where the proportion is about two to one, while they are much greater in Romania and Slovenia where the figure can reach four to five times as much.

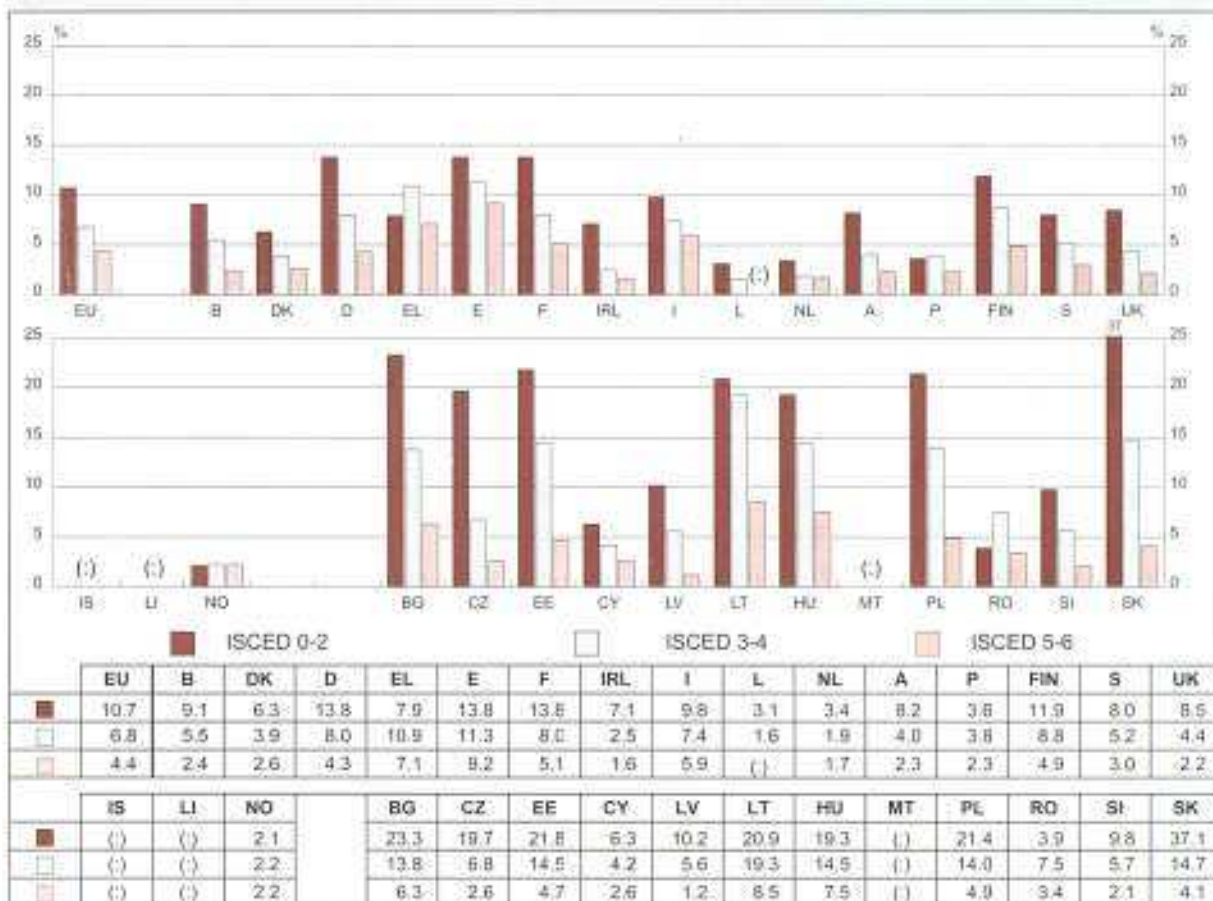
CHANCES OF HAVING A JOB GENERALLY INCREASE WITH LEVEL OF EDUCATION...

Figure A13 compares the unemployment rates and education levels of the population aged between 25 and 64. Generally speaking, the unemployment rate is lower for people with tertiary qualifications. In 2000, in the EU, the unemployment rate of persons with a tertiary education qualification was 4 %, against 7 % for persons who had completed upper secondary level and 11 % for those who had at best the minimum compulsory schooling. This pattern applies to most Member States. Two Member States deviate from this pattern. In Greece and, to a lesser extent Portugal, unemployment rates of the least qualified are lower than those of people who hold an upper secondary education or post secondary, not tertiary qualification.

Among the EFTA/EEA countries Norway registers about 2 % for all levels.

Similar patterns as in the EU can be observed in the candidate countries. Differences in the unemployment rates by level of education are particularly marked in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and in particular Slovakia: In Romania people with upper secondary education qualification have the highest unemployment rate.

FIGURE A13: UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN THE 25-64 AGE BAND, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Luxembourg: Some data is not shown because of the small size of the samples.

Iceland: Data is not shown because of the small size of the sample.

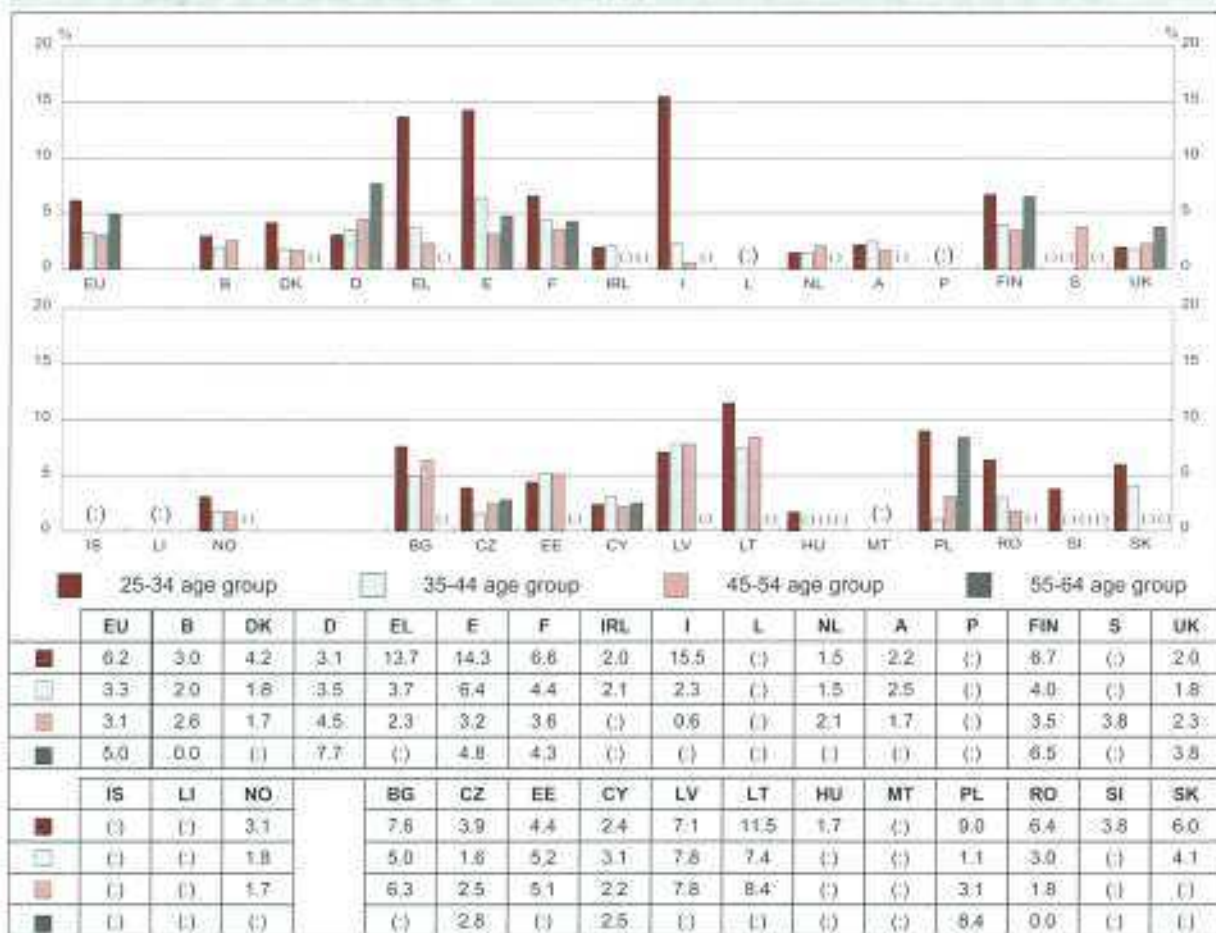
... BUT ALSO WITH AGE

Among those with tertiary education qualifications, the unemployment rate of people aged 25-34 years is in general higher than that of older graduates aged 35-54 years. In other words, while the education level is an important factor vis-à-vis unemployment, it seems that a significant number of young graduates have difficulties finding a job and are consequently faced with spells of unemployment when they finish their studies.

This pattern is particularly noticeable in Greece, Spain and Italy. In Belgium, the Netherlands and Austria, age until 54 seems to have little influence on unemployment of tertiary education graduates. In many countries an increase in the unemployment of tertiary education graduates occurs after 54 years and in Germany, Finland and the United Kingdom this increase is rather high. Among the EFTA/EEA countries, Norway has lower rates than the EU-average.

In the candidate countries, the youngest graduates are more likely to be unemployed than their elders, except in Estonia and Cyprus, although the differences between younger and older graduates are less marked than in the EU countries (except in Lithuania, Poland and Romania).

FIGURE A14: UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AMONG TERTIARY EDUCATION GRADUATES, BY AGE GROUP, 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

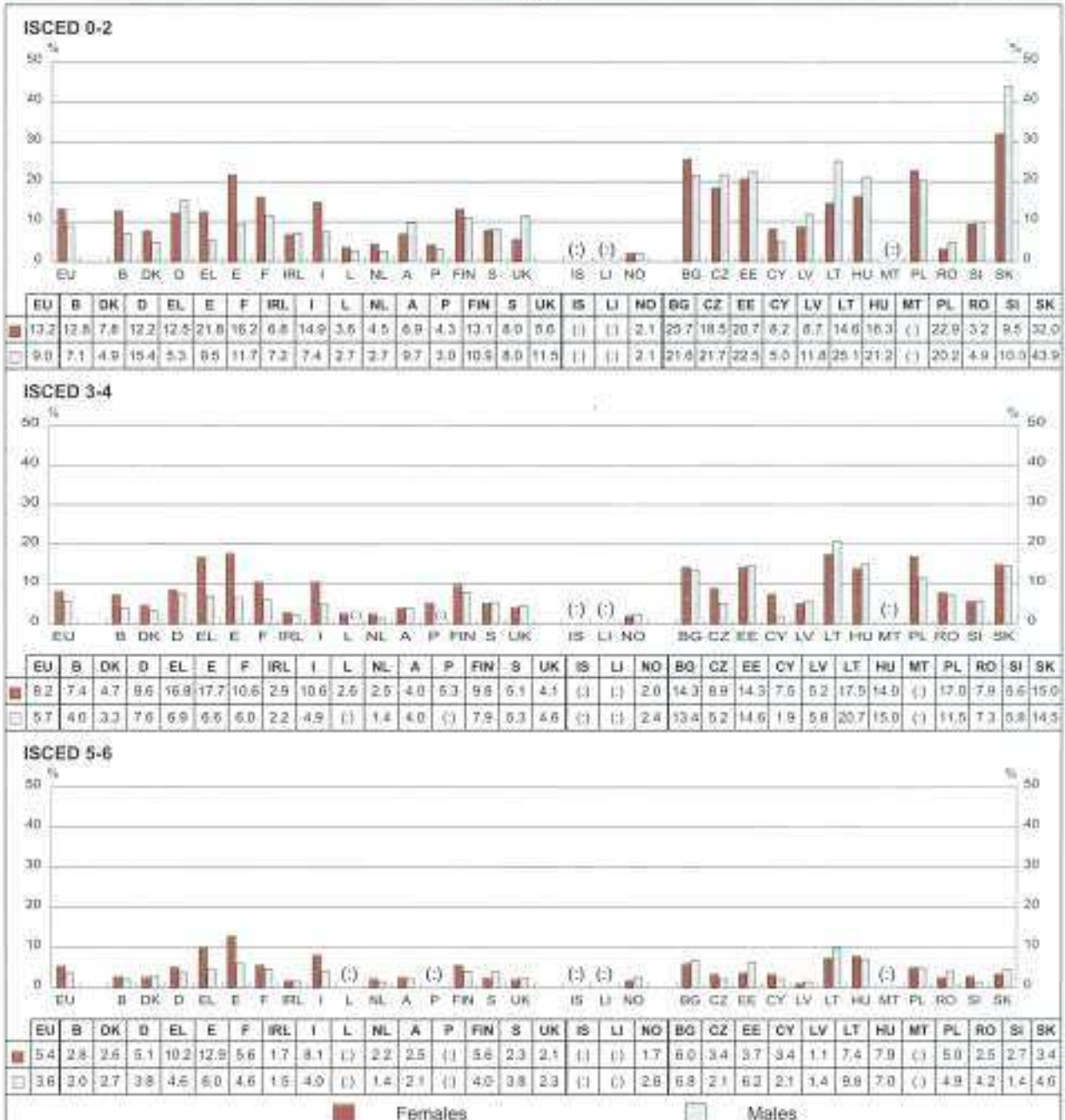
Additional notes

Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, Norway, Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Slovenia and Slovakia: Some data is not shown because of the small size of the samples.
Ireland: Data on Ireland is obtained directly from GNHS (LFS in Ireland), Central Statistics Office.
Luxembourg, Portugal and Iceland: Data is not shown because of the small size of the samples.

**WITH THE SAME LEVEL OF EDUCATION,
MORE WOMEN THAN MEN ARE UNEMPLOYED**

The increasing opportunities for women to remain in education and the growing numbers of them who obtain upper secondary and tertiary education qualifications have not completely eroded the differences between men and women vis-à-vis employment. With the same qualifications, a larger proportion of women than men is unemployed. This is both for low, medium and high level attainment.

FIGURE A15: UNEMPLOYMENT RATES OF THE 25-64 YEAR OLD POPULATION BY EDUCATION LEVEL AND SEX, 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

- Ireland:** Data on Ireland is obtained directly from QNHS (LFS in Ireland), Central Statistics Office.
- Luxembourg and Portugal:** Some data is not shown because of the small size of the samples.
- United Kingdom:** GCSE O-level has been considered as an upper secondary education qualification.
- Iceland:** Data is not shown because of the small size of the samples.

This situation is found in most of the EU except in Sweden and the United Kingdom (and also Norway) for all levels, in Denmark for the high level attainment, and in Germany and Austria for the low level attainment.

The differences between the sexes are lower for tertiary education graduates.

Inequalities are particularly pronounced in Greece, Spain and Italy.

In the candidate countries the differences in unemployment rates at the different levels between the sexes is much less systematic, although for the lower and higher level it is higher for men in general. The difference between the sexes is smaller at the highest level.

The unemployment rates of women are higher for all levels in Poland and Cyprus, whereas the contrary can be observed in Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia.

RECOGNITION OF SKILLS: SOMETIMES A QUESTION OF TIME

At the beginning of a professional career, having a tertiary education qualification is rarely sufficient to guarantee a job directly related to the level of the studies undertaken. Given the difficulties of integrating young people into the labour market, a large number of tertiary education graduates have to accept an under-qualified job and to wait a few years before obtaining a more 'responsible' post.

In the EU, only 50 % of young graduates are professionals or managers, compared with 63 % of their elders. By contrast almost 41 % of tertiary education graduates aged 25 to 34 are working as technicians, associate professionals, office workers or salesman. The same proportion for people aged over 35 is below 30 %. This finding is true for the majority of EU Member States. Especially for Greece, Spain, France, Ireland and Italy there is a big difference in the percentages working as professionals and managers between the age groups.

In the last category of elementary occupations, craft workers and plant and machine operators, the percentages for Germany, Spain and Austria are relatively high.

FIGURE A16: OCCUPATIONS OF PEOPLE WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS BY AGE GROUPS, 2000

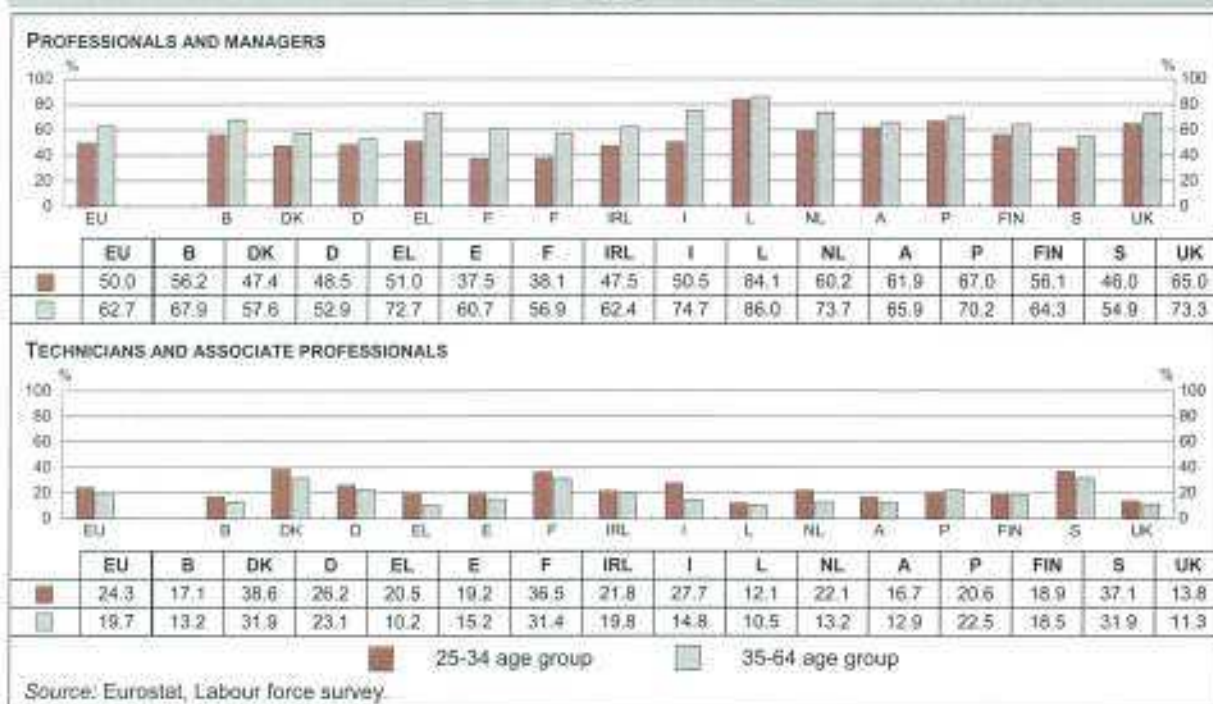
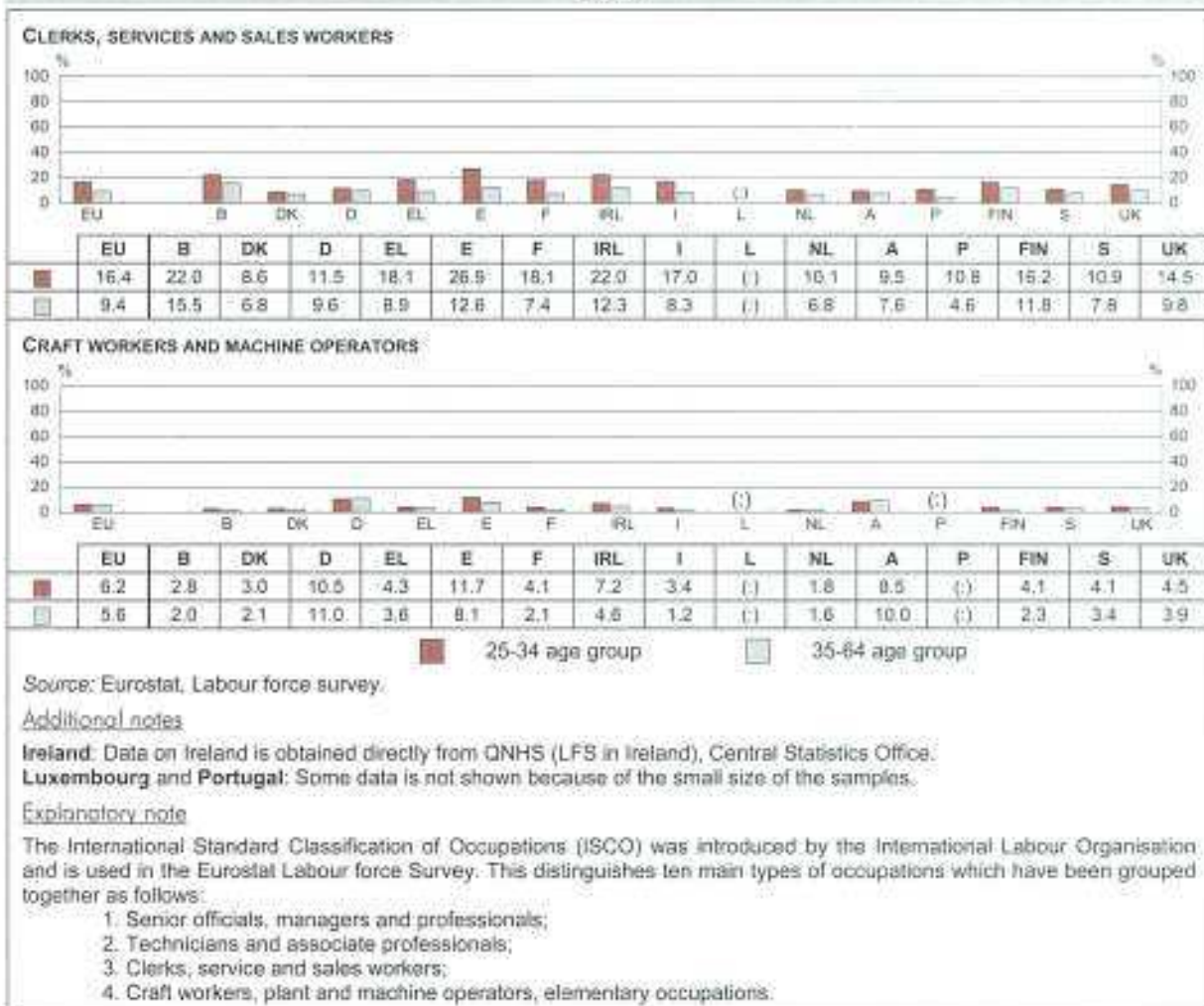


FIGURE A16: OCCUPATIONS OF PEOPLE WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS BY AGE GROUPS, 2000



QUALIFICATIONS REDUCE TEMPORARY EMPLOYMENT

As defined in the explanatory note below, temporary jobs account for more than 13 % of total employees among poorly qualified persons in the EU (lower secondary education at best). The proportion for people who have completed upper secondary or post secondary not tertiary education (medium educational attainment) is less than 8 %. For people with tertiary education it is 10.6 %.

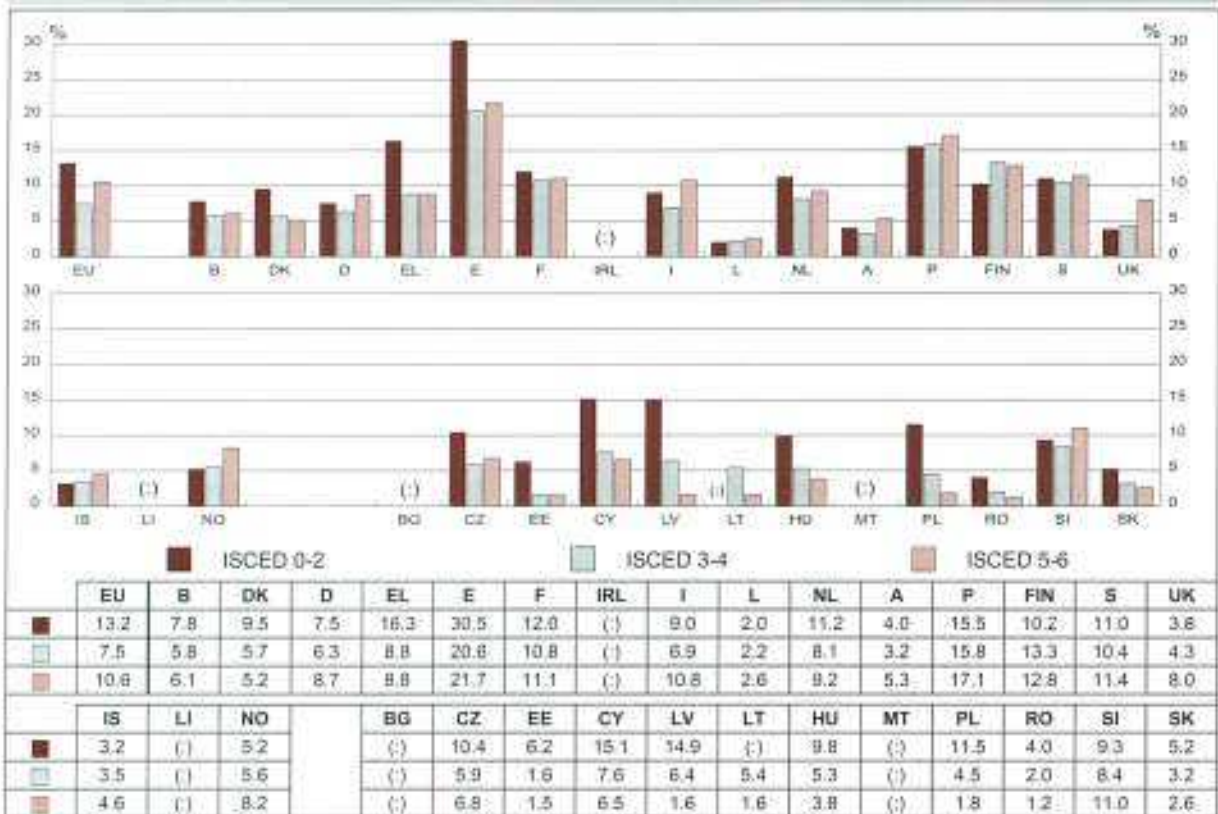
This pattern that medium educated people have the lowest percentages and that higher educated people have lower percentages than the lower educated is true of many of the EU Member States. There are exceptions like Denmark and Finland, where the proportion of temporary jobs is slightly lower for people with tertiary education than for those with secondary education. In Luxembourg, Portugal, Finland and the United Kingdom the proportion of temporary jobs is a little higher for medium educated than for low educated people. In Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal and Sweden the proportion is the highest for those with tertiary education.

The countries for which qualifications seem more likely to curb the rate of temporary jobs are Denmark and Greece: the proportion of temporary jobs among high qualified employees is about half that among the least qualified, whereas the situation is the opposite in the United Kingdom.



C O N T E X T

FIGURE A17: PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AGED 25-64 WITH TEMPORARY JOBS, BY EDUCATION LEVEL, 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

United Kingdom: GCSE O-level has been considered as an upper secondary education qualification.

Lithuania: Some data is not shown because of the small size of the samples.

Explanatory note

Temporary jobs refer to 'jobs / contracts of limited duration'.

In the EFTA/EEA countries, the highest proportion is found among those with the highest attainment and the lowest among those with the lowest, although the general level of the proportions is lower than for the EU on average.

In the candidate countries for which information is available the situation is the opposite: people with tertiary education account for the lowest percentage of those with temporary jobs and people with low education account for the highest, with the exception of the Czech Republic and Slovenia. The differences between the respective shares of temporary jobs according to education level attained seem to be even greater than for EU, although the overall level of temporary jobs is lower here.

In general the differences between the level attainments are slight in Luxembourg, Iceland and Norway and to a lesser extent in Germany and Slovenia.

STRUCTURES AND SCHOOLS

A WIDE VARIETY OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Figure B1 highlights similarities and differences in the organisational structure of European education systems. It focuses solely on the structure of **school** and **tertiary education** and, in the case of pre-primary education, only school institutions are shown; all institutional provision at pre-primary level is illustrated in Chapter C. Neither is special education provided within separate structures included in Figure B1.

The school systems of several European countries have undergone reform over the last three years or are currently **in the process of being reformed**. These reforms are concerned either with extending the period of compulsory education, or with the way in which the path through school is structured, including the provision of vocational or pre-vocational education. Accordingly, full-time **compulsory education** has been **extended** by one year in Italy, Poland, Romania and Slovakia, and by two years in Hungary. Reforms of the **path through school** affect different levels of education, depending on the country concerned. In Poland, a system of primary education lasting six years and lower secondary education lasting three years has replaced the single structure. In Slovenia, the year of pre-primary education is now part of the single structure. In the Netherlands, Finland and Hungary, reform is concerned with the organisation of vocational or pre-vocational secondary education, whereas in Italy and Luxembourg it has focused on tertiary education.

In half of the countries of Europe, children **enter the school system** at the age of 3 or 4. In certain countries (Belgium, Spain, France, Iceland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania), provision may be possible for children who are younger still. In Denmark, Germany (in the majority of *Länder*), Austria, Finland, Sweden, Norway and Slovenia, they are admitted at the age of 6.

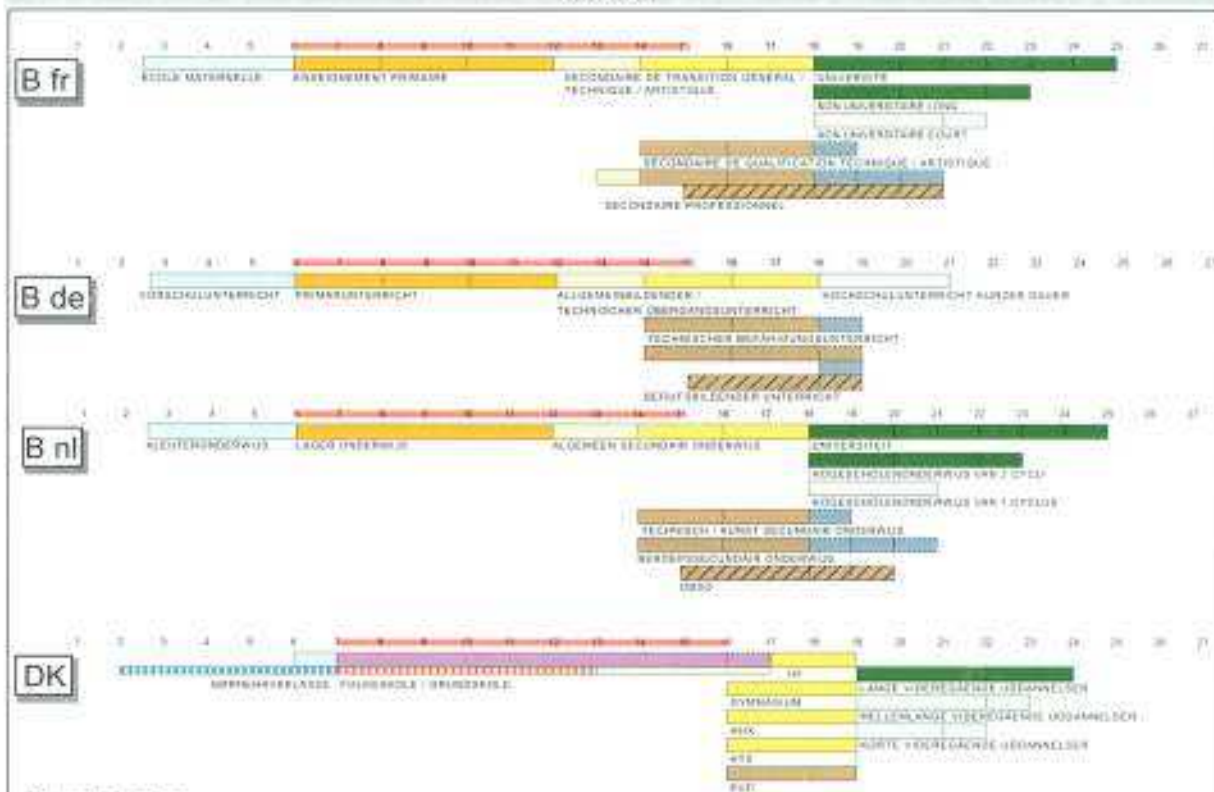
Attendance at a **pre-primary educational institution** is optional in most countries, and parents may enrol their child at one if they so wish. As a rule, education becomes compulsory at the age of 5 or 6 and generally corresponds to the point of entry to primary school, except in Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Cyprus and Hungary. In Ireland and the Netherlands, where the school systems do not include a pre-primary level, children have access to primary school 'infant classes' and an optional year of *basisonderwijs*, respectively, from 4 years of age. In Luxembourg, attendance in the last two years of pre-primary education (*Spillschoul*) has been made compulsory. In Hungary, children aged 5 must take part in exercises preparing them for their entrance to school. In the Nordic Member States (Denmark, Finland and Sweden), as well as in Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Poland and Romania, education does not become compulsory until the age of 7.

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

Pupils have to choose a particular branch or type of schooling at the beginning of lower secondary education, generally at the age of 10 in Germany and Austria, 11 in Liechtenstein and 12 in Luxembourg. In the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, compulsory education occurs within a single structure until pupils are aged 14 or 15, but they may enter separately provided general lower secondary education at around the age of 10 or 11.

In the great majority of countries, full-time compulsory education lasts nine or ten years and continues until pupils are aged at least 15 or 16. However, full-time compulsory education lasts 11 years in Luxembourg, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland) and Malta, 12 years in the Netherlands and Northern Ireland, and 13 years in Hungary (since the start of the 2000/01 school year).

FIGURE B1: STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice

Additional notes

Belgium: The end of full-time compulsory education is set at the age of 15 or 16, depending on whether pupils have or have not completed the first stage.

Belgium (B fr, B de): The *enseignement technique/artistique* and *Technischer Übergangsunterricht* are accessible from the age of 14 onwards.

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

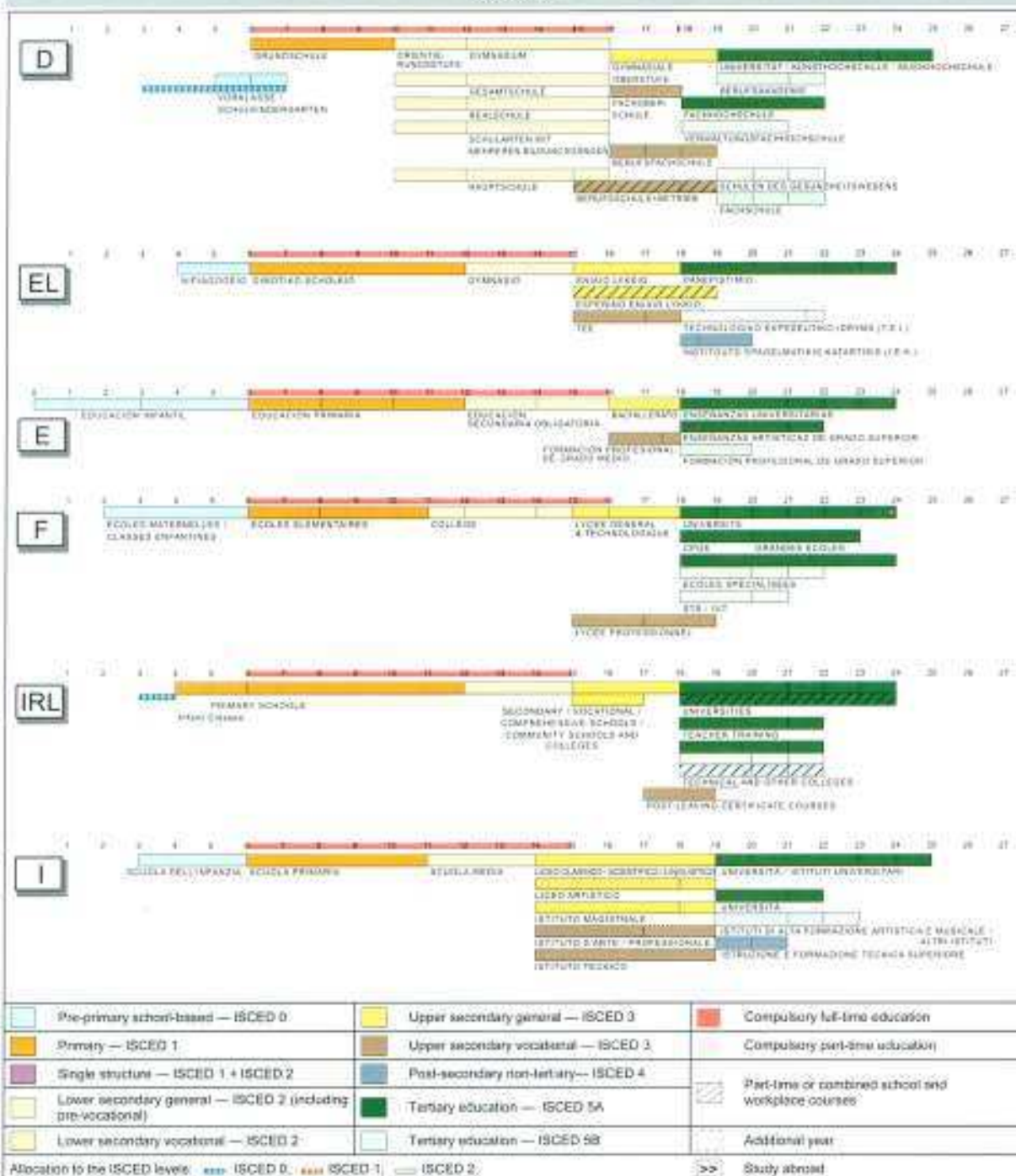
Explanatory note

Special education is not included in the present diagram. All non-school settings in pre-primary education are shown in Figure C2.

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

As far as the requirements of international statistics are concerned, the breakdown of pupils in accordance with ISCED levels is not strictly consistent with the schools that they attend. In such cases, Figure B1 indicates the corresponding ISCED 0, 1 and 2 classification under the schools concerned. This applies in particular to the ISCED level 0 statistics which group together all children in pre-primary educational centres, whereas the diagram only illustrates school structures.

FIGURE B1 (CONTINUED): STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: In two Länder, *Vorklassen* are provided for children aged 5 who have not yet reached compulsory school age but whose parents wish them to receive preparation for primary school. In most other Länder, *Vorklassen* or *Schulkindergärten* are provided for children who have reached compulsory school age but do not have the maturity required to enter primary education.

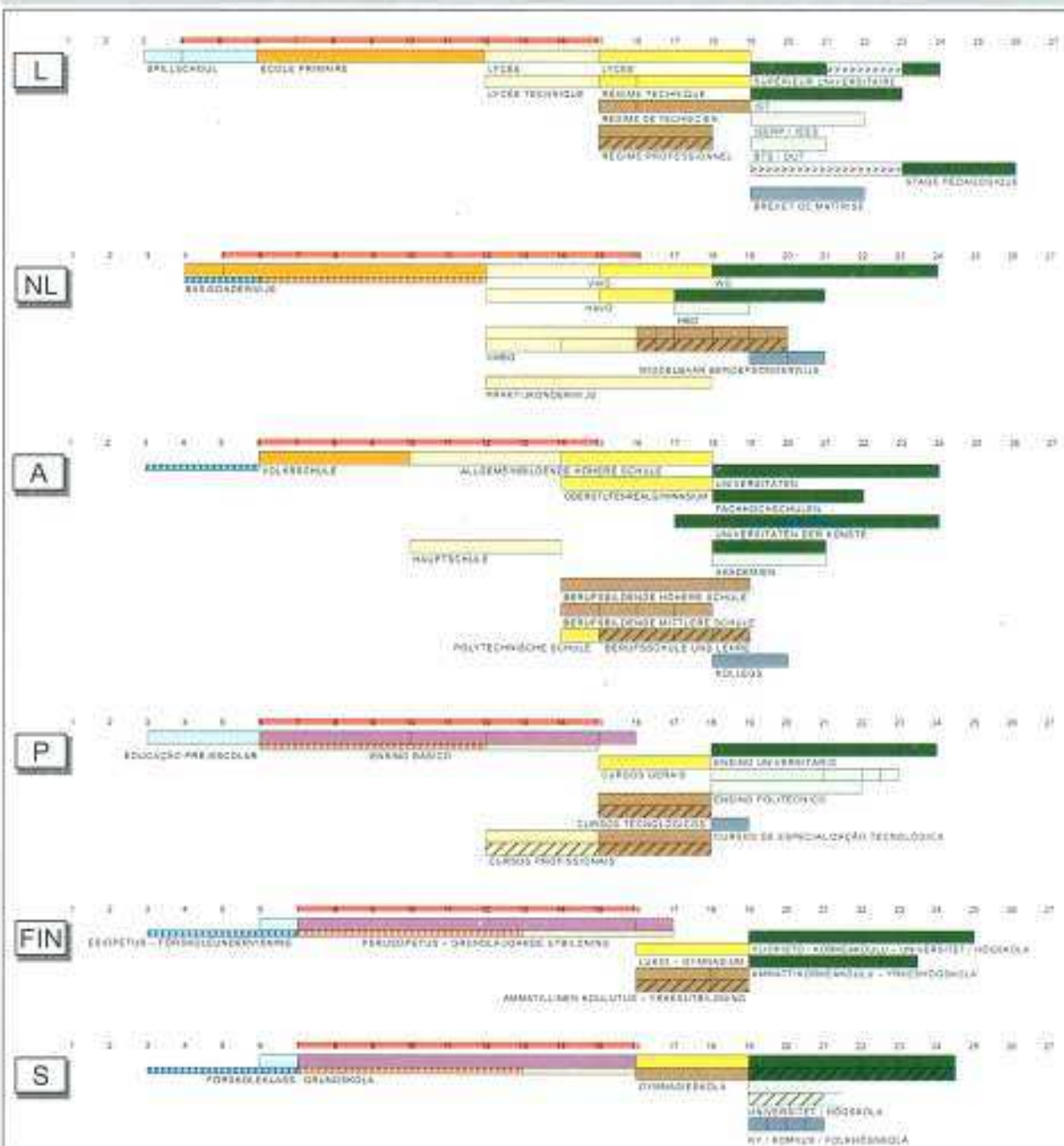
Greece: The 2001 Law concerning the institutions of technological education (TEIs) sets the length of the period of study at four years; three-and-a-half years remains the minimum duration of training.

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

Ireland: ISCED 1997 classifies pupils in *infant classes* at ISCED level 1. Only pupils in *Early start schools* are regarded as at ISCED 0. With effect from the 2002/03 school year, compulsory education is to end at the age of 16 instead of 15.

Italy: The *Istituto Magistrale* has been phased out, 2000/01 being the last year in which it functioned. Reform of the university system is under way and is taking effect from the 2001/02 academic year. In addition, *scuola primaria* is now to be called *scuola elementare*.

FIGURE B1 (CONTINUED): STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Luxembourg: Some municipalities offer educational provision once children reach the age of 3. Since the 1999/2000 academic year, a second year of university studies has been offered in certain sections. A fifth year is being offered as a DESS (with effect from the 2000/01 academic year) and a Master's degree (with effect from the 2001/02 academic year) in a limited number of fields.

Netherlands: Since the 1999/2000 school year, the VMBO has gradually replaced the former MAVO and VBO.

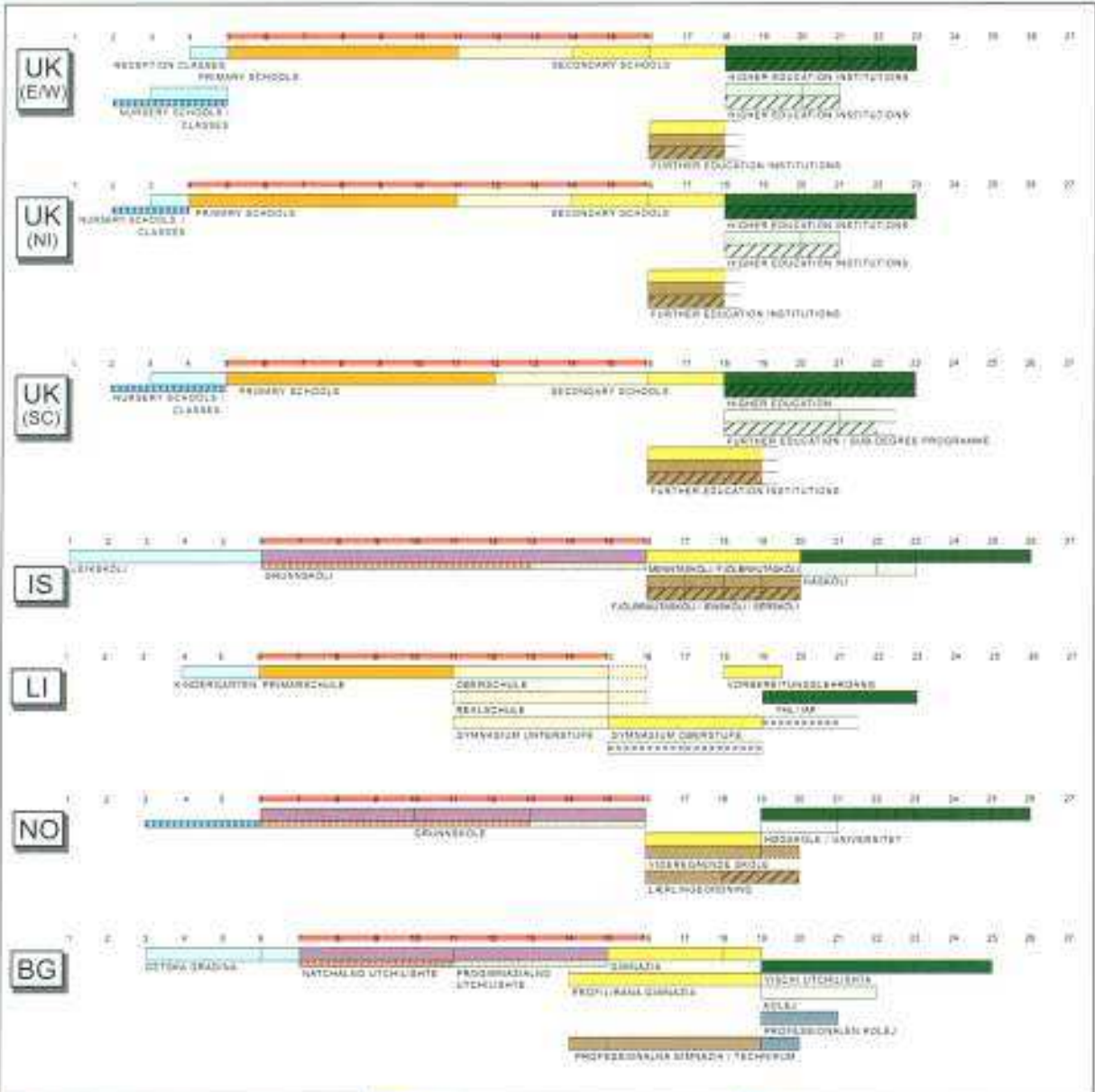
Austria: With effect from the 2000/01 school year, the non-university sector is being subdivided into *Akademien* and *Kollegs*. *Kollegs* receive students with a *Reifeprüfung* from the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schule* or *berufsbildende höhere Schule*.

Portugal: Evening classes equivalent to the third stage of *ensino básico* and upper secondary education are gradually being replaced by courses incorporating a credit transfer system.

Finland: Since August 2001, all vocational upper secondary qualifications are based on three-year study programmes.

Sweden: Provision at the *KY*, *Korvux* and *Folkhögskola* includes some courses that are not at ISCED level 4. Depending on the institution, most training at this level is subject to a minimum age limit which, like the duration of training itself, may vary.

FIGURE B1 (CONTINUED): STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Pre-primary school-based — ISCED 0	Upper secondary general — ISCED 3	Compulsory full-time education
Primary — ISCED 1	Upper secondary vocational — ISCED 3	Compulsory part-time education
Single structure — ISCED 1 + ISCED 2	Post-secondary non-tertiary — ISCED 4	Part-time or combined school and workplace courses
Lower secondary general — ISCED 2 (including pre-vocational)	Tertiary education — ISCED 5A	Additional year
Lower secondary vocational — ISCED 2	Tertiary education — ISCED 5B	Study abroad
Allocation to the ISCED levels: ■■■■ ISCED 0, ■■■■ ISCED 1, ■■■■ ISCED 2		

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

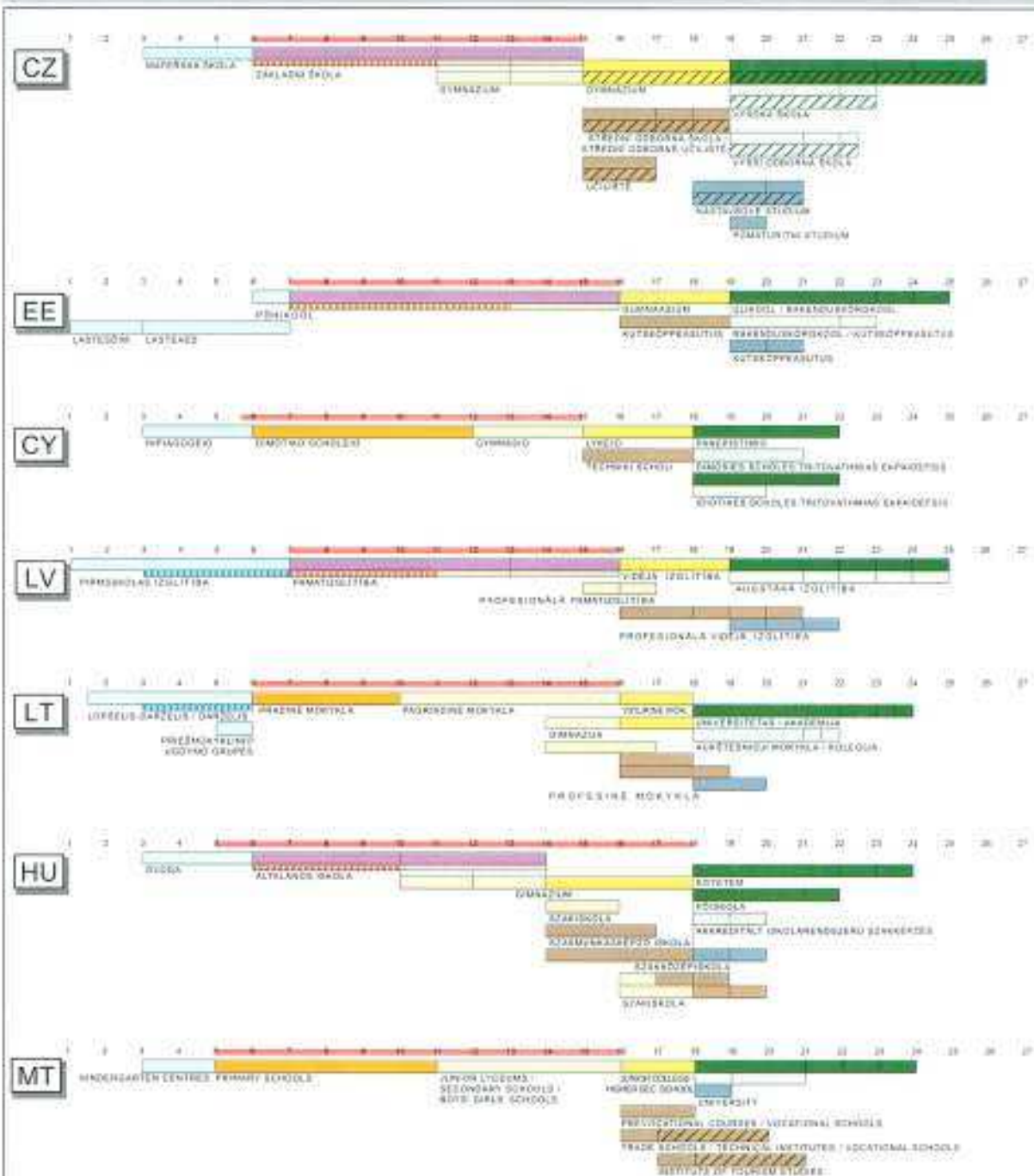
United Kingdom: Further education institutions mainly offer general and vocational upper secondary education to people over compulsory school age. However, a wide variety of courses may be taken at different levels and in accordance with different admission procedures.

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

Liechtenstein: The structure of the education system is being reformed with effect from the 2001/02 school year. Essentially, it is changing the age of admission to post-compulsory education and the length of its courses.

Bulgaria: The reform implemented since the 2000/01 school year alters the structure of compulsory education, changing it into a single form of basic provision with no distinct transition between primary and lower-secondary levels.

FIGURE B1 (CONTINUED): STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

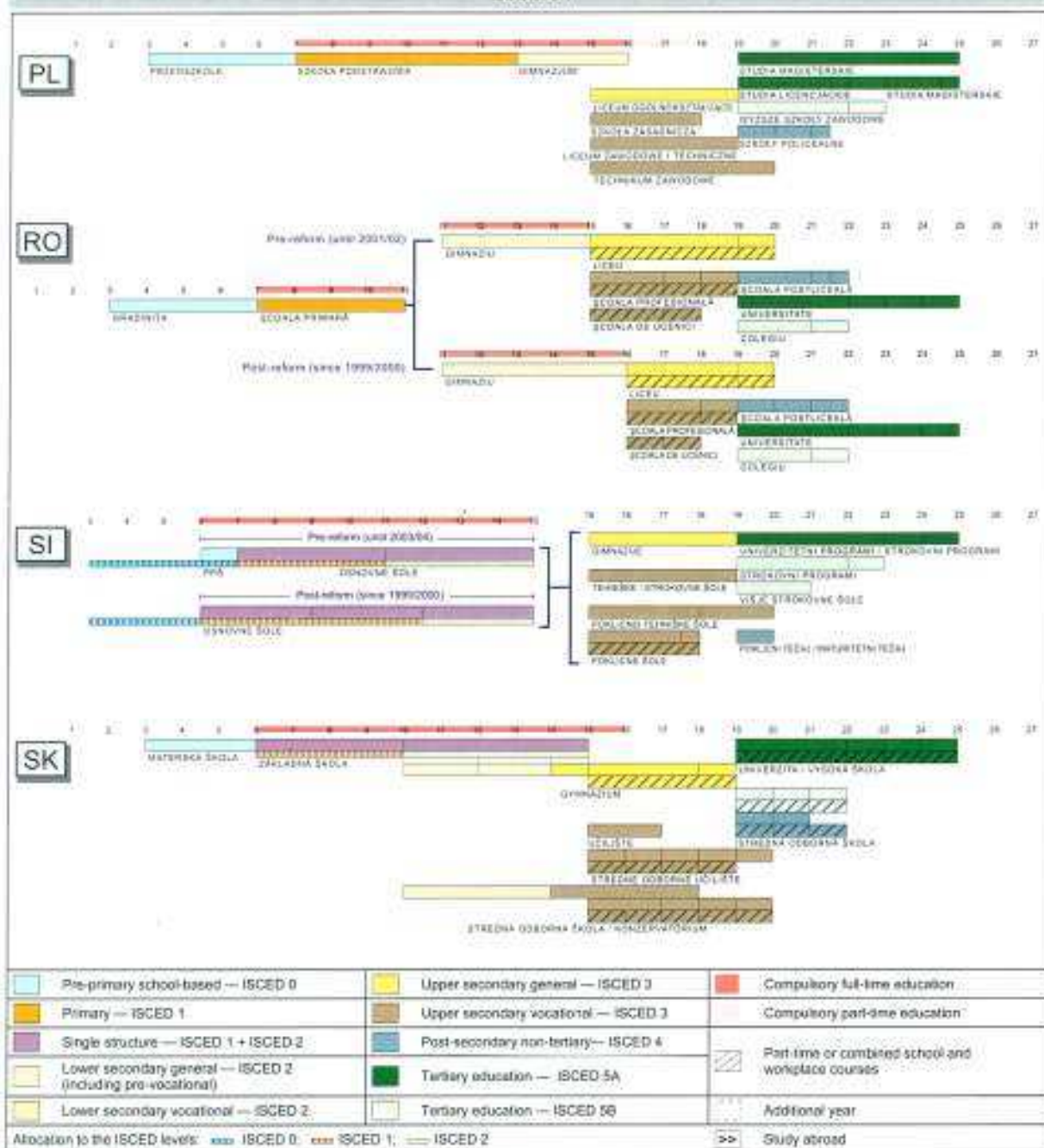
Cyprus: Since October 2000, children have to be aged 6 by 31 December of the ongoing school year, before they can be admitted to compulsory education.

Lithuania: The legislation stipulates either 6 or 7 as the age for starting compulsory education. The official educational guidelines recommend the age of 6. Since the 2000/01 school year, preparatory groups (*priešmokyklinio ugdymo grupės*) for primary education have been introduced.

Hungary: Compulsory education has been extended to the age of 18 since the 2000/01 school year. Following the extension of general education up to the age of 16, vocational training is now being restructured. The former *Szakiskola* and *Szakköznevelési iskola* are being abolished and gradually replaced by a new type of *Szakiskola* (offering young people from the age of 16 one or two years of general education, followed by one or two years of vocational training).

Malta: A single institution for vocational upper secondary education, the *Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology* (MCAST), is gradually taking over responsibility for the provision of all vocational training. It enrolled its first students in 2001/02. Students may also be admitted at the age of 16 or 18 to the Institute of tourism studies in which courses last from one to four years.

FIGURE B1 (CONTINUED): STRUCTURE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Poland: In 2000/01, pupils attended the first two grades of the *gimnazjum* (new system) and all grades of upper secondary school (old system). The third year of the *gimnazjum* was not yet organised.

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

The **end of full-time compulsory education** often coincides with the transition from lower to upper secondary education, or the completion of education within the single structure. However in Belgium, France, Italy, Austria, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Bulgaria and Slovakia, full-time compulsory education is extended by one or two years following this transition. In Hungary, this compulsory provision is continued until the age of 18 and includes upper secondary education.

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

In **upper secondary education**, a vocational or technical branch is often separately available to students alongside the general academic branch. In Ireland, the general course is complemented by parallel courses containing elements of general and vocational training. These courses lead to vocationally-oriented qualifications. In Sweden, the United Kingdom (in the case of further education institutions) and Iceland, vocational and general courses are offered by the same schools. Students at them may take either general or vocational education courses, or even combine the two branches.

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

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

In most countries, courses on offer at this level of education differ in nature. Broadly theoretical courses (ISCED 5A) provide students with qualifications enabling them to gain access to advanced research programmes or highly skilled professions. The emphasis of other courses (ISCED 5B) is generally more practical, technical or vocational and they are often shorter than theoretically oriented studies.

Thus, in many countries, a first tertiary education qualification may be obtained on completion of a **course with a strong practical dimension**. However, the corresponding minimum period is two years in the majority of countries, three years in Belgium, Portugal, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Bulgaria, Estonia, Lithuania and Poland, and three-and-a-half years in Greece.

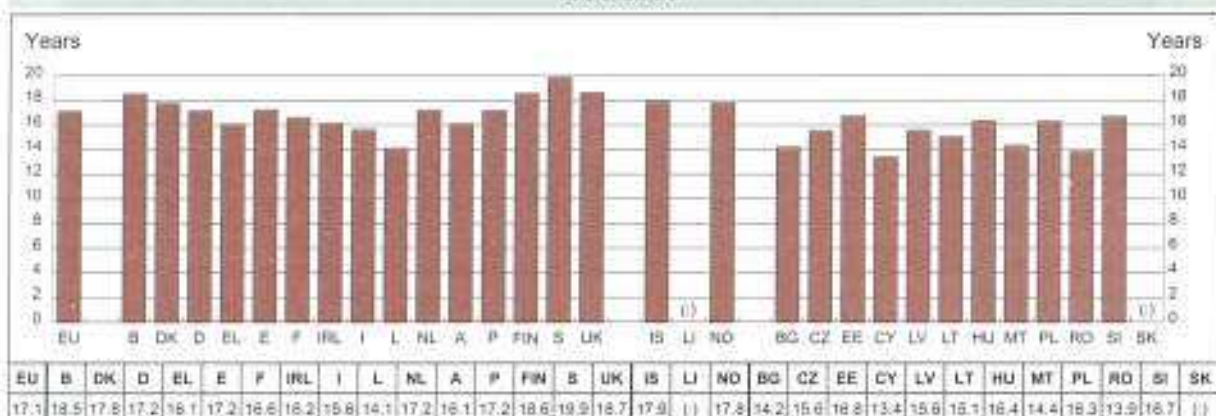
Courses with an essentially theoretical emphasis leading to a first qualification generally last at least three years. When a similar qualification either involves the prior acquisition of a qualification with a strong practical emphasis, or is an intermediate stage leading on naturally to a further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

In Finland and Liechtenstein, only university-level courses are offered within tertiary education, whether at universities themselves or in other types of institution.

ON AVERAGE PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN EDUCATION FOR ALMOST 17 YEARS

School expectancy is a measure giving an estimate of the number of years of schooling the typical person at the age of 5 will spend in education if current patterns of enrolment continue. It gives an indication of the expected duration of the typical person's educational experience, and therefore an estimate of the number of years people aged 5 can expect to be enrolled in the education system over the remainder of their lifetime. School expectancy can be used to predict the future enrolment pattern of people based on the current enrolment pattern of those in the education system, and is one way of comparing participation in the education system across countries.

FIGURE B2: SCHOOL EXPECTANCY OF PUPILS AND STUDENTS (ISCED 0 TO 6) AGED 5 TO 65, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: In tertiary education advanced research programmes (ISCED level 6) are excluded.

Greece: Includes public institutions of the Ministries of Labour, Health and Defence. Excludes institutions of Commercial Navy.

Italy: Data for ISCED levels 1, 2 and 3 are provisional.

Luxembourg: Luxembourg does not have a complete university system. Most students study abroad.

Cyprus: Excludes tertiary students studying abroad which account for 54 % of the total number of Cypriot tertiary students.

Slovakia: Breakdown by age for students is not available.

Explanatory note

The net enrolment rates are calculated by dividing the number of students of a particular age or age group (ISCED 0 to 6) by the number of persons in the population in the same age or age band. For students whose age is 'unknown' the net enrolment rate has been estimated by dividing these students by the total population and multiplying by 60 (years).

Adding single-year net enrolment rates (expressed in years) gives us an estimate of years of school expectancy for the period of those ages. Adding the single-year enrolment rates for all ages gives us an estimate of expected years of education over a lifetime. This type of estimate will be accurate if current patterns of enrolment continue in the future. Estimates are based on head-count data.

To illustrate the meaning of school expectancy let us take an example: school expectancy for the age of 10 would be one year if all 10-year-old students (in the year of the data collection) were enrolled. If only 50 % of 10-year-olds were enrolled, school expectancy for the age of 10 would be half a year.

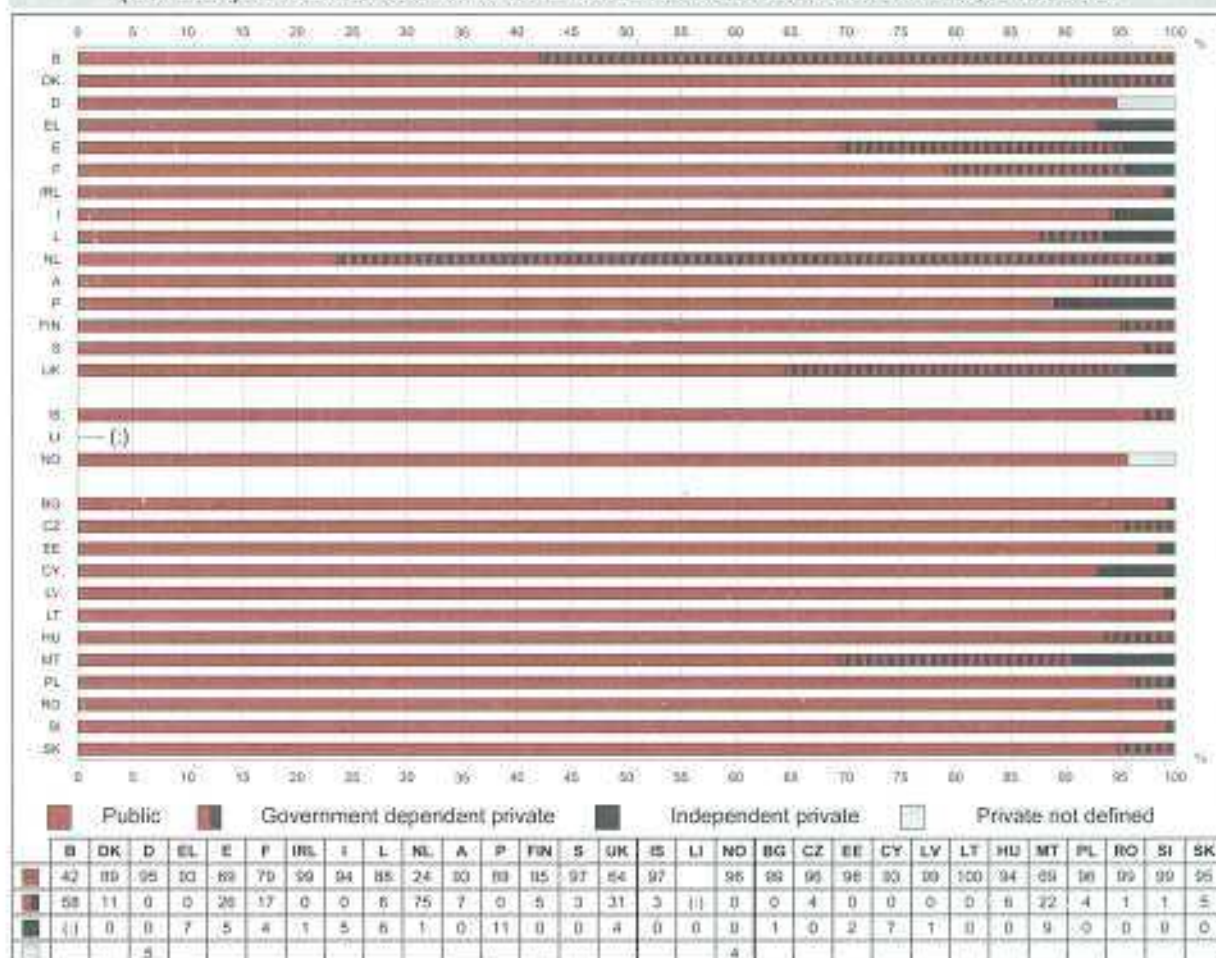
These data should be interpreted with reference to the duration of compulsory education (Figure B1), the tendency to stay on in education (Chapter A), the rate of repetition, the proportion of part-time enrolments and the provision of short courses attractive to adults. Participation rates have been compared at pre-primary, secondary and tertiary levels. These rates are shown in the corresponding chapters and provide for a more detailed analysis below.

The number of years of education that a 5 year-old child can expect to receive during his or her lifetime ranges from about 14 years in Luxembourg, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Malta and Romania to around 18 years in Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway. School expectancy is highest in Sweden and, in general, lower in the candidate countries than in the EU and EFTA/EEA countries.

THE VAST MAJORITY OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PUPILS AND STUDENTS ARE ENROLLED IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR OR THE GOVERNMENT DEPENDENT PRIVATE SECTOR

In all European countries, 89 % or more of students in compulsory education attend either public or government dependent private institutions.

FIGURE B3: DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY (ISCED 1), SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) AND POST-SECONDARY (ISCED 4) STUDENTS ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION THEY ATTEND, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Italy: Data are provisional.

Austria: Students in independent private institutions are included in government dependent private institutions.

Finland: Since 99/00, data on post-secondary non-tertiary education are available (ISCED level 4).

Cyprus: Data does not include institutions that provide post-secondary general and vocational education (ISCED level 4).

Poland: Double counting at ISCED level 3.

Explanatory note

Students may be divided into different categories depending on whether they attend public-sector institutions, provided and controlled directly by public authorities or private institutions, provided and controlled by non-governmental bodies.

Private institutions are further distinguished as between those that are government-dependent and those that are not. Private institutions are said to be government-dependent if they receive more than 50 % of their financing from public authorities. Independent private institutions receive less than 50 % of their finance from the public sector.

It is not possible to distinguish between pupils attending government-dependent or independent private institutions in Germany, Portugal and Norway. Where data were available, the most refined form of classification possible has been used.

In all the countries for which data is available, most students attend public institutions, except for Belgium and the Netherlands, where there are proportionally more pupils in the government-dependent private sector. In candidate countries, even more students are enrolled in public-sector institutions: 93 % or more attend a public-sector institution, with the exception of Malta (69 %).

In EU countries, independent private education accounts for 3.2 % of those enrolled. Over 5 % of students in Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal attend independent private institutions.

In the candidate countries independent private education accounts for 2.5 % of those enrolled. Cyprus and Malta have the highest proportion of students in independent private institutions (7 % and 9 % respectively).

THREE MAJOR ORGANISATIONAL MODELS OF EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS: FROM SEPARATE EDUCATION TO INTEGRATION

Pupils are recognised as having special educational needs because they suffer from physical disabilities, sensory impairment (such as deafness or problems of vision) or severe learning or emotional difficulties. The current trend in European countries is towards the integration of children with special educational needs into mainstream schools, giving teachers varying degrees of support in terms of supplementary staff, materials and equipment.

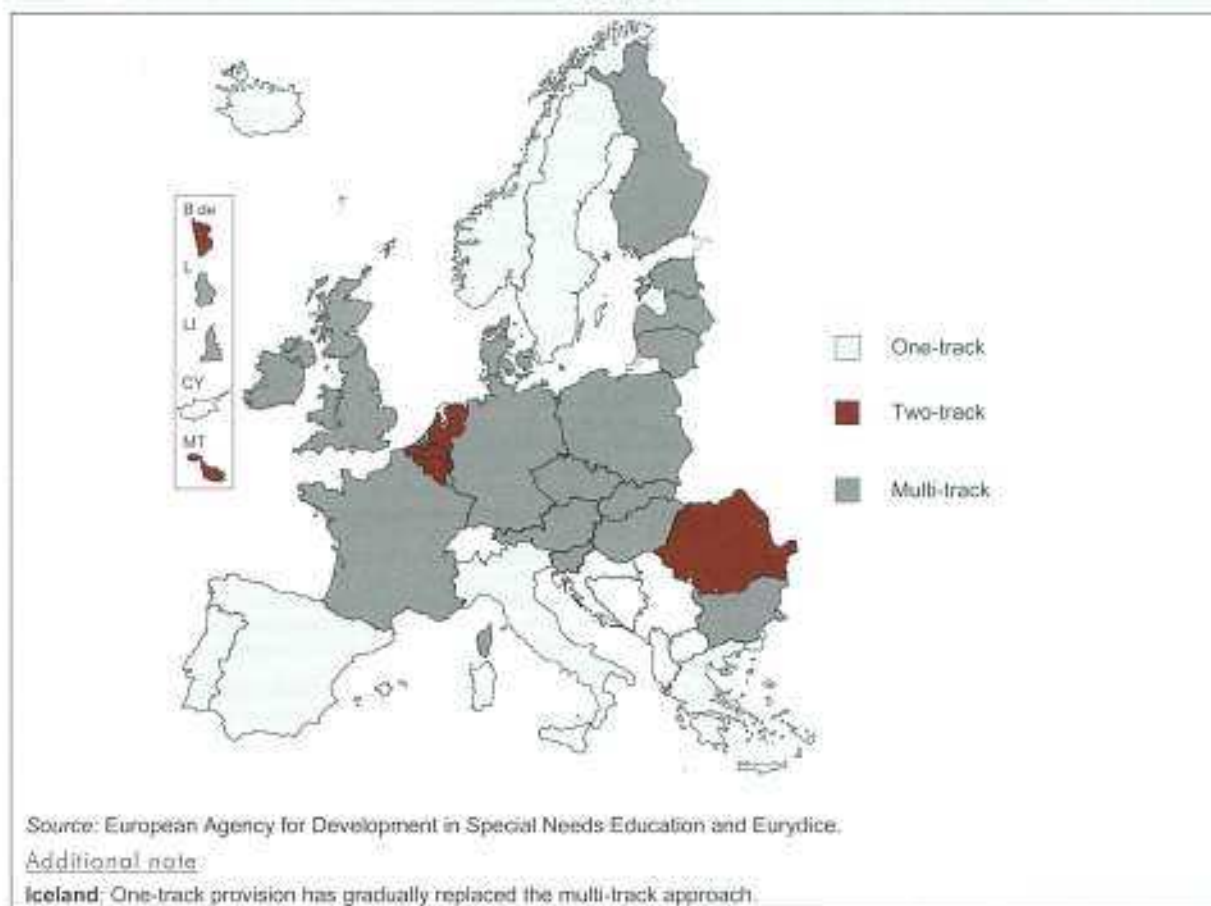
Countries can be divided into three categories according to their policy on integrating children with special educational needs:

- The first category (referred to as the 'one-track' category) includes countries that develop a policy and practices geared towards the integration of almost all pupils within mainstream education. Generally speaking, this type of integration is supported by a wide range of services focusing on the mainstream school. The percentage of pupils attending special (i.e. separate) classes or schools is less than 1 %, and the children considered as having special needs do not generally constitute a large percentage of the population.
- In the countries that belong to the second category (the 'two-track' category), there are two distinct education systems. These systems are (or at least were until very recently) under separate legislation, with different laws for mainstream and special education. In these countries, special education is fairly well developed and is generally treated quite separately. A significant percentage of children with special needs attend schools offering separate special education, while the percentage of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools is very small.
- The countries belonging to the third ('multi-track') category have a multiplicity of approaches to integration. They do not offer one single solution (integration in mainstream education with the support of many different services) or a choice between two options (mainstream or special education), but rather a variety of services between these two systems. These range from special multiple classes (full-time or part-time) to different forms of inter-school cooperation including 'exchange' activities (with teachers and pupils from mainstream and special schools arranging temporary or part-time exchanges). These countries sometimes have a considerable number of pupils with special educational needs and 1-5 % of pupils in separate schools.

The situation is currently in the throes of change and the 'two-track' countries are tending to adopt a 'multi-track' approach.

In the 'one-track' countries, the general trend is towards the conversion of a number of the special schools that still operate into resource centres. This type of development is also found in the 'multi-track' category.

FIGURE B4: MAIN PATTERNS OF PROVISION FOR CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS,
2000/01



PUPILS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN THE SCHOOL POPULATION

Each country applies its own criteria to determine whether or not a child has special educational needs. The definitions and categories vary from country to country (except in Luxembourg where no categorisation has been established). Most countries use between 6 and 10 categories, while some countries define only one or two. In the Netherlands, there are 13 categories. In most countries these categories are assessed regularly, so it may happen that individual children move from one category to another, depending on their progress.

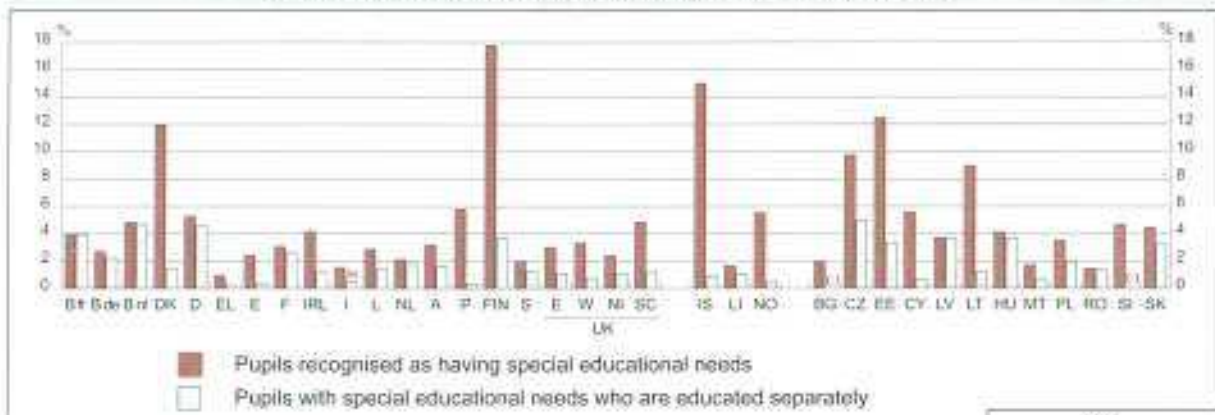
On the basis of these definitions, the different countries consider that a certain percentage of children in the overall school population have special needs. Generally, this percentage is less than or close to 4%. By contrast, it is over 10% in Denmark, Finland, Iceland and Estonia.

The differences observed between countries are determined not only by the type of categorisation adopted but also by the assessment procedures, the resources allocated to the education of these children and the structures set in place to cater for them.

When children have been recognised as having special educational needs, one must then decide in which institution they will receive the education required to cater for their needs. Depending on the models adopted in different countries, approaches vary widely, from integration in mainstream education to teaching in special schools, with a considerable range of intermediate solutions.

Figure B5 shows for each country the percentage of children who are recognised as having special educational needs and the percentage of these children who are educated within separate structures (special classes or schools).

FIGURE B5: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS RECOGNISED AS HAVING SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND THE PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATED SEPARATELY (SPECIAL CLASSES AND SCHOOLS), COMPULSORY PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



		UK																			
%		B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	E	W	NI	SC
■		4.0	2.7	4.9	11.9	5.3	0.9	2.4	3.1	4.2	1.5	2.9	2.1	3.2	5.8	17.8	2.0	3.0	3.3	2.4	4.9
□		4.0	2.3	4.7	1.5	4.6	0.2	0.4	2.6	1.2	<0.5 (*)	1.4	1.8	1.6	0.3	3.7	1.3	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.2
%		IS	LI	NO																	
■		15.0	1.7	5.6																	
□		0.9	1.1	0.5																	
					BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK					
■					1.9	9.8	12.5	5.6	3.7	9.0	4.1	1.7	3.5	1.5	4.7	4.5					
□					()	5.0	3.4	0.7	3.6	1.3	3.7	0.6	2.0	1.4	()	3.2					

Source: European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education and Eurydice (in the case of European countries in which the Agency has no representatives).

Additional notes

Germany: In one Land (Saarland), the data does not specifically include pupils with special education needs who are integrated into mainstream education.

Greece, Spain, Ireland, Finland and United Kingdom: 1999/2000.

Greece and Lithuania: Upper secondary education (ISCED 3) is included in the data.

France: Pre-primary education (ISCED 0) and upper secondary education (ISCED 3) are included in the data.

Luxembourg: In the absence of any firmly defined criterion, the percentage is no more than a rough guide (based on pupils catered for by rehabilitation facilities).

Portugal: The data refers solely to public-sector education.

Finland: The vast majority of pupils recognised as having special educational needs receive part-time special education, in which they are given special support for their minor learning or adjustment problems.

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Figures also include some pre-school and post-compulsory school age children.

Bulgaria: Most children recognised as having special educational needs attend special schools or classes.

Explanatory note

The percentage of children who are recognised as having special educational needs is based on the definition and the categories established within each country. These vary considerably from one country to the next.

Children recognised as having special educational needs who receive part-time schooling in mainstream provision are not included.

Percentages are calculated with respect to the total number of pupils in compulsory education.

It can be seen that, in some countries, the majority of children with special educational needs attend separate schools. This is the case in Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Liechtenstein, Latvia, Hungary and Romania.

On the other hand, in Denmark, Spain, Greece, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Estonia, Cyprus and Lithuania, most children with special educational needs are integrated into mainstream education. A very small percentage of them attend special schools.

PUBLIC-SECTOR SCHOOLS: FROM CONSIDERABLE AUTONOMY TO VERY LIMITED DECISION-MAKING POWERS

Four broad areas of school organisation are examined in this section: the demarcation of school time, the management of teaching staff, the use of financial resources and finally pedagogical matters or teaching as such. Information has been gathered on the freedom that schools enjoy in relation to a number of parameters in these four areas. In view of the variety of management situations, depending on whether the school comes under a private body or not, only public-sector schools at primary and lower secondary level are included in the analysis.

Three main modes of decision making have been defined:

- the school has full powers and autonomy;
- the school takes decisions in consultation with the competent authority at a higher level and/or within the limits set by the latter, and its autonomy is limited;
- the school is not involved in the decision-making process and has no autonomy.

Figures B6 and B7 show the autonomy of the public-sector schools for each country at two levels of compulsory education, i.e. primary and lower secondary level. Each cell refers to one of the parameters under examination. The autonomy of a school can be more or less restricted depending on the field and parameter concerned.

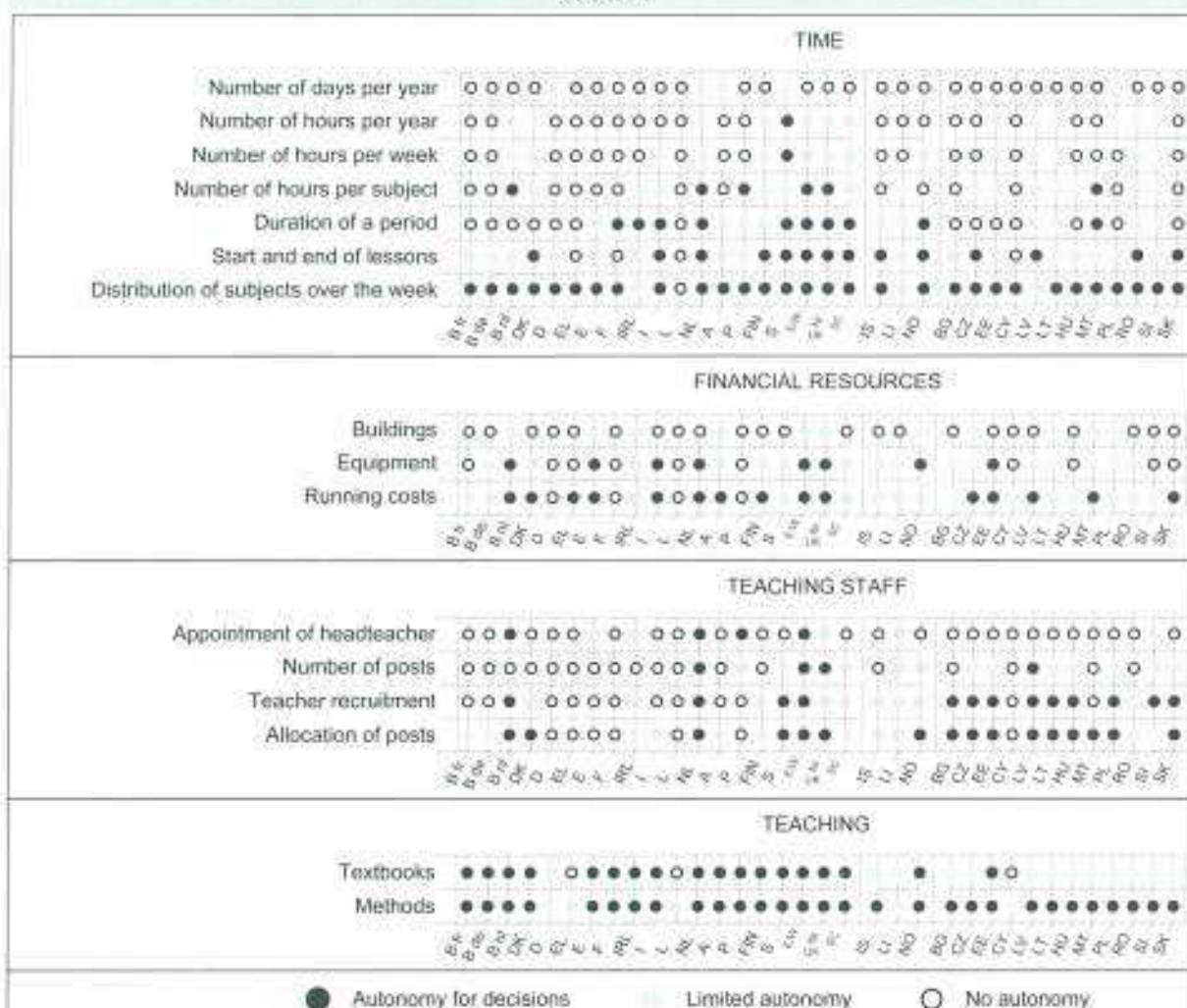
Within the same country, there are usually few differences in the scope of the decision-making power granted to public-sector schools between the two levels of education. This applies in particular to countries in which these two levels of education are provided within a single-structure system or are administered at the same level of authority. However, in France the parameters for which schools do or do not have decision-making power differ sharply depending on the level of education considered. In Luxembourg and Austria, lower secondary schools have more autonomy than primary schools, and decisions are more frequently taken in consultation with the competent authorities.

In Europe overall, schools have the greatest degree of autonomy in the Flemish Community of Belgium (at primary level) and in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), at both levels of education. For most of the areas of decision-making under consideration here, they have total autonomy. For a few parameters, decisions are taken in consultation with the competent authority or within the limits that it has laid down. Only a very small number of decisions are taken exclusively by the competent authority at a higher level than the institution (as in the case solely of the administration of financial resources for immovables in the Netherlands, or fixing of the number of days' schooling a year in the United Kingdom).

Conversely, the schools with the most limited autonomy in decision-making are to be found in Germany, Greece and Luxembourg and, to a lesser extent, in the candidate countries. Only the timetabling of subjects over the week is left entirely in the hands of the school, at both levels of education in Germany and Cyprus, and at lower secondary level in Luxembourg. In Romania, schools are additionally free to decide what teaching methods they will use.

In the Flemish Community of Belgium (at lower secondary level), Ireland, Finland and Liechtenstein, most of the decisions are taken at school level but with the agreement of a supervisory competent authority or within the limits laid down by that authority.

FIGURE B6: AUTONOMY OF PUBLIC-SECTOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figures B6 and B7)

Denmark: For major building work, the responsibility lies with the municipality but, for renovation and minor building projects, schools have some autonomy.

Germany: In some Länder, schools are granted limited autonomy as regards recruitment of a certain number of teachers. However, the official decision is taken by the school supervisory body.

Ireland and United Kingdom (SC): While primary schools (Figure B6) may determine the number of hours per subject, recommendations as to the appropriate distribution of school time are made by the Department of Education and Science, and the Ministry and education authorities, respectively.

Luxembourg: In primary schools (Figure B6), there are no headteacher posts. The corresponding duties are carried out, on behalf of the government, by the primary education inspectorate and, on behalf of the municipality, by the municipal authority and school commission.

Austria: Where primary schools (Figure B6) use their right to curricular autonomy, they have limited autonomy as regards the number of hours per week. Primary and secondary schools (Figures B6 and B7) are entitled to comment on applicants for the post of headteacher.

Portugal: Figure B6 illustrates the situation in the 1st stage of ensino básico, while Figure B7 illustrates that of the 2nd and 3rd stages.

Finland: The administrative authority, usually a municipality, has decision-making power in most areas, and it is up to this authority to delegate decision-making to the schools. There are therefore differences between municipalities.

Sweden: At present, a 5-year pilot project authorises a fifth of all schools to decide how much teaching time should be devoted to various subjects.

Norway: Municipalities are empowered to delegate their responsibilities to each school.

Czech Republic: An increasing number of schools have the status of a legal entity, which gives them correspondingly greater autonomy in the management of human resources.

SCHOOLS HAVE GREATER AUTONOMY TO ARRANGE THEIR TIMETABLES THAN TO DETERMINE THE AMOUNT OF TIME ALLOCATED TO TEACHING

As regards decisions linked to the **management of school time**, schools are seldom free to decide how much time they will devote to teaching. Thus, the number of days and hours of teaching time per year is often set by the competent authorities. In the Netherlands, Sweden and Poland, these issues are subject to a decision taken in consultation with the competent authority; in Sweden, schools even enjoy complete autonomy to set the annual number of hours of teaching. While schools in Germany and Austria have limited freedom to decide on the number of days per year, they play no part in setting the overall volume of annual teaching time.

In some European countries, the curriculum lays down the compulsory subjects but leaves the school free to allocate the teaching time among these subjects. This is the case, at primary level, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland, Portugal and Malta, for both levels of education considered, in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In some of these countries, only minimum numbers of hours are prescribed or recommended.

Almost everywhere, schools have greater autonomy when it comes to timetabling periods in schools over the week or over the day. More especially, the responsibility for allocating time for subjects in the timetable is left to schools in all countries with the exception of Ireland and Luxembourg (primary level), the Flemish Community of Belgium (lower secondary level) and Liechtenstein (both levels).

SCHOOLS HAVE LITTLE AUTONOMY WHEN IT COMES TO ADMINISTERING LARGE BUDGETS

At both levels of education under consideration, in the case of Germany, and at primary level only, in the case of France, Luxembourg, and Portugal, schools have no autonomy as regards the use of the financial resources allocated to them. In Slovakia, this situation is similar for schools with no legally recognised autonomy. In countries in which schools have a certain degree of freedom in the use of their financial resources, the larger the expenditure involved, the more the decisions are taken by the competent authorities. Schools therefore often have more responsibility for their running costs than for determining capital expenditure, particularly in the case of buildings. In around half of all countries, however, schools may take some or all decisions related to expenditure on fixed capital (immovables) in consultation with the authority concerned.

In Denmark, Greece, Austria, Portugal (in lower secondary education), Finland, the Czech Republic, Latvia and Malta, schools are entirely autonomous as far as their operational expenditure is concerned. This freedom of manoeuvre includes expenditure on equipment in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Estonia.

IN SEVERAL COUNTRIES, SCHOOLS ARE INVOLVED IN THE RECRUITMENT OF TEACHING STAFF

Within the EU and EFTA/EEA countries, whether at primary or lower secondary level, as far as the **management of teaching staff** is concerned, the most common model is one in which schools have little or no autonomy.

The Flemish Community of Belgium (disregarding decisions concerning the number of posts), the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England and Wales) are exceptions to the foregoing general rule in that schools there enjoy full powers in relation to the selection and management of staff. The situation is similar in most of the candidate countries, in which schools are totally autonomous as regards the recruitment of their teaching staff. Teachers are appointed to posts by the schools themselves, or in consultation with the authority concerned, except in Cyprus in which schools have no autonomy as far as management of their teaching staff is concerned.

In some countries or regions, namely Ireland, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland and Scotland), Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, several decisions on staffing matters are taken by the school in consultation with the competent authorities. In Finland, Sweden, Norway, Romania and Slovenia, teachers are employed by the municipalities. Frequently, the task of recruiting teachers in these three countries and thus the determination of the number of teaching posts in the different subjects, is the responsibility of the headteacher, even though this function falls within the competence of the municipalities.

In Europe, **the appointment of headteachers** is generally subject to a decision taken at a level above that of the school, except in the Flemish Community of Belgium, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England and Wales). In Portugal, they are appointed by the *conselho escolar* in the first stage of *ensino básico* or elected by all staff at the school but the rules concerning the eligibility of candidates and the selection process are determined by the central authority. In Spain and Slovenia, they are appointed following agreement between the schools and the competent authorities. In Ireland, the selection of the headteacher is a matter for the school (all primary and most post-primary schools) or a local education authority (schools under vocational education committees), but the rules concerning the eligibility and the selection process are determined by the central authority, as in Portugal.

SCHOOLS ENJOY TOTAL DECISION-MAKING POWER IN TEACHING MATTERS

Almost everywhere, schools at both primary and lower secondary level usually have considerable autonomy as regards the **choice of textbooks** and even greater freedom to determine their own **teaching methods**. In the majority of European countries, therefore, schools decide what teaching methods they will use. However, in Germany, Greece, Luxembourg (in lower secondary education), Iceland, Liechtenstein (in primary education) and most candidate countries, the autonomy of schools is limited in the choice of school textbooks. Teachers at both primary and lower secondary level must choose their textbooks from a list or on the basis of criteria set by the competent authorities. In Hungary, teachers may opt for textbooks not in the list approved by the ministry but, if so, pupils get no state subsidy to help pay for them and the selection may be vetoed by the school board. Furthermore, in some countries, teaching methods are determined on the basis of recommendations and suggestions made by the authorities concerned.

AT NATIONAL LEVEL, PARENTS ARE OFTEN MEMBERS OF ADVISORY BODIES

Participatory bodies which include parents exist in all countries. However, bodies of this kind are not found at all levels of administration within the education system.

Some of these bodies are made up exclusively of parents. They may have decision-making powers or act in an advisory or consultative capacity. Such councils or associations of parents sometimes exist at central level, at which they generally act in a consultative capacity vis-à-vis the ministry and as an information platform for their members, as in the *Länder* in Germany, Ireland, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and Norway.

The following analysis focuses on bodies which include parent representatives, which are either set up centrally by ministries (Figure B8) or established at school level (Figure B9). It does not take into account bodies made up exclusively of parents or bodies which include parent representatives at regional or local level.

FIGURE B8: ROLE OF CENTRAL BODIES THAT INCLUDE PARENT REPRESENTATIVES,
COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

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

Luxembourg: The responsibilities of the *Commission d'Instruction* (school commission) relate solely to primary education.

Poland: A national council which includes parents is enshrined in the law of 1991. This council has not yet been set up.

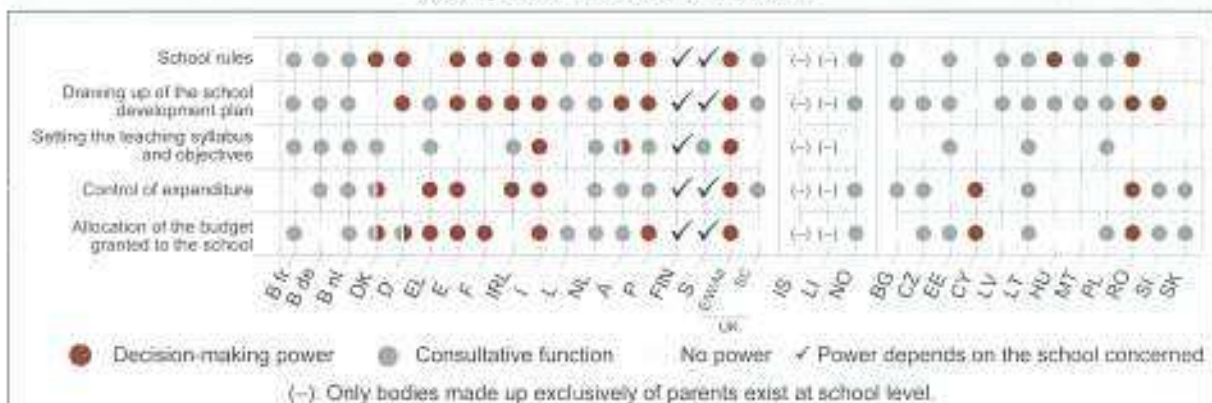
Explanatory note

Associations consisting solely of parents are not taken into account in this map.

At national or central level (for the education system) in most EU and EFTA/EEA countries, there is at least one participatory body which includes parents alongside representatives of other players in the education system. By contrast, in the majority of candidate countries, there is no national-level council with parent representation. Where such bodies exist, they more often than not act in a consultative capacity on most educational issues. Luxembourg is an exception in that its *Commission d'instruction* (school commission) has decision-making powers.

In certain countries, a consultative body exists but parents are not represented. For example, in Italy, a consultative council is organised at central level but does not include any parents. Finally, in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Liechtenstein, there are no consultative councils at this level.

FIGURE B9: POWERS OF SCHOOL-LEVEL BODIES WHICH INCLUDE PARENT REPRESENTATIVES, IN FIVE AREAS. COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): The council concerned with educational matters (*Pädagogischer Rat*) at each school decides jointly with parent representatives how and in what areas of the education system parents will be involved.

Belgium (B nl): The school councils exercise their consultative function under the supervision of the central education council of the Community. Under a decree that came into force in 1999, these councils are to be wound up and replaced by a structure providing for greater decentralisation in the administration of secondary schools.

Germany: The scope of the regulations and the framework for the participation of parents differ from *Land* to *Land*. However, in all *Länder*, parents can participate either at the level of the class attended by their child or at the level of the school.

Spain: In the case of expenditure above a fixed amount, the role of the council is consultative.

Ireland: The school boards of management that have to ensure the participation of parent representatives were established by the 1998 Education Act. These boards are entirely responsible for management of the school concerned. Many schools also have councils or associations of parents whose role is purely consultative.

Netherlands: The participating council is entitled to ratify the decisions taken by the *bevoegd gezag* (authorities) in the field of internal rules, the school development plan and the setting of the curriculum and educational aims. The *bevoegd gezag* consults the participating council concerning the decisions to be taken, *inter alia*, as regards the budget.

Finland: School legislation that came into force on 1 January 1999 does not contain any provisions on the administrative or consultative bodies of municipal schools.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): School-level bodies may delegate some decisions to headteachers. Powers to set the teaching syllabus and objectives are within the framework of the statutory curriculum.

Norway: In the schools that have a management council, parents are consulted on decisions relating to the management of expenses.

Slovenia: The school council takes some decisions concerning the allocation of the budget.

Explanatory note

The role of parent associations is not considered here.

In almost all countries, there are administrative councils that include parents **at school level**. However, in a few cases, only bodies made up exclusively of parents exist at school level. This is the case in Iceland and Liechtenstein. Figure B9 shows the nature and scope of the councils in which parents are involved at school level in a number of broad-based areas within the education system. These areas are clarification of school rules, drafting of the school's development plans, setting the teaching syllabus and objectives, control of expenditure and allocation of the budget assigned to the school.

In general, the decision-making powers of these councils are exercised more often in the drafting of internal rules than in the other fields analysed here. In most countries, these councils are consulted when the school development plan is drawn up. As regards decisions relating to the budget, the situation varies considerably from country to country.

These councils occasionally have considerable decision-making powers. For example, in Italy and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), parent representatives are included on the council (the school governing body or board of governors) which has decision-making powers in all areas considered here. In Spain and in Romania, this is also the case for most of the fields analysed.

In other countries, these councils act in a consultative capacity for all decisions relating to the school (the Flemish Community of Belgium, the Netherlands and Lithuania) or virtually all decisions (French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Norway, Estonia and Poland). In Austria and Portugal, depending on the subject, these councils either have consultative status or decision-making power.

Finally, in Finland and Sweden, the powers of the council in which parents are involved vary in accordance with the responsibilities delegated either to municipalities or to schools within a given municipality.

THE RESULTS OF EXTERNAL QUALIFYING EXAMINATIONS ARE THE MOST COMMONLY USED PERFORMANCE INDICATORS OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Any monitoring of an education system presupposes the existence, at a particular administrative level (central or institutional), of clearly defined standards and objectives which the system must seek to uphold, together with planned regulatory mechanisms allowing it to be adjusted as required.

The evaluation of education systems has several aims, including the control and monitoring of education, reporting on the state of schools, and the adjustment of systems in the interests of improved performance. Systems can be assessed either at the level of individual schools or overall. External evaluation of schools may also be carried out by an inspectorate. Various reference criteria can be applied according to the levels at which evaluation is organised and according to the individual countries: school plans (or action plans), school self-evaluation, external examinations, the construction of indicators based on results, the definition of basic skills or final objectives, national attainment testing, international evaluations (IEA, PISA, etc.) and the involvement of experts or an authority (for example, the setting up of a council to follow up the implementation of a reform).

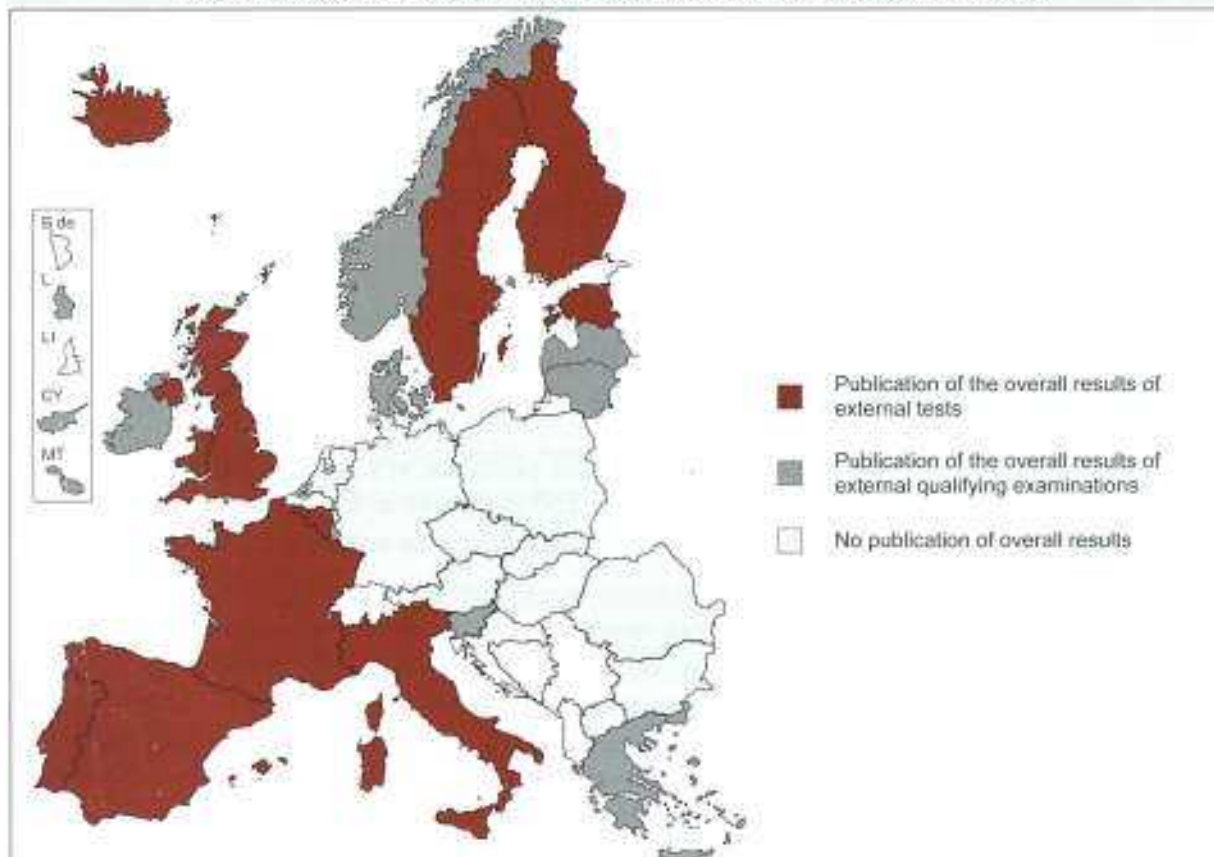
Initiatives of this kind have been taken in most countries in one form or another. In some countries, specific bodies have been put in place to carry out this task. However, only a few countries have made monitoring compulsory. In other countries, it exists in the form of *ad hoc* initiatives and plans or is currently in the planning stage.

Only one form of monitoring is examined here. This is the publication of the overall results of external tests or examinations taken by all pupils or a representative sample at one or more stages of their schooling. Two groups of countries may be distinguished according to the purpose for which these tests or examinations are designed and their timing.

In the **first group**, external tests are organised. Their purpose is to measure the knowledge and skills of pupils in relation to nationally defined specifications, at several precise stages of schooling irrespective of whether any formal qualifications are awarded. In three countries, this external evaluation is of a strictly diagnostic nature and takes place at the start of the school year so that the results can be taken into account by teachers in the course of their work. In the French Community of Belgium, it assesses pupil skills and is scheduled alternately at the start of the third or fifth years of primary school, or the first, third or fifth years of secondary school (generally in French and

mathematics). The results of these tests are compared with the skills that should have been mastered at these ages, and teaching guidelines are drawn up and distributed to the teachers. In France, pupil attainment is assessed by national tests at the start of the third year of primary and the first year of secondary school (in reading, writing and mathematics) and also at the start of the first year of upper secondary school (in the mother tongue, mathematics and the first modern language). Finally, in Iceland, national tests in the mother tongue and mathematics in grades 4 and 7 of compulsory education are organised in order to assess pupil attainment. The results are considered in relation to the skills defined in national specifications and are published nationally, regionally and at school level.

FIGURE B10: MONITORING OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS AT PRIMARY AND/OR SECONDARY LEVEL.
PUBLICATION OF THE OVERALL RESULTS OF EXTERNAL EXAMINATIONS, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: Since the end of the 2000/01 school year, the results of examinations have been published at the end of upper secondary education and no longer at the end of compulsory education.

Netherlands: The *kwaliteitskaarten* (cards on the quality of secondary schools) are published by the inspectorate in each region. They may be used as a source of information in fuelling debate on the quality of schools. It is possible to compare the results of a school with national criteria set out in the annex to the regional reports. Among these national criteria are the average marks across the country and the percentage of pupils who have passed the final secondary school examination.

Bulgaria: A national centre has recently been set up to investigate the performance of the education system.

Lithuania: Since the 2000/01 school year, diagnostic tests to assess the intermediate progress achieved by pupils may be held at the end of primary schooling. Schools or municipalities are free to organise them and their results are not the subject of a national report.

Explanatory note

Publication of the overall results of external tests refers to the presentation, in a national report, of the average results obtained by all pupils (or a representative sample of pupils) in a given age-group, in an external evaluation. This may involve either diagnostic tests taken at the start of the year, or standardised national tests. In most cases, the results are compared to the skills or knowledge that should have been acquired at a particular stage in schooling.

Publication of the overall results of external qualifying examinations refers to the presentation, in a national report, of the average results obtained by all pupils in an externally organised examination at the end of a particular stage of schooling. Such exams are thus intended to lead to the award of qualifications and are generally held at the end of compulsory education and/or on completion of upper secondary education.

No account is taken on this map of the participation of countries in international forms of evaluation.

In the other countries in the first group, external evaluation occurs during or at the end of the school year for the purpose of judging the effectiveness of the education system. Thus the INCE and other bodies in the Autonomous Communities (in Spain) and the INValSI (in Italy) assess representative samples of pupils. These evaluations are concerned, amongst other things, with the levels of skills and knowledge that should be achieved by all pupils. Their findings are set out in a report describing the state of the education system. In line with the same principle in Finland and Sweden, assessment concerned mainly with proficiency acquired in the mother tongue, mathematics and (in Sweden) English, is conducted regularly during the final years of the single structure. In Sweden, these tests are compulsory in all schools (the results combined with work throughout the year are part of the certified assessment of pupils). In Finland, schools and the effectiveness of education are being evaluated through samples of schools and pupils. In Portugal (at the end of each stage of basic education) and Estonia (at the end of the first and second stages), as well as in Scotland (at the end of each school year at secondary level), pupils have to undergo standardised national tests. The results indicate the percentage of those achieving the set objectives and are published in a report covering the entire country. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the government publishes the national average results in the statutory curriculum end-of-key-stage assessments. These results are used to measure progress towards nationally defined targets.

So that anyone may become acquainted with the state of the education system, **countries in the second group** rely solely on the publication of the overall results of the external qualifying examinations held either at the end of compulsory education or on completion of upper secondary education. These results are the subject of a comprehensive scrutiny of the state of the education system at a particular point and sometimes lead to the comparison or classification of schools. Where the results of exams are used solely to evaluate schools and published exclusively by the school or local authority concerned, they are not considered here.

Only Malta organises an external examination at the end of primary schooling. Its purpose is to enable pupils to gain admission to the *Junior Lyceums* and its overall results are contained in a public report.

Several countries organise one or several external qualifying examinations at the end of **compulsory or lower secondary education**. In Denmark, Ireland, Malta and Slovenia, the results achieved by pupils in these examinations are published at national level only. In Sweden and Latvia, the overall results obtained in, respectively, the national tests and centralised examinations are used both for national evaluation and evaluation of individual schools. In Norway, the results of national examinations are comprehensively published, with national and regional averages. Furthermore, each school receives its own individual results so that it can see how it stands in relation to the national average.

Some countries prefer to publish solely the results of qualifying examinations held at the end of **upper secondary education**. In Greece and Ireland, but also Luxembourg and Cyprus, only national average results are published and compared from one year to the next in order to gauge how the education system is progressing. In other countries (Sweden, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia), each municipality or school receives the average results obtained in order to see how they stand with respect to the national average. Schools in Norway may to some extent compare their results with national and regional averages.

Finally, it should be noted that, in addition to the results of external tests, the majority of countries in the first group (France, Italy, Portugal, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Estonia) also publish nationally the overall results of examinations held at the end of compulsory and/or tertiary education.

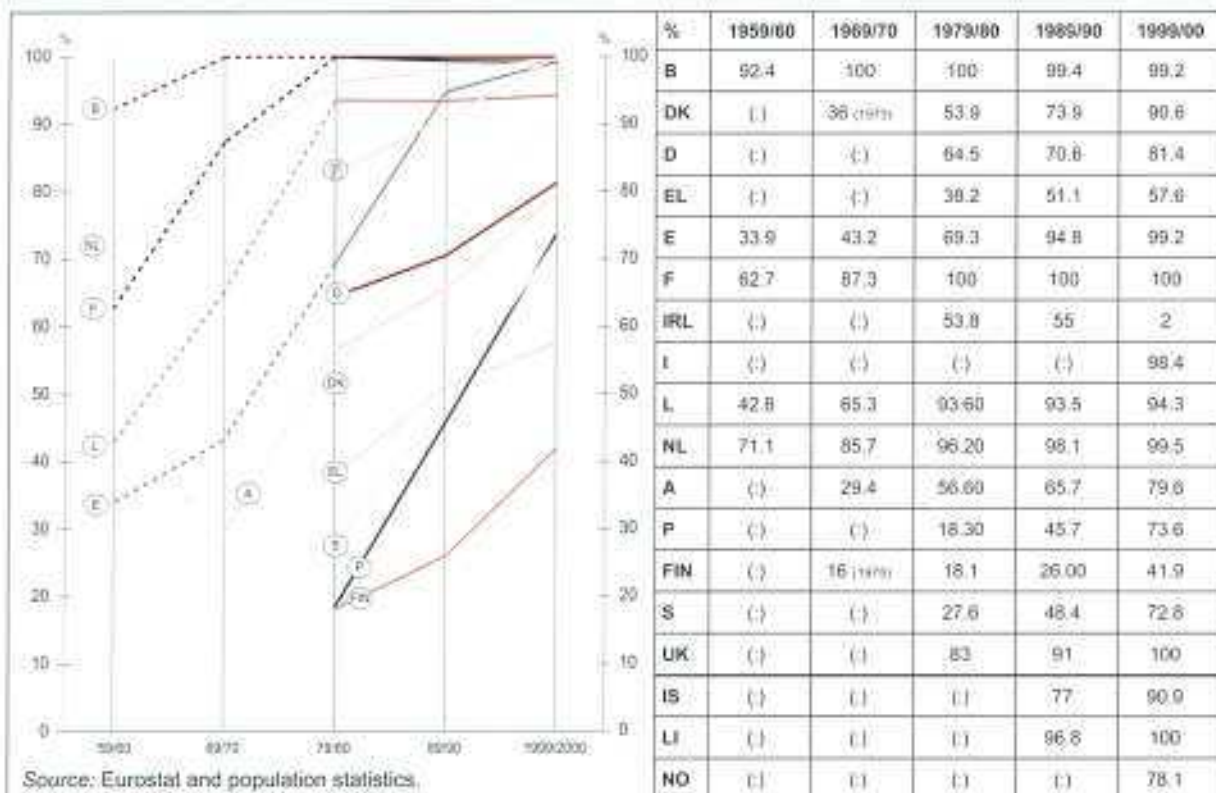


PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

PARTICIPATION OF 4-YEAR-OLDS IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION HAS RISEN DRAMATICALLY IN MOST EU COUNTRIES

Figure C1 illustrates how enrolment has evolved from 1959/60 to 1999/2000 in the EU. Generally, more and more 4-year-old children are enrolled in pre-primary education. In Denmark, Spain, Austria, Portugal, Finland and Sweden participation rates have more than doubled since 1970. Participation rates increased at different times in different countries. Among those countries with the highest participation rates today, the rates in France and Luxembourg rose significantly in the 1960s and 1970s. In Denmark and Spain, the increase can be observed in the 1970s and 1980s. In Belgium, enrolment was already high in 1960. Among countries with relatively low or moderate participation rates today, Austria (80 % in 1999/2000) doubled its participation rate in the 1970s. Portugal's big increase was in the 1980s, as was that of Sweden.

FIGURE C1: PARTICIPATION RATES OF 4-YEAR-OLDS IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION,
FROM 1959/60 TO 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat and population statistics.

Additional notes

Ireland: The time series break is caused by the introduction of ISCED 97. Most pupils who were classified as ISCED 0 in the former ISCED (ISCED 76) are now classified as ISCED 1 in ISCED 97. In general, there is no official provision of ISCED 0 education. Many children attend some form of ISCED 0 education but provision is private and data is, for the most part, missing.

Italy: Data are provisional.

Finland: Age distribution is partially estimated.

Sweden: A new type of education is reported in ISCED 0, namely the pre-primary class (*Förskoleklass*).

Explanatory note

Education-oriented pre-primary institutions provide education-oriented care for young children. They can either be schools or non-school settings, which generally come under authorities or ministries other than those responsible for education. They must recruit staff with specialised qualifications in education. Day nurseries, playgroups and day care centres, where the staff are not required to hold a qualification in education, are not included.

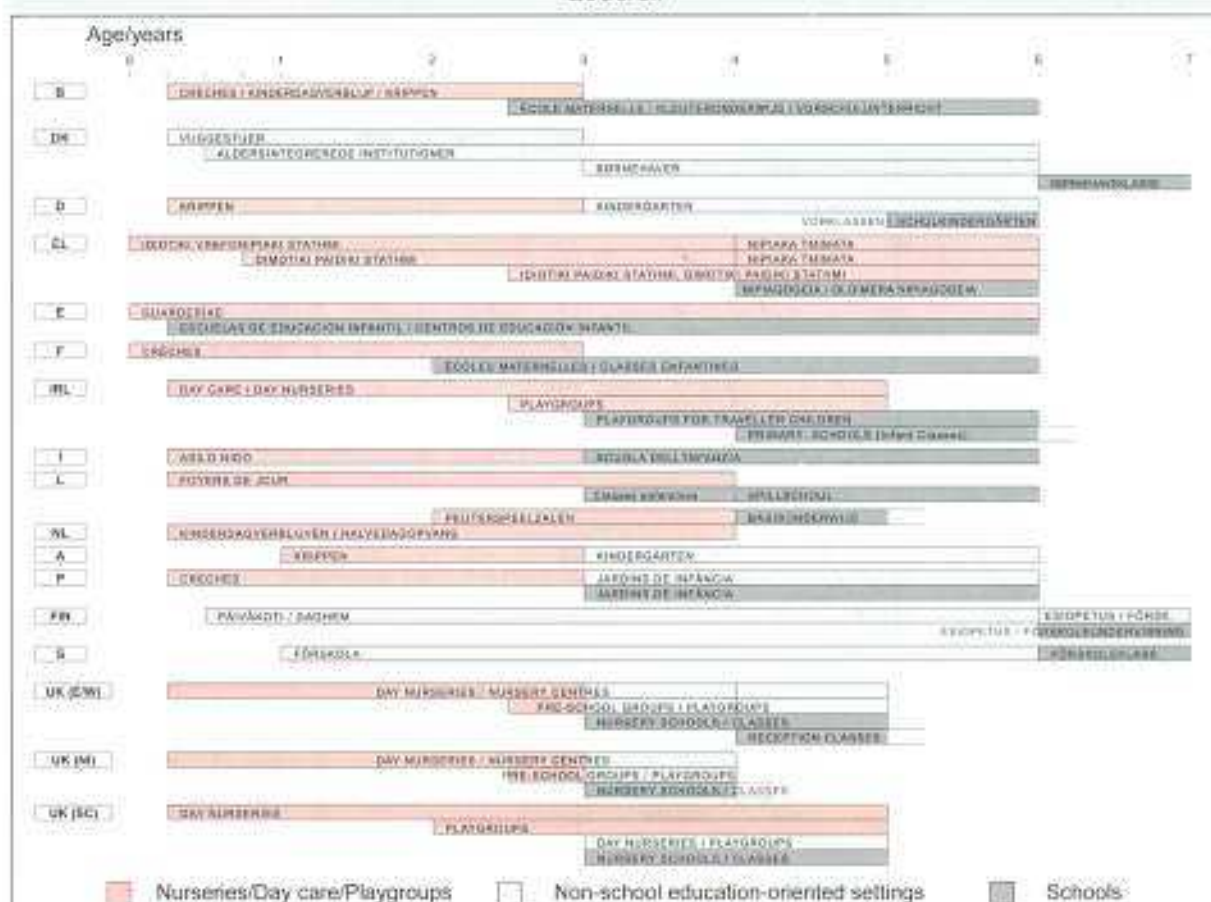


In 1999/2000, on average, nine out of ten 4-year-old children in the European Union and EFTA/EEA countries were enrolled in pre-primary education. Participation rates exceeded 70 % in all EU and EFTA/EEA countries except Greece, Ireland (where many 4-year-olds are already in primary education) and Finland. The highest participation rates (over 90 %) are found in Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Liechtenstein. In EU candidate countries, proportions are lower with, on average, 55 % of 4-year-old children enrolled in pre-primary education. In 1999/2000, participation rates ranged from 33 % in Poland to 100 % in Malta (see Figure C4).

A WIDE RANGE OF PROVISION IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

There is a wide range of facilities which children in Europe may attend before entering primary school. Further details of them, with their names in the original languages, are presented in Figure C2.

FIGURE C2: ORGANISATION OF PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 2000/01



Source: Eurydico.

Additional notes

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

Germany: In two Länder, *Vorklassen* are provided for children aged 5 who have not yet reached compulsory school age but whose parents wish them to receive preparation for primary school.

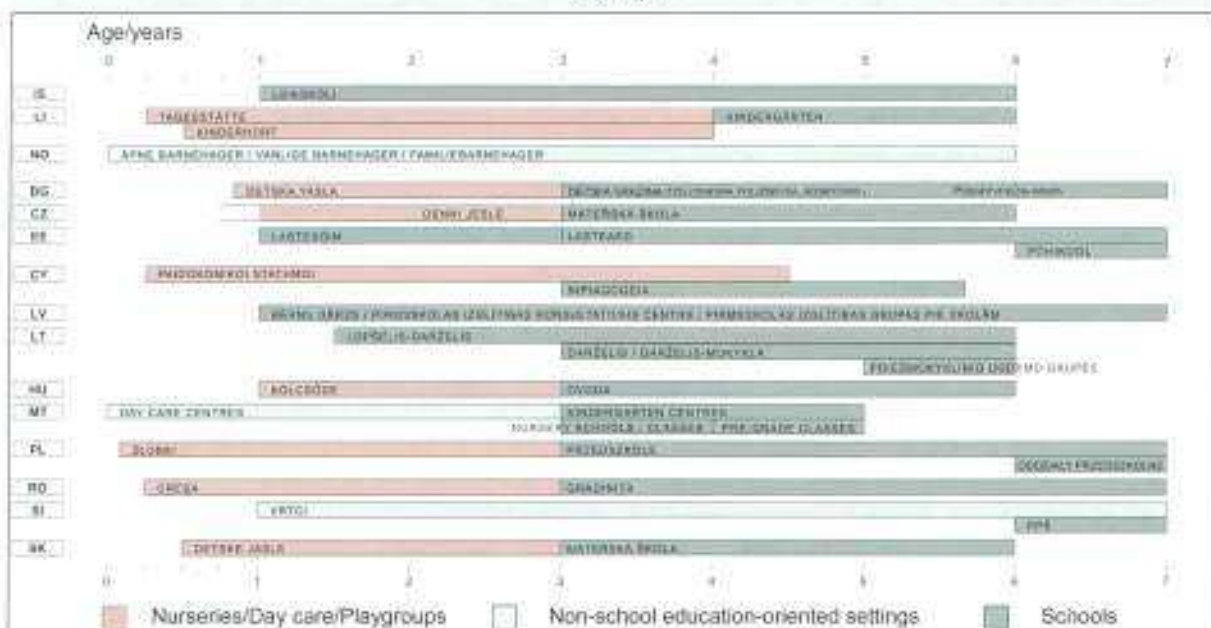
Greece: Since 2001, the former *Kratiiki stathmi* renamed *dimotiki paidiki stathmi* have become the responsibility of the municipalities.

Spain: Other institutions in the 'play centre' category exist alongside the *guarderías*.

Ireland: The Early Start Pilot Pre-school Project is located in some primary schools in selected disadvantaged areas. It provides an intervention programme for the most needy children from these areas who are between the ages of 3 and 4 and who are most at risk of educational failure.



FIGURE C2 (CONTINUED): ORGANISATION OF PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice

Additional notes (continued)

Italy: Since 2001, the *scuola materna* have been renamed *scuola dell'infanzia*.

Luxembourg: In some municipalities since 1998, the *Spillschoul* have been able to enrol children aged 3 under an early childhood education scheme introduced by the Ministry of Education. It will be implemented throughout the country in 2004/05.

Netherlands: The *Basisonderwijs* is compulsory from the age of 5 but 4-year-olds are admitted.

Finland: Since August 2001, municipalities have been obliged to offer free non-compulsory pre-primary education to children aged 6.

United Kingdom (E/WNI): Since 1997, all 4-year-olds have been entitled to a government-funded early education place, and funded places have since also been made available for many 3-year-olds. Providers can be public sector, voluntary sector and private sector institutions, and include schools, nursery schools and classes, nursery centres and day nurseries, and pre-school groups. All institutions in receipt of grant are expected to plan a curriculum that helps children progress towards official early learning goals.

United Kingdom (SC): The Government funds some day nurseries and playgroups for children aged 3 to 5; they are therefore subject to the same regulations as nursery schools/classes.

Bulgaria: Children may enter the *podgotvitelna grupa* (one-year preparatory classes) at the age of 5 or 6 if their parents so desire.

Czech Republic: The Ministry of Health has not fixed the minimum age of enrolment for the *denni jesle*.

Czech Republic and Slovakia: The *materská škola* may in some cases take in children aged under 3 and over 6.

Czech Republic and Slovakia: Although legally defined in 1996, both types of *prvňškola* have only been established very recently.

Lithuania: The legislation stipulates either 6 or 7 as the age for starting compulsory schooling. The official educational guidelines recommend the age of 6. The usual practice, however, is for children to start primary school at 7 years of age.

Hungary: From the age of 5, children must follow a maximum of four hours of teaching per day as mental and social preparation for primary school. However, no minimum is specified in the legislation.

Poland: In small towns, the *oddziały przedszkolne* can accept children between the ages of 3 and 6.

Slovenia: Since 1996, new municipalities have been established. They have incorporated the former pre-primary institutions within the primary schools, some of which cover the whole range of pre-primary level activities. The PPS have been integrated into the single structure in the post-reform (since 1999/2000) context.

Explanatory note

Only the minimum national ages of enrolment are shown. They provide no information about participation rates.

Provision for children in private homes is not included. Only officially recognised institutions are considered. Day nurseries and play centres with staff who do not have to have specialised qualifications in education but who are often qualified as nursery nurses or for employment in the social sector, are shown in pink. Education-oriented institutions may be school settings, or non-school settings generally under authorities or ministries other than those responsible for education. They must recruit staff with specialised qualifications in education.

In facilities belonging to the school system as such, staff members responsible for children's education always have specialised qualifications in education. On the other hand, in non-school settings which generally or partly come under authorities or ministries other than those responsible for education, staff members are not required to hold a qualification in education. This is the case in day nurseries, playgroups or day care centres which usually take in children who are very young indeed.



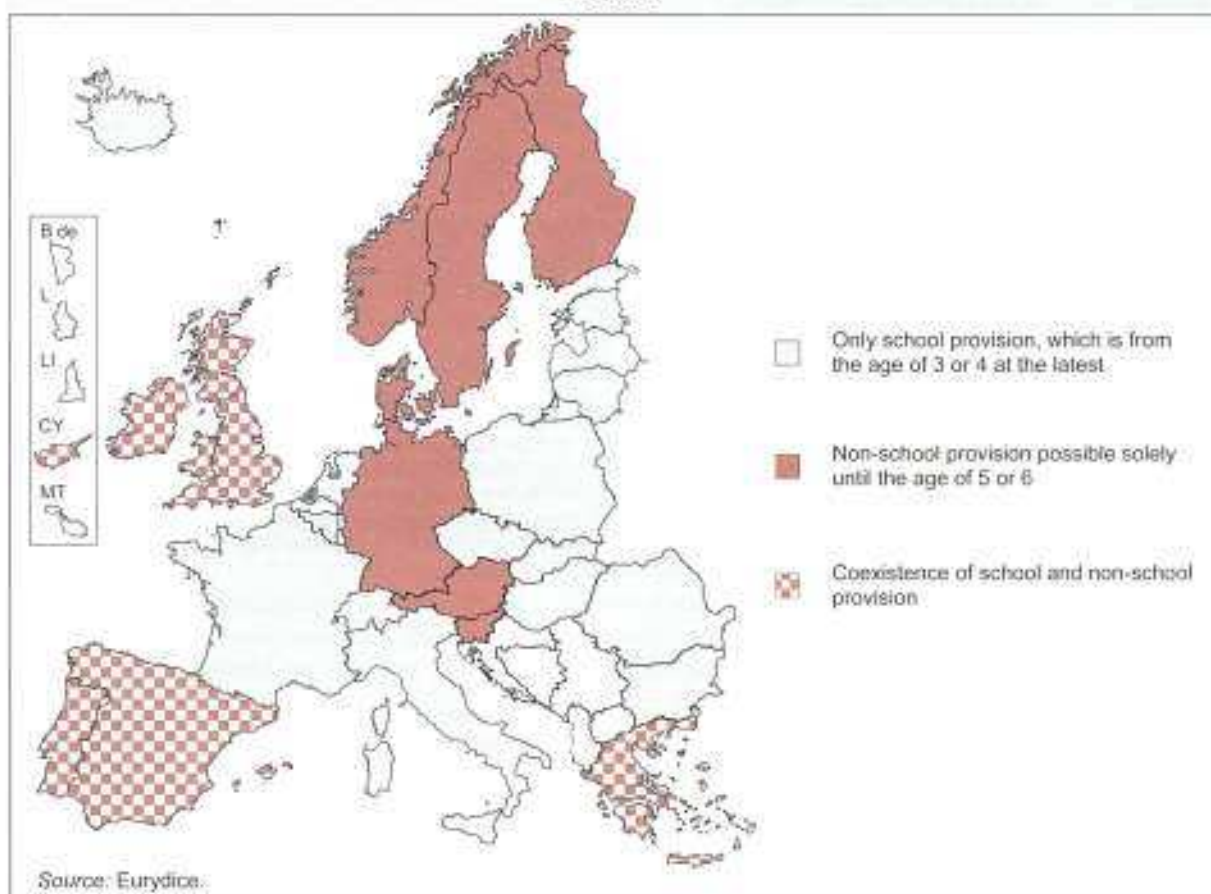
In many countries, non-school institutions must recruit staff with a qualification in education and are placed in the category of education-oriented institutions. In general, they enrol children close to the age of 3, but in Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway, Malta and Slovenia, all types of non-school establishment catering for children from a very early age employ staff with a qualification in education. Although, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), staff in non-school institutions are not required to have a teaching qualification, a qualified teacher must be involved (for example in planning) in any institution receiving funding from the education authorities.

Attendance at a pre-primary institution is voluntary in all countries with the exception of Luxembourg, where the *Spillschoul* is compulsory from the age of 4. Hungary where the final year of *óvoda* is compulsory for children aged 5, and Slovenia, in which attendance is compulsory from the age of 6. In the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), compulsory primary education starts at the age of 4.

In the majority of countries, children aged under 3 are provided for in day nurseries or similar centres. However, in several countries, schools are the only form of provision for children from the age of one or one-and-a-half (Iceland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania), two-and-a-half (the Flemish and French Communities of Belgium) or three (the German-speaking Community of Belgium, France, Italy and most of the candidate countries). A wide range of educational provision is available in the other countries and children go to school later. There are pre-primary classes for 6-year-olds in Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Slovenia. In most of the German *Länder*, as well as in Norway, school provision starts with compulsory primary education. In Denmark and in Sweden, parents may opt to enrol their children in the *folkeskole* and the *grundskola* respectively from the age of 6.

These three main patterns of provision are summarised in Figure C3.

FIGURE C3: MAIN PATTERNS OF ADMISSION TO DIFFERENT TYPES OF PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTION, 2000/01





PRE-PRIMARY ENROLMENT INCREASES WITH THE AGE OF CHILDREN

Figure C4 sets out, by country, participation rates of children aged 3-7 in pre-primary and primary education and when transition occurs from one level to the other.

FIGURE C4: PARTICIPATION RATES IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION AND PRIMARY EDUCATION, BY AGE, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Ireland: In general, there is no official provision of ISCED 0 education but provision is private and data is, for the most part, missing.

Italy: Data is provisional.

Luxembourg: ISCED 0 includes *éducation précoce* and refers to 3-year-olds. Since 1998/99 independent private institutions have been included.

Finland: Age distribution is partially estimated.

Sweden: A new type of education is reported in ISCED 0, namely the pre-primary class (*förskoleklass*).

United Kingdom: Only refers to students enrolled in school institutions. Approximately a further 30 % of 3-year-olds are enrolled in education-oriented non-school institutions.

Norway: Since 1997/98, compulsory schooling has started at the age of 6.

Slovakia: ISCED 1 not available by age.

Explanatory note

Education-oriented pre-primary institutions provide education-oriented care for young children. They can either be schools or non-school settings, which generally come under authorities or ministries other than those responsible for education. They must recruit staff with specialised qualifications in education. Day nurseries, playgroups and day care centres, where the staff are not required to hold a qualification in education, are not included.



In almost half of all European countries (13 out of 30), mass participation (over 80 %) in pre-primary education takes place from 3 years of age (Belgium, Spain, France, Italy and Iceland) or from 4 years (Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Malta). In the remaining countries, pre-primary enrolment increases with the age of children. In Greece, Austria, Portugal, Norway, Estonia and Slovakia, mass enrolment is observed from 5 years of age. In Sweden, Poland, Romania and Slovenia, it occurs only from the age of 6. More than half of all 3-year-olds attend pre-primary education in all candidate countries except Cyprus, Lithuania, Poland and Romania. Enrolment is particularly high (79 %) in Malta.

One year before the beginning of compulsory education, pre-primary participation rates exceed 80 % in all EU and EFTA/EEA countries except Finland and Ireland (although, in Ireland, 99 % of 5-year-old children are enrolled in primary schools), and they exceed 70 % in all candidate countries except Latvia and Lithuania.

The transition to primary school occurs at the age of 6 for most children in Belgium, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, as well as in the Czech Republic. Entry into primary school occurs at the age of 7 for most children in Denmark, Germany, Finland, Sweden and all other candidate countries except Malta. All children in Ireland and the United Kingdom and 78 % of those in Malta are enrolled in primary education at the age of 5 years.

THE AVERAGE DURATION OF PARTICIPATION IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IS SHORTER THAN THE DURATION OF PROVISION IN THE VAST MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES

In the majority of European countries, the average duration of participation in pre-primary education is shorter than the theoretical duration of official provision. The average duration can be influenced by various factors: the minimum age of admission to educational provision, the starting age of compulsory primary education and the participation rates of children in pre-primary education.

Thus, a short average period of participation can be found for different reasons – either because the official provision is very short or because enrolment at such schools or other settings is not widespread.

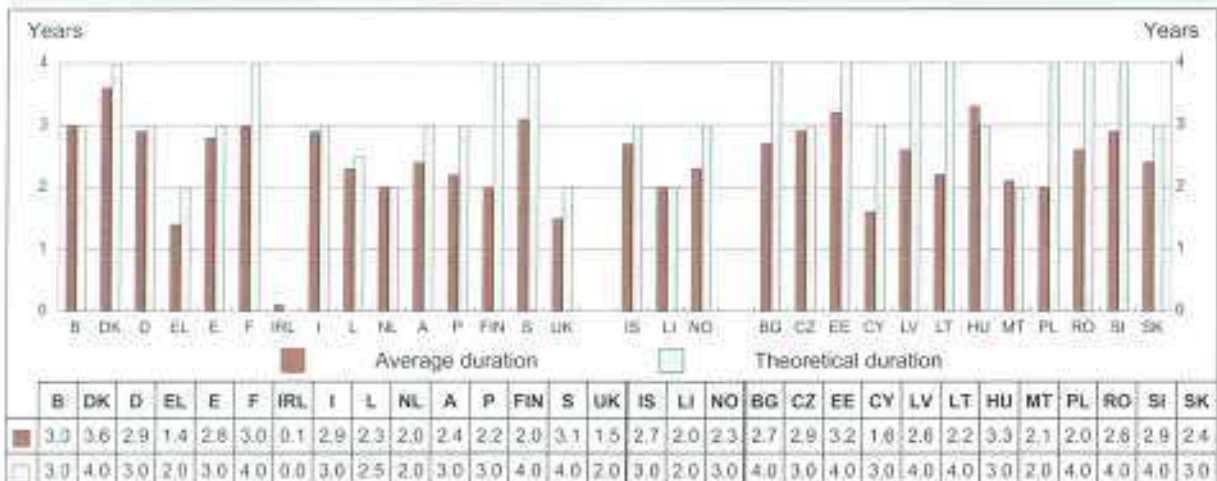
Theoretical and average duration values coincide in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Iceland, Liechtenstein, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Malta.

In countries where it is possible to attend pre-primary education for 3 years, the duration of participation ranges from 1.6 years in Cyprus to 3.3 years in Hungary. In countries where it is possible to attend pre-primary education for 4 years, the average duration of participation ranges from only 2 years in Finland and Poland to 3.6 years in Denmark.

Overall, there is very little correlation between theoretical provision and average duration of participation. In Finland and Poland there is a gap of two years between the two measures.



FIGURE C5: AVERAGE DURATION OF PARTICIPATION OF CHILDREN AGED 3-7 IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN COMPARISON TO THE NOTIONAL DURATION OF PROVISION, IN YEARS, 1999/2000



Source: Eurydice, Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Greece: Education-oriented preprimary school (*nepiagogeion*) starts at the age of 4.

Ireland: In general, there is no official provision of ISCED 0 education. Many children attend some form of ISCED 0 education but provision is private and data is, for the most part, missing (average duration is one year).

Italy: Data is provisional.

Luxembourg: Since 1998/99, 3-year-olds in *éducation précoce* has been included.

Sweden: A new type of education is reported in ISCED 0, namely the pre-primary class (*förskoleklass*).

United Kingdom: Only refers to students enrolled in school institutions. Approximately a further 30 % of 3-year-olds are enrolled in education-oriented non-school institutions.

Iceland: 20.5 % of children aged younger than 3 are also enrolled in pre-primary education.

Explanatory note

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

The official duration of provision corresponds to the number of years – starting at the age of 3 years – during which the pre-primary institution can take children prior to their entry into primary school.

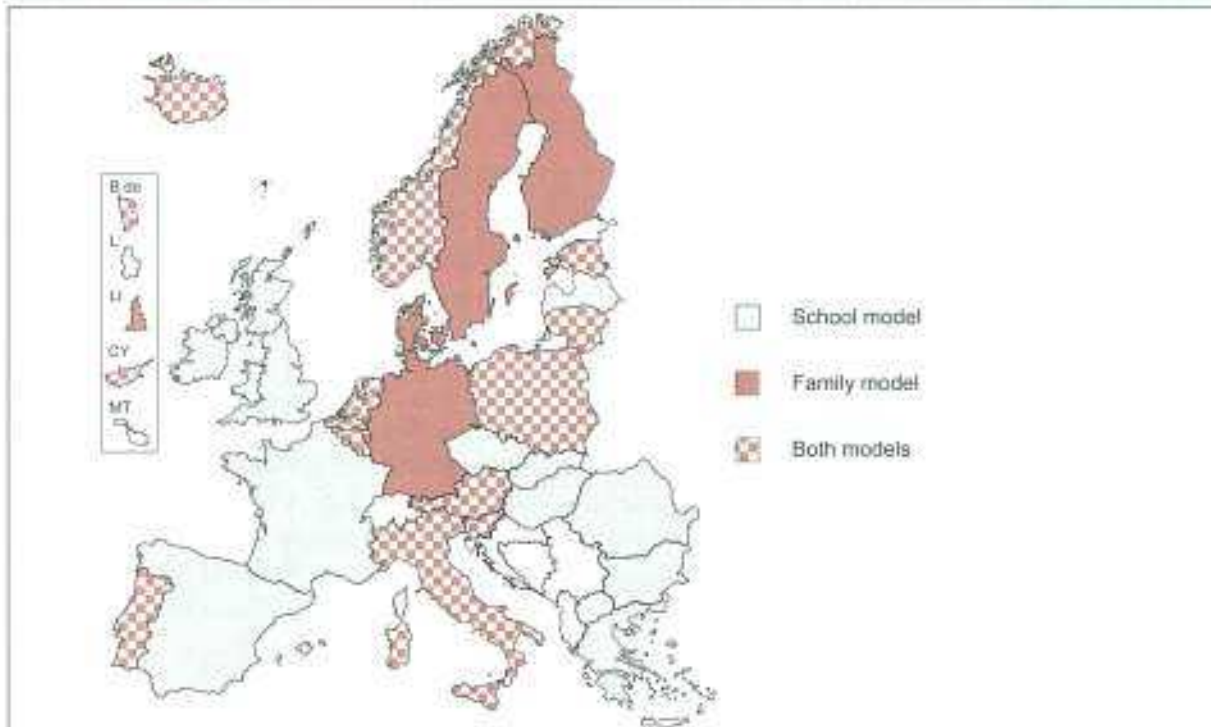
Education-oriented pre-primary institutions provide education-oriented care for young children. They can either be schools or non-school settings, which generally come under authorities or ministries other than those responsible for education. They must recruit staff with specialised qualifications in education. Day nurseries, playgroups and day care centres, where the staff are not required to hold a qualification in education, are not included.

GROUPING OF CHILDREN: AGE GROUPS OR 'FAMILY GROUPS'

In education-oriented (school-based or other) institutions that cater for children before they enter the compulsory primary school, the groups of children are formed in accordance with one of two main models.

- The first anticipates the pattern of organisation in classes that is used in primary schools, the children being grouped according to age. This pattern is called the 'school model'.
- The second is closer to the pattern of the family, children of different ages being placed in the same group. This is the 'family model'.

In schools within the EU and a majority of candidate countries, the most widespread situation is the formation of classes of children of the same age, according to the school model. This situation is also found in the pre-primary classes, which take children at the age of 6 in Denmark and Finland.

FIGURE C6: PRINCIPAL METHODS OF GROUPING CHILDREN
IN EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS, 2000/01

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): The model chosen depends mainly on the number of children enrolled in the school.

Luxembourg: The family model exists but is not widespread.

Sweden: There are no regulations; the school model is sometimes adopted.

Liechtenstein: The school model exists but is not widespread.

Latvia: The possibility of parents opting for the family model at their own discretion has been adopted by the Ministry of Education since 1999.

Slovakia: The family model is followed in some settings.

Explanatory note

In the family model, age differences between children in groups depend on the national enrolment ages of the institutions concerned.

On the other hand, in the non-school education-oriented settings for children under 6 years of age in Denmark, Germany, Finland and Sweden, children of different ages are mainly grouped together in accordance with the family model. In Liechtenstein, in the *Kindergärten*, the family model is also the most common. Furthermore, in Finland and Sweden, there is a tendency to group together children of the same family.

In the other countries, both models commonly exist alongside each other. This is the case in the schools in Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Iceland, Estonia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia, as well as in the *Kindergärten* in Austria, the *jardins de infância* in Portugal and the *Barnehager* in Norway.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN PER ADULT: OFTEN SUBJECT TO REGULATIONS BUT WITH DIFFERENT NORMS

Most States have regulations prescribing the maximum and/or minimum number of children in a class or group of children in education-oriented pre-primary institutions, whether these are schools or not. Figure C7 shows the maximum number of children for which each adult is responsible, and not the size of the groups. In the countries in which two adults work together routinely, the maximum number of children in the group is divided by two.



P R E - P R I M A R Y E D U C A T I O N

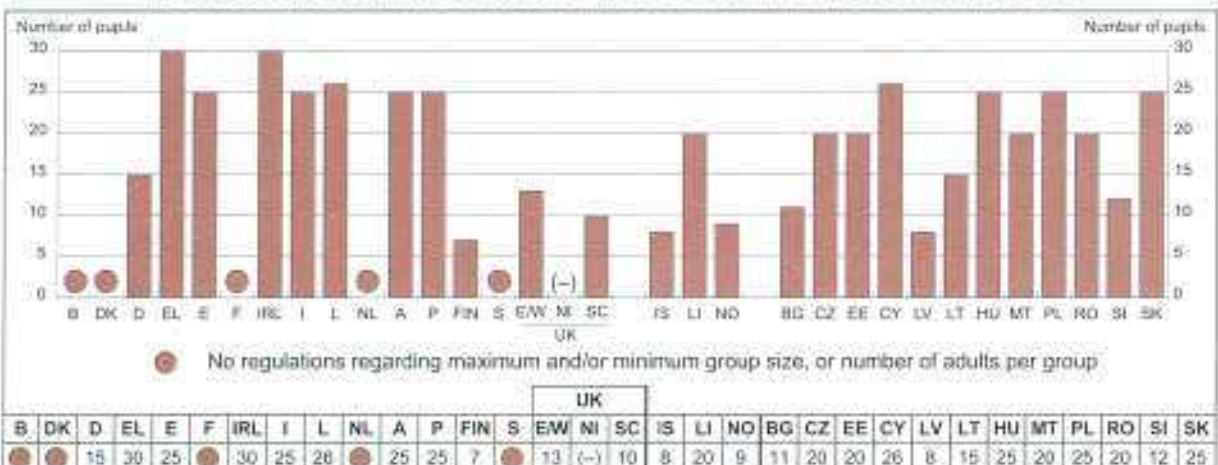
These norms in relation to class sizes vary widely from one country to another and even within the same country, depending on the age of the children. The numbers shown here are therefore those prescribed for 4-year-olds. The comparison shows that the norms are relatively high in a number of EU countries, in particular those in which the children are in schools. The norms of the *Kindergarten* in Austria are similar.

In most countries, the most widespread norms stand at between 20 and 25 children per adult. These ratios are the lowest in Finland, Iceland, Norway and Latvia (under 10 children per adult), irrespective of whether the institutions concerned are schools or not. By contrast, the ratios are the highest in Greece and in Ireland (30 per adult).

Norms corresponding to fewer children per adult may prevail in particular circumstances, such as provision for children aged under 3 (Finland) or 4 (Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania and Malta), the presence of several age-groups (Estonia and Slovenia), the location of schools in disadvantaged areas (France and Slovenia), or provision for children with special needs (Slovenia).

Countries that have no regulations on class or group sizes operate in a variety of ways. In some of them, the number of teachers in an institution is fixed on the basis of the total number of pupils enrolled. This is the case in Belgium and the Netherlands (in *basisonderwijs*). The basis used for the calculation is, however, very different from one country to another. In France, the *inspecteurs d'académie* determine annually the average number of pupils per class in their *département*, and can also set the maximum number of pupils in a class according to criteria specific to their *département*.

FIGURE C7: PRESCRIBED OR RECOMMENDED MAXIMUM NUMBERS OF 4-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN PER ADULT IN SCHOOLS AND OTHER EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Ireland: The recommendations shown relate solely to infant classes in primary schools.

United Kingdom (EW): Recommendations shown are for public sector nursery schools and classes. If the teacher also has management responsibilities, the ratio is one adult per 10 children. Pre-school group led by a qualified teacher may adopt this ratio, otherwise the recommended ratio is a maximum of 8 children per adult.

United Kingdom (NI): At the age of 4, children are in compulsory education.

Estonia: The maximum number for groups of children of the same age is 20, and this figure is reduced to 18 for groups of children of different ages.

Latvia: The ratio of eight children per adult was fixed by the Ministry of Education and Science in July 1999.

Hungary: Schools are financed on the assumption that class sizes are 20-25 children.

Explanatory note

The norms may differ for younger or older children. Only those corresponding to the situation of 4-year-olds are indicated. The diagram relates to the maximum number of children for every adult and not to the size of the groups of children. By 'adult' is meant the qualified person responsible for a group and any assistant or auxiliary staff who support him or her.



FEE-PAYING IS MORE FREQUENT IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR THAN IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

In the majority of countries, admission to public-sector pre-primary schools or other forms of provision is free of charge. In certain candidate countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Poland), some public pre-primary school establishments may charge fees. On the other hand, in the private sector, parents often have to make a financial contribution. In several countries (Denmark, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Norway and Slovenia), a fee must be paid for admission to non-school settings in both sectors and this applies to all or nearly all children. In Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands (including the grant-aided private sector), admission to schools is free for all children. In Iceland, Norway, Cyprus and Slovenia, admission to all forms of provision requires the payment of fees.

FIGURE C8: FEE-PAYING/FREE ADMISSION TO EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS AND PERCENTAGE OF FEE-PAYING CHILDREN, 2000/01

	FREE OF CHARGE		FEE-PAYING		% OF FEE-PAYING CHILDREN
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	
B	<i>École maternelle, Kleuteronderwijs, Vorschulunterricht</i>	<i>École maternelle, Kleuteronderwijs, Vorschulunterricht</i>			0.5%
DK	<i>Børnehaveklasse</i>		<i>Altersintegrerede institutioner, Børnehaver</i>	<i>Altersintegrerede institutioner, Børnehaver, Børnehaveklasse</i>	()
D	<i>Vorklassen, Schulfkindergärten</i>		<i>Kindergärten (with some exceptions)</i>	<i>Kindergärten (with some exceptions), Vorklassen, Schulfkindergärten</i>	()
EL	<i>Nipiagogia</i>			<i>Idiótika nipiagogia</i>	3.5%
E	<i>Escuelas de Educación Infantil</i>	<i>Centros de Educación Infantil</i>	<i>Escuelas de Educación Infantil (some)</i>	<i>Centros de Educación Infantil</i>	18%
F	<i>Écoles maternelles, Classes enfantines</i>			<i>Écoles maternelles, Classes enfantines</i>	12.6%
IRL	<i>Playgroups for Traveller children, Primary schools (Early Start included)</i>			<i>Private schools</i>	2%
I	<i>Scuola dell'infanzia</i>			<i>Scuola dell'infanzia</i>	()
L	<i>Classes enfantines, Spälschul</i>				0%
NL	<i>Basisonderwijs</i>	<i>Basisonderwijs</i>			0%
A			<i>Kindergärten (with some exceptions)</i>	<i>Kindergärten</i>	()
P	<i>Jardins de infância (ME)</i>	<i>Jardins de infância (IPSS)</i>	<i>Jardins de infância (MTS)</i>	<i>Jardins de infância</i>	()
FIN	<i>Peruskoulu/Grundskola</i>	<i>Peruskoulu/Grundskola</i>	<i>Päivähoito/Daghem</i>	<i>Päivähoito/Daghem</i>	()
S	<i>Förskoleklass</i>	<i>Förskoleklass</i>	<i>Förskola</i>	<i>Förskola</i>	()
UK (EW)	<i>Day nurseries, Nursery centres, Nursery schools, Nursery and reception classes</i>	<i>Pre-school groups/playgroups, Day nurseries, Nursery schools/classes/ Reception classes, Independent schools</i>		<i>Pre-school groups/playgroups, Day nurseries, Nursery schools, Independent schools</i>	24%
UK (NI)	<i>Day nurseries, Nursery centres, Nursery schools, Nursery units</i>	<i>Pre-school groups/playgroups, Day nurseries, Nursery schools, Independent schools</i>		<i>Pre-school groups/playgroups, Day nurseries, Nursery schools, Independent schools</i>	
UK (SC)	<i>Nursery schools/classes</i>		<i>Pre-school centres</i>	<i>Pre-school centres</i>	()

Source: Eurydice.



PRE - PRIMARY EDUCATION

FIGURE C8 (CONTINUED): FEE-PAYING/FREE ADMISSION TO EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS AND PERCENTAGE OF FEE-PAYING CHILDREN, 2000/01

	FREE OF CHARGE		FEE-PAYING		% OF FEE-PAYING CHILDREN
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	
IS			Lekskóli	Lekskóli	100 %
LI	Kindergarten	Sonderschulkindergarten	Kinderhort	Tagesstätte, Waldorf-Kindergarten	2 %
NO			Apne barnehager, Vanlige barnetager, Familiebarnehager	Apne barnehager, Vanlige barnehager, Familiebarnehager	100 % (*)
BG	Detška gradina			Detška gradina	1 % (*)
CZ	Mateřská škola		Mateřská škola	Mateřská škola	(-)
EE	Põhikool		Koolieelne lasteasutus	Koolieelne lasteasutus	(-)
CY			Μπαιβωγεία	Μπαιβωγεία	100 %
LV	Bērnu dārzis/ Pirmsskolas izglītības konsultatīvais centrs/ Pirmsskolas izglītības grupas pie skolām			Privātais bērnu dārzs	1.6 %
LT		At the discretion of the institution	Lopšelis/Lopšelis-darželis/ Darželis/Darželis-mokykla/ Priešmokyklinio ugdymo grupės	At the discretion of the institution	100 %
HU	Óvoda, Bölcsőde	Óvoda, Bölcsőde	Óvoda, Bölcsőde	Óvoda, Bölcsőde	(-)
MT	Kindergarten centers			Nursery schools/classes, Pre-grade classes	33 % (*)
PL	Przedszkole		Przedszkole	Przedszkole	(-)
RO	Grădinița			Grădinița	0.7 %
SI			Vrtci	Vrtci	94.3 %
SK	Mateřská škola			Mateřská škola	(-)

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Ireland: Children enrolled in certain private schools are not included in the percentage calculation.

Finland: From 2001/02, all 6-year-olds have the right to pre-school education free of charge, whether they are in day care centres or schools.

Sweden: From 1 January 2002, maximum enrolment fees were introduced in non-school pre-primary establishments (förskola). With effect from 1 January 2003, children aged 4 and 5 years are being granted free admission to these establishments for at least three hours a day.

United Kingdom (E/W): The percentage of fee-paying children is based on 3 and 4 year olds (including those in reception classes in primary school) in England only.

Estonia and Slovenia: The enrolment fee that parents are required to pay varies according to the municipality and is based on the parents' income. For some children, all or part of the enrolment fee is paid by the municipality.

Slovenia: For the percentage of children who pay enrolment fees, the reference year is 1999/2000.

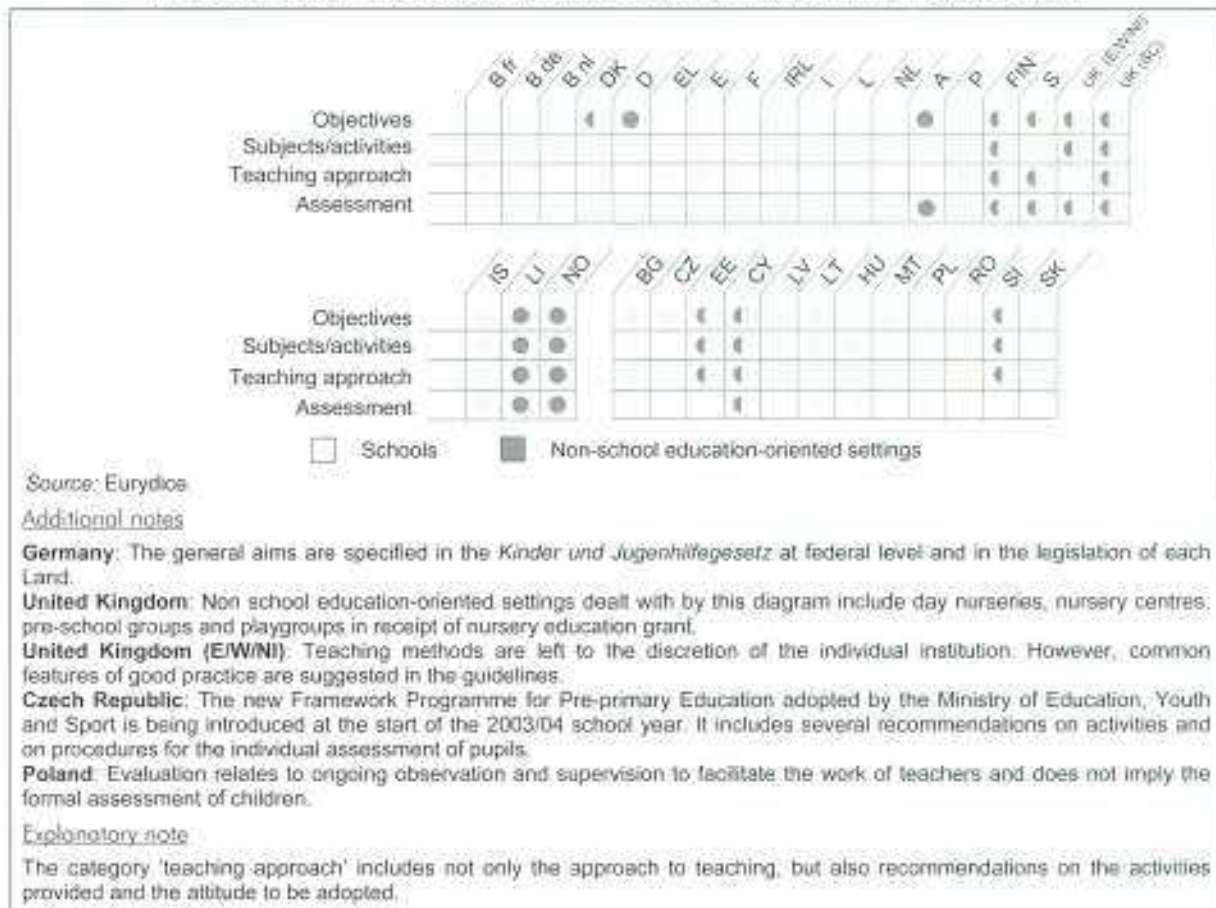
Explanatory note

'Fee-paying' means that parents are required to pay an enrolment fee for access to educational activities; it does not refer to fees they may pay for meals or certain optional, specific or additional non-educational activities (such as day care). The percentage of children paying fees is based on the number of children enrolled in pre-primary institutions.



ALL COUNTRIES DEFINE EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES FOR PRE-PRIMARY PROVISION

FIGURE C9: EDUCATIONAL CONTENT OF THE OFFICIAL GUIDELINES,
IN SCHOOLS AND OTHER EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS, 2000/01



In all countries, official documents state **objectives, in very general and/or more precise terms**. The terms used for general objectives are fairly similar in all countries: development, autonomy, responsibility, well-being, self-confidence, citizenship, preparation for school life and future education, etc.

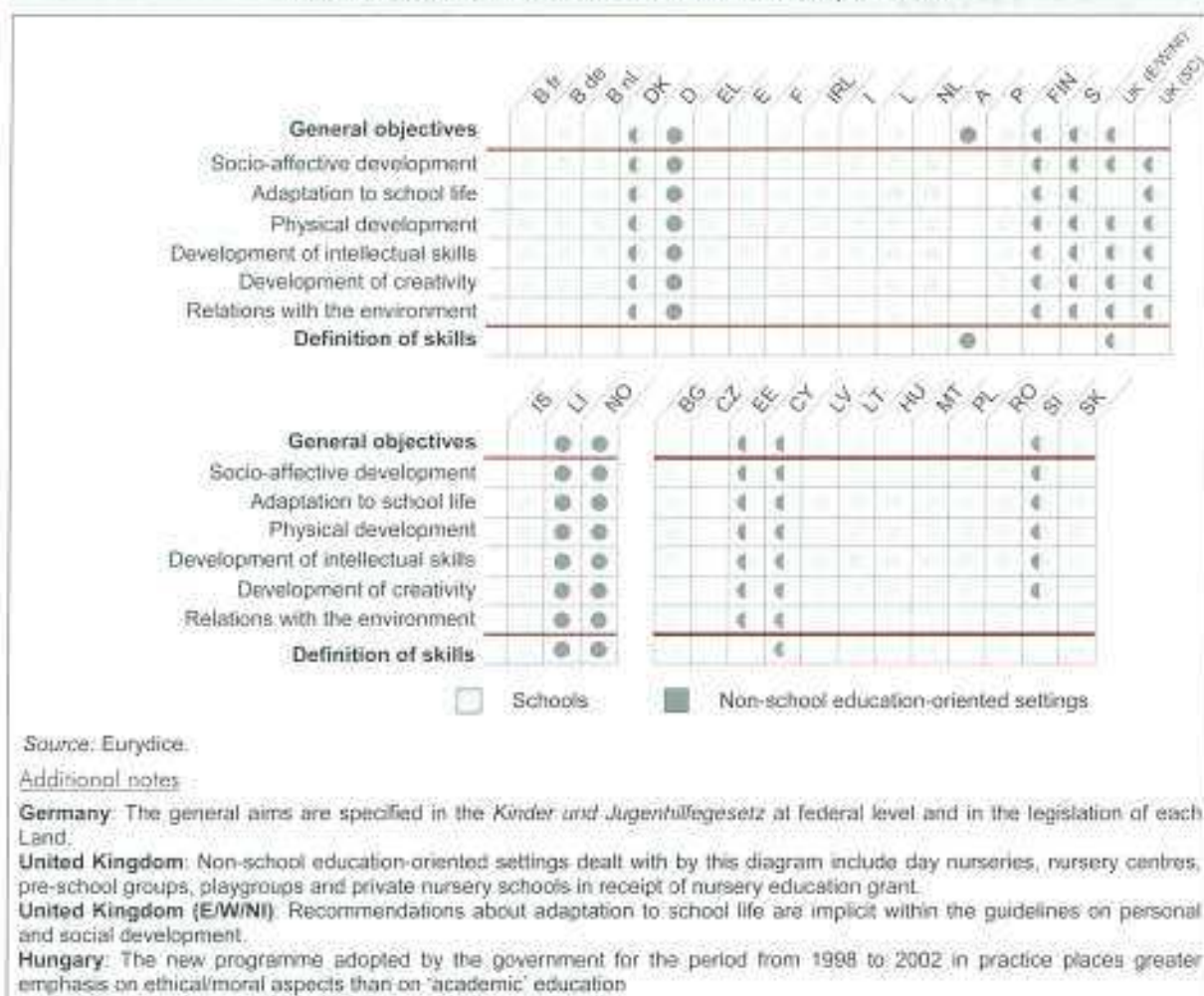
Among their aims the majority of countries also stress the importance of **cooperation with the family**. Here too, the same terms are often used: communication, information, understanding, cooperation, dialogue, support, mutual assistance, participation, involvement of the parents in the project, the educational process, continuity, coherence, etc.

In addition to these very general objectives, in almost all countries more precise details are given on the aims to be pursued in more specific areas. In this analysis, they are grouped under six headings: socio-affective development, adaptation to school life, physical development, the development of intellectual skills, the development of creativity and relations with the environment.

The skills the children should theoretically have mastered by the end of pre-primary education or before starting compulsory education are also defined in over half the European countries and, in most cases, in schools. In the United Kingdom, these skills are assessed in the evaluation carried out at the start of primary school (baseline assessment) during the first seven weeks in England and Wales and during the first year of compulsory education in Northern Ireland.



FIGURE C10: GENERAL AND SPECIFIC EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES STIPULATED IN THE OFFICIAL GUIDELINES, EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-PRIMARY INSTITUTIONS, 2000/01



AGE IS THE PRINCIPLE CRITERION FOR ACCESS TO COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION

Two criteria can be applied to decide on the admission of children to compulsory primary education: age and maturity. **Age** is the more widespread of these criteria, since it is applied in all countries, but the age limits that determine admission vary from one country to another. These are maximum age limits. In practice, in most countries, it is possible to start primary school before reaching compulsory school age. In some countries, the child's maturity is an additional criterion taken into account for admission to compulsory primary school.

In almost all countries, compulsory education starts at the same time as the school year. In more than half of these countries, the age for starting school must be reached during the calendar year in which the child starts school. In some countries, the required age must have been reached before a date which, generally, precedes or corresponds to, the start of the school year. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), children born between September and February have the option of starting school either in the August preceding their 5th birthday or of deferring to the next August.



FIGURE C11: AGE LIMITS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CHILDREN TO COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION, 2000/01

ADMISSION TO COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION		
COINCIDES WITH THE START OF THE SCHOOL YEAR		DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR
THE CHILD MUST HAVE REACHED THE AGE OF THE START OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION		
DURING THE CALENDAR YEAR	BY A SPECIFIC DATE	
B fr, B de, B nl, DK, EL, E, F, I, FIN, S, IS, NO, BG, LV, LT, MT, PL, RO, SI	D (according to the <i>Land</i> : between 30/6 and 30/9), L (15/9), A (31/8), P (31/8), UK (NI) (1/7), UK (SC) (between 1/3 and 1/8), LI (between 1/5 and 31/8), CZ (1/9), EE (1/10), CY (1/9), HU (31/5), SK (start of the school year)	IRL, NL, UK (E/W)
<p>Sources: Eurydice.</p> <p><i>Additional notes</i></p> <p>Germany: The <i>Länder</i> can in certain circumstances allow children to start compulsory education during the school year (rather than at the beginning). This degree of flexibility allows the school to take account of the child's maturity.</p> <p>Slovenia: Since the 1999/2000 school year and introduction of the new nine-year elementary school, children must have reached the age at which school becomes compulsory, during the calendar year and not at the start of the school year.</p>		

In three EU countries, children may start school during the school year (rather than at the beginning). In Ireland, children do not have to attend school until the start of the term following their 6th birthday. In the Netherlands, compulsory education starts on the first day of the month which follows the child's 5th birthday. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), children reach compulsory school age on one of three designated dates following their 5th birthday: 31 August, 31 December and 31 March. However, most children enter school at some point in the year after their fourth birthday.

In the majority of countries, the **maturity of children** is taken into account solely when parents want to enrol their child in primary school before the age of compulsory schooling. By contrast, maturity is an additional criterion taken into account for admission to compulsory primary school in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Austria, Liechtenstein, and in almost all candidate countries, with the exception of Estonia. Various procedures are used in different countries to assess the child's maturity: a medical examination, a psychological examination, an aptitude test, the opinion of the educational team and/or the future teacher, the opinion of the headteacher, the opinion of the parents, etc.

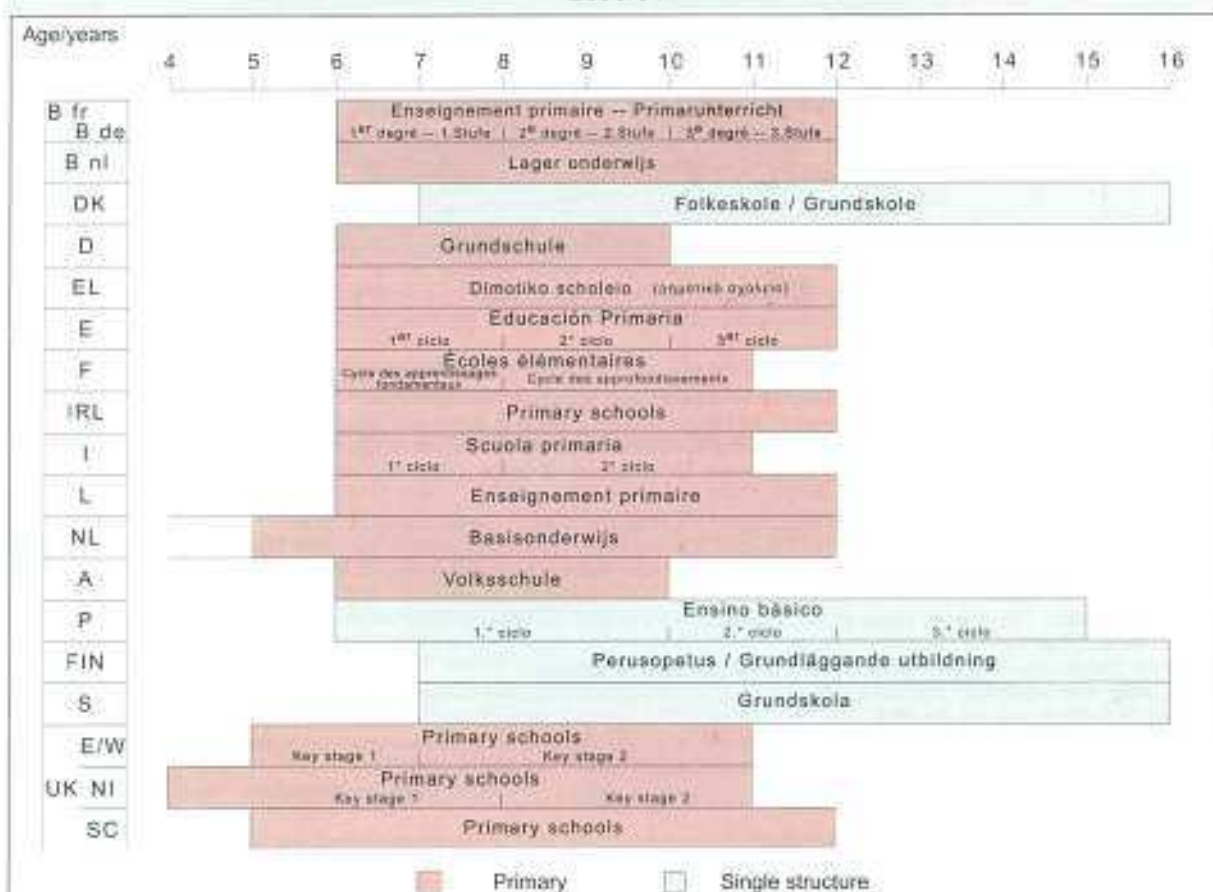
A final point should be emphasised. In some countries (as in the case, for example, of each *Land* in Germany, Austria, Portugal, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Hungary), the notional age for admission to ISCED 1 must be reached prior to a specific date. In these countries, therefore, there may be a difference of a year or more in the ages of children within a particular class. This is attributable solely to the fact that pupils born after the stipulated date have to wait until the following year before they can start compulsory schooling. It should not therefore be regarded as indicative of their falling behind at school.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

A SEPARATE LEVEL OF EDUCATION OR PART OF A SINGLE CONTINUOUS STRUCTURE

In the majority of countries, primary education is a separate level of education. It lasts six years on average and is shortest, at just four years, in most German *Länder*, and in Austria, Lithuania and Romania. Primary education is divided into three stages in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium and Spain, and into two in France, Italy, the United Kingdom (except Scotland), Cyprus and Poland. In 13 countries, compulsory schooling is provided within a single, continuous structure with no distinction between primary and lower secondary education. This single structure corresponds to nine years of schooling in the majority of cases and is sometimes sub-divided into two stages (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia) or three (Portugal, Norway and in the new structure in Slovenia). The information in this chapter refers to the first six years of the single structure in these countries.

FIGURE D1: ORGANISATION OF COMPULSORY PRIMARY OR SINGLE STRUCTURE EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

[Additional notes](#)

(see next page)

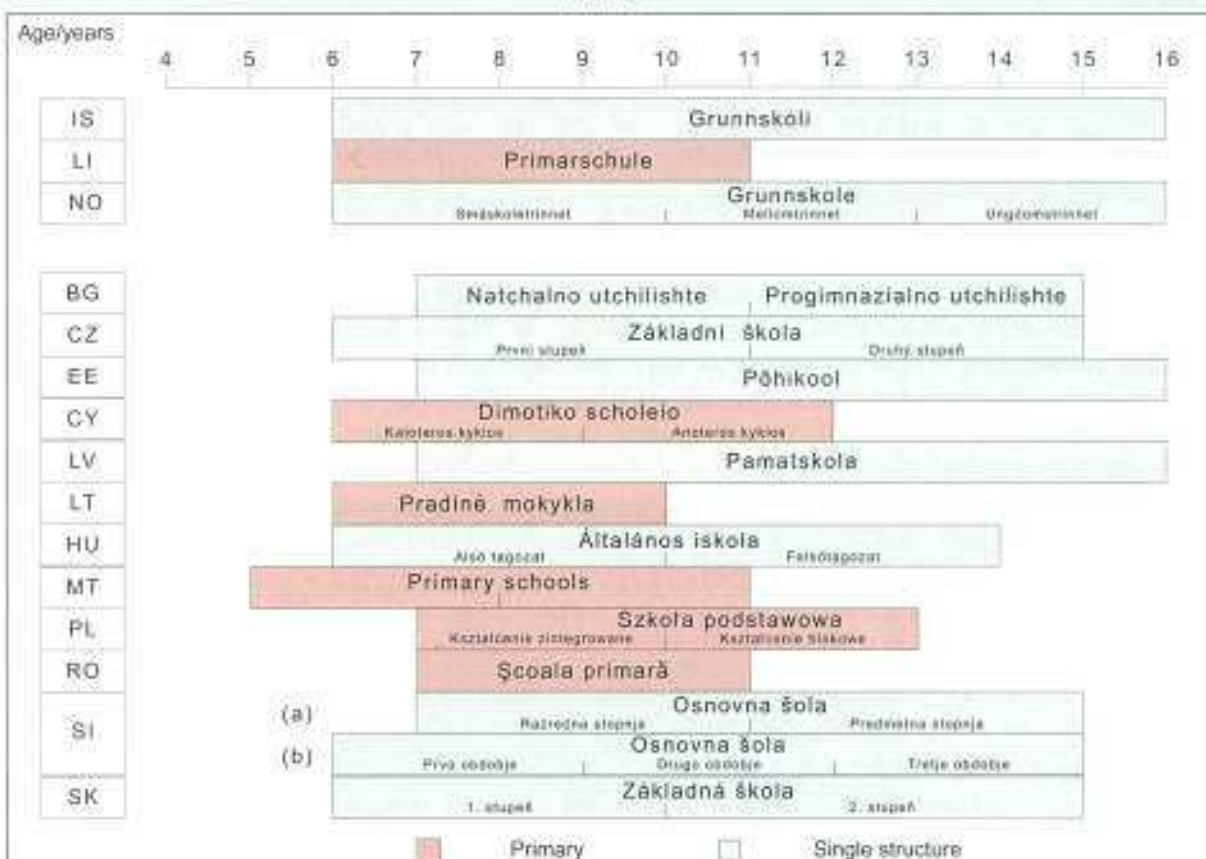
[Explanatory note](#)

The diagram D1 shows the 'notional' and/or official age of pupils from the start of compulsory primary education to the end of primary education or the single structure. In most countries, children can, under certain circumstances and if their parents so wish, start school before they reach compulsory school age. The diagram and notes do not take account of earlier or later admissions to primary school or longer periods of schooling for pupils who fall behind.



PRIMARY EDUCATION

FIGURE D1 (CONTINUED): ORGANISATION OF COMPULSORY PRIMARY OR SINGLE STRUCTURE EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: The name *folkeskole* is used only for schools coming under the municipalities.

Germany: The *Grundschule* lasts four years in 14 Länder. It lasts 6 years in Berlin and Brandenburg.

Ireland: Primary education is offered from the age of 4. Compulsory education starts at age 6.

Netherlands: *Basisonderwijs* normally corresponds to a period of eight years and children can start when aged 4. Compulsory education starts at the age of 5.

Finland: The division of the former *peruskoulu/grunnskola* into two stages was abolished in 1999.

United Kingdom (E): In some regions of England, the education system is divided into three levels: first schools, middle schools and high schools. Pupils move from first school to middle school at the age of 8 or 9 and from middle school to secondary school at the age of 12 or 13.

Czech Republic: The second stage of the single structure is also provided in *gymnázium*, which pupils can enter from the age of either 11 or 13.

Cyprus: The division into two stages (*kyklos*) is not a hard and fast rule.

Lithuania: The legislation stipulates either 6 or 7 as the age for starting compulsory education. The official educational guidelines recommend the age of 6.

Hungary: The second stage of education in the single structure (ages 10 to 14) is also provided in some secondary education schools. Entrance to these schools, called *gimnázium*, takes place at the age of 10 or 12.

Poland: Since 1999/2000, primary education for pupils aged between 7 and 13 has been introduced. The former eight-year single structure was abolished in 2000.

Slovenia: a) The former structure which is being phased out; b) the new single structure that has been gradually introduced since the 1999/2000 school year.

Slovakia: After the eighth year of the single structure, pupils can only continue their education in upper secondary bilingual *gymnázium*.

Explanatory note

The diagram D1 shows the 'notional' and/or official age of pupils from the start of compulsory primary education to the end of primary education or the single structure. In most countries, children can, under certain circumstances and if their parents so wish, start school before they reach compulsory school age. The diagram and notes do not take account of earlier or later admissions to primary school or longer periods of schooling for pupils who fall behind.

CLASS SIZE NORMS: A MAXIMUM OF 25 TO 36 PUPILS

Most countries have regulations stipulating the maximum number of pupils in a class or group. In a few countries, a minimum number of pupils is also required for a class to be formed and this varies considerably from one country to the next. In Portugal, a minimum of 20 pupils is required to establish a class.

FIGURE D2: CLASS SIZE REGULATIONS OR RECOMMENDATIONS,
2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: Average of the reference figures for class size of all Länder.

Ireland: Since 1999/2000, maximum class size in primary schools has been 30 pupils instead of 35.

Portugal: The minimum and maximum numbers are 26 and 34 for 40 m² classrooms, and 20 and 26 for classrooms between 35 and 40 m².

United Kingdom (EN/WI): The requirement refers only to 5- to 7-year-olds (4- to 8-year-olds in Northern Ireland). The deadline for completing the implementation of this requirement was September 2000 in Northern Ireland, and September 2001 in England and Wales.

United Kingdom (SC): In the first three years of primary education, the maximum class size is 30 pupils. In the four final years, it is set at 33.

Iceland: In accordance with the law of 1995 on compulsory education, there are no longer any recommendations on class size. The municipalities decide whether classes will be established even though the prescriptions of the previous legislation (a maximum of 18-22 pupils for classes 1-3 and of 28 pupils for classes 4-10) are generally applied.

Czech Republic: In exceptional cases, there can be more than 30 pupils in a class.

Cyprus: Since 2000, class sizes have been reduced. The maximum number of pupils per class has been set at 30 in the first year of primary education, and at 32 for the subsequent five years.

Latvia: New recommendations adopted in May 2000.

Hungary: Regulations prescribe an average number of pupils per class (21) as well as a maximum.

Poland: Since the reform of the 1999/2000 school year, there have no longer been any recommendations on class size.

Slovakia: Since the 2000/01 school year, the maximum number of children per class has been 34 (29 during the first year of primary education).

Explanatory note

The indications or recommendations regarding the size of classes that include children with special educational needs are not taken into account.

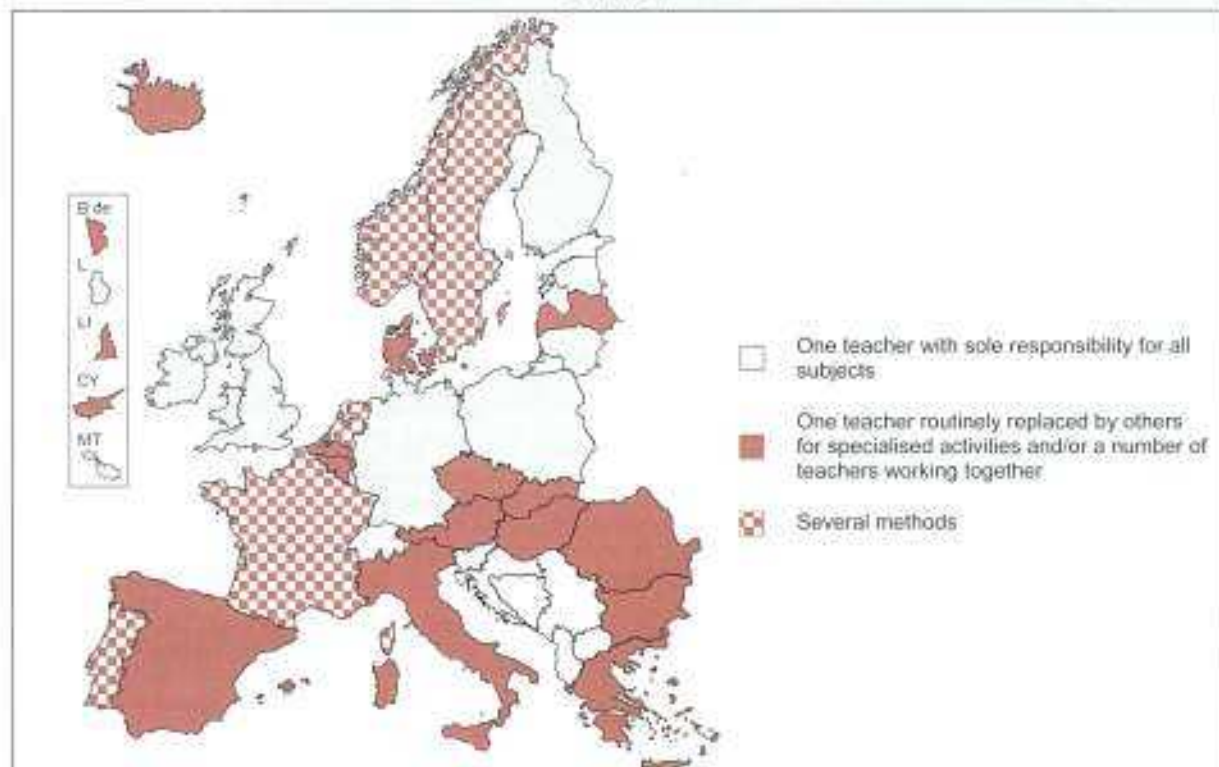
As far as maximum class sizes are concerned, the norms corresponding to the largest class sizes of between 34 and 36 pupils exist in Portugal, Estonia, Latvia and Slovakia. In Greece, Spain, Ireland, Portugal, Norway, Cyprus, Slovenia and Slovakia, lower norms can be set to take account of special circumstances, such as the start of primary education, the space available, and the inclusion of several age groups, or schools serving areas that are socially or economically disadvantaged.

In the countries with no regulations on class size, individual local authorities or schools have the power to decide how classes are made up. They generally do this taking into account educational guidelines and classroom sizes. In France, however, the *inspecteur d'académie* (a central government official) can set both the average number of pupils per class for his or her *département* and also the maximum number according to the specific criteria of that *département*.

ONE TEACHER PER CLASS, BUT OFTEN REPLACED FOR SOME SPECIALISED SUBJECTS

Because the way in which subjects are shared among teachers varies widely, the situations described below and in Figure D3 relate solely to children aged around 7. In most countries, at the start of primary education or in the first years of the single structure, one teacher is usually responsible for the class. These teachers teach most subjects and are sometimes replaced by other teachers for certain specialised activities, such as foreign languages, physical education and sport, music and religious education. In Denmark, however, each subject is taught by a different teacher but there is team-teaching at some levels and there is interdisciplinary teaching for some subjects. In Italy, two or three teachers routinely share the teaching of all subjects. They take the class in turns and also have a spell of some hours in the day where they work together. In Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Finland, the United Kingdom, Estonia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland and Slovenia, one teacher is normally responsible for the class for the whole week and usually has sole responsibility for all subjects. Finally, in France, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and Norway, several methods of dividing up the teaching among the teachers are found at the same time.

FIGURE D3: MAIN MODELS FOR DIVIDING TEACHING AND SUBJECTS AMONG THE TEACHERS (AROUND AGE 7), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Many schools use their staff in a flexible way, allowing some exchange of teaching staff between classes for particular activities.

United Kingdom (SC), Estonia and Lithuania: In some primary schools, the classroom teacher will have the assistance of specialists in certain subjects (such as music, art, physical education, etc.).

Poland and Slovenia: In the schools that offer foreign language courses to children aged 7, the courses are given by specialist teachers.

Romania: Class teachers may be replaced by specialist teachers in some subjects.

Where variations exist, they are linked in particular to the progress of pupils through school. Thus in the German-speaking Community of Belgium and Sweden, there are differences in organisation between the beginning and end of primary education. In Germany and Finland, pupils are gradually introduced to subject teachers so as to prepare them for transition to secondary school or the last years of the single structure (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) where they will have only subject

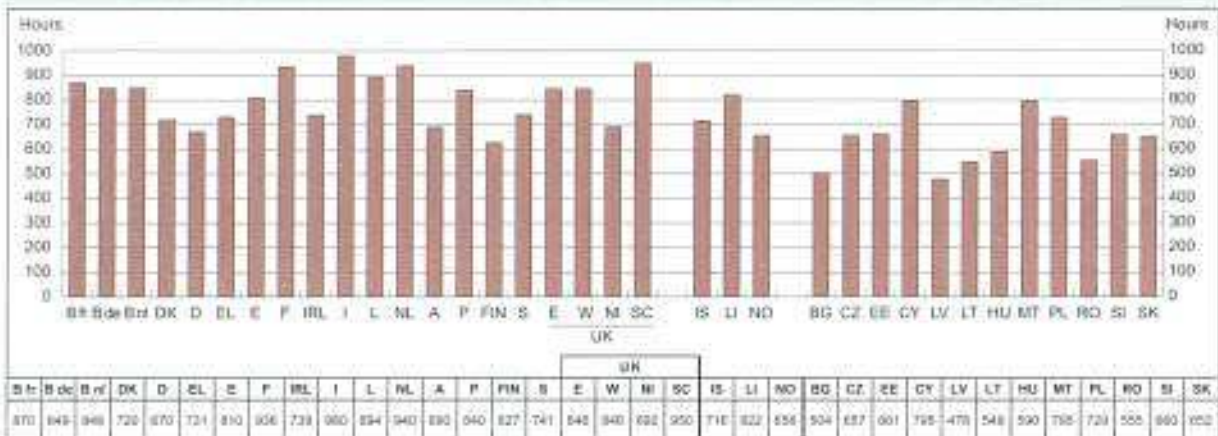


teachers. In Portugal, in the 2nd stage of *ensino básico*, different teachers are each responsible for a group of subjects. In the United Kingdom, primary school teachers may have the help of a classroom assistant. During the first year of the new nine-year single structure in Slovenia, each teacher is assisted by another teacher for half of every week.

**DURING PRIMARY EDUCATION,
THE AVERAGE AMOUNT OF TEACHING TIME MAY RANGE
FROM 478 TO 980 HOURS, OR OVER TWICE AS MUCH**

As Figure D1 shows, the length of primary education or of the corresponding period in the single structure varies between four and seven years from one country to the next. In most countries, pupils attend school five days a week. In Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria, teaching time may be spread over five or six days a week. The number of hours spent in the classroom during the day also depends on the country, the days of the week and the age of pupils. Because the distribution of school time varies so much, an indicator has been calculated for comparative purposes. It relates to 'the average minimum annual number of hours of teaching that pupils receive in primary education'.

FIGURE D4: AVERAGE MINIMUM ANNUAL NUMBER OF HOURS OF TEACHING IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Finland: The division of the former *peruskoulu/grundskola* into two stages was abolished in 1999. The calculation is based on the minimum number of hours of teaching during the first six years of the single structure.

Sweden: The calculation is based on an even distribution each year of the 6 665 hours of teaching set out in the timetable. The municipalities/schools are free to distribute these hours over the nine years of the *grundskola*, provided they check that children have achieved certain objectives by the end of the fifth and ninth year of schooling.

United Kingdom (E/W): The total number of hours is based on the minimum recommended weekly hours of lesson time. Figures do not include education for 4- and 5-year-olds in reception classes.

United Kingdom (NI): The total number of hours is based on the minimum daily hours of attendance.

Norway: Since August 2002, there has been an increase from 20 to 21 periods in three of the first four grades.

Czech Republic: The calculation is based on the *základní škola* programme.

Cyprus: In some schools that are locally based or in priority education areas, the total number of taught hours during primary education is greater (4 984 hours, or 831 hours a year).

Latvia: During the final three years of primary education, class periods may last 45 minutes (instead of 40). The total number of taught hours is thus 2 004, or 501 hours a year on average.

Romania: Schools can add two hours a week for supplementary activities.

Slovenia: The calculation includes the 15 days devoted annually to special (scientific, sports, artistic and technological) activities.

Explanatory note

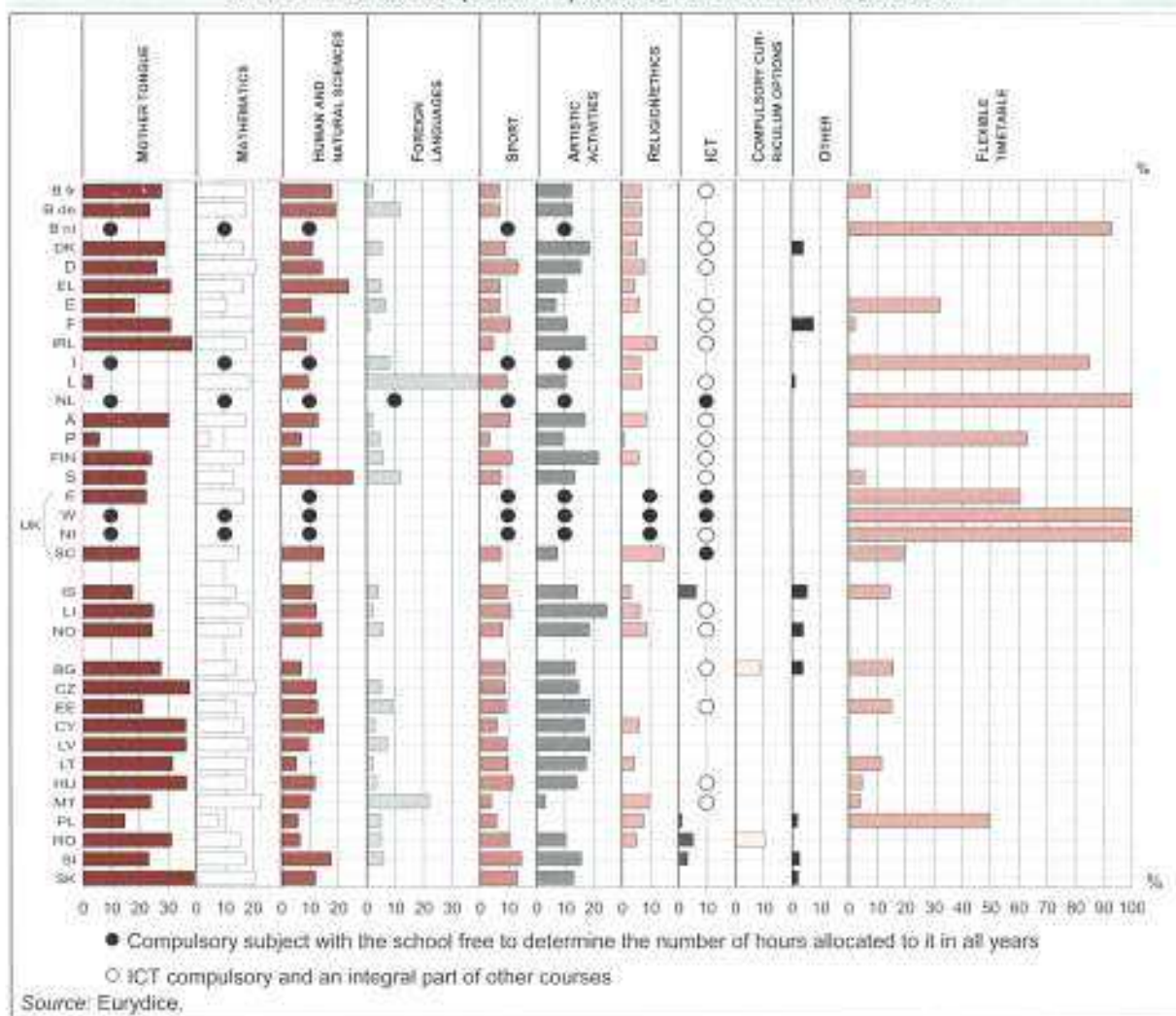
The teaching time shown in this diagram corresponds to the workload not of teachers but of pupils, assuming they satisfactorily complete each year of their path through school. It is based on national recommendations or the minimum number of hours nationally recommended. For each year of primary education, this number of 'taught hours' is calculated with respect to the average daily number multiplied by the number of days of teaching each year. Recreational or any other kinds of break, as well as time set aside for optional lessons, are not included in the calculation. The taught hours for each year are added up to give a total figure, which is then divided by the number of years corresponding to primary education or the single structure (ISCED 1). The raw data used to prepare this diagram is available for each country and each year of primary education on the Eurydice website (www.eurydice.org).

In most European countries, the average annual number of taught hours completed by pupils in primary education is between 600 and 800. In a few countries, namely Belgium, Spain, Luxembourg, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Liechtenstein, children in primary education are taught, on average, for over 800 hours a year. In France, Italy, the Netherlands and Scotland, the figure is over 900 hours. In Latvia, pupils spend on average 478 hours a year in their classes. In many countries, the timetable in the initial years of primary education is less intensive, which may account for the slightly lower pupil workload. This applies in particular to Denmark, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), Liechtenstein, Norway, Estonia, Hungary and Slovenia.

COMPULSORY SUBJECTS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION: A COMMON BASIS BUT DIFFERENCES IN EMPHASIS

In primary education, compulsory curriculum subjects are generally the same in all countries. The only apparent differences relate to foreign language teaching, the inclusion of courses in information and communication technology (ICT), or the requirement to provide religious or ethical instruction.

FIGURE D5: RECOMMENDED MINIMUM ALLOCATION OF HOURS OF TEACHING FOR COMPULSORY SUBJECTS (AS A PERCENTAGE) WITH RESPECT TO THE ENTIRE PERIOD OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1) CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE, 2000/01



Additional notes

Belgium (B fr, B de): Only the breakdown of taught time in public-sector schools is indicated.

Germany: In eight *Länder*, foreign languages are a part of the curriculum either as a compulsory subject, or within a flexible timetable. In a few *Länder*, all or some of the teaching time is flexible, especially during the first two years.

Spain: In the Autonomous Communities with two official languages (the language of the Community concerned and Spanish), the flexible portion of the timetable is 45 %, which provides a means of increasing the number of hours allocated to the second official language.

Ireland: According to the Irish Constitution, Irish is the first official language of Ireland, but is the mother tongue of a very small percentage of the population. English is the mother tongue and language of daily use of the vast majority of the population. In this figure, both languages have been considered as mother tongues: in Primary, 55 % of time is devoted to Irish and 45 % to English.

Austria: During the first two years of primary education, foreign languages are taught together with other subjects in accordance with an integrated approach.

Portugal: The number of hours of sport depends on the availability of human resources and school infrastructure. Religious and moral education is optional; pupils can instead choose 'personal and social development'.

Finland: The time devoted to artistic subjects and sport (both in the same category) is an estimate. The information is based on the 1994 national core curriculum. The new allocation of teaching time, approved in December 2001, will be adopted gradually between 2002 and 2006.

Sweden: Schools are free to decide when to introduce a subject and how to distribute the teaching hours for each subject over the nine years of the *grundskola*, provided the pupils reach certain targets at the end of the fifth and ninth years. Time devoted to religious or ethical instruction is included under human sciences. The calculation is based on an even distribution across all subjects each year throughout the nine years of the *grundskola* (primary and secondary education).

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Schools are largely free to decide how much time to devote to each subject. The numbers presented are based on recommendations provided for some subjects in some years for English and mathematics. Length of period is not centrally determined. The total number of hours is based on the minimum recommended weekly hours of lesson time.

United Kingdom (SC): The curriculum in primary schools is determined by the Scottish Executive. Five broad curriculum areas are specified with time allocations, which are not compulsory but are contained in national guidelines to schools.

Norway: Free activities are included under the 'others' category.

Estonia: Pupils whose mother tongue is not Estonian receive more hours of foreign languages (Estonian is compulsory as a second foreign language) than indicated here, and have a less flexible timetable.

Cyprus: Technology is included under the 'artistic activities' heading.

Poland: During the first three years of primary education, subjects are taught in accordance with an integrated approach. The time devoted to this teaching is included under the 'flexible timetable' category.

Romania: Schools can add two hours a week for supplementary activities.

Explanatory note

Figure D5 shows the relationship, for the whole of primary education, between the time to be allocated to the various compulsory subjects and the total number of hours of teaching. The raw data used to prepare this diagram is available for each country and each year of primary education on the Eurydice website (www.eurydice.org). The calculation is based on national recommendations or the minimum number of hours nationally recommended, assuming pupils satisfactorily complete each year of their path through school. Black bullets indicate compulsory subjects in those countries in which the curriculum specifies the subjects that must be taught, but in which schools or teachers are free to decide how much time to allocate to each subject.

In the interests of clarity, some subjects have been grouped together. This is the case, for example, with human and natural sciences which include subjects such as 'school life and culture', environmental studies, history, geography, social and political instruction, and craft activities.

In some countries, teaching time is shared out among subjects or groups of subjects that are broader than those shown in Figure D5. To enable comparison, the amount of time involved in such cases is equally divided among these subjects/subject groups. This applies to artistic activities and sport in France and Scotland.

ICT is shown in the diagram if it is a subject in its own right offered separately from the core curriculum options and the flexible timetable. Where it is included as an integral part of other subjects, the time allocated to ICT is not specified. A white bullet point indicates cases of this kind in which it comes within the compulsory curriculum.

The 'compulsory curriculum options' category indicates that pupils have to choose one or more subjects from a group of subjects within the compulsory curriculum.

The 'flexible timetable' category indicates either that the time to be allocated to the various compulsory subjects has not been fixed or that, as a supplement to the time allocated to the various compulsory subjects, the curriculum provides for a certain number of teaching hours that pupils or the school can devote to subjects of their choice.

However, in some countries, the time to be devoted to these compulsory subjects is not included in the curriculum or official directives, which leave teachers or schools free to determine the time allocated to different subjects or when they should first be taught. This applies to Portugal in the first stage of *ensino básico*, as well as to the Netherlands and to the United Kingdom (England, except in mathematics and reading, and Wales). Schools are also free in this respect in Italy, except in the case of time designated for foreign language learning and moral or religious instruction. In Figure D5, compulsory subjects in these countries are indicated with a bullet point.



In the few countries in which a part of the timetable is structured on a flexible basis so that schools can increase provision in some subjects, in accordance with the needs of individual pupils, only a minimum amount of teaching time is specified and, as a result, it is relatively small. In Poland, such low percentages are attributable to the fact that there is an integral approach to the teaching of most subjects in the first three years of primary education.

Curricula in other European countries specify the time to be devoted to various subjects in primary education, and the relative amounts involved can thus be readily compared.

Not all school curricula in European countries distinguish between the amount of time to be devoted at primary level to the human and natural sciences, which is why these subjects have been bracketed together in Figure D5. Generally speaking, more time is allocated to teaching the mother tongue than to mathematics and the sciences. However, there are certain exceptions. In Malta, roughly the same amount of time is earmarked for the mother tongue and mathematics. In the French Community of Belgium, Spain and Slovenia, the number of hours set aside for mathematics and the sciences is almost the same.

However, major disparities are observable in the time allocated to the teaching of the mother tongue. While this corresponds to 30-40 % of school time in Greece, France, Austria, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania and Slovakia, it is equivalent to barely 4 % in Luxembourg. This very small percentage is attributable to the fact that Letzeburgesch, the mother tongue, is essentially a vernacular language. Teaching is thus mainly in French and German which are regarded as foreign languages in the curriculum.

In Greece, the time earmarked for the sciences is more than that devoted to mathematics. In Portugal, it is more than that devoted to mathematics and the mother tongue.

During primary education in almost all countries, the learning of foreign languages is compulsory but it often gets under way two or three years after education at this level has begun. The percentage of time devoted to foreign languages is generally less than 10 %. In the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Luxembourg, Sweden and Malta, at which foreign language teaching starts earlier, the time allocated to it is greater.

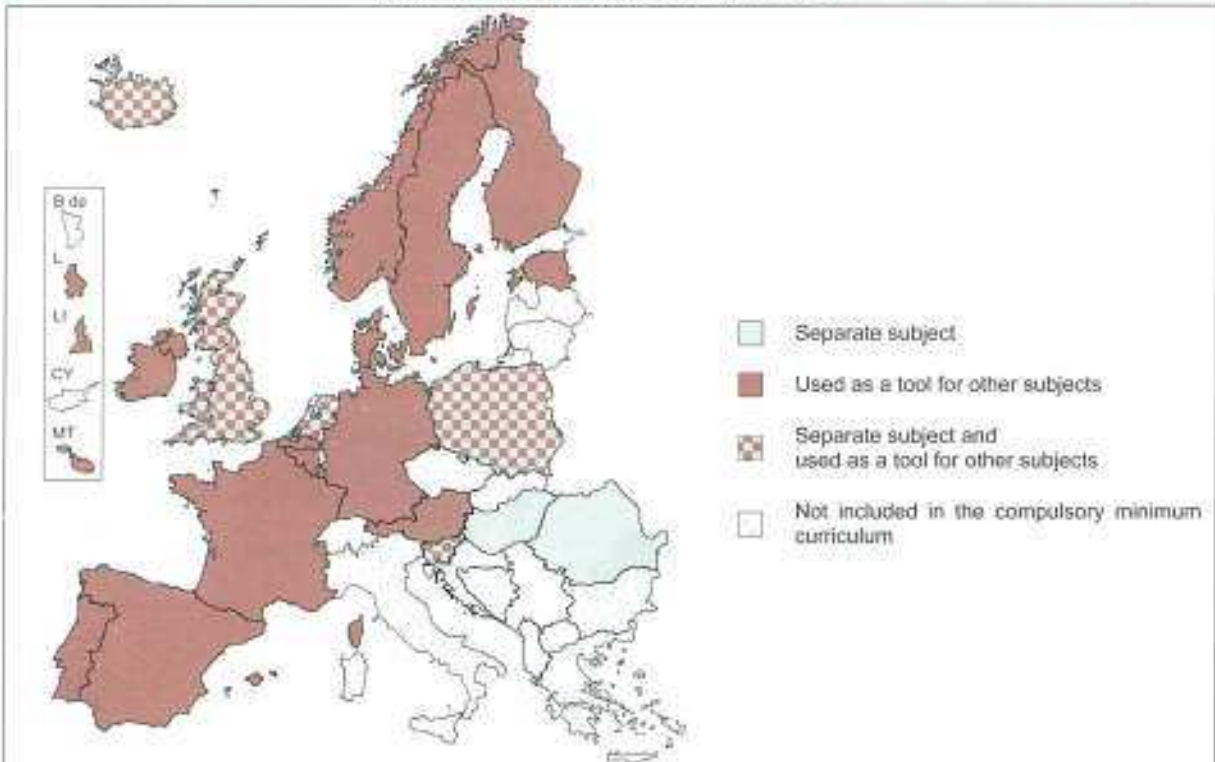
Some countries are noteworthy for the substantial time they set aside for artistic activities, namely the Nordic countries, Germany, Ireland, Austria, Liechtenstein and nearly all candidate countries (with the exception of Malta and Poland).

In most countries, curricula do not indicate the amount of time recommended for ICT which is generally used as a tool for work on other subjects, so it is not possible to estimate the number of hours of teaching allocated to it.

THE MOST COMMON APPROACH TO ICT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IS TO USE IT AS A TOOL

When ICT is included in the curriculum, two main approaches may be distinguished. It may be taught either as a separate subject in its own right, or used as a tool and/or, in some cases, for carrying out projects, interdisciplinary or otherwise. These latter two approaches are the most widespread in the EU countries that have brought it into the curriculum for primary education.

FIGURE D6: APPROACHES TO ICT DEFINED IN THE COMPULSORY MINIMUM CURRICULUM. PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes:

Greece: The Pedagogical Institute has encouraged the use of ICT in a pilot project involving 40 primary schools.

Spain: The curriculum merely issues recommendations on the use of ICT.

Netherlands: Since school year 1998/99, ICT is one of the horizontal skills targeted by the primary school curriculum.

United Kingdom (NI): ICT is a cross-curricular theme; ICT skills are to be developed across the curriculum.

Czech Republic: Basic minimum skills required are being drawn up for primary and lower secondary education.

Cyprus: ICT has been subject to experimentation since 1993 and is being introduced with effect from September 2002 as a tool for improving the teaching and learning process.

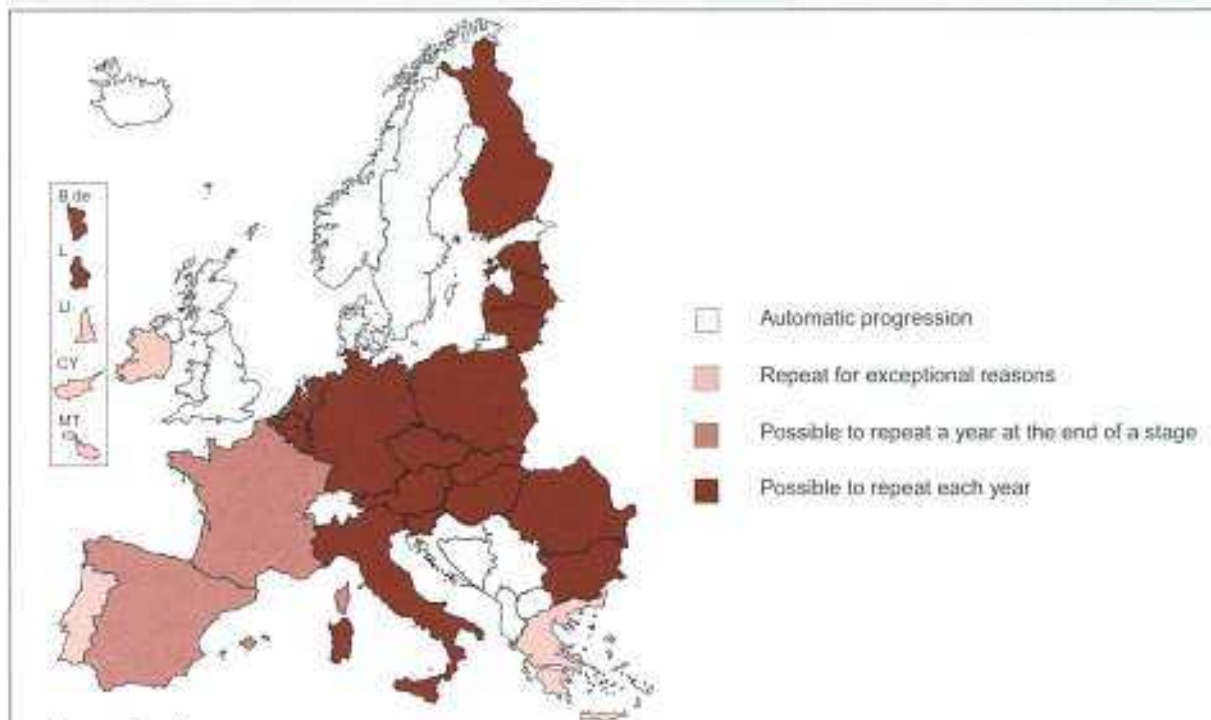
Poland: Since 1998, ICT has been a compulsory subject in the 4th, 5th and 6th years.

In addition to its use as a tool, ICT is a separate compulsory subject in some countries only, namely the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (with the exception of Northern Ireland), Iceland, Poland and Slovenia. In Hungary and Romania, it is included in the curriculum solely as a subject in its own right.

PROGRESSION TO THE NEXT YEAR: EITHER AUTOMATIC OR SUBJECT TO REPEATING THE YEAR

The management of pupils' learning difficulties varies from one country to another. In several countries, pupils who have not acquired an adequate mastery of the curriculum at the end of the year or do not have the required maturity are made to repeat the year. This decision is taken by the teacher or by the teaching team. In Europe, pupils in difficulty are very commonly able to redo their year, as is particularly the case in most of the candidate countries. In such instances, however, this possibility may not be offered to them indefinitely and/or cannot take place at the start of their schooling.

FIGURE D7: PROGRESSION TO THE NEXT YEAR DURING MAINSTREAM PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): Repeating a year is no longer possible during the first two years of primary education since September 2000. With effect from 2005, it will no longer be possible in the last four years.

Belgium (B de, B nl): Repeating a year is possible, but this is only allowed once or twice throughout the 6 years of primary school.

Denmark: Repeating a year is possible, if special reasons indicate that the child will benefit from such measures.

Germany and Austria: Pupils move automatically from the 1st to the 2nd year of the primary school. Subsequently, pupils can be made to repeat a year based on their results.

Spain: During primary education, pupils can only repeat a year once although this may occur at the end of any of the three cycles.

Portugal: Repeating is exceptional in the 1st stage. At the end of the 2nd stage, pupils can be made to repeat the year if they are considerably behind in three subjects including Portuguese and mathematics.

Bulgaria: It is possible to repeat a year, except in the 1st year of primary school where summer courses are organised for those in difficulty.

Estonia: The decision to make a pupil repeat the 1st or 2nd year is taken only for exceptional reasons (e.g. for medical reasons).

Cyprus: Pupils can only retake a year once during primary education.

Latvia: A year may only be repeated if this is authorised by the school board and parents agree with the decision.

Hungary: Pupils automatically move up from the 1st to 2nd year. After that, pupils may have to repeat a year if they do not achieve the required attainment level.

Malta: In the first three years of primary education, pupils have to move on to the next year as a matter of course.

Poland: During the first three years, pupils may only do their year again in exceptional cases and after the school has consulted with their parents and specialist staff at centres for psychological assistance.

Slovenia: In the curriculum for the new single structure, pupils in the last stage (aged 12-15) will be able to repeat each year, whereas those in the first two stages will only be able to do so with the agreement of their parents.

Explanatory note

The foregoing information does not take account of decisions arising from the assessment of children with special educational needs in mainstream classes.

Pupils only have to repeat a year under exceptional circumstances in Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Liechtenstein, Cyprus, Poland (during the first three years) and Malta (during the last three years of primary education). These exceptional reasons vary from country to country and consist of either a very long period of absence during the school year or a recommendation by a person (or team) outside the school (a psychologist, doctor, social worker, etc.). The decision is usually taken with the agreement of the head of the school and the pupil's parents.

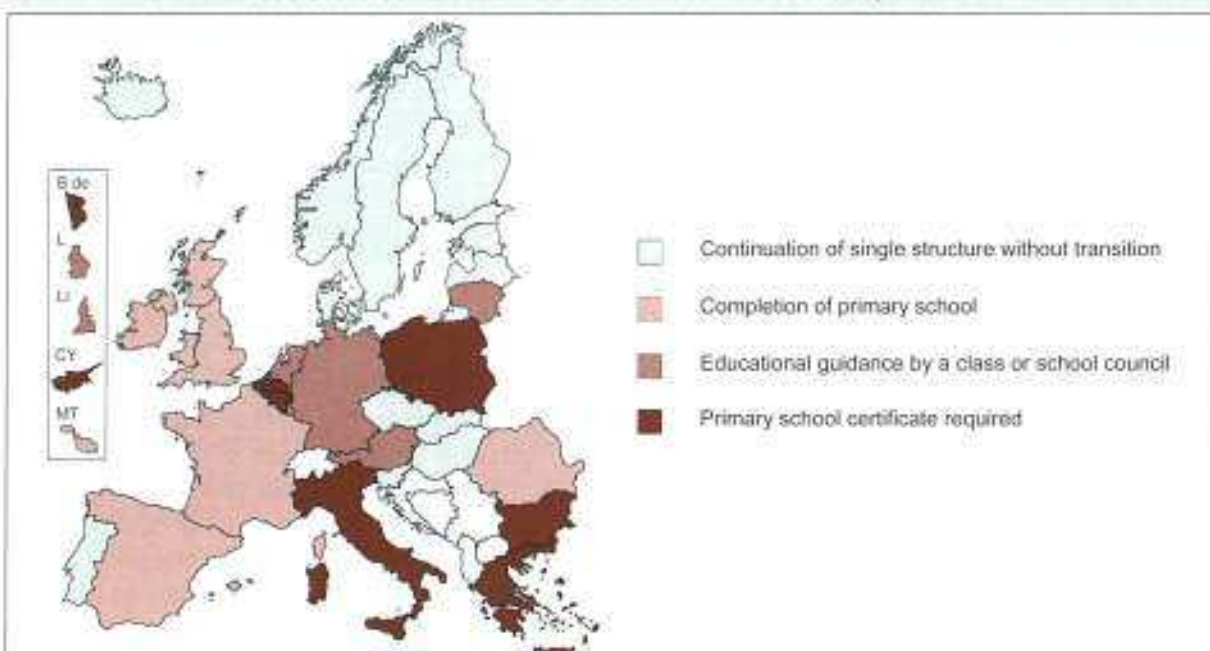
In Spain and France, the decision to keep a child in one stage of education, which in these countries lasts two and three years respectively, can only be taken on its completion (and, in Spain, just once).

Denmark, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway have opted for automatic progression from year to year throughout compulsory education and they provide other educational support measures for pupils in difficulty.

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION TO LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION

The organisation of compulsory education varies from country to country. In certain countries, pupils complete all or virtually all their compulsory education within a single structure. In other countries, there are two successive levels, primary education and secondary education. In most of these countries, at the start of secondary education there is a common core that offers all pupils a common basic course. In a number of countries, pupils are given the choice of several streams or types of school at the start of secondary level.

FIGURE D8: CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION TO LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), PUBLIC AND GOVERNMENT DEPENDENT PRIVATE SECTORS, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Pupils who have not obtained the primary school leaving certificate on completion of the sixth year of primary education and/or who are at least 12 years old are admitted to lower secondary level in a reception class in which the certificate may still be obtained.

United Kingdom (E/NI): Admission to *grammar schools* in depends on the results of an examination organised by individual schools themselves.

Malta: Admission to the *Junior lycées* depends on successfully passing a national examination.

Poland: Since 1999, following abolition of the single structure, the successful completion of primary school and possession of the primary school certificate have been required for admission to the *gimnazjum*.



In certain countries, pupils' results have a bearing on the arrangements for the transition between primary and secondary education. There are four main groups of countries.

In the first group of countries where compulsory education forms one single structure, admission to the final years of the educational stage is automatic without any transition. Thus in 12 countries (Denmark, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, Iceland, Norway, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia), pupils progress to the next year if they have fulfilled the requirements of the previous year. However, it should be noted that in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, when pupils choose to complete their compulsory education in a secondary school rather than within the single-structure system, they must take an examination set by the school.

To gain admission to lower secondary education in the second group of countries, pupils must have successfully completed the last year of primary school. This is the case in Spain, Ireland, Malta and Romania. In France and the United Kingdom, children are normally admitted to secondary level when they reach the appropriate age, although admission to *grammar schools* in England and Northern Ireland also depends on the results of an examination.

In the third group of countries, successful completion of primary school is not, in itself, enough. The transition between the two levels of education depends on the decision of a class council or school council. In all these countries, with the exception of Lithuania, lower secondary education is divided into different types of courses. Pupils who have completed primary school are therefore streamed towards different types of schools depending on their results at primary school. In Germany, the recommendation of the primary school forms the basis for deciding on the pupil's future school career or for guidance. In all cases, the recommendation involves in-depth consultation with the parents. Depending on the different *Länder*, the final decision is taken by the parents, by the future school or by the school supervisory authority. In Luxembourg, a guidance recommendation is issued at the end of the sixth year primary school. If the parents decide not to accept the recommendation, the pupil must take a national entrance examination to be admitted to general secondary education. In the Netherlands, the primary school leaving report depends partly on the assessment of the pupil which, in most cases, involves tests organised at central level during the final year of *basisonderwijs*. In Austria, to be accepted for the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schule*, the pupil must have successfully completed the fourth year of primary school and must have obtained the grade 'Excellent' or 'Good' in German and mathematics. Pupils who are not automatically admitted to the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schule* can always take an entrance examination set by the school.

Finally, in a number of countries where primary education is separate from secondary education, the decision to move pupils up to the next level depends on whether or not they have a primary school leaving certificate. The certificate is awarded on the basis of work during the school year (Greece, Bulgaria, Cyprus and Poland) or following an examination organised by the school (Italy). In Belgium, the primary school leaving certificate may generally be obtained on completion of the sixth year of primary education on the basis of attainment at school and work in the final two years. In virtually all these countries, the certificate is issued by the individual school, and there is no external control.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL PATHWAYS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES: FROM A COMMON CURRICULUM TO SPECIALISED BRANCHES

Most European countries have 'integrated' structures in lower secondary education, with all pupils following a common curriculum of general education. Only a few countries have different types of courses at lower secondary level. In upper secondary education, a variety of courses are provided in all countries. Leaving aside name differences, we can distinguish two major categories: general education leading to the possibility of entry to tertiary education, and vocational education, providing qualifications both in preparation for working life and for pursuing further studies.

In the five Nordic countries, Portugal and half the candidate countries, there is no separate lower secondary education. Compulsory education is organised in one single, continuous structure over nine or ten years. In the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, two types of structure coexist in compulsory secondary education. Pupils may either extend their basic education until the age of 14 (Hungary) or 15 (Czech Republic and Slovakia) within a single structure, or opt for transfer to secondary education a few years earlier. In the latter case, they complete the whole of secondary education in a single school.

Among countries in which secondary education is separate from primary education, two types of situation may occur as regards a change of school during secondary education. In some countries (Greece, France, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Malta, Poland and Romania), the two levels of secondary education are provided in different schools. This is also the trend followed by reforms in Lithuania, even though in 2000/01 the same school still very often covered both levels. At upper secondary level, in these countries, a range of types of course is available to pupils, who choose their school according to the kind of course they wish to take. In Belgium, Spain, Ireland, the United Kingdom and Bulgaria, pupils can complete their full secondary education in the same school, although a change of school may be necessary at the end of lower secondary or compulsory education for pupils wishing to enter vocational education or gain access to an institution offering the desired courses or options. However, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), there is no separate phase of lower secondary education. Compulsory secondary education is provided within a single continuous structure over five years.

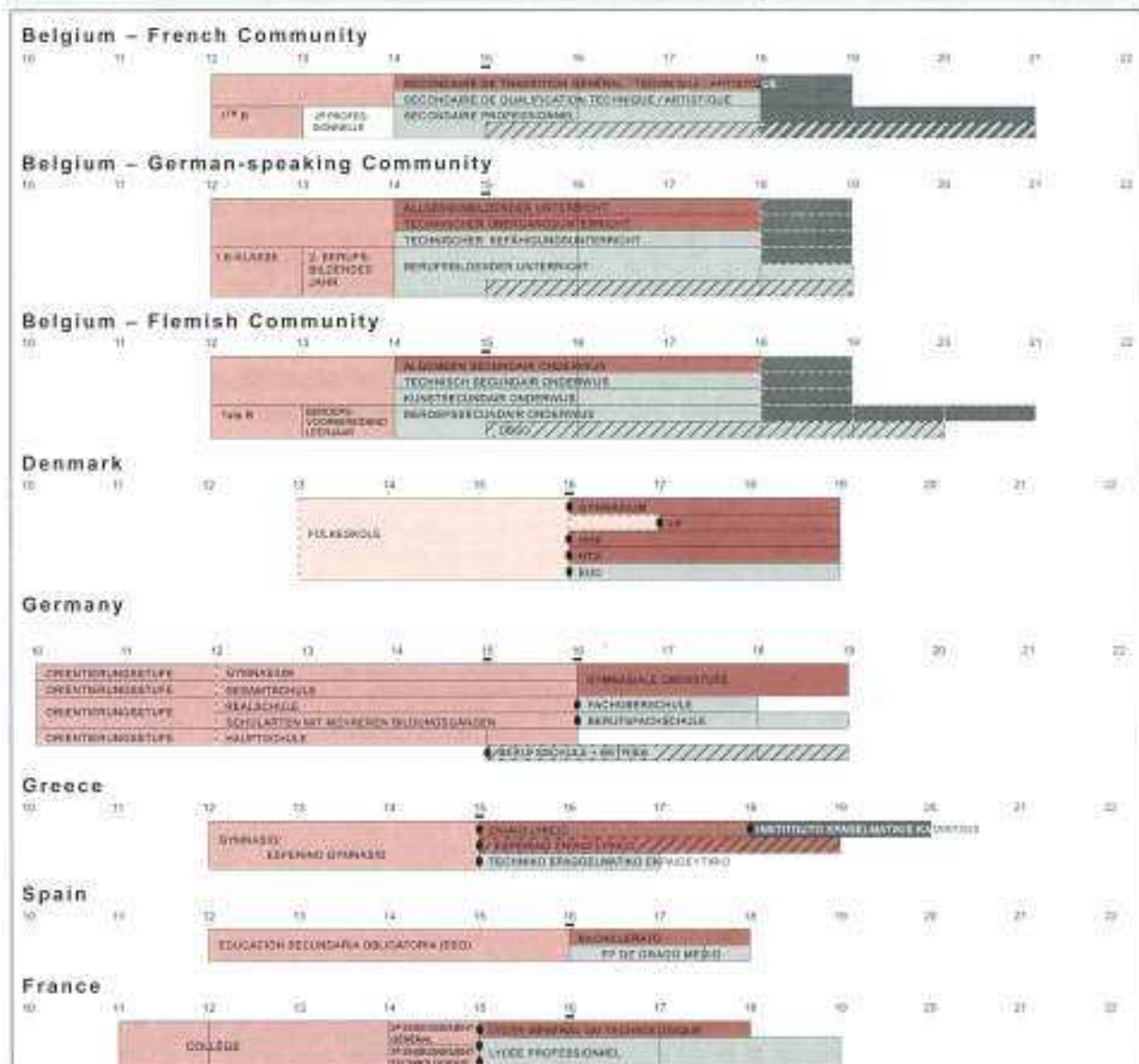
All these countries aim to give all pupils a common educational foundation in the first years of secondary education, which in some countries may include study options. Lower secondary education (ISCED 2) is thus said to be 'integrated'. This common curriculum lasts until the end of full-time compulsory education, except in Belgium in which it is followed after two years by a choice of course options, and in France in which technical courses may be taken in the final year of the lower secondary *collège*.

In lower secondary education in Germany, the Netherlands, Austria and Malta, all pupils receive a general education which may be at different academic levels depending on the type of school attended. These different forms of provision do not lead to equivalent qualifications. Some types of school offer solely the curriculum for lower secondary education, while others cover both lower and upper secondary levels. Luxembourg has two distinct types of education – general and technical – from the start of secondary education.

In Liechtenstein, pupils are selected for separate branches of education at the end of primary education. At upper secondary level, only general education is provided within Liechtenstein. Vocational courses alternate between school and workplace – students participate in practical in-company training in Liechtenstein and attend theory courses in a neighbouring country.

Figure E1 shows the structure of secondary education by country. Different branches of education, their duration and their position in this level of education are indicated.

FIGURE E1: THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice

Additional notes

Germany: The first two years of lower secondary education can be provided in separate organisational units independent of the standard school types. Compulsory education normally comprises nine years of full-time education (10 years in five Länder). Most *Gesamtschulen* offer years 5-10; others offer years 5-13, thereby including the *Gymnasiale Oberstufe* (years 11-13).

Greece: The technical vocational schools (TEE) that replaced the former TES, were established during the 1998/99 school year. The *esperino eniaio lykeio* provides essentially for adults (18-25).

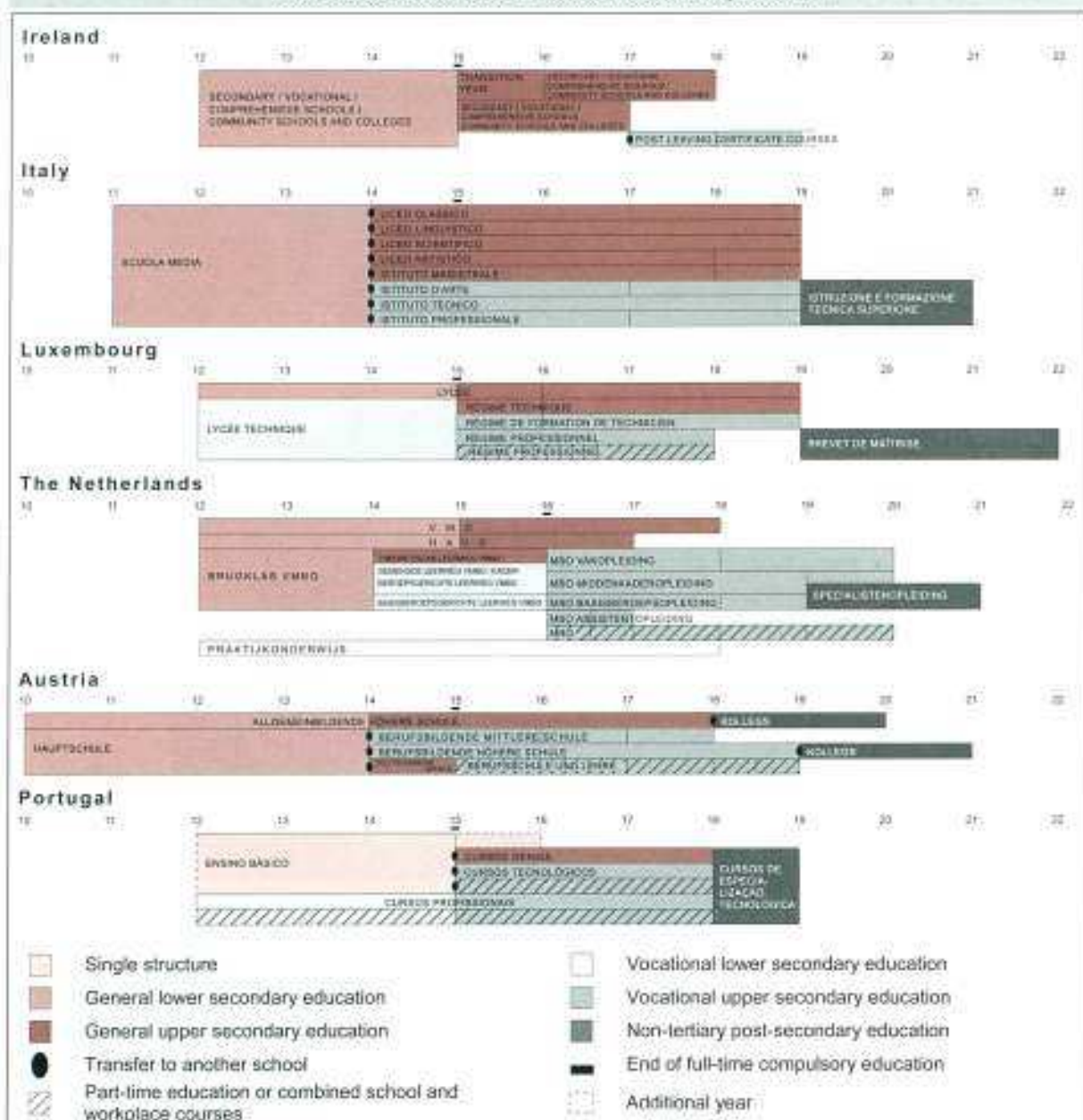
Spain: Only the post-reform (LOGSE) structure is shown. However, some courses within the structure prior to the reform were still being offered in 2000/01.

Explanatory note

Artistic and musical training offered at secondary level in the colleges of art or music are not shown.

According to the ISCED classification, the first two years of secondary education in Belgium coincide with ISCED level 2 (lower secondary education). In countries whose secondary education is provided within a single continuous structure, see Figure B1 for the number of years corresponding to ISCED 2.

FIGURE E1 (CONTINUED): THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

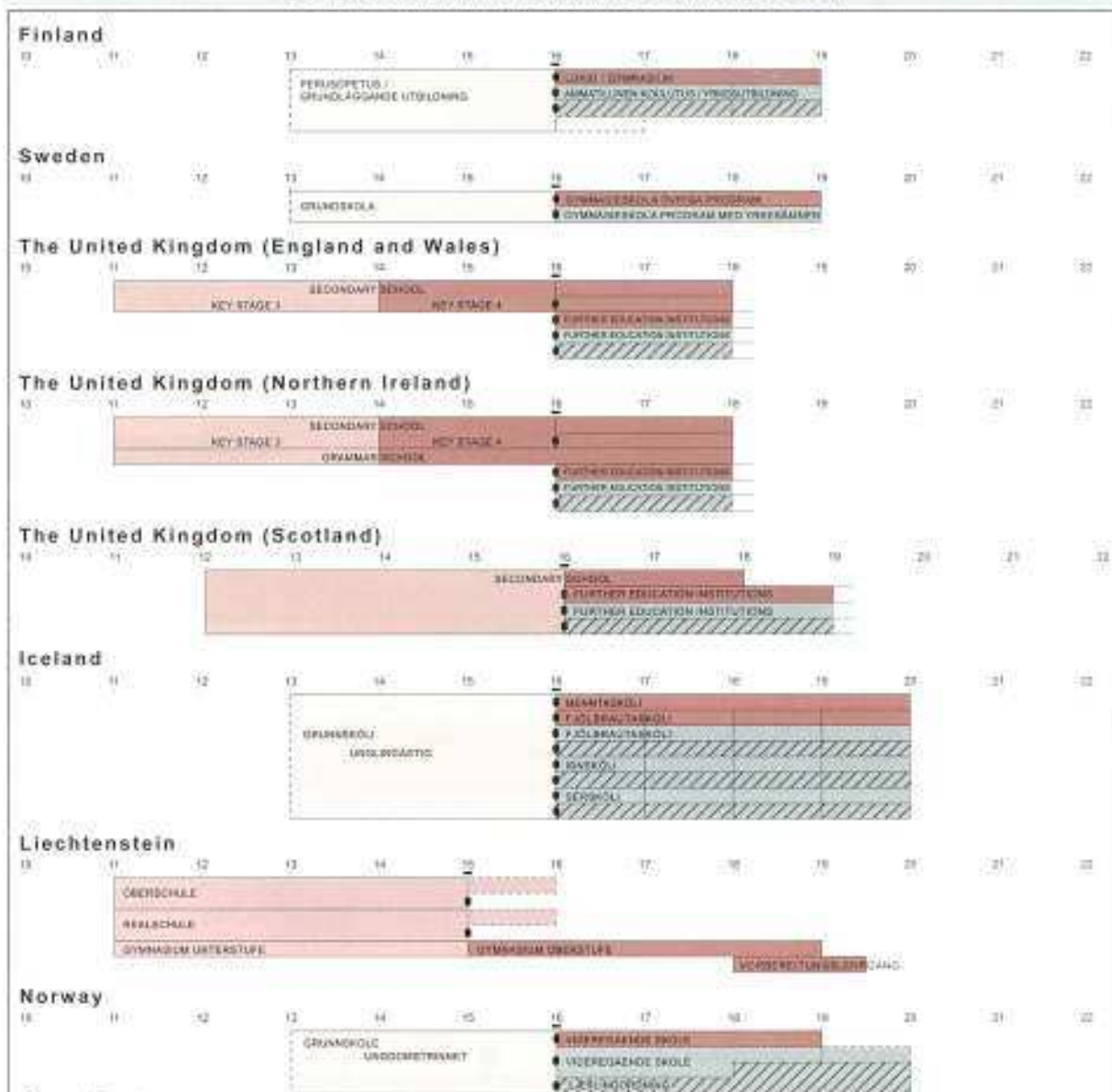
Additional notes

Italy: Compulsory schooling has been extended by a year (up to the age of 15) since the 1999/2000 school year. The *istituto magistrale* is being phased out, and the final enrolments occurred at the start of the 1997/98 school year.

Netherlands: Since 1 August 1997, the various courses of vocational education have been organised on a modular basis. They can therefore be followed either full-time or part-time. This system replaces the former MBO schools and apprenticeships. Since the 1999/2000 school year, the VMBO school has gradually replaced the former MAVO and VBO schools.

Portugal: Admission to the *cursos profissionais* is possible from the age of 12 solely for pupils receiving special education, or from the ages of 13 or 14 in the case of pupils with major difficulties in *ensino básico*. Evening classes equivalent to the third level of *ensino básico* and upper secondary education (CSPOPE and CT) are gradually being replaced by recurrent courses in accordance with a system of transferable course credit units.

FIGURE E1 (CONTINUED): THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Sources: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Finland: Since August 2001, three years of study have been required to secure one of the corresponding vocational qualifications.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): In some areas, the education system is divided into three levels: *first schools*, *middle schools* and *high schools*. In these areas, pupils move from *first school* to *middle school* at the age of 8 or 9 and from *middle school* to *secondary school* at the age of 12 or 13. Some areas of England also have *grammar schools*. *Further education institutions* offer mainly general or vocational post-compulsory education, but may also cater for students from the age of 14. There is wide variation in the nature, duration and content of courses.

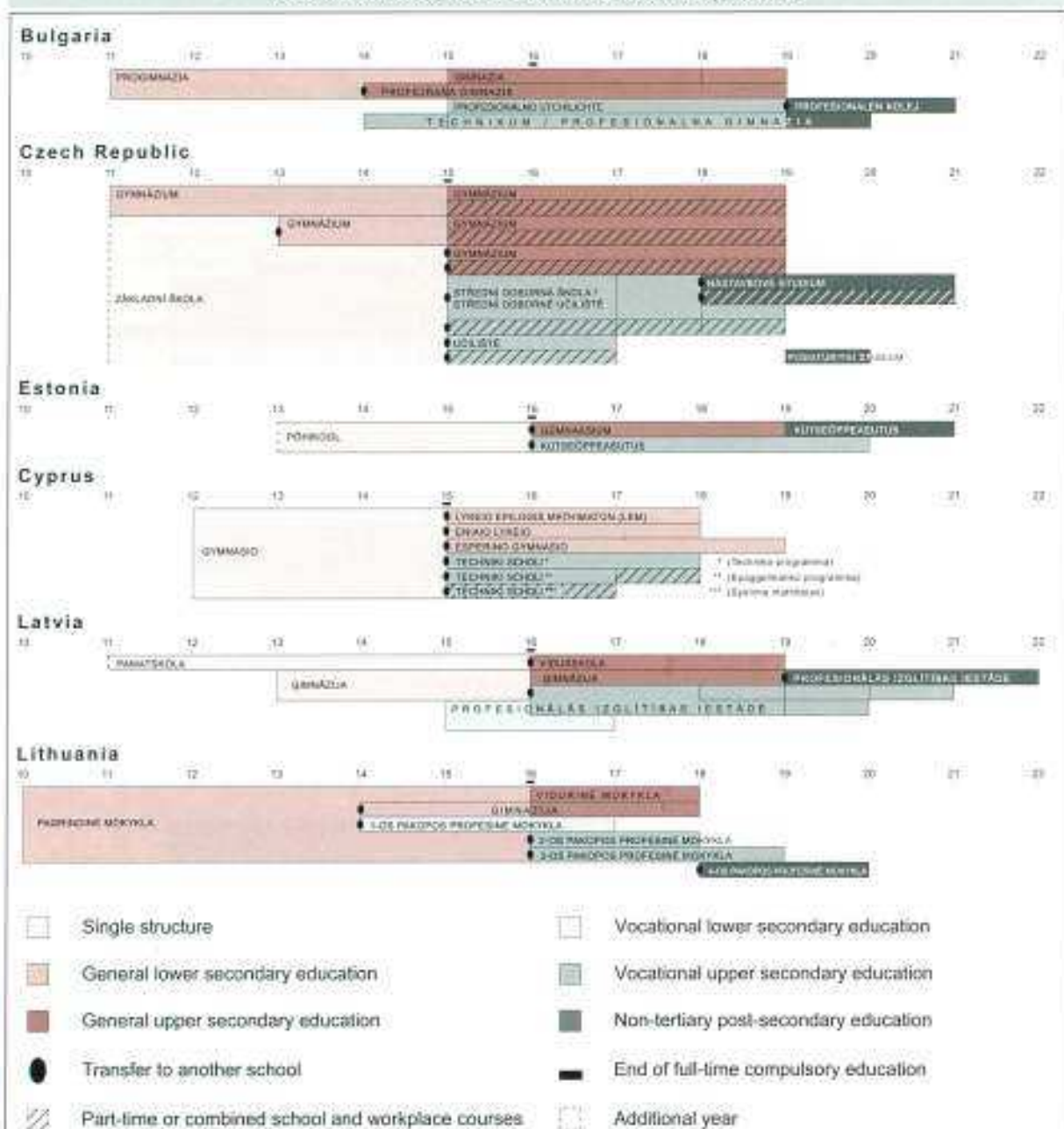
Liechtenstein: Since the 2001/02 school year, the period of schooling at the *Gymnasium* (*gymnasiale Unterstufe*) has been reduced by a year in lower secondary education. Pupils who have completed the eighth year the *Gymnasium* then have to do at least the first year of the *gymnasiale Oberstufe* or the final year of *Realschule* in order to have completed compulsory education. Finally, the *Vorbereitungslehrgang* has been renamed *Berufsmittelschule* with a new curriculum and structure and courses lasting two years (instead of one-and-a-half).

Explanatory note

Artistic and musical training offered at secondary level in the colleges of art or music are not shown.

In relation to ISCED, the first three years of secondary education in the United Kingdom (E/W/Nl) are classified as lower secondary education (ISCED level 2). In countries whose secondary education is provided within a single continuous structure, see Figure B1 for the number of years corresponding to ISCED 2.

FIGURE E1 (CONTINUED): THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

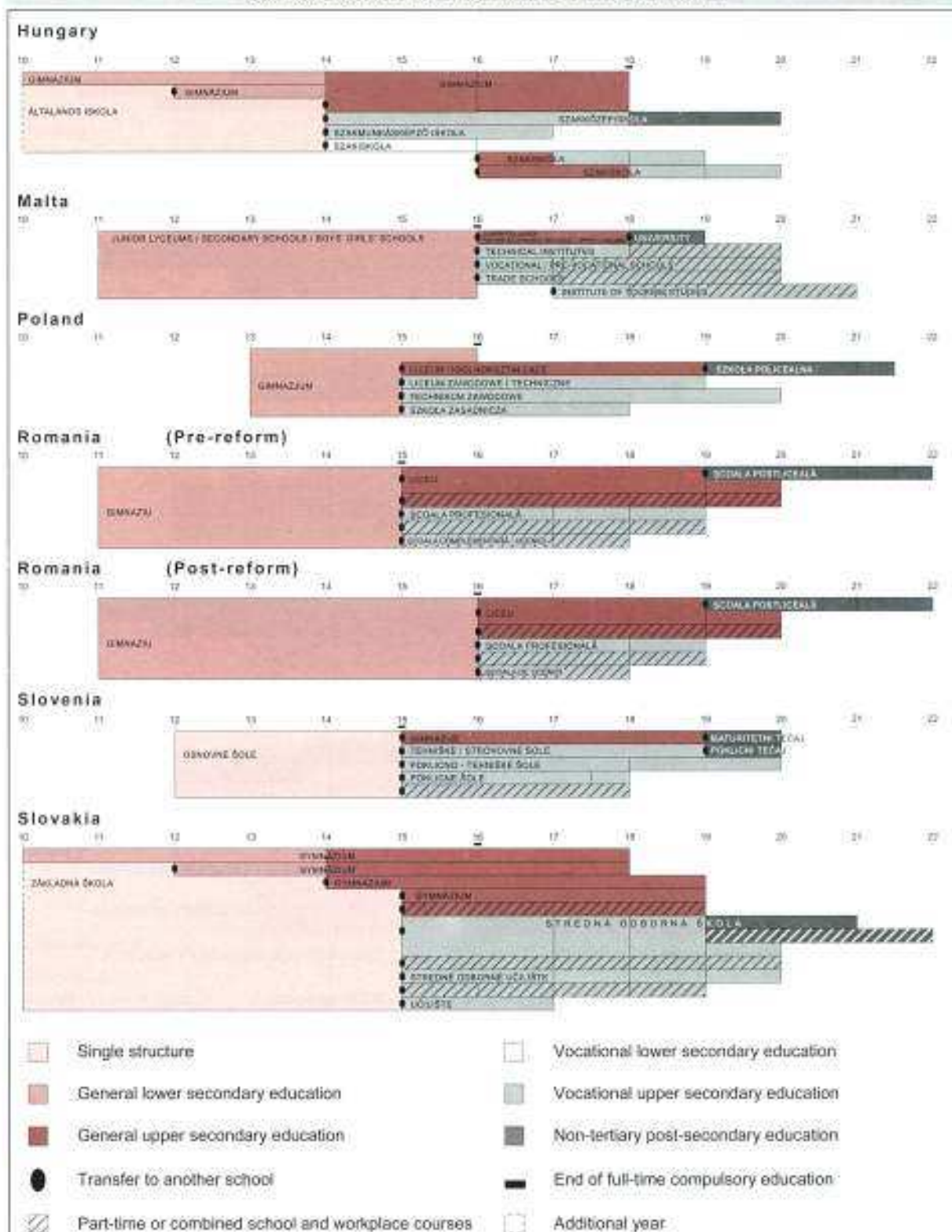
Additional notes

Bulgaria: According to the latest amendments to the National Education Act (1998), the duration of total school attendance has been increased by one year (making it 12 years). There will be no change in the duration of compulsory education.

Cyprus: The *Eniaio Lykeio* is a secondary school that combines general and vocational education.

Latvia: Since a law passed in July 1999, pupils aged 13 may either remain in the *pamatskola*, or complete the last three years of compulsory education in *ģimnāzija* offering the same courses. At this level of education, the *ģimnāzija* is regarded as part of the single structure since there is no law formally defining lower secondary education. In upper secondary education, *ģimnāzija* offer the same courses as the *vidusskola*. *Profesionālais izglītības iestāde* is a generic term for all vocational education institutions at different levels.

FIGURE E1 (CONTINUED): THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Hungary. Following the extension of general education until the age of 18, vocational education is now being restructured. The former *szakiskolák* (offering vocational lower secondary education) and *szakmunkásképző iskolák* are being abolished and gradually replaced by a new type of *szakiskolák* (which, from the age of 16 onwards, offers one- or two-year general education followed by one- or two-year vocational education).

Additional notes (continued)

Malta: The Trade schools that offered two-year training in technology to young people aged between 14 and 16 are gradually being abolished. All vocational training courses are now becoming the responsibility of a single institution for vocational upper secondary education called the *Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology (MCAST)* which enrolled its first students in 2001/02. Enrolment on some courses offered by the *Institutes of tourism studies* is possible from the age of 16 and 18 (for a period of 1-4 years)

Poland: During the 2000/01 school year, pupils attended the first two years of the *gymnasium* (new system) and the upper secondary schools of the former system. The third year of the *gymnasium* was still not provided.

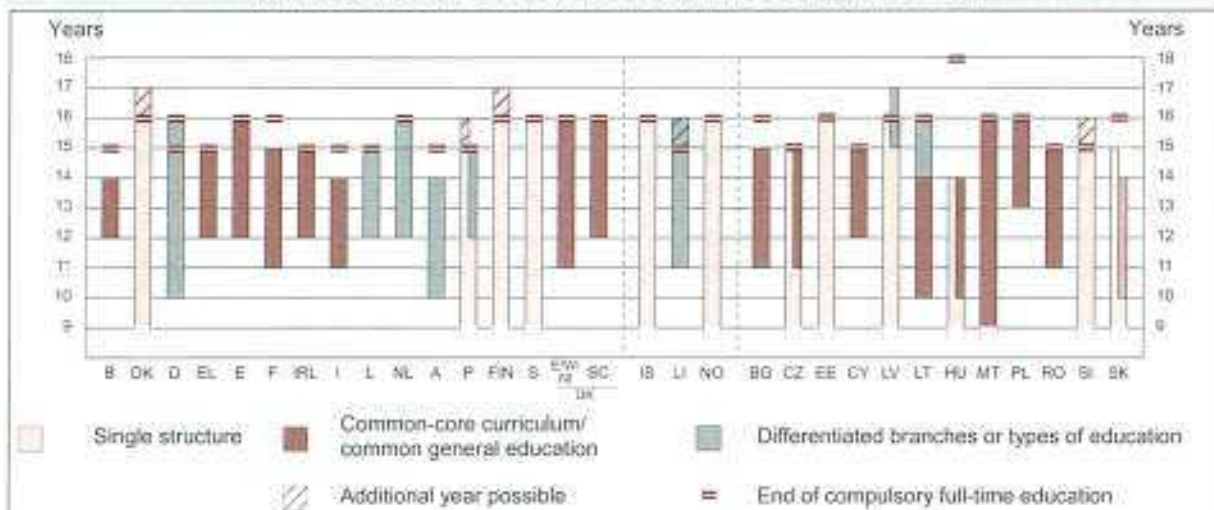
Romania: In the 2000/01 school year, two structures existed side by side in secondary education. With effect from the 2002/03 school year, only the nine-year structure exists.

Slovenia: The diagram shows the situation after the reform (which gradually came into effect from 1999/2000 onwards). As regards the situation prior to the reform (which will apply to some schools up to 2008/09), the ISCED 2 allocation in the single structure began at the point at which pupils were aged 11. Enrolment on courses on a part-time basis is possible at all levels of education. ISCED level 4 curricula are offered by schools providing upper secondary education and are classified at this level solely for the purpose of international statistics.

ORGANISATION OF THE FINAL YEARS OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION VARIES FROM COUNTRY TO COUNTRY

Three different models of organisation can be distinguished for the end of compulsory full-time education, depending on whether the countries have a single structure, distinct types of education or compulsory integrated secondary education, corresponding to a 'common core'.

FIGURE E2: AGE OF PUPILS AT THE END OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION, AND THE STRUCTURE OF LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: The end of compulsory full-time education is extended to the age of 16 for pupils who have not completed the first stage. In the French Community, admission to a vocational stream is possible from the age of 13.

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

Italy: the minimum school leaving age was raised by one year, to the age of 15, with effect from 1999/2000.

Netherlands: Depending on the school the pupil attends, lower secondary education ends at the age of 15 (VWO, HAVO) or 16 (MAVO, VBO and, since 2000/01, VMBO).

United Kingdom (E/W/NL): There is no separate phase of lower secondary education. Compulsory secondary education is organised in a single continuous structure over five years.

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

Estonia and Latvia: Compulsory education continues until pupils have completed basic education (at the age of 16) or reached the age of 17 or 18, respectively.

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

Hungary: Compulsory education has been extended to the age of 18 for pupils who reached the age of 5 after 1998/99.

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

Explanatory note

According to the ISCED, the first two years of secondary education in Belgium and the first three years of secondary education in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) correspond to ISCED level 2 (lower secondary education).

In countries whose secondary education is provided within a single continuous structure, see Figure B1 for the number of years corresponding to ISCED 2.



In countries with just a single structure, the end of single-structure education coincides with the end of compulsory education, except in Hungary. In the French Community of Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Liechtenstein, Latvia, Lithuania, and Slovakia, pupils may select or be streamed into different types of provision or school before the end of lower secondary education. In Germany, even though pupils attend different schools, they follow harmonised curricula for the first two years in order to delay the decision as to which course option to take. In the Netherlands, usually during the first three years, pupils follow a common core curriculum whose level varies depending on the type of school, but minimum skills have been specified for all pupils. The three types of lower secondary school in Liechtenstein offer the same basic common curriculum, which is supplemented by certain kinds of provision in the *Realschule* or *Gymnasium*.

There is a final group of countries where during the first years of secondary school all pupils learn the same general set of subjects (referred to as the 'common core'). In some of these countries, the end of lower secondary education coincides with the end of full-time compulsory education. In Belgium, France, Italy, Austria, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia, the end of full-time compulsory education does not correspond to the end of lower secondary education; the one or more final years of compulsory education are part of upper secondary education. Apart from the United Kingdom in which the common core lasts until the end of compulsory education, pupils thus choose between general and technical or vocational education one or two years (four years in Hungary) before the end of full-time compulsory education.

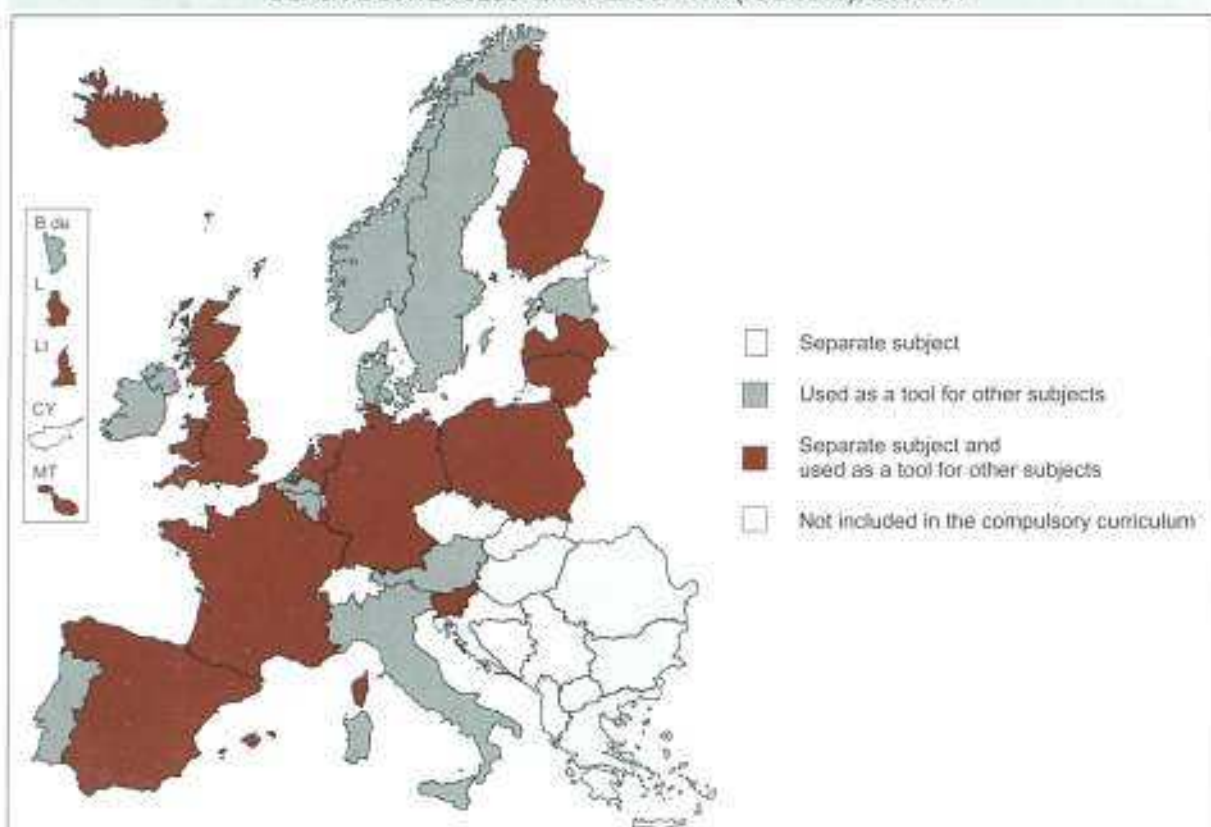
CURRICULA IN SEVERAL COUNTRIES SPECIFY THE NUMBER OF HOURS TO BE DEVOTED TO ICT AS A SEPARATE SUBJECT

In lower secondary education, the majority of countries offer ICT in their minimum curriculum as a separate subject in its own right and use it as a tool to teach other subjects. ICT is offered solely as a separate subject in its own right in Greece and many candidate countries.

At this level of education, there are just a few countries in which ICT is used solely as a 'tool to teach other subjects'. They are Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Austria, Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), Norway and Estonia.

Comparisons may be established where ICT is included as a separate subject in the minimum curriculum for lower secondary education and there are official recommendations regarding the time to be devoted to it. Several factors have a bearing on the time devoted to ICT as a separate subject, including the duration of lower secondary education, the number of years during which ICT is offered as a separate subject, and the number of class periods recommended for instruction in it. Because these factors vary from one country to the next, the time to be devoted to ICT as a separate subject has been calculated with respect to a 'notional' year in lower secondary education. This average annual period varies enormously; in France and the Netherlands, it comes to over 55 hours, whereas in Luxembourg, Liechtenstein, Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary, it is 15 hours or less. It should be noted that Lithuania is an exception among these latter countries in that its lower secondary education lasts six years.

FIGURE E3: APPROACHES TO ICT DEFINED IN THE COMPULSORY CURRICULUM,
GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice

Additional notes

Finland: The curricula are prepared at local level on the basis of national guidelines. Schools can decide to include ICT in their curriculum as an elective subject.

Czech Republic and Slovakia: ICT is offered as an optional subject. Provision of the corresponding courses is at the discretion of the school head. It is only compulsory in the third and fourth years of the *gymnázium* in the Czech Republic and in the first year of the *gymnázium* in Slovakia.

Estonia: Schools are free to decide whether ICT is used as a tool for other subjects or taught as a separate subject in its own right.

Cyprus: ICT is included in the curriculum with effect from the 2001/02 school year, but was nevertheless used as a tool for other subjects, such as graphic design technology and home economics, in 2000/01.

THE SCALE OF PROVISION IN FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION VARIES FROM ONE COUNTRY TO THE NEXT

The scale of educational provision at school varies very widely depending on the country concerned. The number of hours of teaching received by pupils depends on their age or, more precisely, the year of schooling they have reached, the particular day in the week and, sometimes, within a given country, the school they attend. In order to compare the total number of hours of teaching received by a pupil during full-time compulsory education, an indicator has been devised to take account of these different variables.

The maximum amount of time earmarked for teaching pupils during their period of compulsory school attendance is close to twice the minimum amount: it varies from around 5 000 hours in Latvia and Romania to almost 11 000 hours in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland). The variations observed are partially but not wholly attributable to the length of full-time compulsory education. Even though pupils in the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) and Hungary attend full-time education for 12 years, it is not they who receive the most instruction. However, where the time devoted to teaching is calculated with respect to a notional year, as shown in Figure E4, the variations between countries are substantially reduced.

FIGURE E4: MINIMUM NUMBER OF HOURS OF TAUGHT TIME IN A NOTIONAL YEAR DURING FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 2000/01


Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: The diagram shows the situation in full-time compulsory education lasting either nine years or ten years (in the Länder of Berlin, Brandenburg, Bremen, North Rhine-Westphalia and Saxony-Anhalt).

Luxembourg: The first two years of compulsory education correspond to pre-primary provision and are not taken into account here (as there is no compulsory minimum curriculum for these two years).

Netherlands: The diagram shows the number of hours of taught time for individual pupils completing full-time compulsory education in a HAVO school. The average amounts of taught time in a notional year corresponding to completion of schooling in a VWO or VMBO school are 1 072 and 1 065 hours respectively.

Austria: The diagram shows the situation as it applies, first, to a pupil who after the *Grundschule* attends the *Hauptschule* and the *Polytechnische Schule* and, secondly, to one who after the *Grundschule* attends the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schule* (AHS).

Finland: The total number of hours is based on the minimum recommended number of weekly hours of lesson time.

United Kingdom (EW): Length of period is not centrally determined. The total number of hours is based on the minimum recommended weekly hours of lesson time. Figures do not include education for 4- and 5-year-olds in reception classes.

United Kingdom (NI): Length of period is not centrally determined. The total number of hours is based on the minimum daily hours of attendance.

Czech Republic: The diagram shows the situation as it applies, first, to individual pupils educated *společně* at the *základní škola* (the *základní škola* curriculum) and, secondly, to those who after completing five years at the *základní škola* attend the *gymnázium*.

Latvia: During the last eight years of compulsory education, class periods may last 45 minutes (instead of 40). The average taught time is thus 689 hours.

Hungary: The first year of compulsory education corresponds to the final year of pre-primary education. It is not considered here as its curriculum is determined by the particular administrative body concerned.

Malta: The diagram shows the situation as it applies to a pupil who after completing primary education attends a secondary school, as well as to one who attends a *Junior Lyceum*.

Romania: Schools can add two hours a week in primary education and between two and four hours a week in lower secondary education for supplementary activities. This data refers to the situation prior to the reform that came into effect in 1999/2000 and extends the period of compulsory education by one year. Post-reform data is not available.

Slovenia: The diagram includes the 15 days devoted annually to special (scientific, sports, artistic and technological) activity.

Explanatory note

The taught time shown in the diagram corresponds not to the workload of teachers but that of pupils assuming they satisfactorily complete each year of their path through school. It is based on national recommendations or the minimum number of hours nationally recommended. In the case of countries in which full-time compulsory education includes one or several years of upper secondary education provided within different branches, the calculation is based on the number of hours applicable to the academic branch for the one or more years concerned.

For each year of full-time compulsory education, the amount of teaching concerned is calculated by taking the average daily amount multiplied by the number of days of schooling a year. The calculation does not take into account (recreational or other) breaks of any kind, or the time earmarked for optional lessons. The annual amounts so obtained are then aggregated to give a total amount of taught time which is divided by the number of years comprising compulsory education in order to calculate the amount corresponding to a notional year. The raw data used to prepare this diagram is available for each country and each year of primary education on the Eurydice website (www.eurydice.org).

COUNTRIES DEVOTE A SIMILAR AMOUNT OF TIME TO TEACHING MATHEMATICS IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE

When curricula indicate the breakdown in hours of the fixed or minimum time earmarked for compulsory subjects, the relative amount of time devoted to them becomes readily comparable. Figure E5 shows the proportional amount of minimum time allocated to each of them in full-time compulsory education considered as a whole. This data therefore includes the taught time for primary education.

FIGURE E5: RECOMMENDED MINIMUM PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN OF TAUGHT TIME FOR EACH COMPULSORY SUBJECT WITH RESPECT TO THE ENTIRE PERIOD OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE, 2000/01



● A compulsory subject for which schools are free to decide how many hours should be allocated, irrespective of the year concerned

○ ICT is compulsory as an integral part of other subjects

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr, B de): Only the breakdown of taught time in public-sector schools is indicated.

Germany: Whether pupils complete their full-time compulsory education in a *Hauptschule*, *Realschule* or *Gymnasium*, the time earmarked for individual subjects is roughly the same. The diagram thus gives the breakdown entailed for full-time compulsory education lasting either nine years or ten years (in the Länder of Berlin, Brandenburg, Bremen, North Rhine-Westphalia and Saxony-Anhalt).

France: The taught time for core curriculum options in the final year of compulsory education depends on the two specific option courses chosen by pupils (between five and ten hours in principle). The commonest situation (five-and-a-half hours) is shown here.

Ireland: According to the Constitution, Irish is the first official language of Ireland, but is the mother tongue of a very small percentage of the population. English is the mother tongue and language of daily use of the vast majority of the population. In this figure, both languages have been considered as mother tongues. In primary education, 55 % of time is devoted to Irish and 45 % to English.



Additional notes [continued]

Italy: Schools may reduce or increase the time allocated to certain subjects (or introduce new subjects) within a limit corresponding to 15 % of the official curriculum shown here (total taught time must however remain the same). The ICT category includes taught time for (non-ICT) technological education.

Luxembourg: The first two years of compulsory education correspond to pre-primary provision and are not taken into account here (as there is no compulsory minimum curriculum for these two years).

Netherlands: The diagram shows the situation as it applies, first, to a pupil who attends a HAVO school; secondly, to a pupil who attends a VWO school and, finally, to a pupil who attends a VMBO school.

Austria: The diagram shows the situation as it applies, first, to a pupil who after the *Grundschule* attends the *Hauptschule* and *Polytechnische Schule* and, secondly, to one who after the *Grundschule* attends the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schule* (AHS).

Sweden: Pupils may use 600 hours for their own optional subjects. These hours are taken from the taught time allocated to compulsory subjects within a limit of 20 % of the taught time earmarked for each subject.

United Kingdom (E/W/N): Schools are largely free to decide how much time to devote to each subject. The numbers presented are based on recommendations provided for some subjects in some years. Length of period is not centrally determined. The total number of hours is based on the minimum recommended weekly hours of lesson time.

Liechtenstein: In the case of secondary education, only the situation in the *Realschule* and *Gymnasium* is shown.

Czech Republic: The diagram indicates the situation as it applies, first, to individual pupils educated solely at the *základní škola* (the *základní škola* curriculum) and, secondly, to those who after completing five years at the *základní škola* attend the *gymnázium*.

Estonia: Schools may allocate a certain number of hours (13 % of taught time) to particular subjects provided this is consistent with their own curriculum.

Hungary: The first year of compulsory education corresponds to the final year of pre-primary education. It is not considered here as its curriculum is determined by the particular school administrative body concerned.

Malta: The diagram shows the situation as it applies to a pupil who after completing primary education attends a secondary school, as well as to one who attends a *Junior Lyceum*.

Romania: Schools can add two hours a week in primary education and between two and four hours a week in lower secondary education for supplementary activities. This data refers to the situation prior to the reform that came into effect in 1999/2000 and extends the period of compulsory education by one year. Post-reform data is not available.

Slovenia: The diagram includes the 15 days devoted annually to special (scientific, sports, artistic and technological) activity.

Explanatory note

Figure E5 gives the relation between the time allocated to each of the various compulsory subjects and the total amount of taught time, for the whole of full-time compulsory education. The raw data used to prepare this diagram is available for each country and each year of primary education on the Eurydice website (www.eurydice.org). The data is based on national recommendations or the minimum number of hours nationally recommended, assuming pupils satisfactorily complete each year of their path through school. In the case of countries in which full-time compulsory education includes one or several years of upper secondary education provided within different branches, the calculation is based on the number of hours applicable to the scientific branch for the one or more years concerned.

Where curricula indicate solely the subjects that must be taught, without specifying the time to be allocated to them, schools are free to decide how many hours should be devoted to each. Where a minimum number of hours is specified for certain years, this number is taken into account; if it is not, these compulsory subjects are marked with small black circles in the diagram.

Subjects have been grouped as follows: the human sciences include history, geography, social and political affairs, civic education, health education; the natural sciences include biology, physics and chemistry; the artistic activities include elementary aesthetics, music, drawing, art, drama, craftsmanship, sewing/needlework and home economics; the 'other' category includes classics (Latin and Greek) and student counselling.

In some countries, the distribution of taught time applies to broader subjects/groups of subjects than those referred to in Figure E5. In such cases, the amount of time is allocated equally across these subjects/groups of subjects in order to facilitate comparison. This applies to the human and natural sciences in Germany (years 1-4), Spain (years 1-6), France (years 1-5), Ireland (years 1-6), Finland (years 1-9), Scotland (years 1-9), Liechtenstein (years 2-5), and the Czech Republic (years 1-5), and to artistic activities and sport in France (years 1-5), Finland (years 1-6) and Scotland (years 1-9).

Information and communication technology (ICT) is shown in the diagram if it is a subject in its own right offered independently of the core curriculum options and flexible timetable. Where ICT is included in the teaching of other subjects, the time earmarked for it is not specified; if, in such cases, ICT is part of the compulsory curriculum, a small white circle is shown.

The 'core curriculum options' category refers to a set of subjects from which pupils must choose one or more in order to comply with the requirements of the compulsory curriculum.

The 'flexible timetable' category means either that the time earmarked for the various compulsory subjects is not fixed, or that the curriculum supplements it with a certain number of hours of teaching that pupils or the school can allocate to particular subjects in accordance with their own preferences.

In some countries, curricula enumerate those subjects that are compulsory without specifying the amount of time that should be devoted to them. This applies to the whole of full-time compulsory education, at least in the case of some subjects, in the Flemish Community of Belgium and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). However, in Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal, this freedom in the allocation of teaching time relates to only some of the years considered here. In this latter group of countries, the relatively little time earmarked for some subjects is attributable to the number of years during which the amount of teaching is allotted in accordance with a flexible timetable. In Spain, the considerable amount of time corresponding to this timetable is the result of the room for manoeuvre of each Autonomous Community in proposing a curriculum geared to its own specific (linguistic and

other) requirements. It should be noted that, in addition to the flexible timetable shown in the diagram, schools in some countries (Italy, Sweden and Estonia) are to some extent free to teach certain subjects by reallocating some of the taught time recommended for each subject.

If full-time compulsory education is considered as a whole, the compulsory subjects specified in its curricula are broadly speaking the same in all countries. However, certain apparent differences are attributable to the inclusion of courses devoted specifically to ICT or the obligation to provide religious or ethical instruction. In several countries, a given number of hours are earmarked for core curriculum options; the proportion of total time involved depends on the point at which subjects in this category are first offered to pupils.

If the whole of full-time compulsory education is taken into account, observable differences between countries are not as great as when the focus is on a particular year. Mathematics is the subject in which differences of this kind are the least significant.

It is nonetheless possible to identify some typical patterns. For example, almost a quarter of all teaching time is earmarked for learning the mother tongue in the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, Greece, France, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Latvia, Romania and Slovakia. A few countries, namely the French Community of Belgium, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland and Scotland), Cyprus and Poland, allocate or recommend relatively less time for learning foreign languages. On the other hand, in Germany, France, Austria and Slovenia, relatively more time is devoted to sports activities. Some countries are similarly noteworthy for the emphasis they place on artistic activities (Austria, Finland, Sweden, Liechtenstein, Norway, Estonia, Cyprus and Latvia). It should be noted that, in some countries, this category includes home economics and that some of these percentages have to be seen in perspective bearing in mind the share of flexible time available to schools.

CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT AT THE END OF GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION OR FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION

In most European countries, a certificate is awarded to pupils who complete full-time compulsory education, or at the end of general lower secondary education. The information given here relates solely to the award of certificates in general education, which in most countries corresponds to a transition to general upper secondary education. Only pupils who attend VWO and HAVO schools in the Netherlands, as well as pupils in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, do not receive a certificate at this stage of their education.

In most cases, this certificate is awarded to pupils at least partly – or entirely, as in some *Länder* in Germany (in the *Hauptschule* and *Realschule*), Ireland and Romania – on the basis of results obtained in a final examination. However, in most German *Länder*, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia, the certificate is awarded only on the basis of the pupil's marks and the work over the year.

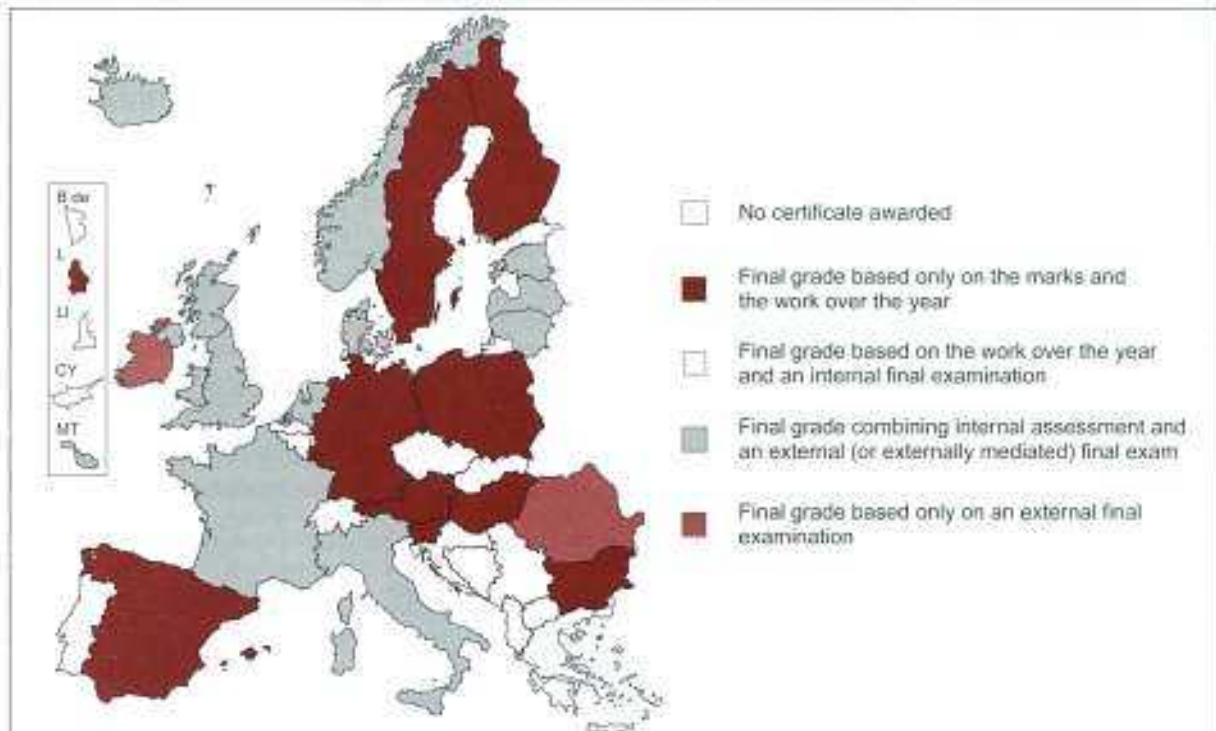
When a final examination is set, it includes at least one written part. Sometimes the tests, written and/or oral, are compiled by a team from outside the school but are usually administered by the school. It is only in Belgium, Greece, Portugal, Liechtenstein and Cyprus that the written part is prepared within the school which is entirely responsible for it. In Italy, the chairman of the examination board, who is not a member of the school, gives his opinion on the tests set by the teachers and supervises the correction and marking. In the Netherlands, the final examination consists of two tests: an internal test (*schoolexamen*), which is oral and/or written and set and marked by the teacher, and an external test (*centraal examen*), which is written and set by an external body and corrected by the teachers according to the standards established by the external body. Estonia follows the latter model, with three written tests. Finally, in Iceland pupils take internal and external examinations at the end of the single structure.

In most cases, teachers decide the grade that will appear on the certificate if the certificate is awarded on the basis of grades obtained and on work completed over the year or by taking into account the

results of an internally set examination. However, in the Netherlands, Latvia and Lithuania, teachers correct the external test with due regard for norms fixed by a national body.

In several countries, the mark given by the teachers is either weighted by an external grade (for example, the results obtained in the external examination) or decided on the basis of criteria established by an external authority. In Ireland, the United Kingdom, Malta and Romania, the final grade is given by examiners from outside the school.

FIGURE E6: CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT AT THE END OF GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION OR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr, B nl): A certificate is awarded at the end of the second stage of secondary education.

Denmark: The certificate always contains marks for the work over the year. Pupils who sit for the optional final examinations receive a certificate which also contains marks for these examinations.

Germany: In most *Länder*, certificates are awarded at the end of *Hauptschule* and *Realschule* on the basis of the pupils' marks and their work over the year. In a number of *Länder*, pupils must take a final examination (written and oral) to receive the certificate at the end of *Hauptschule* or *Realschule*. Depending on the *Land*, the *Schulaufsichtsbehörde* (school supervisory authority) either set the topics for the written examination centrally or merely give approval if they are set by individual schools.

Italy: On completion of compulsory education, pupils receive a certificate (awarded by the school) indicating the skills they have acquired.

Netherlands: Certificates are awarded in MAVO schools and VBO schools (VMBO schools since August 1999), but not in VWO and HAVO schools.

Sweden: The final mark is awarded on the basis of the pupil's work during the final years of *grundskola*, even if there are national tests for mother tongue, English or mathematics. These tests are organised as part of the scheme to monitor the education system.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): The pupils take external qualifications on a single subject basis, at the end of compulsory education. The final grade is awarded on the basis of external final examinations and may also take into account internal, but externally examined assessment of specific work during the course.

Malta: On completion of lower secondary education, pupils receive the *School Leaving Certificate*, testifying to their performance in the annual examination and marks obtained for work during the year. Most of them also sit an external exam for the *Secondary Education Certificate* (SEC) which is essential for admission to upper secondary education.

Poland: A final external examination is being introduced with effect from May 2002.

Slovenia: A non-compulsory external assessment in mother tongue and mathematics is offered at the end of *osnovna šola*. The results obtained do not affect the mark that appears on the certificate at the end of compulsory education, but they are one of the selection criteria for admission to upper secondary schools (where the number of places is limited).

Explanatory note

In the category 'Final grade combining internal assessment and an external (or externally mediated) final exam', the internal assessment can mean a final internal test or an evaluation of the marks obtained or the coursework done during the year.

A table setting out details concerning the examinations held and the certificates awarded is contained in an annex.

PARTICIPATION RATES IN MOST COUNTRIES DECLINE, — ESPECIALLY FOR BOYS, AT THE END OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION —

Figure E7 shows the evolution of participation rates in education (at all levels) – overall and by gender – observed at four different points in time: one year before the end of compulsory education, at the end of compulsory education and one and two years after the end of that period.

Compulsory education generally comes to an end with completion of the lower secondary level or during the upper secondary level. Compulsory education limits vary from one country to another (see Figure B1) and should be kept in mind when analysing this indicator.

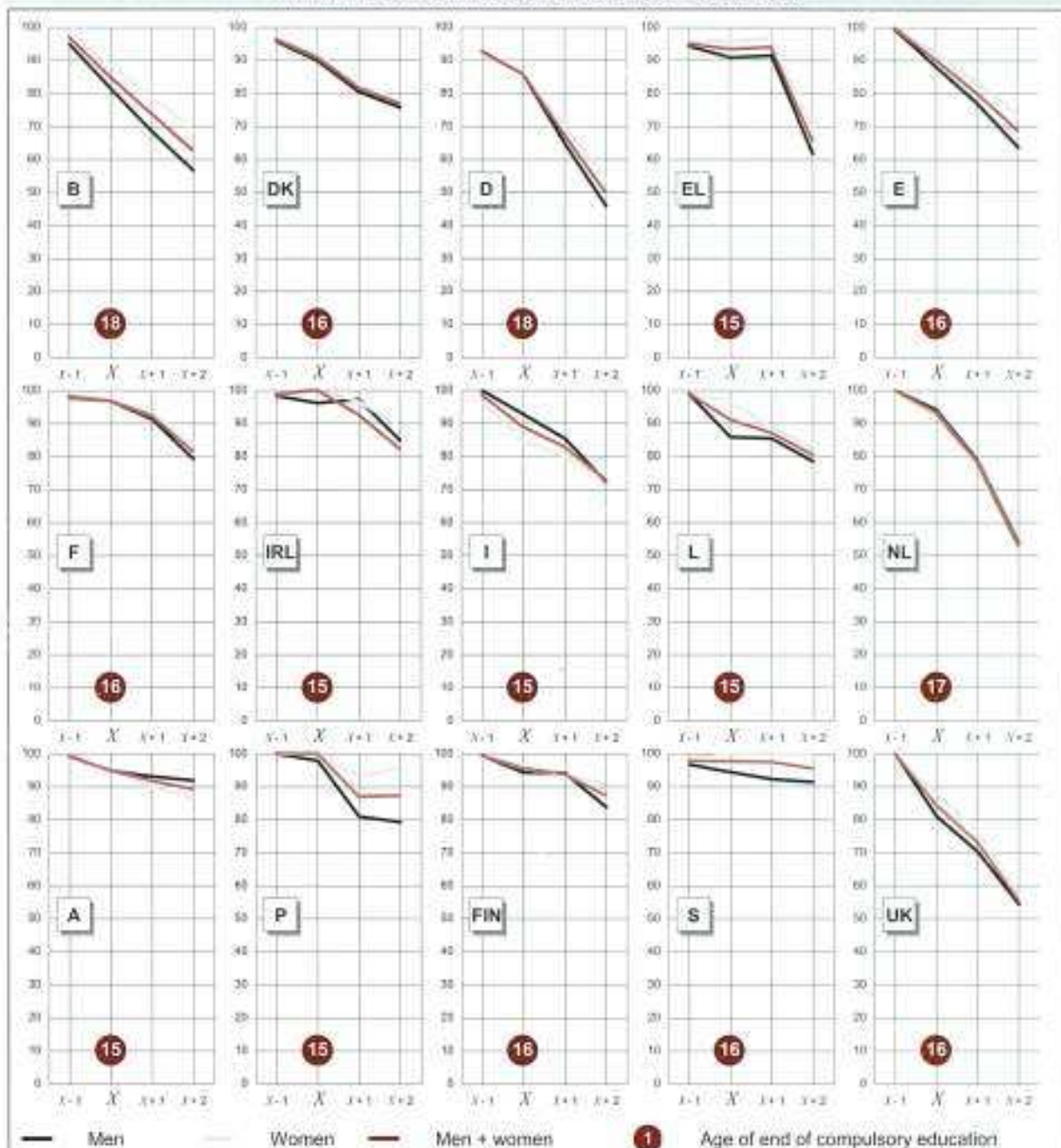
In the 29 European countries for which data are available, participation rates decline progressively at the end of compulsory education. Overall enrolment decreases by around 5 % in the year that marks the end of compulsory education and by around 11 % in the first year after that period. The extent of the decrease varies however from one country to another. Participation rates decline particularly slowly in France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, Norway, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Poland and Slovenia; in those countries, they still exceed 80 % in the second year after the end of compulsory education. On the contrary, the fall is sharper in Germany, Liechtenstein, Bulgaria and Malta in which rates go below 50 % in the second year after the end of compulsory education.

In Belgium, Luxembourg, Austria, Norway and Romania, it is during year 'x' (the year marking the end of compulsory education, see Figure E7) that the sharpest percentage point decrease can be observed. In Denmark, Germany, Portugal, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Hungary and Malta, the sharpest decrease is during year 'x + 1', and in the other countries during year 'x + 2'.

In most candidate countries, the reduction accelerates over time and is thus sharpest during year 'x + 2' (the exceptions are Hungary and Malta).

In most countries, girls stay in education longer than boys. Two years after the end of compulsory schooling, female participation rates are at least 10 % higher than those of boys in Belgium, Spain, Portugal, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia and Lithuania. Portugal has the highest differential in this regard (with 16 % between female and male participation). In contrast, in Austria and Liechtenstein, male participation rates are higher than those of girls. In Italy and the Netherlands, participation rates are similar for both sexes.

**FIGURE E7: PARTICIPATION RATES, OVERALL AND BROKEN DOWN BY SEX,
AT THE END OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 1999/2000**



Source: Eurydice, Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Belgium: Education for 'social advancement' is included. Compulsory full-time education ends at the age of 15 and compulsory part-time education ends at the age of 18 (see Figure B1).

Greece: Includes public institutions of the Ministries of Labour, Health and Defence. Excludes institutions of Commercial Navy.

Ireland: Population data are estimated.

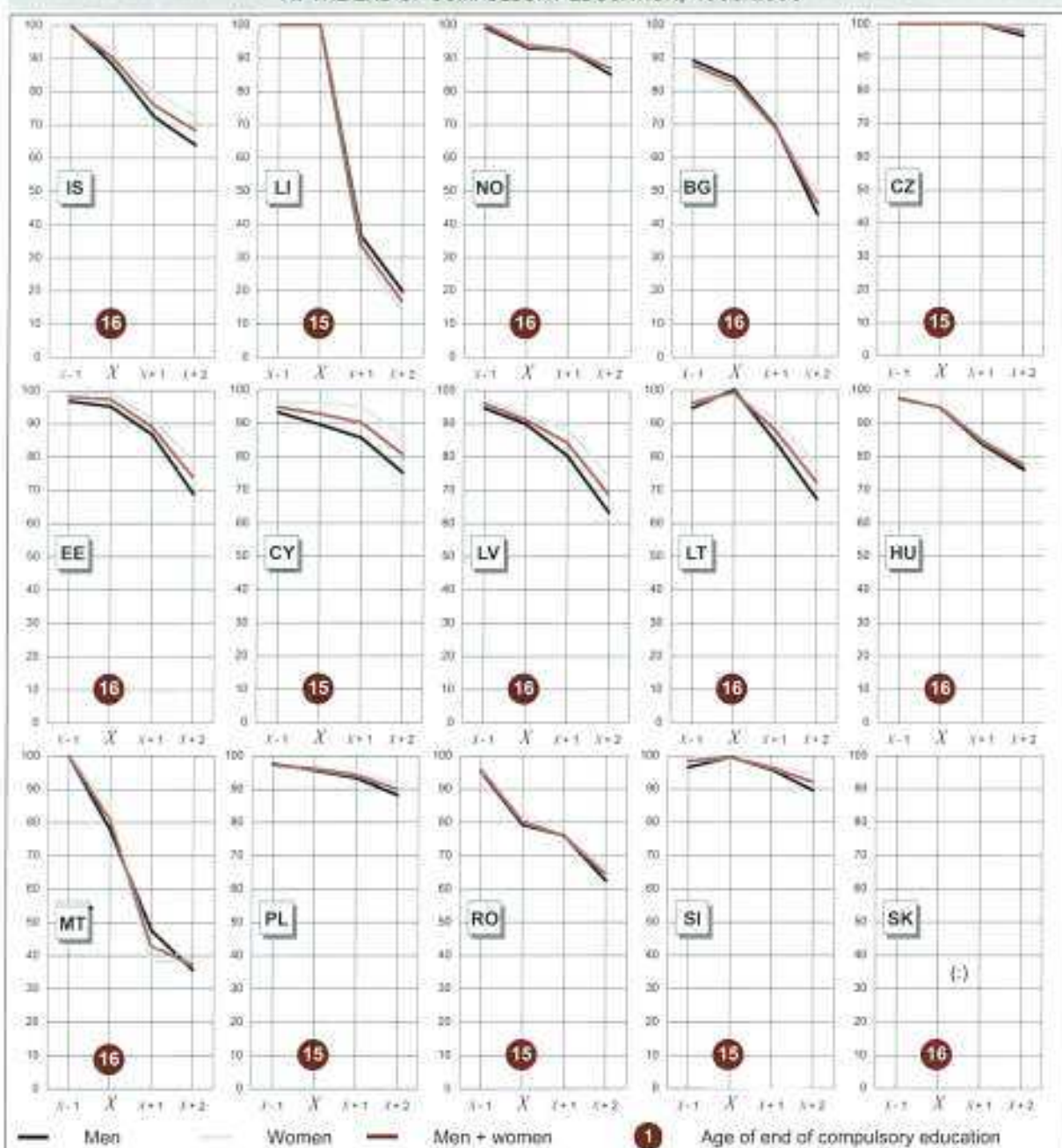
Italy: Compulsory schooling was extended to the age of 15 in the 1999/2000 school year.

Portugal: The number of students in education and the number of children in population come from two different sources, which leads to some discrepancies.

Explanatory note

In the countries where compulsory schooling is continued by part-time education, the part-time limit is used in calculations. X corresponds to the age marking the end of the compulsory education period.

FIGURE E7 (CONTINUED): PARTICIPATION RATES, OVERALL AND BROKEN DOWN BY SEX, AT THE END OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 1999/2000



Source: Eurydice, Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Liechtenstein: Data is from national sources.

Hungary: Compulsory education has been extended to the age of 16 for pupils who reached the age of 6 after 1998/99.

Slovakia: Data by single age is missing.

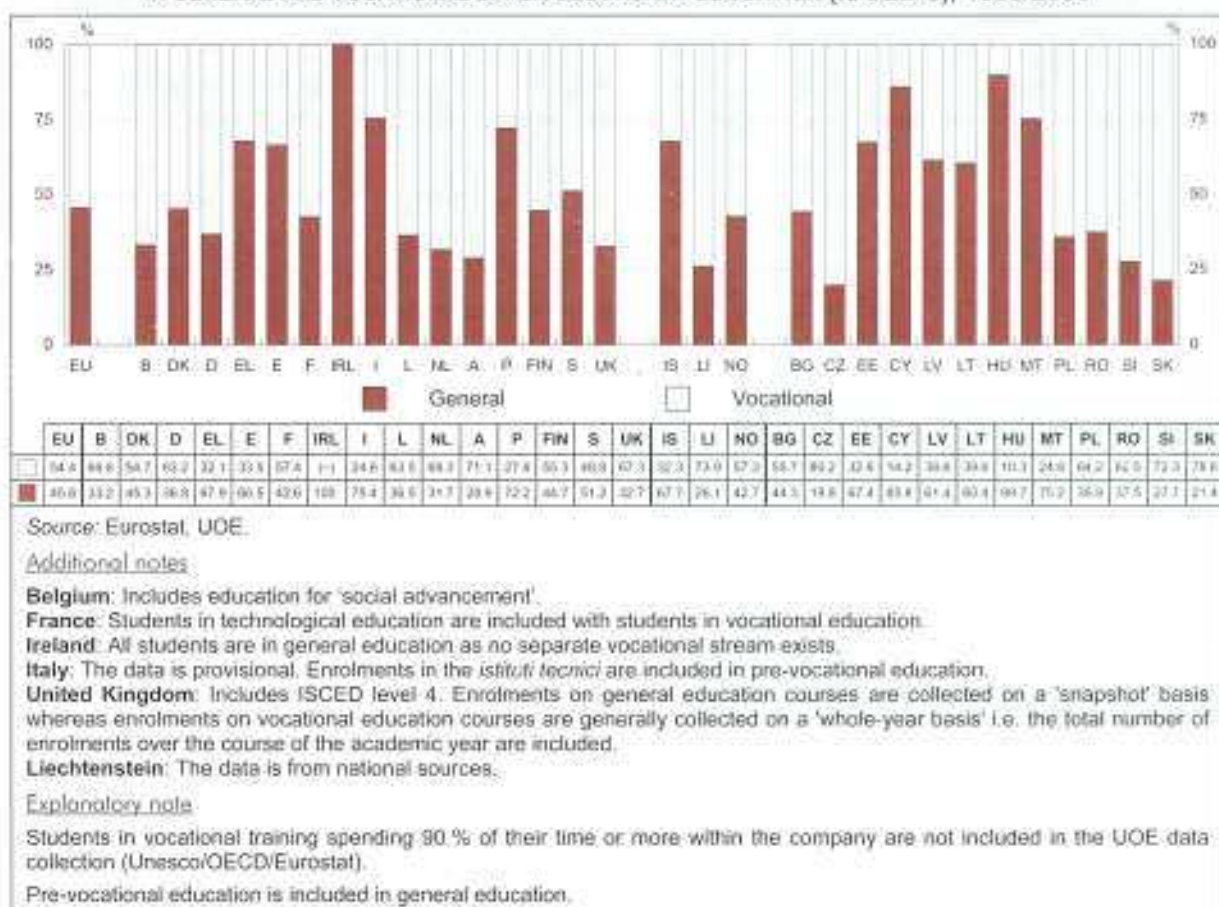
Explanatory note

In the countries where compulsory schooling is continued by part-time education, the part-time limit is used in calculations. X corresponds to the age marking the end of the compulsory education period.

AT UPPER SECONDARY LEVEL, THERE ARE MORE STUDENTS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION THAN IN GENERAL EDUCATION

In the 30 European countries covered in this publication, on average, more students are enrolled in vocational education than in general education at **upper secondary level** (pre-vocational is included with general). This pattern is particularly pronounced in Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria, the United Kingdom, Liechtenstein, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia, where more than two thirds of students are in vocational education. In Greece, Spain, Italy, Portugal, Iceland, Estonia, Cyprus, Hungary and Malta, conversely, two thirds or more are found in general education. In Ireland all students are in general education as no separate vocational stream exists.

**FIGURE E8: DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS
IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1999/2000**



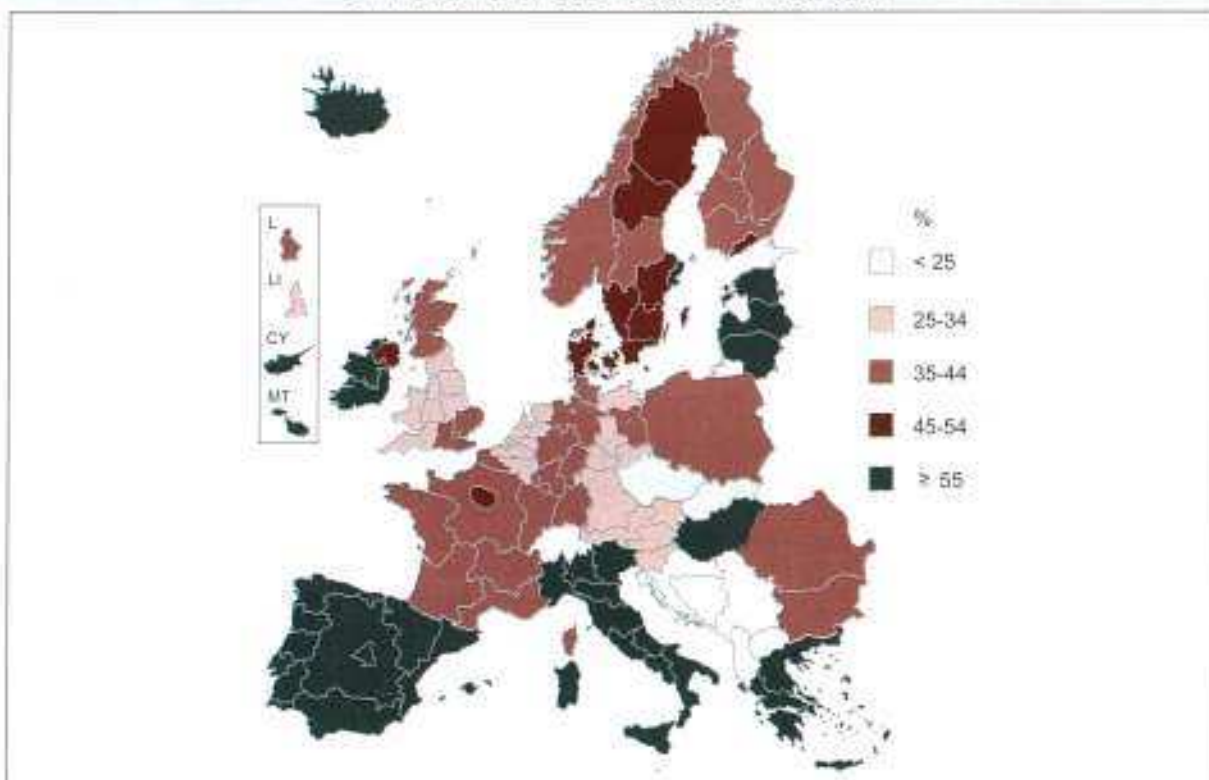
ENROLMENT IN GENERAL EDUCATION IS COMPARABLE AT REGIONAL AND NATIONAL LEVELS FOR MOST COUNTRIES

The regional distribution of upper secondary students into general (pre-vocational is included with general education) and vocational education is quite similar to the national distribution in most EU countries. Exceptions are Germany, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In Germany, while 37 % of all upper secondary students are in general education, the percentages in the regions range from 29 % to 46 % (the latter for Berlin). In Finland, while 45 % of all upper secondary students are in general education, the percentages in the regions range from 35 % to 51 %. In Sweden while 52 % of all upper secondary students are in general education, the percentages in the regions range from

43 % to 57 %. The United Kingdom (33 %) shows the greatest spread with the percentage in the regions ranging from 25 % to 50 percent (the latter in Northern Ireland).

The EU regions with the highest proportions of students enrolled in general upper secondary education are the Italian (from 72 % to 81 %) and Greek regions (from 71 % to 78 %). On the other hand, in four regions of the United Kingdom and in one of the regions in Germany, the Netherlands and Austria less than 30 % of upper secondary students are enrolled in general education.

FIGURE E9: PERCENTAGE OF UPPER SECONDARY STUDENTS (ISCED 3) IN GENERAL EDUCATION BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Education for 'social advancement' is included. Breakdown by general/vocational education at regional level is not available.

Greece and Austria: 1998/99 data

Italy: The data is provisional. Enrolments in the *istituti tecnici* are included in pre-vocational education.

Netherlands: Students in private institutions are excluded.

Finland: Some of the rates variation is explained by the low percentage in Åland. Many upper secondary students from Åland (Swedish-speaking region) are enrolled in general education outside Åland.

Sweden: Regional data differ from total number of students as some students cannot be allocated by region.

United Kingdom: Includes ISCED level 4. Enrolments on general education courses are collected on a 'snapshot' basis whereas enrolments on vocational education courses are generally collected on a 'whole-year basis' i.e. the total of enrolments over the course of the academic year are included. However, enrolments in vocational education in Northern Ireland are collected on a 'snapshot' basis.

Liechtenstein: The data is from national sources.

Explanatory note

For most of the Member States, the nomenclature used here is that of NUTS 1, which is the largest of the regional units. NUTS 2 is, however, used for Finland and Sweden. For the EEA and candidate countries, only national data is given.

For the definition of the NUTS classification, please refer to the definition of statistical tools at the beginning of the book.

General education includes pre-vocational education.

A HIGHER PROPORTION OF GIRLS THAN OF BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION ARE ENROLLED IN GENERAL EDUCATION

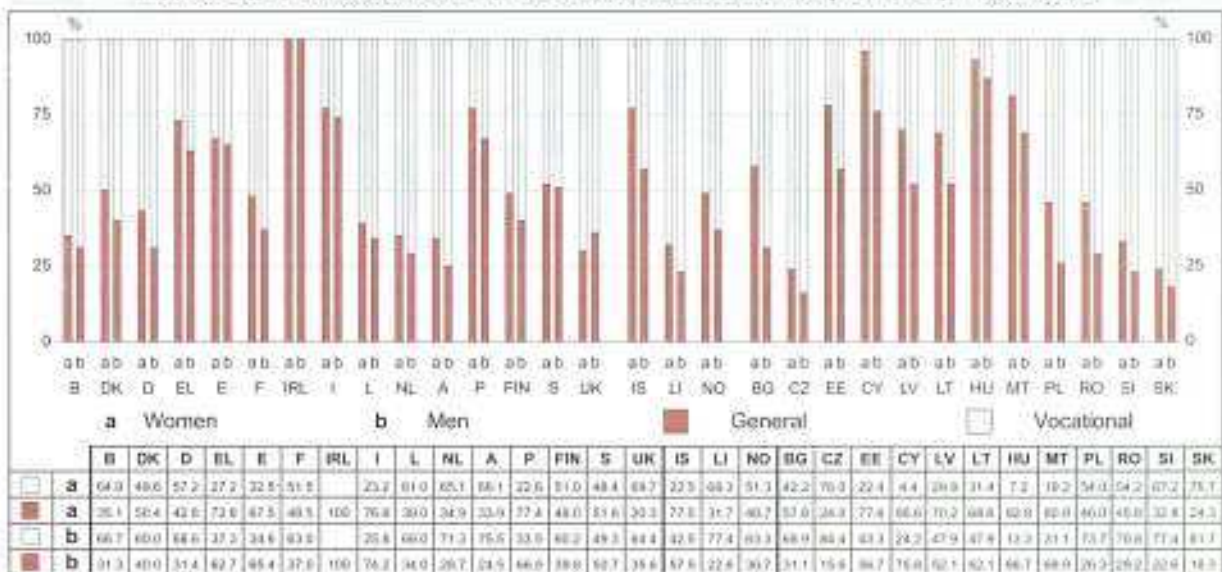
Figure E10 shows the number of girls and the number of boys in general upper secondary education as a proportion of all girls and all boys, respectively, in general and vocational upper secondary education combined. In almost all European countries, the percentage of girls enrolled in general education at upper secondary level is higher than that of boys. The United Kingdom is the only country in which the proportion of boys is greater.

In EU and EFTA/EEA countries, differences between female and male participation in general and vocational upper secondary education, is 5 % or less in Belgium, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg and Sweden.

The largest differences between percentages of boys and girls are found in Denmark, Germany, Greece, France, Portugal, Iceland and Norway (differences greater than 10 %). Iceland has by far the greatest difference with 77 % of girls in general education compared to only 57 % for boys.

In candidate countries, differences in the percentages of boys and girls enrolled in general and vocational education are appreciably larger than in EU and EFTA/EEA countries. The largest differences are found in Bulgaria (27 %). In the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Slovakia, however, the difference is much less, ranging from 6 % to 8 %.

FIGURE E10: DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS, BY SEX, IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes:

Belgium: Includes education for 'social advancement'.

France: Students in technological education are included with students in vocational education.

Italy: The data is provisional. Enrolments in the *istitut tecnici* are included in pre-vocational education.

United Kingdom: Includes ISCED level 4. Enrolments on general education courses are collected on a 'snapshot' basis whereas enrolments on vocational education courses are generally collected on a 'whole-year basis' i.e. the total number of enrolments over the course of the academic year are included.

Liechtenstein: The data is from national sources.

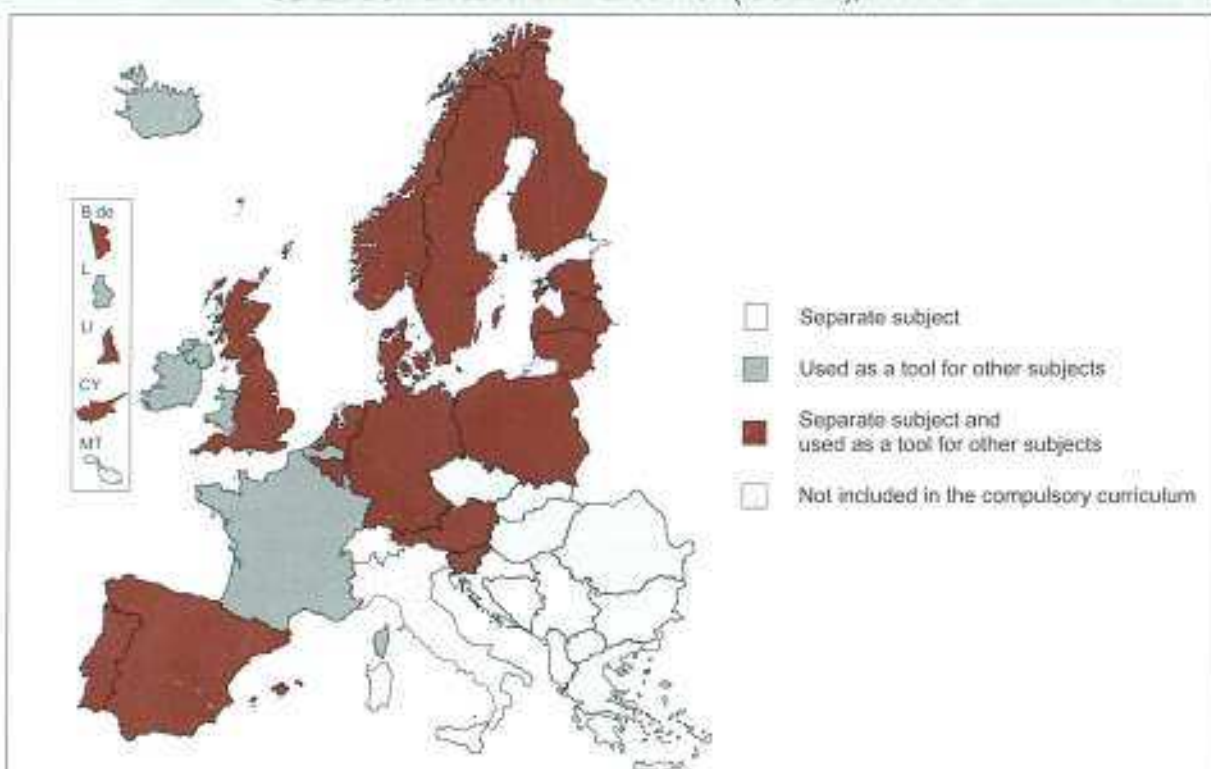
Explanatory note:

Pre-vocational education is included in general education. For example, in Belgium, only 35 % of all girls in upper secondary education are included in general programmes (with the other 65 % enrolled in vocational programmes) while in Portugal, 77 % of all girls in upper secondary education are enrolled in general programmes (with the other 23 % enrolled in vocational programmes).

ICT IS TAUGHT AS A SEPARATE SUBJECT IN ALMOST ALL COUNTRIES IN GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In general upper secondary education, national curricula in most cases combine the two approaches to ICT (as a separate subject and its use as a tool for other subjects), and recommend or lay down that the teaching of ICT as a subject should be supplemented by its use for introducing other subjects or carrying out interdisciplinary projects. It is taught solely as a separate subject in its own right in a few countries (Greece, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta, Romania and Slovakia) and less frequently used exclusively as a tool for other subjects as in the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland) and Iceland.

FIGURE E11: APPROACHES TO ICT DEFINED IN THE COMPULSORY CURRICULUM,
GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): ICT is sometimes included as a separate subject in certain optional courses in transitional technical education which could be regarded as part of general upper secondary education.

France: Only in the first year of upper secondary education is ICT both taught as a separate subject in its own right and used as a tool for other subjects. In the subsequent years, it is used solely as a tool to teach other subjects.

Luxembourg: In the fourth year of general secondary education, ICT is taught solely as a separate subject in its own right. In the subsequent years, it is used as a tool for other subjects.

Finland: The curricula are designed at local level on the basis of national guidelines. Schools may decide to include ICT as an optional subject in their curriculum.

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): In Key Stage 4 (the first two years of upper secondary education), ICT is a compulsory separate subject in England only, but is generally available as an optional separate subject in both Wales and Northern Ireland. In post-compulsory education, ICT is an optional separate subject throughout England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

AN OFTEN EXTERNAL FINAL EXAMINATION LEADING TO THE AWARD OF A CERTIFICATE OCCURS AT THE END OF GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In all countries, a certificate is awarded to students who complete general upper secondary education and have met the set requirements. This certificate is normally a minimum admission requirement for tertiary education.

In many countries, the certificate is awarded on the basis of the results obtained by students in the final examination and their work over the final year or years. In Finland and Estonia, students receive two certificates, one based on their work throughout upper secondary school, and the other on the grades obtained in the matriculation examination. In Spain and Sweden, the certificate is awarded solely on the basis of continuous assessment during the final year or years of general secondary education. In Hungary and Poland, a general secondary school leaving certificate may be awarded without any final examination on the basis of performance during the year. However, it does not provide for admission to tertiary education.

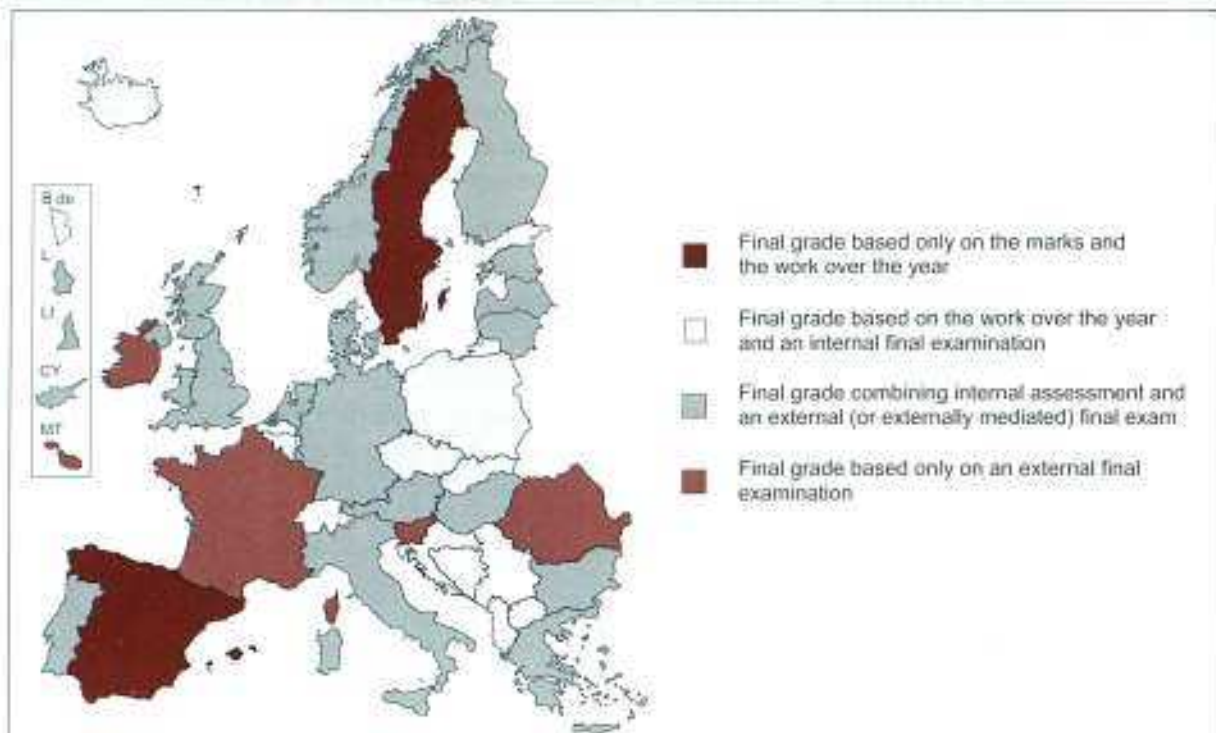
In the majority of countries, the final examination is in two parts (written and oral), except in Greece, Portugal, Finland, Bulgaria, Cyprus and Lithuania, in which it is exclusively written. At this level of education, the written examination is very often compiled by a body external to the school, although it is still sometimes administered by the institution.

However, in Belgium, Iceland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, the final written examination is set by a teacher or a team of teachers within the school. In Austria, the chairman of the examination committee selects the examination questions from those proposed by a school's teachers. In Greece and in Portugal, the students take two written examinations, one internal and one external.

In the majority of countries where the final examination is in two parts (written and oral), these two parts are organised in the same manner, either within the school or by an external body. In the Netherlands, the final examination consists of two tests: an internal test (*schoolexamen*), which is oral and/or written and set and marked by the teacher, and an external test (*centraal examen*), which is written, set by an external body and corrected by the teachers according to the standards established by the external body.

In several countries, the teachers in the school decide on the grade to be given to the student and on whether the certificate can be awarded. In some countries, the final grade is awarded by a jury or by examiners from outside the school. To obtain the certificate following the external written matriculation examination in Finland, assessment is initially conducted by teachers and then by an external body, the *Matriculation Examination Board*. In Luxembourg and most of the candidate countries, external examiners award the final grade taking into account the results obtained by the student in the external examination and the work over the year. Finally, in Denmark, Germany and Norway, the certificate gives the grades obtained by the student in the final examination (for the subjects assessed) and the results of the work of the final year or years (for the other subjects or all subjects). In the Netherlands and Portugal, the final grade is the average of the results in the two examinations (internal and external). In the United Kingdom, the final grade may take account of internally marked coursework and grades achieved for examinations set externally. In Estonia, internal examinations are marked by the teachers, whereas external exams are corrected by external examiners. In Latvia and Lithuania, external examiners mark subjects assessed in centrally devised examinations while, in the case of other subjects, teachers correct tests with reference to norms established by an external body.

FIGURE E12: CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT AT THE END OF GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: The data relate to the certificate obtained at the end of the *Gymnasium*. The certificate also indicates marks for the work over the year. No certificate is issued if the leaving examination has not been passed.

Germany: In seven Länder, the *Schulaufsichtsbehörde* (school supervisory authority) set the topics for the written examination.

Italy: The examination at the end of upper secondary education was reformed in 1998/99. Half of the examiners were external examiners and half were teachers from the school. Another reform was approved in 2001 and implemented with effect from the 2001/02 school year. Following this latest reform, the examining body consists of all teachers from the school and just one external examiner.

Finland: All students receive a leaving certificate; the final grades of this certificate are awarded, by the school, on the basis of their grades and work throughout the whole of upper secondary school. Students who have passed the matriculation examination receive a certificate of matriculation. These two certificates are not exclusive alternatives; both have a recognised status and either of the certificates can be taken into account when applying for future studies.

Sweden: The final grades are based on the work over the three years of upper secondary education. National tests, which are compulsory for schools, are used for monitoring purposes at school and national level.

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The students take external qualifications on a single subject basis. The final grade is awarded on the basis of external final examinations and may also take into account externally controlled assessment of specific work during the course.

Bulgaria: A new upper secondary school leaving examination is being introduced with effect from the 2002/03 school year.

Estonia: Pupils receive two certificates, one based on work during the final year or years and the results obtained in the final internal examinations (*gümnaasiumi lõputunnistus*), and the other on the results obtained in the national external examinations (*riigeksami tunnistus*). Both certificates have to be obtained if studies are to be continued further.

Hungary: The situation presented concerns the *gimnáziumi érettségi bizonyítvány* certificate, which provides access to higher education.

Poland: Written examinations for the *matura* certificate are set by the regional education authorities, but the teachers are responsible for the assessment and awarding of marks. An external *matura* exam will be introduced in 2005.

Explanatory note

In the category 'Final grade combining internal assessment and an external (or externally mediated) final exam', the internal assessment can mean a final internal test or an evaluation of the marks obtained or the coursework done during the year.

A table setting out details concerning the examinations held and the certificates awarded is contained in an annexe.

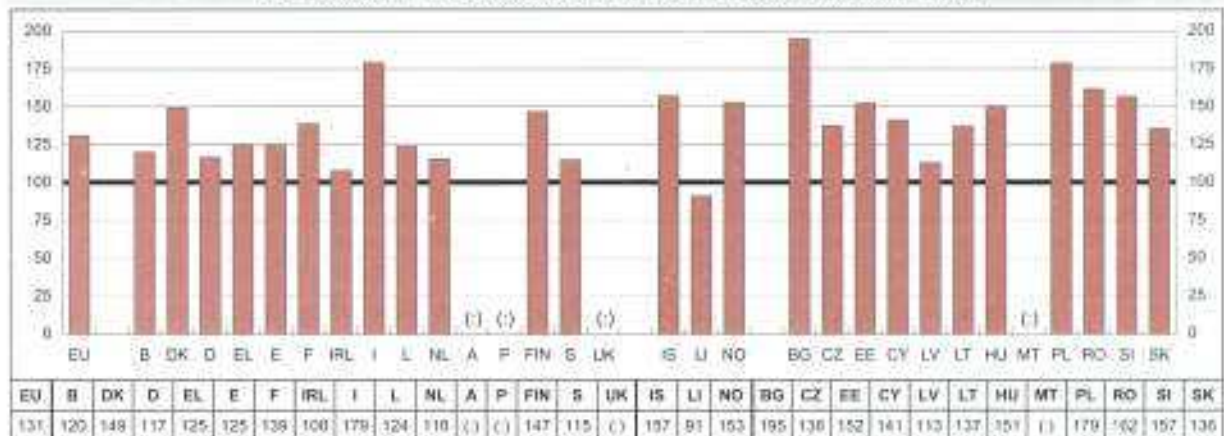
MORE GIRLS QUALIFY FROM GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the 26 European countries for which data is available, over 1.8 million students obtained a general upper secondary education qualification in 2000. Almost three-quarters of these students were in the EU.

In all the countries for which data is available, with the exception of Liechtenstein, more girls than boys obtained a general upper secondary education qualification: the average ratio is 138 girls completing upper secondary education for every 100 boys. The average ratio for the EU countries was lower, at 131 girls for every 100 boys.

The phenomenon is more marked in Italy, Iceland, Norway, Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia than in other countries, with three or more girls for every two boys obtaining such a qualification. Bulgaria has almost two female graduates from general upper secondary education for every male. On the other hand, in Ireland, the ratio is close to one to one, indicating little difference between girls and boys.

**FIGURE E13: NUMBER OF GIRLS FOR EVERY 100 BOYS OBTAINING
A GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION, 2000**



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark, France, Italy, Finland and Cyprus: 1998/99 data.

Netherlands: Includes ISCED level 4 graduates.

Sweden: ISCED level 3A and ISCED level 3B programmes only.

Liechtenstein: The data is from national sources.

Hungary: Contains the number of students in the last year of the programme.

Explanatory note

The number of female graduates for every 100 male graduates is calculated by dividing the total number of girls successfully completing upper secondary education by the total number of boys doing the same and multiplying the result by 100.

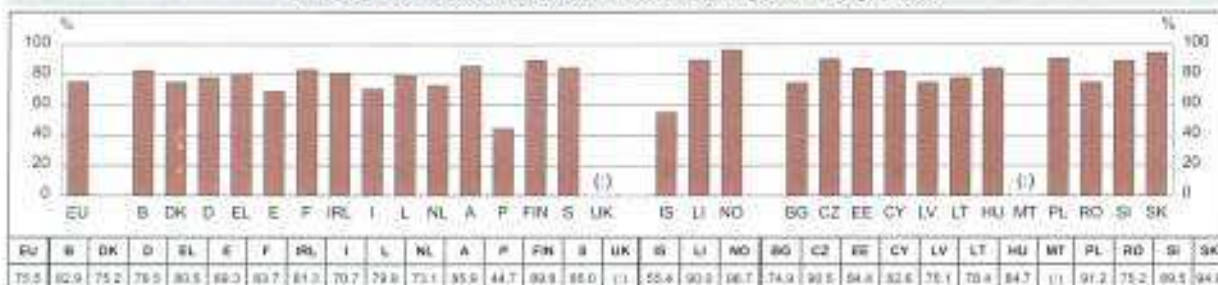
Pre-vocational and vocational education are excluded.

OVER THREE-QUARTERS OF YOUNG PEOPLE (79 %) — HAVE SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETED UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION —

On average, of the 28 European countries for which data is available, 79 % of 22-year-olds have successfully completed at least upper secondary education. The candidate countries have, on average, a higher percentage in this regard than the EU countries, where the rate is 75 %.

In Norway, the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia the figure exceeds 90 %. Conversely, Portugal has the lowest percentage (45 %).

FIGURE E14: PERCENTAGE OF THOSE AGED 22 WHO HAVE SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETED AT LEAST UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 2000



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Ireland: Data obtained directly from the QNHS (LFS in Ireland), Central Statistics Office.

Luxembourg: Most young people in tertiary education are studying abroad. All of them have completed at least upper secondary education. The percentage is therefore an underestimate.

United Kingdom: Data is not shown. A definition of 'upper secondary attainment' in the UK has still to be agreed.

Liechtenstein: The data is from national sources.

Explanatory note

The conditions of successful completion vary and can be determined by various criteria: the award of a certificate, a number of hours of attendance, passing exams, etc.

TERTIARY EDUCATION

LIMITING THE NUMBER OF PLACES ON ADMISSION: FROM FREE ACCESS TO CENTRALISED SELECTION

Everywhere in Europe, the minimum requirement for securing access to tertiary education is an upper secondary education certificate or its equivalent. In most countries, other admission procedures may be added to this, such as passing an entrance examination or competition, submitting a personal record of achievement or attending an interview. Such procedures are normally used to limit the number of admissions, either because the number of candidates exceeds the capacity of the institution or because of a national *numerus clausus* system.

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

Selection procedures vary across Europe and according to the course chosen. They are set out in detail in a table in the annex.

Figure F1 presents the three main kinds of procedure:

- A *numerus clausus* is set at national level. In such cases, the government limits the number of places available and exercises direct control over the selection procedure. The *numerus clausus* may be laid down in relation to courses in certain subjects or all courses.
- The institutions themselves decide on selection procedures to limit the number of places available. Institutions are free to decide to apply these procedures, with due regard for their capacity or for criteria defined at central level. Limitation can apply to some or all courses. Moreover, regardless of the number of places available, institutions can decide to select students on the basis of ability. This happens particularly in certain art, technical or medical courses.
- Finally, in the third kind of procedure, only the certificate awarded on satisfactory completion of upper secondary education, or its equivalent, is required for admission to most or just some courses. In such cases, admission is free and institutions accept all applicants.

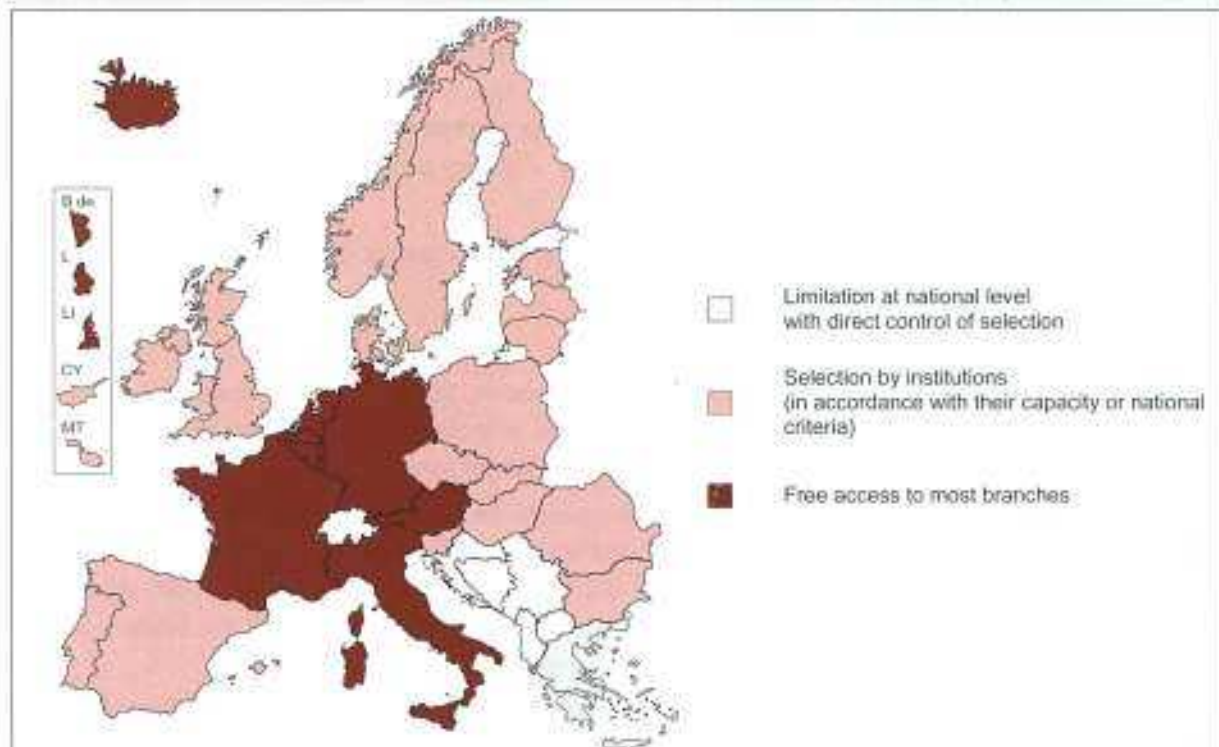
In some countries, places are limited in all courses. In Greece, limitation and selection are decided directly at national level.

The most widespread kind of procedure is one in which selection is determined by individual institutions, with due regard for their own enrolment capacity and/or nationally specified criteria. This applies to all the Nordic countries (except Iceland), Spain, Ireland, Portugal, the United Kingdom and all candidate countries. In Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway, the procedure also takes account of national norms setting limits to the maximum possible number of enrolments or graduates. In the United Kingdom, universities and other tertiary education institutions, as autonomous institutions, determine their own admissions policies. However, planning of overall student numbers is undertaken centrally. Applicants may make up to six choices of institution and course on a single application form. This is sent to each of the institutions concerned via the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS). UCAS processes applications on behalf of all United Kingdom universities and most colleges of tertiary education.

Each institution makes its own decision on offers of places. In Ireland, there is a similar system of admissions. The institution determines the number of places and the admission requirements, and

application for almost all full-time undergraduate courses is made through a Central Applications Office. In Norway, following registration by the *Samordna opptak* (the Universities and Colleges Admission Service), the higher education institution which is the applicant's first choice (out of 15) handles the application on behalf of all institutions for which he or she has expressed a preference. If admitted, applicants receive only one offer of admission – for the institution and discipline highest on their list of preferences – but with due regard for the competition and for the admissions capacity of the institutions concerned. In Spain, the national university entrance examination (*Prueba de Aptitud para el Acceso a la Universidad*) is in principle not compulsory for certain university courses. However, since the capacity of the institutions is often lower than the demand for places, they give priority to those students who have passed the entrance examination.

FIGURE F1: LIMITATION OF THE NUMBER OF PLACES AVAILABLE
IN MOST BRANCHES OF PUBLIC AND GRANT-AIDED PRIVATE TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): Admission to courses in medicine and dentistry is free, but only students who have received a special certificate on completion of the first stage of the candidature may continue their studies.

Portugal: Since the 2000/01 school year, a limited number of schools have required that aptitude tests should be taken in addition to the national secondary school leaving examination.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): There are no absolute upper limits on student numbers, except in medicine, dentistry and initial teacher training.

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

Lithuania: Since 1 September 2000, a form of non-university tertiary education (*Kolegija*) has been introduced as an alternative to the existing university system. In both systems, places are limited on the basis of an agreement between the Ministry of Education and Science and the institution concerned.

Slovenia: Since the 1999/2000 school year, access to university has been extended to pupils with a vocational education *matura*.

Explanatory note

For detailed information by country, see the annex(es).

In all the candidate countries, the number of places available is limited for all courses. In Cyprus, university entrance examinations are organised by the Ministry of Education and Culture. Institutions decide on the number of places available for the different faculties. There is no limit to the number of students allowed to take the entrance examinations for a particular faculty. In Malta, Poland and



Slovakia, for all courses the institutions decide on the number of places available and the selection procedures. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary and Romania, each institution decides on the number of places available and the selection procedures, but the government sets the number of places for which it provides funding. In Bulgaria, each institution organises the selection of students taking account of the national standards limiting the number of enrolments. In Slovenia, the number of places available is decided by the institutions but approved by the Government. The admission procedures are organised by the institutions.

Finally, in other countries there are no entrance requirements for most courses, and in particular for general university courses. In Belgium, there is a very strong tradition of free access. It is only for courses in applied science (throughout the whole country) and certain university courses in medicine and dentistry in the Flemish Community that students have to take an entrance examination. In Austria, universities (except *Universitäten der Künste*) are legally obliged to admit all students who register, although the *Fachhochschulen* and some academies are more selective. In the majority of countries where the principle of free access is largely applied, admission to certain courses of study is regulated. Depending on the course or the level of study, the conditions for admission are set either by the institutions based on their capacity (Germany, the Netherlands and Iceland) or by the government by means of a *numerus clausus* system (France, Italy and the Netherlands).

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

IN MOST CASES STUDENTS PAY REGISTRATION AND TUITION FEES

It is possible to distinguish between two main methods of financing tertiary education institutions.

In the case of the first, institutions are run and funded entirely by the public authorities. In the second, public-sector tertiary education institutions receive a state grant but at the same time charge registration or tuition fees.

The second case is applicable to the majority of countries in that students pay registration or tuition fees to the tertiary education institution. The amounts can vary from one country to another and, within the same country, from one education sector or course to another. In such cases, there are exemptions or other various types of assistance for the payment of registration or tuition fees. The assistance can be targeted at particular groups of students (usually students from financially poor backgrounds) or can apply to most students.

In Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, some students have to pay tuition fees and thus contribute towards the funding of their studies. In most cases, these measures are for students who have not obtained a state-subsidised place.

In some countries (four *Länder* in Germany, France, Italy, Austria, Iceland and Lithuania), in addition to registration and/or tuition fees, students pay an additional contribution to an organisation other than the tertiary education institution; a payment to cover medical care in France, a tax paid to the regional bodies which administer all the forms of student support in Italy, and a membership fee to the student organisation in Austria and Iceland.

Conversely, in some countries (Germany with the exception of four *Länder*, Finland, Sweden, Norway and Cyprus), students have just to pay contributions either to a student organisation, or to bodies offering them assistance, in most cases in terms of subsidised services (such as accommodation, meals, cultural facilities, etc.). In Cyprus, however, the situation depends on the institution concerned. In some institutions, students pay registration fees and/or contributions, whereas admission to others is free.

Finally, students in Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta and Poland make no contribution to the cost of tertiary education and pay no compulsory contributions. Admission to tertiary education may thus be regarded as free. In Poland, for example, this applies to access to tertiary level day courses (except in the case of re-registration for courses that have to be taken again). The same is true of the Czech Republic, except when the period of study is longer than one year.

FIGURE F2: REGISTRATION AND TUITION FEES AND OTHER PAYMENTS
MADE BY STUDENTS ON FULL-TIME UNDERGRADUATE COURSES, PUBLIC SECTOR, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: In four *Länder*, registration fees have been introduced.

Ireland: A small student service charge is levied to cover examination, student services and other costs. In the case of student grant-holders, these costs are covered by the government.

Finland: Student union membership fees are only compulsory in the universities and are optional for students studying in the *Ammattikorkeakoulu* institutions.

United Kingdom: Since 1998/99, full-time students starting tertiary education courses have been required to make a means-tested contribution towards the cost of tuition fees. In Scotland, fees and compulsory contributions have been abolished since the 2001/02 school year.

Czech Republic: Students pay fees only for entrance examinations and if the standard length of study is exceeded by more than one year.

Cyprus: The situation shown on the map applies to the University.

Hungary: Registration fees were abolished in 1998. Students pay a fee in some cases, mostly when not within the quota.

Malta: Students attending evening courses have to pay tuition fees.

Poland: Access to tertiary education day courses is totally free. Only very low entrance examination registration fees, student cards, certificates/diplomas, or re-registration for courses that students attempt a second time have to be paid for. Public tertiary education institutions charge tuition fees for full-time evening courses.

Explanatory note

'Registration fees' refers to payments related to registration itself or the certified assessment of each student. By 'tuition fees' is meant contributions to the cost of education supported by individual tertiary education institutions.

Figure F2 shows all the compulsory payments (registration fees or tuition fees paid to the tertiary education institutions and/or contributions paid to other bodies) by students who follow full-time undergraduate courses in public-sector institutions. These fees also include any certification fees. Payments for entrance examinations are excluded.

MORE THAN 16 MILLION TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS IN EUROPE

More than 16 million students are enrolled in tertiary education, in the 30 European countries covered in this publication, which is 15 % of all pupils and students enrolled in the educational system. Most of them (78 %) are in the European Union.

The proportion of students in tertiary education, as a percentage of all pupils and students, is relatively high in Greece, Spain and Finland (21 % in each case) and Slovenia (19 %), and relatively low in Malta (7 %) and Romania (10 %). The low percentages for Luxembourg, Liechtenstein and Cyprus are attributable to the number of students studying abroad (see Figures F7A and F7B).

It is important to view this indicator in the context of the educational structure (e.g. variable length of compulsory education and tertiary education), the number of places available in tertiary education institutions, possible restrictions on admission (e.g. *numerus clausus* or entrance examination, see Figure F1) and demographic variations (see Figures F4, A2 and A3).

FIGURE F3: STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6),
IN THOUSANDS AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS AND STUDENTS, 1999/2000

EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
12 563	356	189	2 055	422	1 829	2 015	161	1 770	2	488	261	374	270	347	2 024
15 %	13 %	15 %	12 %	21 %	21 %	14 %	16 %	17 %	3 %	14 %	16 %	17 %	21 %	14 %	13 %
IS	LI	NO		BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
10	0.5	191		261	254	54	10	91	122	307	6	1 580	453	84	136
11 %	9 %	17 %		17 %	12 %	15 %	7 %	16 %	14 %	14 %	7 %	16 %	10 %	19 %	11 %

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: Excluding ISCED level 6.

Luxembourg and Liechtenstein: Most students study abroad.

Czech Republic: Data refers to students in public institutions only.

Cyprus: Excludes 12 147 tertiary level students studying abroad, who represent 54 % of the total number of Cypriot tertiary students.

Explanatory note

Tertiary education is treated globally in this chapter: the different types of education (both full-time and part-time, university and non-university) and the different ISCED levels (ISCED 5 and 6) are considered as a whole.

The total population in education referred to in this indicator is the total number of pupils and students enrolled in the country's education system.

INCREASING STUDENT NUMBERS DURING THE LAST 25 YEARS

Figure F4 illustrates, for EU and EFTA/EEA countries, the evolution in the number of students enrolled in tertiary education since 1975/76. The Figure shows an index of the growth of student numbers based on the reference year 1975/76. The data should be interpreted with caution: the stabilisation or decrease in figures might for example reflect a population diminution.

In the EU, on average, the number of students in tertiary education has more than doubled over the last 25 years. In Portugal, over four times as many students were enrolled in 1999/2000 as in 1975/76; it is the country with the greatest growth. The increase is also very steep in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Finland and Iceland (where the number of students at least tripled). The lowest growth is observed in Germany where the number only increased by a factor of 1.5.

Since 1995/96, numbers have stabilised in Belgium and the Netherlands. Numbers have actually been falling in Germany and France since 1995/96 and in Italy since 1997/98.

*Additional notes (Figure F4)*

Denmark: There is a time series break in 2000 due to data improvement measures.

Germany: Excluding ISCED level 6.

Luxembourg: Most students study abroad.

Sweden: Since 1998/99, data refers to the academic year. In previous years data refers to the autumn term.

United Kingdom: Data for years prior to 1992 does not include nursing and paramedic students.

Iceland: In 1999/2000, a new policy has been introduced to start more graduate programmes in ISCED 5A and then moving on to doctorates.

Explanatory note

The growth index is obtained by dividing the number of students of the different years (1980, 1985, 1990, 1996 and 2000) by the number in the reference year (in most cases, 1976).

The ISCED classification has been changed since 1997/98; please refer to the definition of statistical tools at the beginning of the book.

FROM A MINORITY POSITION 25 YEARS AGO, WOMEN STUDENTS ARE NOW IN THE MAJORITY IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

The increase, since 1975/76, in female enrolment in tertiary education has been much greater than that of men.

Twenty-five years ago, women were a minority in tertiary education in all current EU and EFTA/EEA countries for which data were available. In the EU on average, there were approximately three men for every two women students in tertiary education in 1975/76.

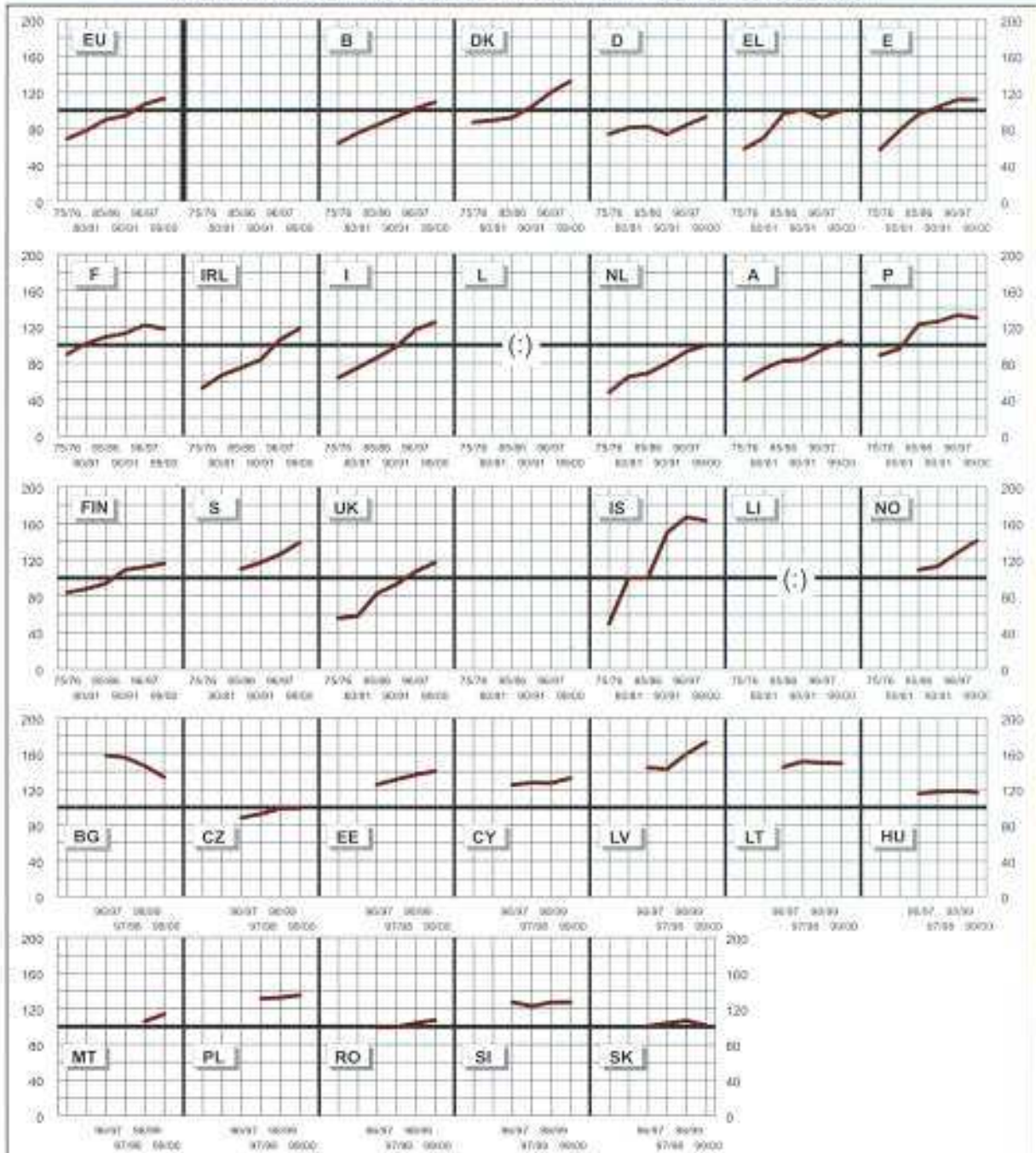
Over time, the proportion of women has increased and they are now a majority in most countries. Germany, Greece, the Netherlands and the Czech Republic are the exceptions, but it is only in Germany and the Czech Republic that women students are a minority (marginal in the case of the Czech Republic).

In Iceland six times as many women were enrolled in tertiary education in 1999/2000 as in 1975/76. The number increased by a factor of around 5 in Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal, and by a factor of approximately 4 in Austria, Portugal, Finland and the United Kingdom.

Women became majority participants in tertiary education in most EU countries in the 1990s. In Denmark, Spain and Finland, on the other hand, this change occurred in the late 1980s and in Portugal, Sweden, Iceland and Norway by 1985/86. France was the first country to have a majority of female tertiary level students (in 1980/81)

In some countries, in 1999/2000, the number of women exceeds that of men by 25 % or more. This is the case in Denmark, Italy, Portugal, Sweden, Iceland, Norway, and in most of the candidate countries (exceptions are the Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta, Romania and Slovakia).

FIGURE F5: TRENDS IN THE NUMBER OF WOMEN PER 100 MEN ENROLLED IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6), FROM 1975/76 TO 1999/2000



	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		
75/76	89	64	87	74	58	67	80	53	54	()	48	62	89	84	()	56	50	()	()														
80/81	78	75	89	81	70	78	100	87	75	()	65	74	98	88	()	58	100	()	()														
85/86	90	84	92	82	96	96	109	75	86	()	69	83	123	94	110	83	100	()	109	95/96	158	89	126	126	145	146	116	()	()	100	128	105	
90/91	94	93	104	74	101	104	113	84	98	()	80	84	126	109	117	93	150	()	113	96/97	158	93	131	128	143	152	117	()	132	100	123	104	
96/97	107	102	120	84	92	112	122	105	117	100	93	95	133	112	126	107	167	()	128	97/98	147	99	137	127	160	150	118	106	133	104	127	107	
99/00	113	109	132	93	100	112	118	118	125	()	100	104	130	116	138	117	163	()	141	98/99	134	99	141	133	173	150	117	114	135	108	128	102	

Source: Eurostat, UOE and trend data.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: Excludes ISCED level 6.

Luxembourg: Most students study abroad; breakdown by sex is not available.

Czech Republic: Data refers to students in public institutions only.

Cyprus: Excludes 12 147 tertiary level students studying abroad, who represent 54 % of the total number of Cypriot tertiary students.

Explanatory note (Figure F.5)

The number of women per 100 men enrolled in tertiary education is calculated by dividing the number of female students by the number of male students and then multiplying the result by 100.

The x-axis for the candidate countries has a different range from that for the EU and EFTA/EEA countries-so visual comparisons may be misleading.

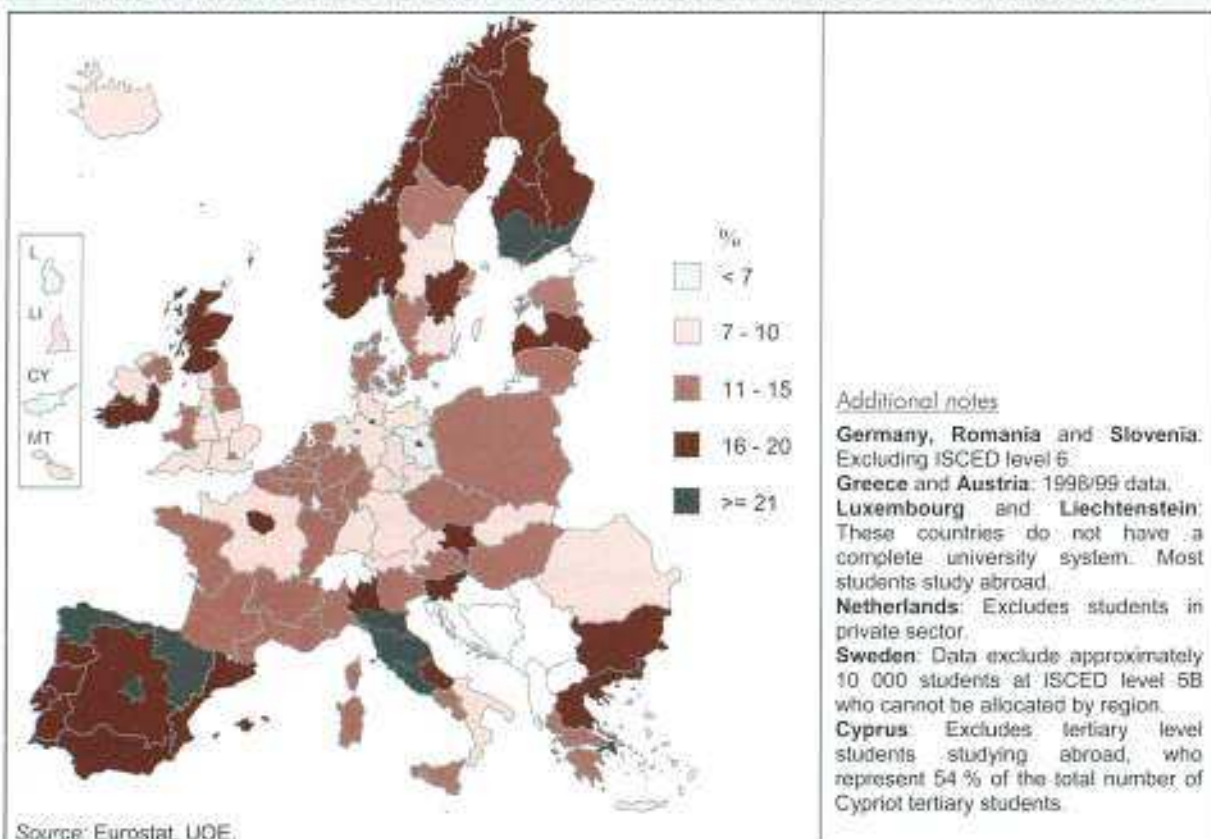
UNEVEN DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ACROSS THE REGIONS

Analysis of Figure F6A shows large regional disparities in the percentage of students enrolled at tertiary level.

The highest percentages of students in tertiary education (between 23 and 26 %) are found in Belgium in the Bruxelles-Brussels region, in Greece in the Attiki region, in Spain in the region of Madrid, in Italy in the regions of Emilia-Romagna and Centro and in Finland in the Uusimaa region.

The lowest percentages of students are found in Germany (in Brandenburg, Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, Saxony-Anhalt and Thuringia), France (in *Départements d'Outre-Mer*) and in Finland (in Ahvenanmaa/Åland). However, it should be remembered that the indicator is based on the region where the student studies and not the region where he/ she lives. Because of this, regions that have universities and other tertiary education institutions (often based in cities) can have a high percentage of students.

FIGURE F6A: TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6)
AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS AND STUDENTS, BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Explanatory note

The total population in education referred to in this indicator is the total number of pupils and students enrolled in the country's education system.

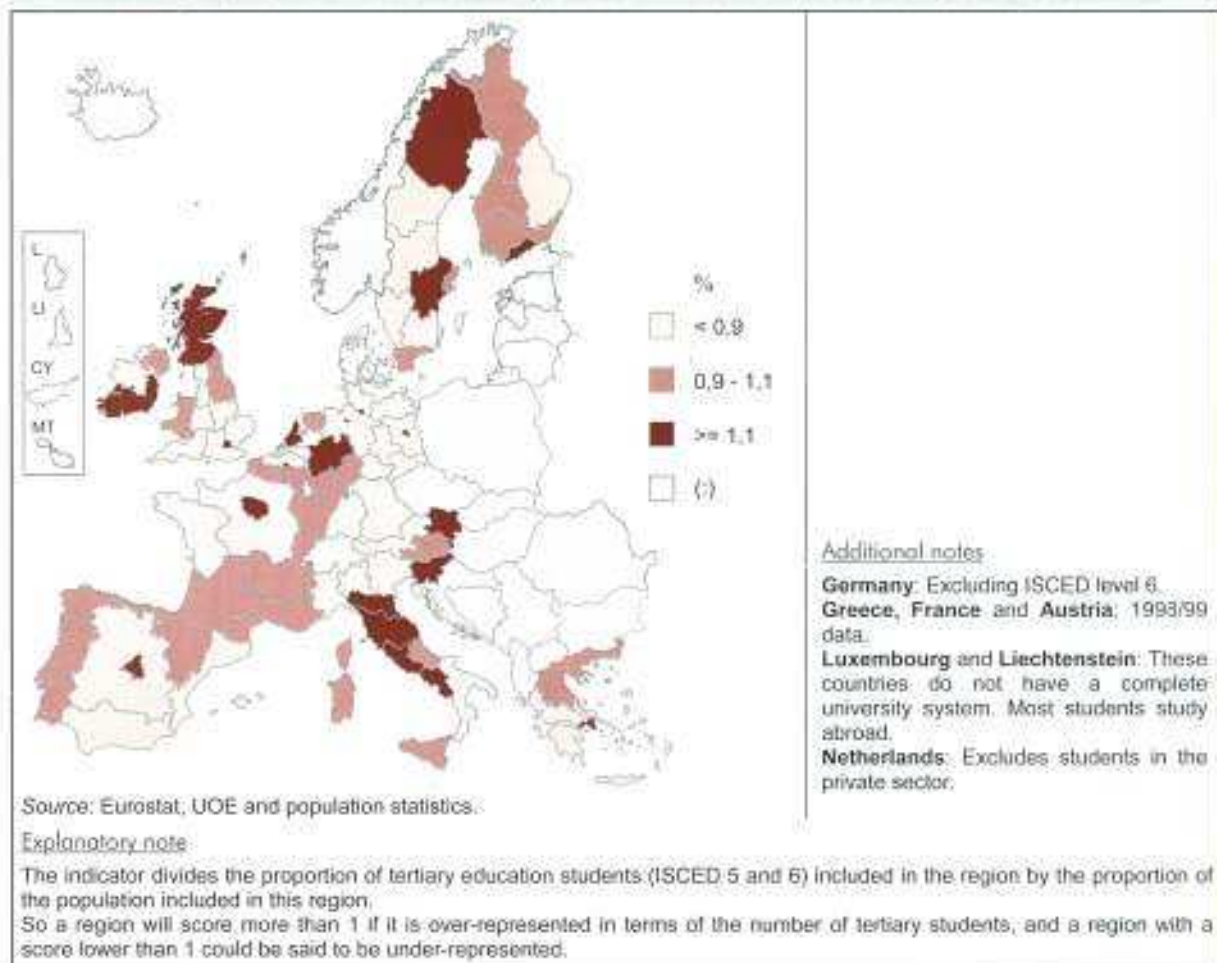
For most Member States, the nomenclature used here is that of NUTS 1, which is the largest of the regional units. NUTS 2 is however used for Finland and Sweden. For the EU and EFTA/EEA countries and the candidate countries, only national data is presented.

For the definition of the NUTS classification, please refer to the definition of statistical tools at the beginning of the book.

SOME REGIONS ARE OVER-REPRESENTED IN TERMS OF THE NUMBER OF TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS

Every EU country shows disparities in terms of the number of tertiary level students in their regions. In some countries, the proportion of tertiary students in one region is three times as high as that in another region (e.g. Belgium, Germany and Greece). In the Uusimaa region in Finland the proportion of tertiary students is almost six times as high as that in the Ahvenanmaa/Åland region which is explained by the fact that many tertiary students from Åland (a Swedish-speaking region) are enrolled in tertiary education outside Åland. In other countries (e.g. the Netherlands), there is more parity between the regions.

FIGURE F6B: RATIO OF THE PROPORTION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6) TO THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION, BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 1999/2000

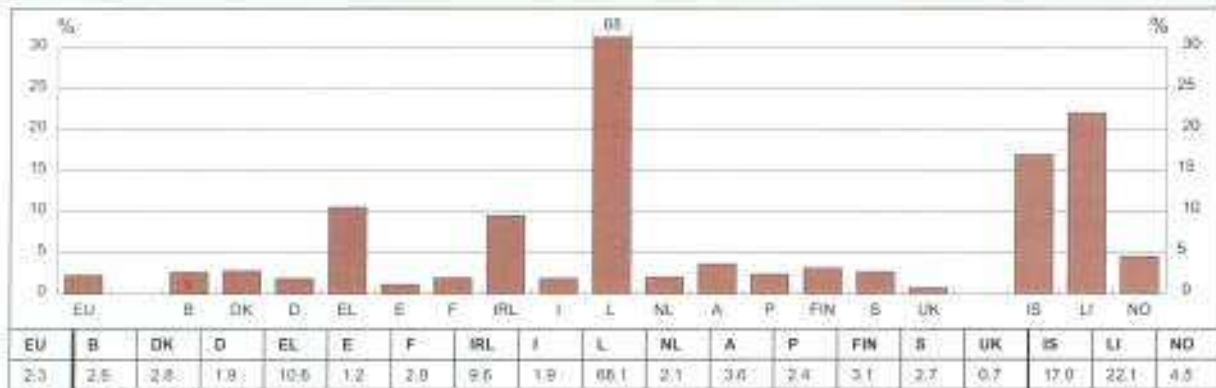


FEW YOUNG PEOPLE STUDY OUTSIDE THEIR OWN COUNTRY

In the EU, on average, a large majority of students pursue tertiary education in their own country: only 2 % of tertiary level students in the EU study in another Member State or EFTA/EEA country.

Within the EU and EFTA/EEA countries, mobility of students in tertiary education is more widespread in Luxembourg (68 %), Iceland (17 %), Liechtenstein (22 %), and, to a lesser extent, in Greece (11 %) and Ireland (10 %). In Luxembourg, there is only limited provision of tertiary education, which obliges students to study abroad, and therefore, students abroad outnumber those enrolled in Luxembourg.

FIGURES F7A: PERCENTAGE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6) STUDYING IN ANOTHER MEMBER STATE OR EFTA/EEA COUNTRY, 1999/2000



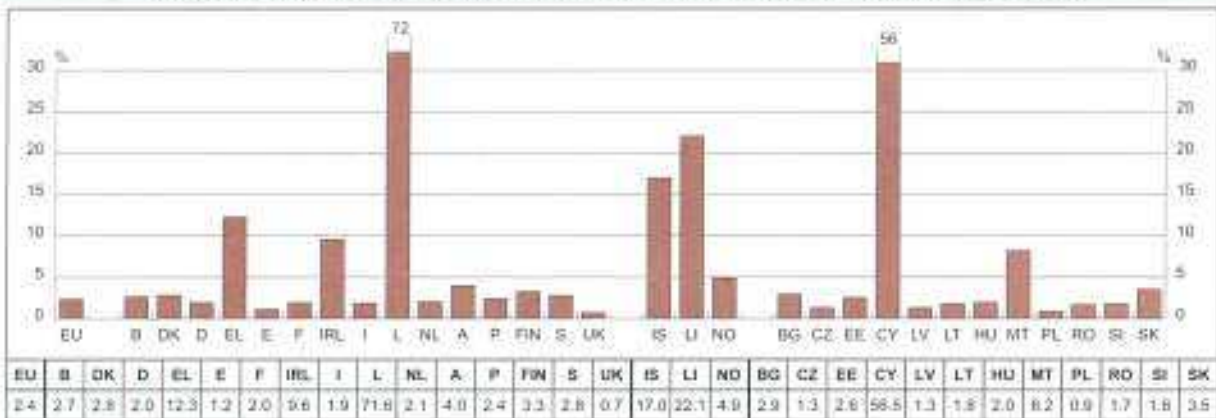
Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany: Students in advanced research programmes (ISCED level 6) are excluded.

Liechtenstein: The denominator may include some foreign students.

FIGURE F7B: PERCENTAGE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6) STUDYING IN ANOTHER MEMBER STATE, OR EFTA/EEA OR CANDIDATE COUNTRY, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: Students in advanced research programmes (ISCED level 5) in these countries are excluded.

Cyprus: 6 416 Cypriot students study in Greece but data for this indicator were not available for Greece and so the data supplied by Cyprus has been used. Otherwise the indicator would have been totally inaccurate for Cyprus.

Explanatory note (Figures 7A and 7B)

Countries do not have details of the numbers of their home students studying abroad. For a given nationality, the number of students studying abroad is calculated by summing the numbers provided for this nationality by the receiving countries. This number is then divided by the total number of students of this nationality (which includes students studying in their own country). The lack of data on the distribution of students by nationality in some countries leads to underestimation of the values.

In addition it should be noted that permanent residents of a country studying abroad will be counted in the statistics of most countries in terms of their nationality rather than in terms of their permanent residence.

When the candidate countries for which data is available are considered, the pattern is similar to that in the EU and EFTA/EEA countries. On average, a little over 2 % of students study in another European country. Mobility of students is more widespread in Greece (12 %), Ireland (10 %), Luxembourg (72 %), Iceland (17 %), Liechtenstein (22 %) and Cyprus (56 %).

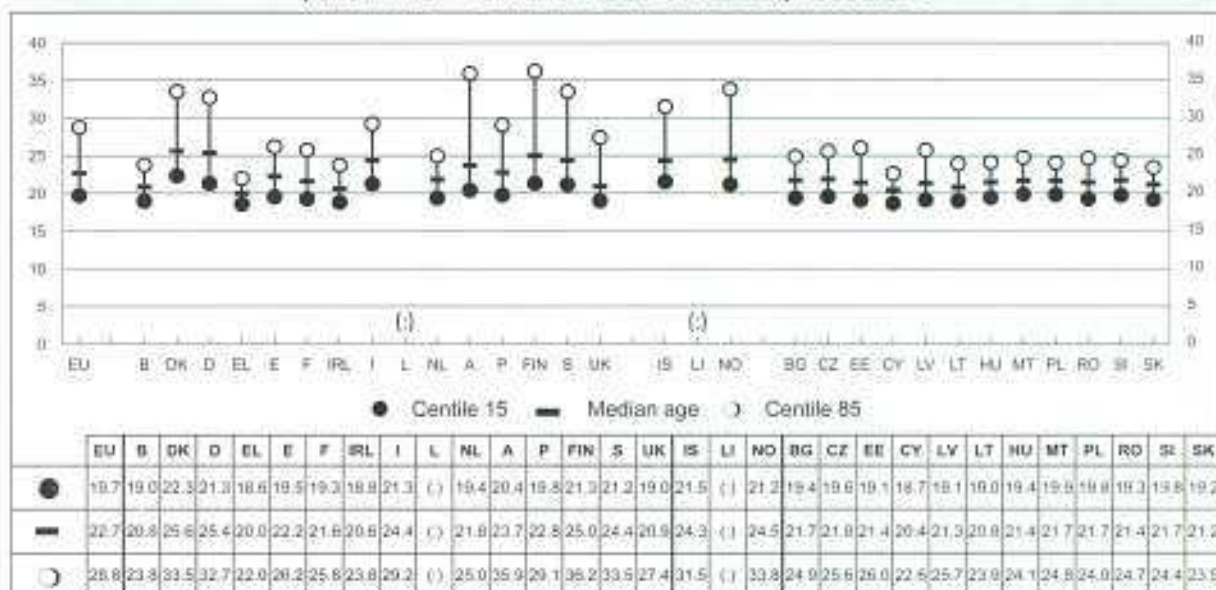
The United Kingdom receives more students than any other country (see annexe). In total, over 111 000 tertiary level students study in the United Kingdom, of the countries covered in this report (90 % are from the EU). The next most popular destination is Germany with almost 70 000 students.

THE MEDIAN AGE OF TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS IS 22 YEARS

The median age of students ranges from 20 years in Greece and Cyprus to 26 years in Denmark.

In Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia, more than 85 % of all tertiary level students are under 25 years of age and the range of the distribution is quite limited.

FIGURE F8: DISTRIBUTION BY AGE OF FULL-TIME STUDENTS (ISCED 5-6)
(MEDIAN AGE + CENTILE 15 AND CENTILE 85), 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: Excluding ISCED level 6.

Austria: Age distribution for ISCED level 5B is estimated.

Portugal: Data refers to the total number of full-time and part-time students.

Cyprus: Excludes 12 147 tertiary level students studying abroad, who represent 54 % of the total number of Cypriot tertiary students.

Explanatory note

The median age of a given population is the age separating the group into two halves of equal size: half of the population is younger than the median age and the other half is older. The age corresponding to centile 15 of a given population is the age separating the population into two groups: 15 % of the population is aged less than that age and 85 % of the population is aged more than that age.

On the other hand, in Denmark and Iceland less than 15 % of the students are 22 years of age or younger and the range of the distribution is wider (see also Figure F9).

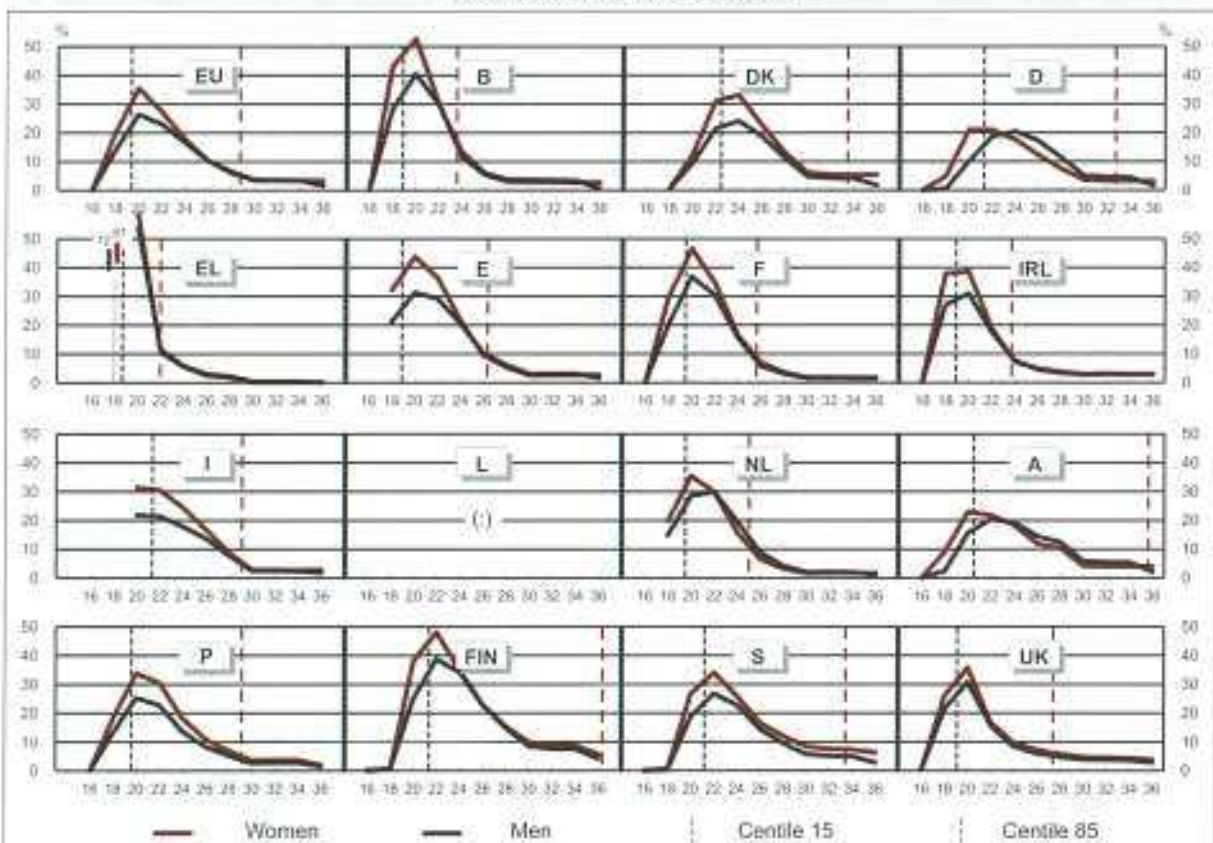
In the Nordic countries, Germany and Austria, a considerable proportion of tertiary level students is much older than the typical age of tertiary students in the other European countries that are covered in this report; more than 15 % of students are 30 years of age or older. This may be because the secondary school leaving age is greater in some cases, or because the transition to tertiary education is delayed by hard competition, time spent travelling, in military service (not in the case of Iceland) or in employment, etc. It may also be the result of longer duration of study in these countries, or of active policies to recruit students outside the typical age cohort (see also Figures B1 and F9).

A VERY WIDE AGE RANGE IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

In the 28 European countries for which data is available, the age range in tertiary education varies greatly from one country to another (see Figure F8). Entry to tertiary education occurs later in northern countries.

Peaks in participation rates appear at different ages and the shapes of curves also vary. At one extreme – in Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia – high participation rates are concentrated between 19 and 24 years and peaks occur between 18 and 21 years of age, reflecting high enrolment in tertiary education and perhaps, in some cases, a relatively short duration of study. At the other extreme (in Denmark, Germany, Austria, Sweden) the width of the curve is larger and participation rates are lower but stable over a longer period, which suggests longer study for a certain number of students or entry into tertiary education at varying ages.

FIGURE F9: PARTICIPATION RATES IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6), BY AGE AND BY SEX, 1999/2000

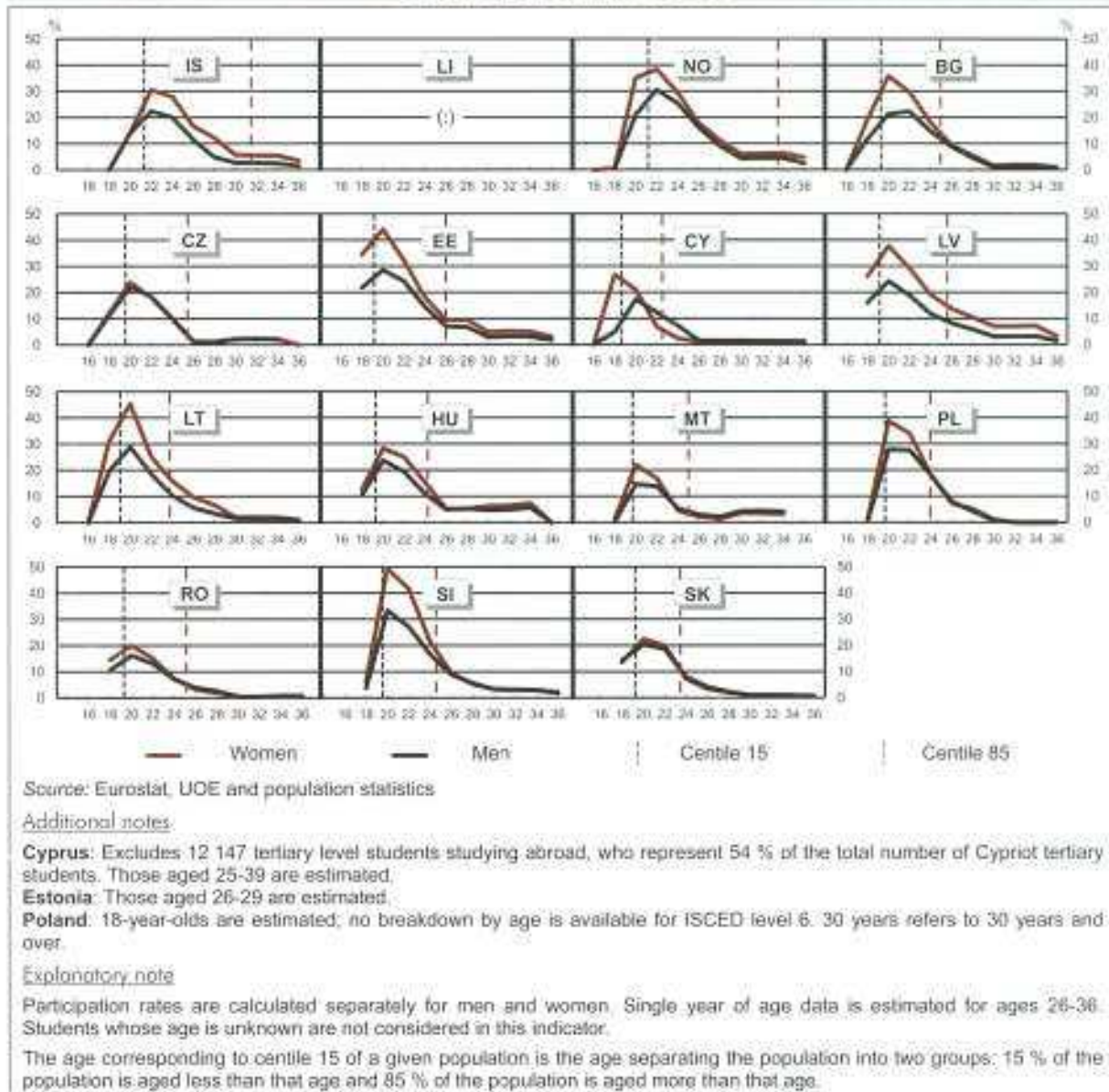


Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Germany, Romania and Slovenia: Excludes ISCED level 8.

Austria: Data for those aged 25-29 corresponds to an estimate, as does the age distribution for ISCED level 5B.

**FIGURE F9 (CONTINUED): PARTICIPATION RATES IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6),
BY AGE AND BY SEX, 1999/2000**


Overall, male and female participation rates in tertiary education follow a similar pattern in most countries. Germany and Cyprus deviate a little from this pattern (see Figure F9). Participation rates are usually higher for women than for men, especially in Denmark, France, Italy, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, Iceland, Norway, and several candidate countries (Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania).

With increasing age, male participation rates are equal to or even exceed those of women in some countries. This tendency is more marked in Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, the Netherlands, Austria, Cyprus, Malta and Romania. In most countries, peak rates can be observed at the same ages for both sexes, or there might be a difference of just one year. In Germany and Austria, however, the peak for men is three years later than that for women. Part of the explanation for this may be the compulsory military/ alternative service for men. The only countries where there is no compulsory military/alternative service are Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Hungary.

A QUARTER OF TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS ARE ENROLLED IN THE 'SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTING' AND 'ENGINEERING, MANUFACTURING AND CONSTRUCTION' FIELDS

On average, in the countries covered by this report, a quarter of those in tertiary education in 1999/2000, were studying in 'science, mathematics and computing' and 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' fields. The proportions do vary across countries however, ranging from 11 % in Malta to 36 % in Finland.

FIGURE F10: TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS IN 'SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTING' AND 'ENGINEERING, MANUFACTURING AND CONSTRUCTION' AS A PROPORTION OF ALL TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS, 1999/2000



EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	
27.1	21.0	20.2	20.6	0.0	28.8	(-)	35.3	24.5	17.4	16.8	25.8	27.3	36.2	30.6	28.8	17.5	(-)	16.6	24.7	31.7	21.3	17.7	16.5	27.4	21.5	11.5	11.5	19.6	28.6	23.5	28.1

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Germany, Netherlands, Romania and Slovenia: Advanced research programmes (ISCED level 6) are excluded.

Luxembourg: The country does not have a complete university system, so data refers to ISCED level 5B only.

Austria: Excludes ISCED level 5B.

THE MOST SIMILAR DISTRIBUTION BETWEEN THE SEXES IS OBSERVED IN THE 'SERVICES' FIELD

The distribution of enrolment between males and females depends on the discipline. On average for the countries for which data is available, most students in 'education', 'humanities and arts', and 'health and welfare' fields are females (74 %, 66 % and 72 %, respectively). In all the countries for which data is available, more women than men study in the 'humanities and arts' and 'health and welfare' fields.

Conversely, 77 % of students in 'engineering manufacturing and construction' are men. In the Netherlands and Cyprus, this figure reaches 88 % or more. The countries with the highest proportion of women in this field were Bulgaria and Lithuania with 38 % and 31 % respectively. This compares to an EU average of 22 %.

Students in 'mathematics, science and computing' are also predominantly men (61 %). In this field, only Italy, Bulgaria, Poland and Romania have a majority of female students. Indeed, in Romania 62 % of these students are women as compared to an EU average of 38 %.

The most balanced distribution between sexes is observed in the 'services', 'agriculture and veterinary science', and 'social sciences, business and law' fields (50 %, 47 % and 56 % awarded to women respectively).

In candidate countries, the general trends are similar to those in the EU and EFTA/EEA countries for most fields of education and training. However in the 'social sciences, business and law' and 'engineering manufacturing and construction' fields, there are higher proportions of women in more candidate countries than in the EU and EFTA/EEA countries. In these two fields most candidate countries have a higher proportion of females enrolled than the EU average.



TERTIARY EDUCATION

FIGURE F11: PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6) ENROLLED IN DIFFERENT FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING, 1999/2000

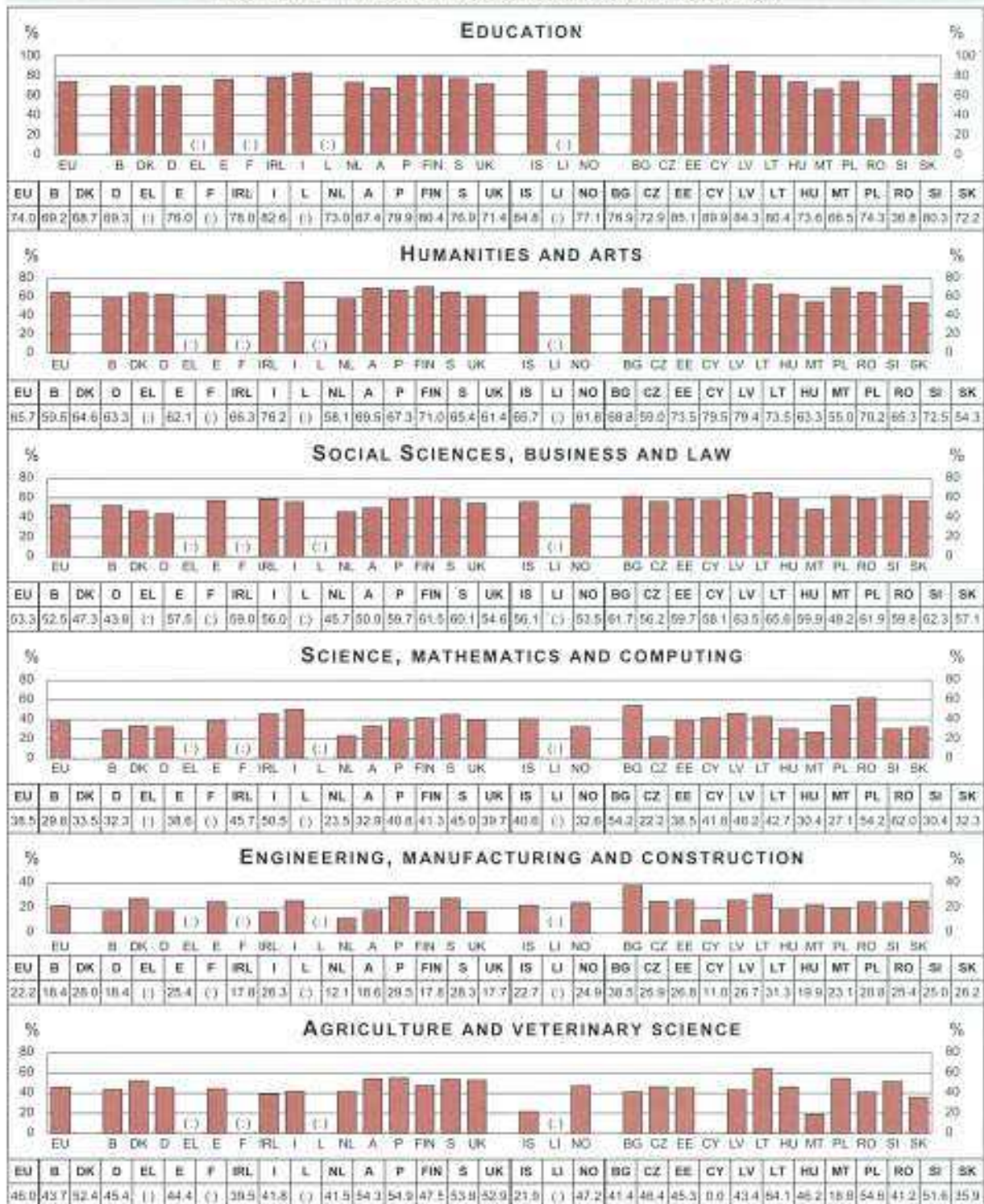
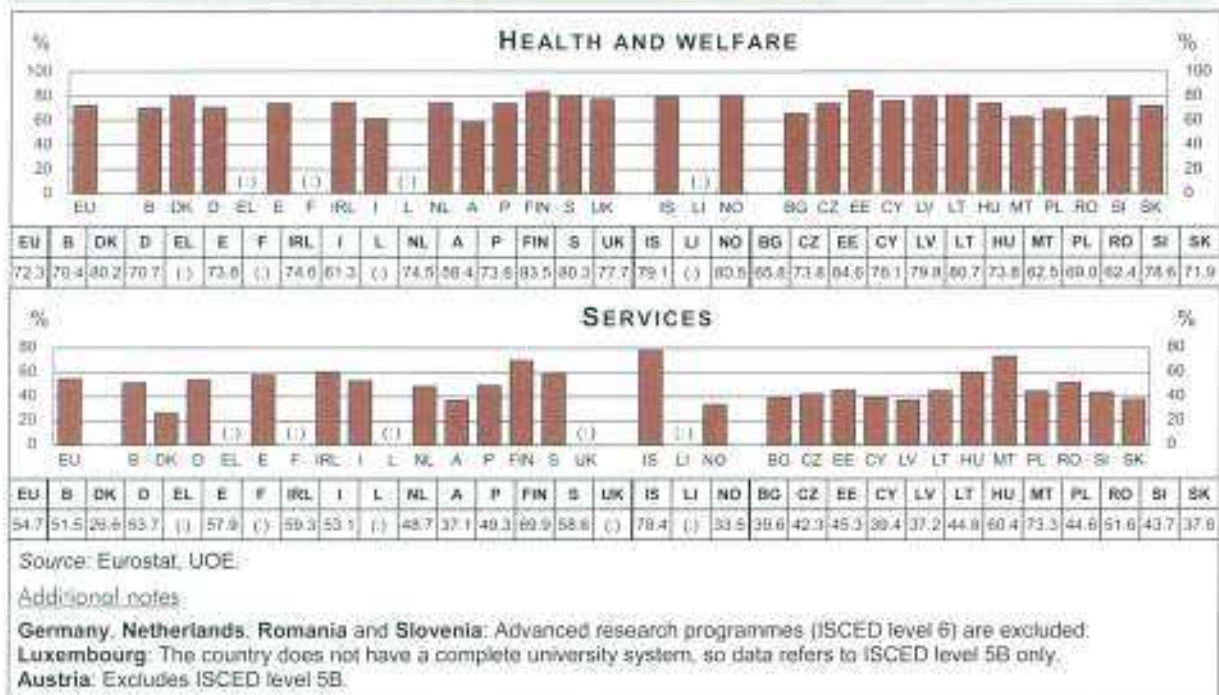


FIGURE F11 (CONTINUED): PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6) ENROLLED IN DIFFERENT FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING, 1999/2000

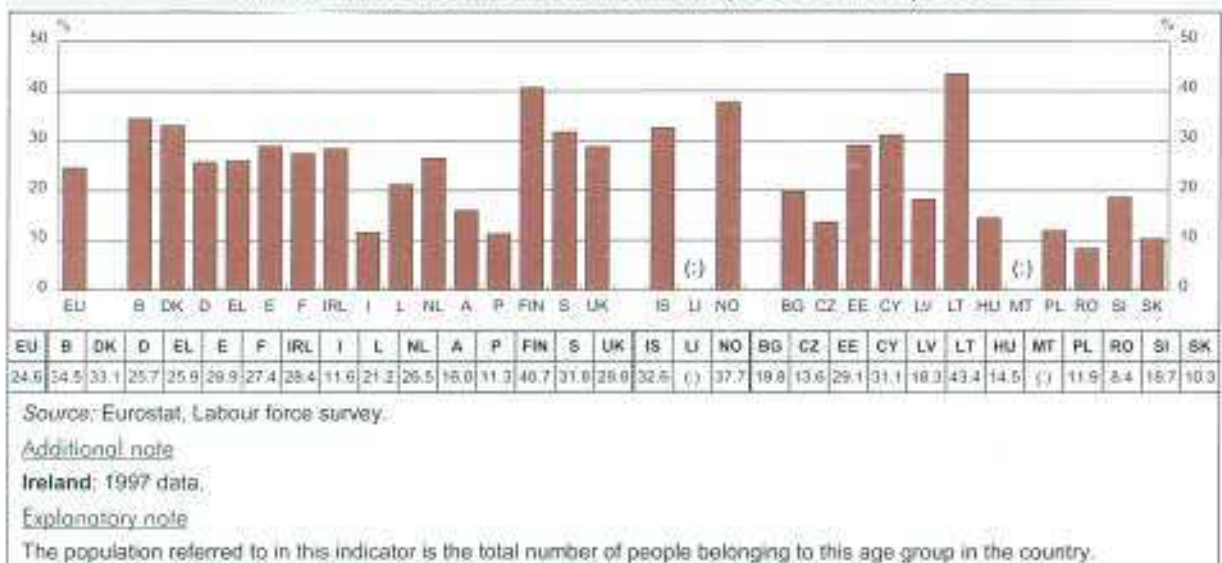


TODAY ALMOST A QUARTER OF ALL THOSE AGED 30-34 HOLD A TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION

In the 28 countries for which data is available, almost a quarter (23 %) of all people between 30 and 34 years of age hold a tertiary education qualification.

However, this percentage conceals major disparities between countries. In Finland, Norway and Lithuania, approximately two out of every five 30-34 year olds, have a tertiary education qualification. In Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Iceland, and Cyprus, about a third of those in this age band have a tertiary level qualification while in Italy, Portugal, Poland, Romania and Slovakia, the proportions with such qualifications are around 10 %.

FIGURE F12: PROPORTION OF PEOPLE AGED 30 TO 34 WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS (ISCED 5 AND 6), 2000





GRADUATION RATES RISE FROM GENERATION TO GENERATION

Among the younger generation, the proportion of people holding a tertiary education qualification is higher than in older generations. Whereas 23 % of the EU population aged between 35 and 39 have a tertiary education qualification, the proportion for those aged 55-59 is only 16 %.

This trend is apparent throughout the EU and EFTA/EEA countries and Cyprus, and is particularly strong in Greece, Spain and Cyprus, where the proportion of those with tertiary education qualifications is at least twice as high in the 35-39 age group as in the 55-59 age group. In other countries, the age-based differences are less marked since the percentage of people with tertiary education qualifications in the 55-59 age group is relatively high (19 % or more in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Norway, Estonia and Lithuania). In Italy, Portugal, Poland, Romania and Slovakia, the proportions of those with tertiary level qualifications are relatively small across all the age groups considered.

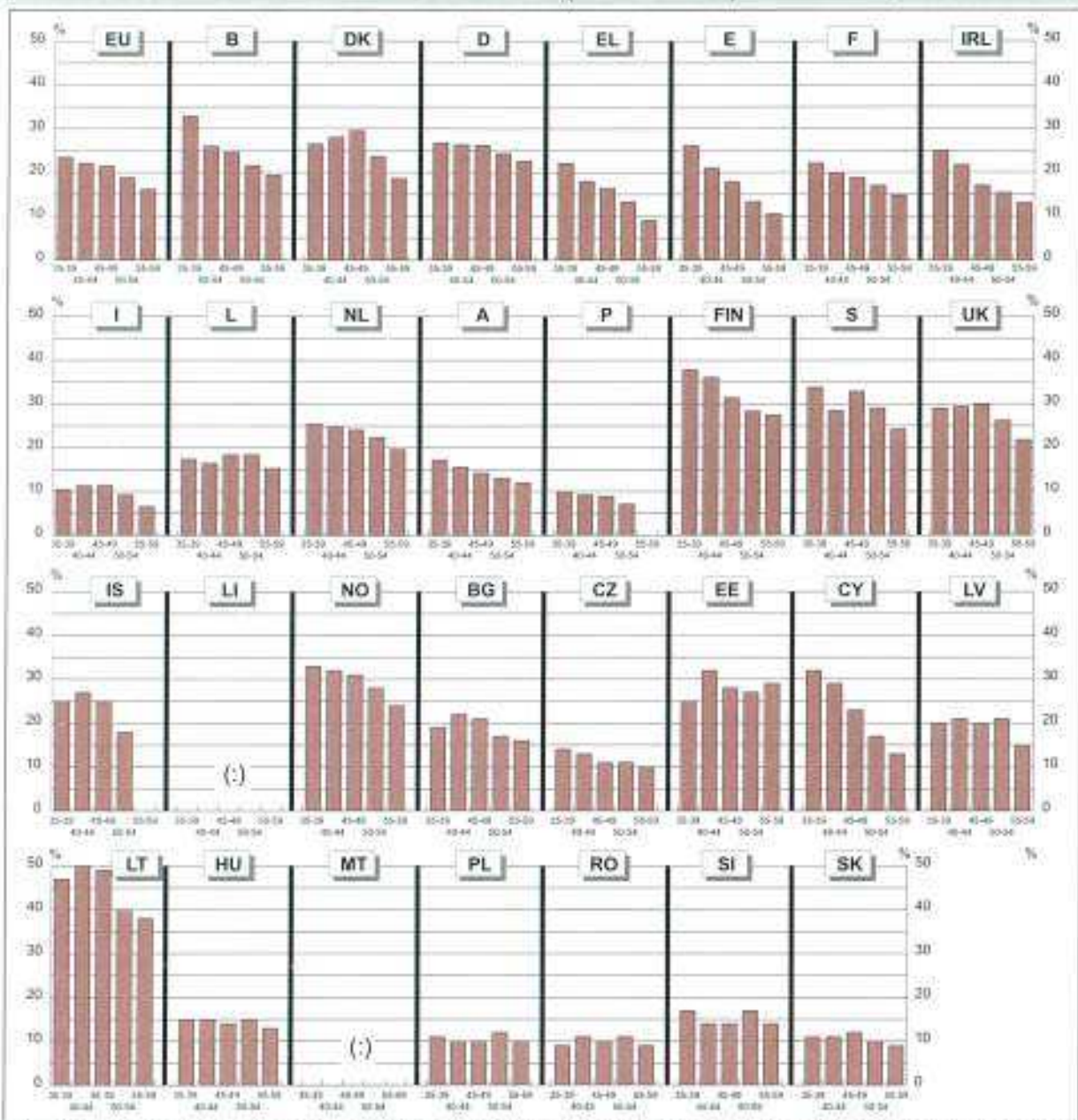
In the candidate countries, there is less disparity in the educational attainment levels between generations. In the vast majority of these countries the proportion of those with tertiary education qualifications is fairly stable across at least three different age groups.

When we compare Figures F12 and F13, it is interesting to note that in just over half of the candidate countries in central and eastern Europe, the proportion of people with tertiary education qualifications in the 30-34 age group is lower than that in the 35-39 age group – a phenomenon that is apparent in only three of the EU and EFTA/EEA countries.



TERTIARY EDUCATION

FIGURE F13: PROPORTION OF PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 35 AND 60 WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS (ISCED 5 AND 6) BY AGE GROUP, 2000



Age	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
35-39	23.0	32.9	26.5	26.8	22.1	25.1	22.2	25.0	10.5	17.4	25.4	17.2	10.0	37.8	33.8	29.0	24.8	(:)	32.9	18.3	14.0	26.3	32.3	19.5	46.7	14.5	(:)	10.9	8.9	17.1	10.8
40-44	22.1	26.0	28.1	26.4	18.0	21.1	20.0	21.8	11.3	16.4	25.0	15.5	9.2	36.1	28.5	29.4	26.6	(:)	32.3	21.7	12.9	31.6	28.9	20.7	50.3	15.5	(:)	10.5	11.2	13.8	11.2
45-49	21.5	24.6	28.6	26.2	16.4	17.8	18.8	17.0	11.4	18.4	24.1	14.2	9.5	31.4	32.9	29.8	25.0	(:)	30.9	20.9	11.0	29.1	22.8	19.5	49.5	13.8	(:)	10.5	9.9	13.6	11.5
50-54	18.9	21.8	23.7	24.3	13.4	13.4	17.1	15.4	9.2	18.5	22.4	13.1	7.1	28.4	29.1	26.3	18.1	(:)	28.1	16.8	10.8	26.6	17.3	21.1	40.4	14.8	(:)	12.0	10.8	16.5	9.5
55-59	16.2	19.5	18.7	22.6	9.1	10.6	14.7	13.1	6.6	15.3	19.5	12.0	(:)	27.5	24.2	21.5	(:)	(:)	24.4	15.8	10.5	28.8	12.5	15.4	38.3	13.3	(:)	10.4	9.0	13.7	9.0
35-59	21.3	27.1	28.8	25.5	17.8	20.5	20.9	20.8	10.2	18.0	24.1	15.0	9.2	33.7	30.1	27.8	24.2	(:)	31.5	19.2	12.1	28.3	25.2	19.2	45.2	14.5	(:)	11.0	9.7	15.8	10.8

Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Additional notes

Ireland: 1997 data.

Portugal and Iceland: Because of small sample size, data is not shown for the 55-59 age group.

Explanatory note

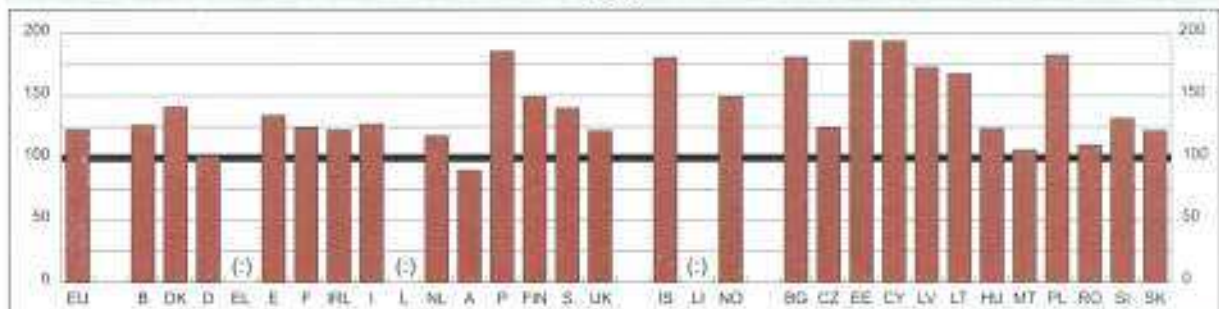
The population referred to in this indicator is the total number of people belonging to this age group in the country.



**MORE WOMEN THAN MEN
GRADUATE FROM TERTIARY EDUCATION**

More women than men graduated from tertiary education in 2000, in 26 of the 27 countries for which data is available; the exception is Austria. The countries with the highest ratio of female to male tertiary level graduates were Portugal, Iceland, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland, where there were approximately 7 females per 4 males. In Germany, Austria, Malta and Romania, values are almost the same for both sexes.

FIGURE F14: WOMEN PER 100 MEN GRADUATING FROM TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6), 2000



EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
123	127	141	101	(-)	134	124	123	127	(-)	118	90	186	150	140	122	181	(-)	190	181	125	194	194	173	168	124	107	183	111	133	122

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Finland and Cyprus: 1999 data.

Luxembourg: The country does not have a complete university system and most students study abroad; breakdown by sex is not available.

Poland and Romania: Excludes ISCED level 6.

Austria: ISCED level 5B refers to previous year.

Cyprus: Excludes students graduating abroad. The number of students studying abroad accounts for over half of the total number of Cypriot tertiary level students. The fields of study in Cyprus are limited.

Romania: Excludes second qualifications.

Explanatory note

The number of female graduates per 100 males is calculated by dividing the total number of female graduates by the total number of male graduates and multiplying the result by 100.

However, it should be emphasised that graduation rates are related to enrolment/participation rates. Thus the countries mentioned above as having the highest ratio of women graduates also have the highest participation rates for women (see Figure F9). Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Norway also have some of the highest participation rates for women and they produce approximately three female per two male graduates. While Italy has a very high participation rate for women, the female to male graduate ratio there is not as pronounced as in the other countries that have high participation rates for women (4:3). Conversely, the countries mentioned in the first paragraph as having close to the same graduation rate for men and women also have fairly similar participation rates.

OVER A THIRD OF TERTIARY EDUCATION GRADUATES HAVE STUDIED IN THE 'SOCIAL SCIENCES, BUSINESS AND LAW' FIELD

The analysis of the numbers of graduates per field of education and training also has to take into account enrolment in that field (see the text in Figures F10, F11 and F14), which may in turn be limited by restrictions on admission (entrance examination, *numerus clausus*, etc.; see also Figure F1).

On average, in the countries covered by this publication, over a third of those obtaining a tertiary education qualification in 2000, were graduates from the field 'social sciences, business and law', which includes journalism. With 14 % and 13 % respectively, the 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' field and the 'health and welfare' field, account for the next highest proportion of graduates. The lowest percentage (2 %) is observed in 'agriculture and veterinary science'.

FIGURE F15: DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES AMONG THE DIFFERENT FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING (ISCED 5 AND 6), 2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Finland and Cyprus: 1999 data.

Luxembourg: The country does not have a complete university system. 'Law' and some 'educational science' graduates are excluded.

Austria: ISCED level 5B refers to the previous year.

Cyprus: Excludes students graduating abroad. The number of students studying abroad accounts for over half of the total number of Cypriot tertiary level students. The fields of study in Cyprus are limited.

Poland and Romania: Excludes ISCED level 6.

Romania: Excludes second qualifications.

Explanatory note

This indicator excludes the number of graduates in 'fields of study unknown' from the denominator but the totals for each country in the field unknown are indicated in the annexe table.

The greatest proportion of tertiary education graduates in almost all countries is in the 'social sciences, business and law' field; in Luxembourg, Bulgaria, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Poland, Romania and Slovenia, over 40 % of graduates come from this field. On the other hand, Denmark, Germany and Sweden do not follow the same pattern. In those countries, 'health and welfare' is the field with the highest numbers of graduates (29 %, 26 % and 21 %, respectively).

Graduates from the 'humanities and arts', 'science, mathematics and computing' 'health and welfare' fields are proportionally more numerous in EU countries than in candidate countries. Conversely, graduates from the 'services' field are proportionally more numerous in candidate countries (where they range from 2.7 % in Malta to 9.4 % in Cyprus) than in EU countries (where the range is from 0.3 % in Italy to 6.5 % in Finland).

COMPARABLE PROPORTIONS OF MEN AND WOMEN GRADUATES IN THE FIELD OF 'SERVICES'

The distribution of qualifications between males and females depends on the discipline. Most qualifications in 'education', 'humanities and arts', 'social sciences, business and law' and 'health and welfare' are given to females (respectively 76 %, 69 %, 59 %, and 74 %). For 'humanities and arts' and 'health and welfare', this disparity is present in every one of the 27 countries for which data is available. In the 'education' field only Romania has a majority of male graduates, and more women than men obtained a qualification in the 'social sciences, business and law' field in all countries except Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands.

FIGURE F16: PROPORTION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS (ISCED 5 AND 6) AWARDED TO WOMEN, BY FIELD OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING, 2000

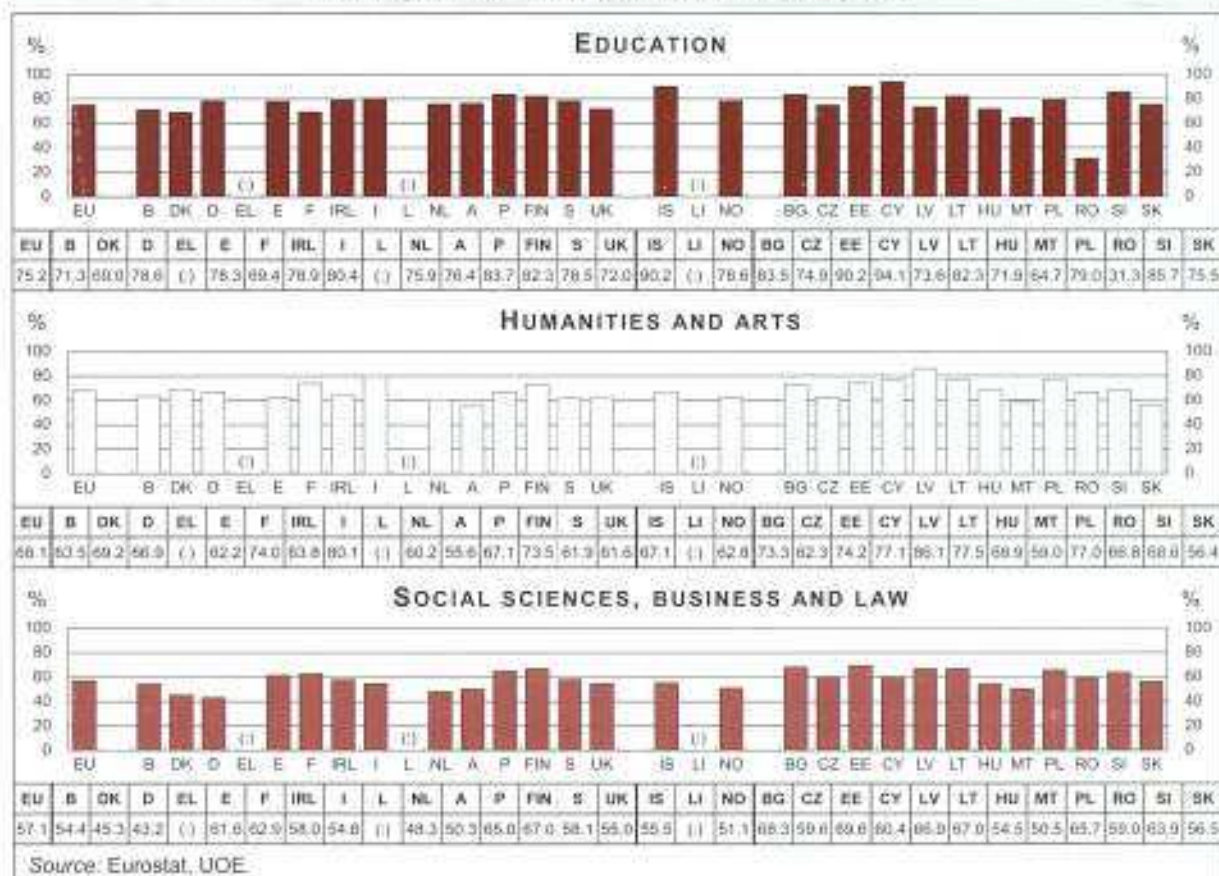
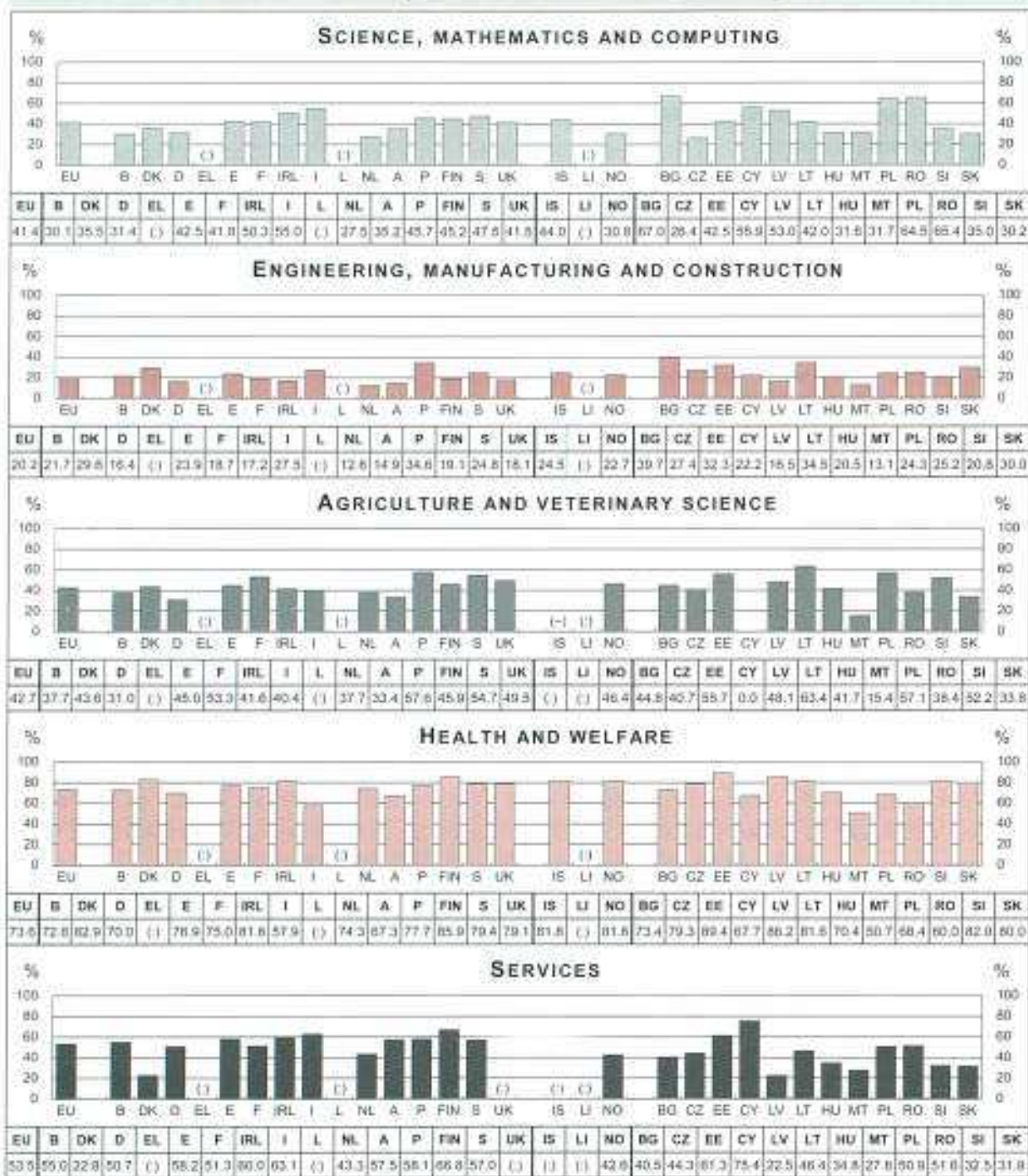


FIGURE F16 (CONTINUED): PROPORTION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS (ISCED 5 AND 6) AWARDED TO WOMEN, BY FIELD OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING, 2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Finland and Cyprus: 1999 data.

Luxembourg: The country does not have a complete university system. A breakdown by sex is not available.

Austria: ISCED level 5B refers to the previous year.

Cyprus: Excludes students graduating abroad. The number of students studying abroad accounts for over half of the total number of Cypriot tertiary level students. The fields of study in Cyprus are limited.

Poland and Romania: Excludes ISCED level 6.

Romania: Excludes second qualifications.

Explanatory note

This indicator is calculated by dividing the number of female graduates in one specific field of study by the total number of graduates in that field of study and then multiplying by 100.



Conversely, 78 % of graduates from 'engineering manufacturing and construction' are males. In Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Latvia and Malta, this figure reaches 83 % or higher. Graduates from 'mathematics, science and computing' are also mainly men (58 %), as are graduates from 'agriculture and veterinary science' (55 %).

The most balanced distribution between the sexes is observed in the 'services' field (51 % awarded to women on average). However, there are relatively few graduates from this field and there is a lot of disparity between countries.

In candidate countries, the general trends are similar to those in the EU and EFTA/EEA countries for most fields of education and training. However in the 'education', 'humanities and arts', 'social sciences, business and law', 'mathematics, science and computing' and 'engineering manufacturing and construction' fields, there are higher proportions of women in a larger number of countries than in the EU and EFTA/EEA countries. In these fields most candidate countries have a higher proportion of female graduates than the EU average. In Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Poland and Romania, more women than men obtained a qualification in 'mathematics, science and computing' (this is the case in only two EU countries, namely Ireland and Italy). Indeed, in Bulgaria, Poland and Romania approximately two-thirds of these qualifications were gained by women as compared to an EU average of 41 %. In the 'engineering manufacturing and construction' field, the proportion of tertiary qualifications awarded to women was between 30 and 40 % in Bulgaria, Estonia, Lithuania, and Slovakia (this was the case for only one EU country, Portugal). This compares to an EU average of 20 %.

Graduation rates by field of study are also, of course, related to enrolment/participation rates and so it is to be expected that more women graduate from a field in which more women are enrolled (see Figure F11). The fields mentioned above as having the highest ratio of female graduates also have the highest participation rates for women. Conversely, the fields with the lowest ratio of female graduates also have the lowest participation rates for women. The most balanced distribution between the sexes is observed in the 'services' field for both enrolment/ participation and graduation.

THERE IS GREAT VARIATION BETWEEN COUNTRIES WITH RESPECT TO THE NUMBER OF TERTIARY LEVEL GRADUATES IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY PER 1 000 YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE POPULATION

The share of tertiary level graduates from 'science and technology' fields per 1 000 young people in the population ranges from 4 in Hungary, Malta and Romania to 23 in Ireland (in Luxembourg the share is 2, but Luxembourg does not have a complete university system).

The share has at least doubled in Spain and Portugal (since 1993), in Austria (since 1994), and in Malta (since 1999). It has also increased considerably in Italy, Sweden, Estonia, Lithuania and Poland.

In Denmark and Hungary the share has decreased and in other countries it is fairly stable or has risen more modestly.

FIGURE F17: NUMBER OF TERTIARY LEVEL GRADUATES (ISCED 5 AND 6)
IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY PER 1000 INHABITANTS AGED 20-29, 1993-2000

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
EU	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
B	9.2	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	9.7
DK	9.8	(-)	9.6	9.4	(-)	8.1	8.2	(-)
D	8.2	8.9	9.3	9.3	9.1	8.8	8.6	8.2
EL	3.8	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
E	4.4	5.1	5.8	6.6	7.6	8.0	9.5	9.9
F	14.2	(-)	(-)	(-)	17.5	18.5	19.0	(-)
IRL	19.1	21.0	21.4	21.9	21.8	22.4	(-)	23.2
I	2.9	2.8	2.9	4.1	5.0	5.1	5.4	(-)
L	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	1.4	(-)	1.8
NL	5.5	5.4	5.8	6.6	(-)	6.0	5.8	5.8
A	(-)	3.2	3.3	3.6	4.3	7.7	6.8	7.1
P	2.4	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.8	(-)	(-)	6.4
FIN	13.2	13.0	13.0	13.1	15.8	15.9	17.8	16.0
S	6.2	6.3	7.3	7.4	7.8	7.9	9.7	11.6
UK	12.9	13.7	13.5	14.3	14.5	15.2	15.6	16.2
IS	(-)	(-)	(-)	7.9	7.7	7.0	6.3	8.4
LI	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
NO	(-)	(-)	6.5	9.1	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.9
BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	6.0	5.5	6.5	6.6
CZ	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.6	4.0	5.5
EE	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.2	2.9	5.7	7.0
CY	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.0	(-)
LV	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	6.9	5.9	6.3	7.5
LT	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	7.3	8.8	10.8	12.1
HU	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	5.0	5.1	4.5
MT	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	1.3	3.8
PL	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	3.8	4.3	5.5	6.6
RO	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	5.9	4.2	4.1	4.5
SI	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	6.3	8.0	8.4	8.9
SK	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.9	4.3	5.1	5.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

Additional notes

Luxembourg: The country does not have a complete university system, so data refers to ISCED level 5B first degree only.

Austria: ISCED level 5B is not available for 1998/99.

Cyprus: Excludes students graduating abroad. The number of students studying abroad accounts for over half of the total number of Cypriot tertiary level students. The fields of study in Cyprus are limited.

Poland and Romania: Advanced research programmes (ISCED level 6) are excluded.

Romania: Excludes secondary qualifications.

Explanatory note

This indicator is calculated by dividing the number of graduates (of all ages) in science and technology by the population aged 20-29 and then multiplying by 100.

TEACHERS

In Europe, the great majority of prospective teachers, regardless of the level at which they are intending to work, undergo their training in tertiary education, either at university or in non-university tertiary education institutions. University-level training becomes increasingly the norm as the level at which they are to teach rises. Indeed, for over a century, all European students intending to teach in upper secondary education receive such training.

Teacher training usually includes a general and professional component. The general component is the part given over to courses covering general education and study of the one or more specific subjects to be taught. The professional component involves courses devoted to the required teaching skills and school teaching placements. This theoretical and practical professional training may be given either at the same time as the general courses (the **concurrent model**) or after them (the **consecutive model**). The upper secondary school leaving certificate is the qualification required to undertake training in accordance with the concurrent model as is also, in some cases, a certificate of aptitude for tertiary education. In the consecutive model, students who have received tertiary education in a particular field at university then move on to post-graduate professional teacher training.

In a few countries, teacher training ends with a **final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase**. This is a period of transition between initial training and entry into teaching as a fully-fledged member of the profession. During this transitional phase, prospective teachers spend a significant period of time in a real (school) working environment, in which they carry out the normal tasks of fully qualified teachers, either partially or in their entirety, and are remunerated in return. They also get guidance from other fully qualified staff members. This phase includes a training component provided in most cases in close association with the institution in which the teacher received his or her formal training.

Thus in Germany, after a first stage of concurrent training provided by a tertiary education institution, future primary and secondary school teachers complete a programme of practical training in the form of compulsory preparatory service called *Vorbereitungsdienst*. During this period, they are remunerated and usually have the status of temporary civil servants. In France, during the second year in *Instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres* (IUFMs, or university teacher training institutes), those who have been successful in open competition follow a theoretical course that alternates with a practical placement lasting several weeks, during which they have the status of paid student teachers. In Luxembourg, admission to practical training for secondary school teachers is dependent on success in a national competitive recruitment examination. Student teachers are paid during this professional training placement.

In the United Kingdom (with the exception of Wales until 2003) and Slovenia, a compulsory final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase is arranged after initial training. This period, referred to as an *induction period* (in England), an *induction stage* (Northern Ireland), *probationary service* (Scotland) and *prilavništvo* (Slovenia), lasts for around one school year (except in Scotland in which it lasts two).

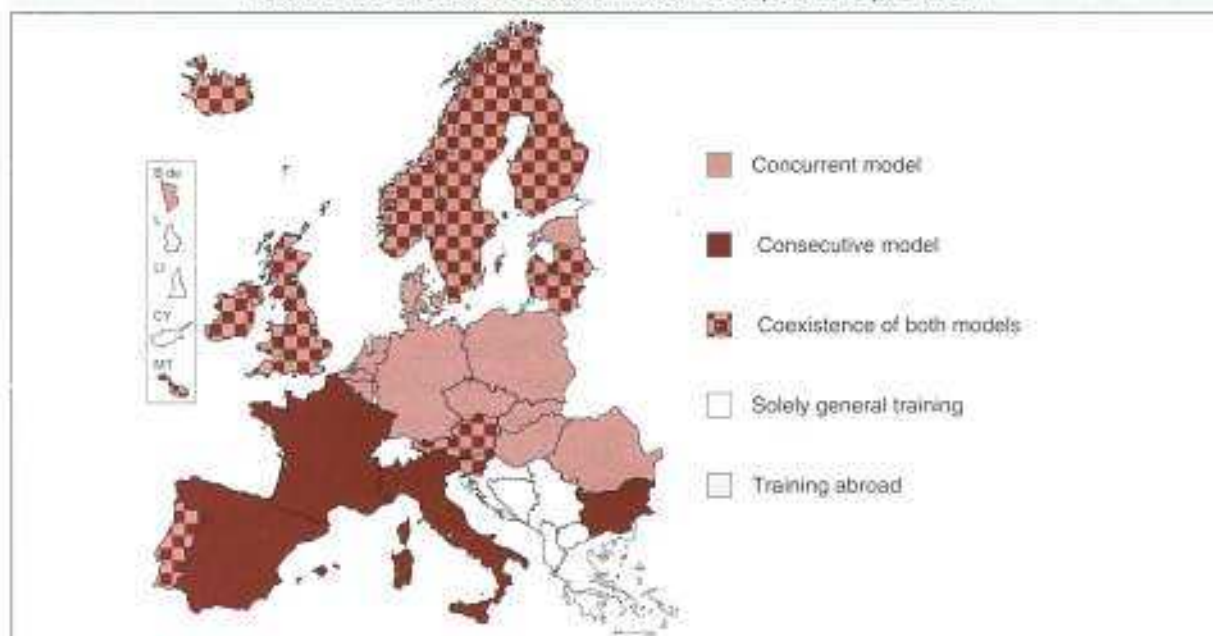
Figures G1 and G2 show how the initial training of secondary school teachers is structured in accordance with the concurrent or consecutive model. Figures G3 to G6 illustrate the length and level of training that correspond to each level of education at which teachers work, as well as the relative proportion of professional training within the whole of initial training with due regard for the final 'on-the-job' phase where applicable.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN COMPULSORY BASIC EDUCATION IS OFTEN PROVIDED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE CONCURRENT MODEL

In virtually all European countries, teachers at the **pre-primary** and **primary** levels of education are trained in accordance with the concurrent model. However, in France, all such teachers now undergo a consecutive form of training. In Ireland, in Portugal, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria and Malta (lower and upper secondary school teachers), both models coexist, but the concurrent model is the most common.

In the two countries in which school teachers for **lower secondary education** are trained at non-university level (Belgium and Denmark), this training is in accordance with the **concurrent model**. In other countries, in which training is provided at university level, the **concurrent model** remains the most widespread and exists either as the only possible option or **alongside** the consecutive model. In four countries (France, Spain, Italy and Bulgaria), the consecutive model is the only possible pattern of training at this level of education.

FIGURE G1: THE STRUCTURE OF TEACHER TRAINING FOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): Initial training is provided outside the German-speaking Community. Most teachers are trained in the French Community of Belgium.

Greece: Professional teacher training will be compulsory in 2003. At present, its provision depends on the training institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers intend to specialise.

Ireland, Portugal and United Kingdom: The consecutive model is the most widespread.

Luxembourg: Only the final qualifying phase for trainee teachers is provided within Luxembourg.

Austria: In the case of prospective AHS teachers, the consecutive system is in a transitional phase that is becoming increasingly similar to the concurrent model. Prospective *Hauptschule* teachers are trained in accordance with the concurrent model.

Finland, Iceland, Norway, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Slovenia: The concurrent model is the most widespread.

Sweden: Since the 2001 school year, there has been just a single type of training for *grundskola* teachers which is provided in accordance with the concurrent model.

United Kingdom: The most common training route is via the consecutive route where a first degree is followed by a one-year Post-graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course. However, in England and Wales, there are a number of alternative routes to Qualified Teacher Status, including, part-time and employment-based training.

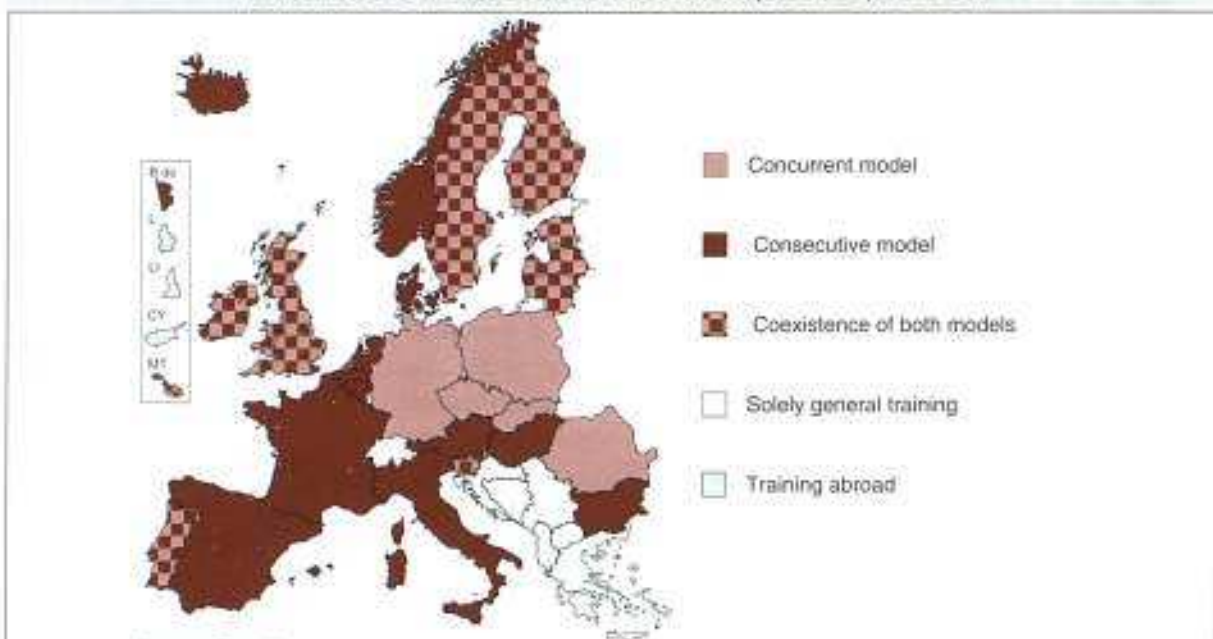
Liechtenstein: Future teachers undergo training in Austria or Switzerland.

Bulgaria: The main model in Bulgaria is the consecutive. However, some university faculties have recently introduced the concurrent model.

Cyprus: The majority of those intending to teach are trained in Greece, even though training has been offered in Cyprus since 1992. The final qualifying phase is compulsory for all new trainee teachers recruited to a post.

In the majority of countries, the **consecutive model** constitutes the norm for the training of teachers in **general upper secondary education**. However, all teachers working at this level in Germany, Portugal, the Czech Republic, Poland, Romania and Slovakia receive university-level training provided in accordance with the concurrent model. Some teachers in upper secondary education are trained in accordance with the concurrent model in Ireland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Estonia, Malta and Slovenia. In Finland and Lithuania, the majority of upper secondary school teachers are trained in accordance with this model.

FIGURE G2: THE STRUCTURE OF TEACHER TRAINING
FOR GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): Initial training is provided outside the German-speaking Community. Most teachers are trained in the French Community of Belgium.

Greece: Professional teacher training including a practical component will be compulsory in 2003. At present, its provision depends on the training institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers intend to specialise.

Ireland, United Kingdom and Slovenia: The consecutive model is the most widespread for teachers in secondary education.

Luxembourg: Only the final qualifying phase for trainee teachers is provided within Luxembourg.

Austria: The consecutive system is in a transitional phase that is becoming increasingly similar to the concurrent model.

United Kingdom: The most common training route is via the consecutive route where a first degree is followed by a one-year Post-graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course. However, in England and Wales, there are a number of alternative routes to Qualified Teacher Status, including, part-time and employment-based training.

Liechtenstein: Future teachers undergo training in Austria or Switzerland.

Cyprus: The majority of those intending to teach are trained in Greece, even though training has been offered in Cyprus since 1992. The final qualifying phase is compulsory for all new trainee teachers recruited to a post.



TRAINING INSTITUTIONS DO NOT OFTEN DECIDE HOW MUCH TIME SHOULD BE DEVOTED TO THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

In Europe, the training of most **teachers for pre-primary education** occurs in tertiary education. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, two forms of training coexist, one at upper secondary level and the other at university level. In Austria, training is provided either at upper secondary level, or at post-secondary level. In Germany and Malta, future teachers for pre-primary education are trained solely at upper secondary level.

In France and the United Kingdom, teacher training for those intending to specialise in pre-primary education is similar to or the same as training for primary school teachers. The situation is comparable in Ireland and the Netherlands, in which a distinct pre-primary level does not exist.

In most cases, teacher training for pre-primary education lasts three or four years. However, in France, Latvia and Poland, the corresponding provision is longer (five years), whereas in Malta it is shorter (two years). In Austria, the period of training depends on the level at which it is provided. It lasts two years at post-secondary level and five years at upper secondary level.

Training institutions are totally free to decide the share of time that should be devoted to specifically professional training solely in Belgium (Flemish Community), Portugal (up to 2002), the Czech Republic (university level) and Slovakia. Elsewhere, a compulsory minimum period is stipulated. Within initial training, the time earmarked for professional teacher training varies very considerably, from a compulsory minimum of around six months in Estonia and Poland to the equivalent of over two-and-a-half years in Germany and Luxembourg.

The time devoted to the practical aspects of initial training is partly linked to the educational level at which training is provided. For example, when teacher training for pre-primary education is offered in secondary education, the proportion of specifically professional training is always over 50 % and may even exceed 90 %, as in Malta. When training is at non-university tertiary level (ISCED 5B), the proportion of professional training is never less than 30 % and is often at least 60 % (French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Luxembourg and Slovenia). Conversely, at university level (ISCED 5A), the proportion of professional training is always less than 60 %, except in Ireland and Iceland. The longer the training at this level, the smaller is the proportion of time devoted to professional training (Poland).

Exploratory note relating to Figures G3-G4-G5-G6

When determining the proportion of professional training in total initial training, only the compulsory minimum curriculum for all future teachers is taken into account. Within this compulsory minimum curriculum, a distinction is drawn between:

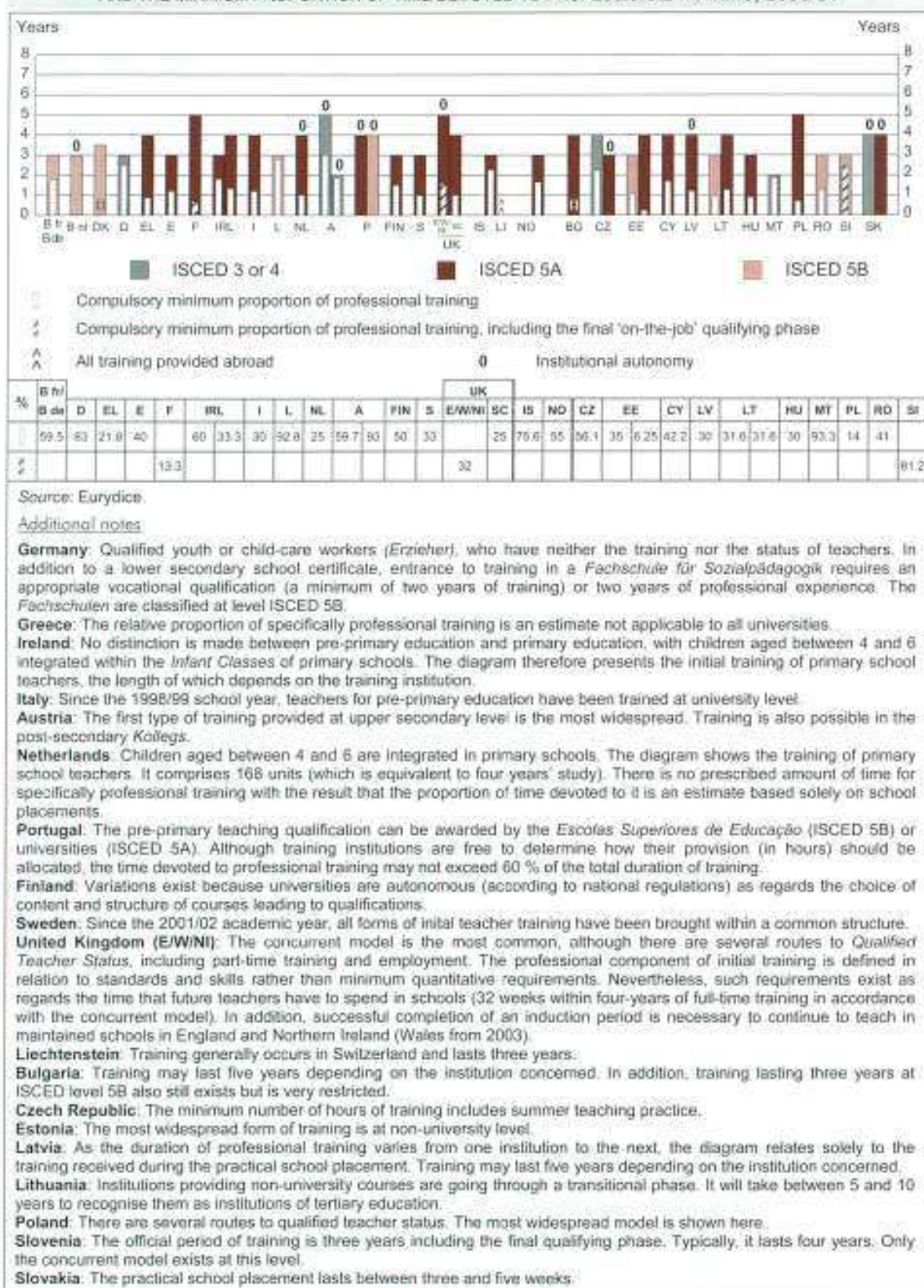
- general or subject-oriented training, corresponding to the share of training devoted to a thorough command of the one or more subjects to be taught, as well as to general or theoretical courses whose content is more broadly based;
- professional training, which includes all courses for acquiring the occupational skills of teaching and its various aspects (instruction, methodology, psychology, history of education, school legislation, group management, coordination of teamwork, use of ICT in teaching, etc.), but also practical school placements (whether for teaching or observational purposes).

Some courses are regarded as belonging to both professional training and subject-oriented training. Where a course involves both study of a specific subject and the methodology required to teach it, the time earmarked for this course has been divided in two and allocated in equal amounts to general and professional training respectively.

The final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase is defined as a compulsory period of transition (which may or may not be part of initial training) between the initial training of teachers and their entry into professional life as fully-fledged teachers. This stage includes an important supportive and supervisory dimension, as well as formal evaluation to certify the teaching skills of those concerned, without which they would be unable to enter the profession.

In some countries, the amount of time in initial training to be devoted to specifically professional training may be decided by the individual training institution. The **autonomy of institutions** may be total (no minimum amount of time is required). In these cases, the symbol \emptyset has been added. However, autonomy may also be limited. In such instances, training institutions have to set aside a minimum amount of time for professional training as determined by the central/top-level authorities but may also increase the share of it if they wish. Here, the minimum proportion is shown and the possibility institutions have of increasing it is also indicated by the symbol \emptyset .

FIGURE G3: THE MINIMUM LENGTH AND LEVEL OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING FOR PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION AND THE MINIMUM PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO PROFESSIONAL TRAINING, 2000/01



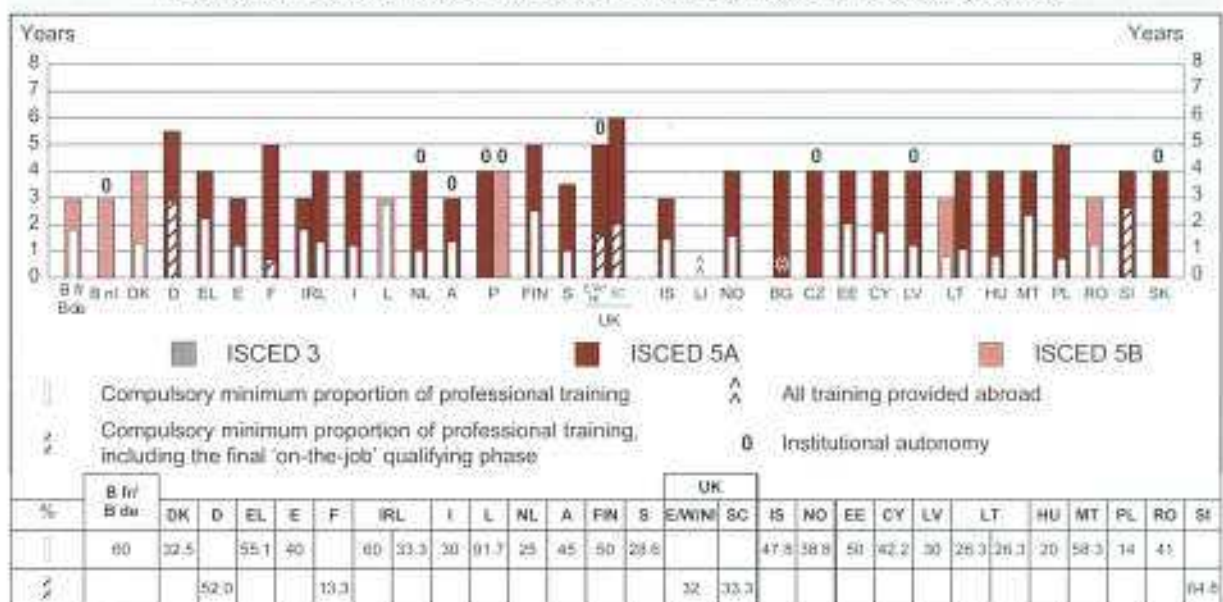


IN UNIVERSITY TEACHER TRAINING FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION, A LESSER SHARE OF TIME IS DEVOTED TO SPECIFICALLY PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

In the majority of European countries, **initial teacher training for primary education** is provided in university-level tertiary education. In Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Romania, it occurs at non-university tertiary level. In Portugal and Lithuania, university and non-university training are offered in parallel.

The length of training for primary school teachers and the time devoted to their specifically professional training depend on the level at which they are trained. Accordingly, in most countries that provide training in non-university tertiary education (ISCED 5B), training lasts three years and, except in Denmark and Lithuania, the proportion of time concerned with theoretical and practical teacher training is over 40 % (Romania), or even 60 % (Belgium; Luxembourg and Austria). Where primary school teachers are trained at university level (ISCED 5A), training in most cases last four years. In such instances, the time earmarked for professional training represents 13-60 % of total training time, with the highest percentages in Greece, Ireland, Estonia, Malta and Slovenia. In general, the longer training lasts, the lower is the proportion devoted to professional training (Poland). Germany is an exception in that the proportion of professional training is 52 % in a total period of five-and-a-half years.

FIGURE G4: THE MINIMUM LENGTH AND LEVEL OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION AND THE MINIMUM PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO PROFESSIONAL TRAINING, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: The seven semesters of university-level tertiary education, in a *Universität* or *Pädagogische Hochschule* (depending on the *Land* concerned) are followed by the two years of *Vorbereitungsdienst*.

Greece: The relative proportion of professional training is an estimate not applicable to all universities.

Ireland: The most widespread form of training for primary school teachers lasts three years and is provided in accordance with the concurrent model.

Italy: Since the 1998/99 school year, teachers for primary education have been trained at university level.

Netherlands: Initial training comprises 168 units (equivalent to four years of study). There is no prescribed amount of time for specifically professional training with the result that the proportion of time devoted to it is an estimate based solely on school placements.

Austria: The level of qualification obtained on completion of training was classified at ISCED level 5A with effect from September 2000.

Portugal: The model shown here corresponds to the training of teachers for the first stage of *ensino básico*. Since 1997, the teaching qualification for primary education may be awarded by the *Escolas Superiores de Educação* or universities. Although training institutions are free to determine how their provision (in hours) should be allocated, the time devoted to professional training should not exceed 60 % of the total duration of training.

Finland: This information relates mainly to teachers with tenure in the first six years of the *perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*. Within the framework of national degree regulations, the universities decide on the contents and structure of their degrees, and therefore variations exist.

Additional notes (continued)

Sweden: This information relates to teachers in the first seven years of *grundskola*. Since the 2001/02 academic year, all forms of teacher training have been brought within a common structure.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): The concurrent model is the most common, although there are several routes to qualified teacher status, including part-time training and employment. The professional component of initial training is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than minimum quantitative requirements. Nevertheless, such requirements exist as regards the time that future teachers have to spend in schools (32 weeks within four-years of full-time training in accordance with the concurrent model). In addition, successful completion of an induction period is necessary to continue to teach in maintained schools in England and Northern Ireland (Wales from 2003).

Liechtenstein: Training occurs in Switzerland or Austria.

Norway: The diagram illustrates the training provided in the *høgskole*.

Bulgaria: Training may last five years depending on the institution concerned. In addition, training lasting three years at ISCED level 5B also still exists but is very restricted.

Czech Republic: Training leading to a Master's level qualification may last four to six years. Initial teacher training for primary education generally lasts four years.

Latvia: As the duration of professional training varies from one institution to the next, the diagram relates solely to the training received during the practical school placement. Training may last five years depending on the institution concerned.

Lithuania: Institutions providing non-university courses are going through a transitional phase. It will take between 5 and 10 years to recognise them as institutions of tertiary education.

Malta: Initial training for all prospective teachers in primary education is provided in accordance with the concurrent model, given that the consecutive model has been abandoned.

Poland: Several training routes may be identified and the most widespread model is shown here. For teachers of foreign languages, a three-year training course is also provided (with the proportion of professional training accounting for 19 %).

Romania: Training is provided in teacher training institutions (*colegiu universitar*) run within universities and lasts just two years for students who have graduated from secondary level teacher training institutions.

Slovenia: The official period of training is four years including the final qualifying phase. Typically, it lasts five years. Only the concurrent model exists at this level.

Slovakia: Courses last four years for teachers in the first stage of the *základná škola* and five years for the second stage. The practical school placement lasts between three and five weeks.

Explanatory note (see Figure G3)

LESS TIME IS DEVOTED TO THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

In all countries, teacher training for **lower secondary education** is provided in tertiary education and leads, in most cases, to a university level qualification (ISCED 5A). However, in Belgium and Denmark, teachers enter the profession on completion of non-university tertiary education.

Irrespective of the educational level at which it is provided, the duration of teacher training for lower secondary education varies considerably from one country to the next, from three years in Belgium, Austria (*Hauptschule* teachers), Iceland, to six years and a half in Germany. As shown in Figure G1, the training of teachers for this level is often provided in accordance with the concurrent model. However, it should be noted that the longer training lasts, the more provision is in accordance with the consecutive model as in Italy and Luxembourg.

Like the length of initial training, the proportion of specifically professional training within it is often linked to provision in accordance with a particular model. Where training is in accordance with the concurrent model, the foregoing proportion is generally greater and often higher than 30 % of total training time (Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Austria (*Hauptschule* teachers), Norway, Malta and Slovenia). By contrast, where training is provided in accordance with the consecutive model, the proportion of professional training is always less than a third of the total period of training, except in Italy, Luxembourg, Austria (AHS teachers) and Portugal.

In some countries, teacher training for lower secondary education is provided in accordance with both models. In Austria (AHS teachers), Sweden, Iceland and Slovenia, training based on the consecutive model lasts longest, but the proportion of professional training is greater in the concurrent model. By contrast, in Ireland and Lithuania, the relative proportion of professional training within initial training does not depend on the particular model governing provision.



FIGURE G5: THE MINIMUM LENGTH AND LEVEL OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING FOR LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION AND THE MINIMUM PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO PROFESSIONAL TRAINING, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: University level training which lasts between seven and nine semesters (three-and-a-half and four-and-a-half years) depending on the *Lehramt* (teaching qualification) at the *Universität, Kunsthochschule, Musikhochschule* or *Pädagogische Hochschule* (in one *Land*) is followed by two years of *Vorbereitungsdienst*.

Greece: Professional teacher training is not compulsory. Its provision depends on the training institution of prospective teachers and the subjects in which they are specialising. With effect from 2003, future teachers will have to obtain a certificate testifying to their teaching skills.

Spain: The university qualification obtained after four-, five- or six-year courses is not a qualification for teaching at secondary level. It is necessary to take a teacher training course lasting a minimum of 300 hours. The new professional training study programme, which has so far been implemented in only a few universities, comprises a total course load of 600 to 750 hours.

France: Students who have obtained a university degree and have been successful in the open competition for the *Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire* (CAPES) are admitted to professional training in the IUFM, which constitutes the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

Ireland: Whether training is provided in accordance with one or other model, it lasts four years and the relative proportion of professional training does not vary.

Italy: Since the 1999/2000 school year, the university qualification obtained after a minimum of four years has no longer been a qualification for teaching at secondary level. A professional qualification can be obtained after a two-year post-graduate course culminating in an examination.

Luxembourg: The general component of training has to be undertaken abroad. The length of initial training does not include the period required to complete a voluntary research project whose length is variable. The professional training of teachers occurs during the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

Netherlands: Candidates obtaining grade 2 may teach general subjects in lower secondary schools and vocational upper secondary schools only. Initial training requires 168 units (equivalent to four years of study). There is no prescribed amount of time for specifically professional training with the result that the proportion of time devoted to it is an estimate based solely on school placements. From 2001 onwards, an optional final qualifying phase known as the *LIO (Leraar in Opleiding)* was introduced. This had already existed in a pilot project phase since 1995. It lasts five months when full time or ten months if part time.

Austria: This diagram illustrates the training of teachers for the *Hauptschule* and the *Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule*. Training for the latter lasts four-and-a-half years and is followed by a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase. Institutions have some room for manoeuvre as regards the amount of professional training provided.

Portugal: This diagram illustrates the training of teachers for the third stage of *ensino básico*. Training may last four or five years, followed by a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

Finland: The information relates mainly to specialist subject teachers in the last three years of *perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*. The diagram shows training provided in accordance with the concurrent model. Training in accordance with the consecutive model normally lasts longer but the relative proportion of specifically professional training does not substantially change.

Sweden: The information relates to teachers working in the last six years of the *grundskola*. Depending on the subject chosen, training lasts at least three-and-a-half years provided in accordance with the concurrent model, or four-and-a-half years provided in accordance with the consecutive model. Since the 2001 school year, there has been just a single type of training for *grundskola* teachers which is provided in accordance with the concurrent model.

*Additional notes (continued)*

United Kingdom (E/WNI): The consecutive model is the most common, although there are several routes to *Qualified Teacher Status*, including part-time training and employment. The professional component of initial training is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than minimum quantitative requirements. Nevertheless, such requirements exist as regards the time that future teachers have to spend in schools (24 weeks of one year's full-time postgraduate training in accordance with the consecutive model). In addition, successful completion of an induction period is necessary to continue to teach in maintained schools in England and Northern Ireland (Wales from 2003).

United Kingdom (SC): Training lasts four or five years and is followed by up to two years of probationary service.

Iceland: The diagram illustrates the concurrent model, which is the most widespread one.

Norway: The diagram illustrates training provided in the *Høgskole*. At the *Universitet*, training may last from four to seven years depending on the subject chosen. The shorter the overall course, the greater is the relative proportion earmarked for professional training (ranging from 25 % in the case of a four-year course to 14.3 % for a seven-year one).

Bulgaria: Training may last four or five years. The share devoted to professional training is 0.5 % of the entire training of mathematics teachers.

Czech Republic: Training leading to a Master's level qualification may last from four to six years. Initial teacher training for lower secondary education generally lasts from four to five years.

Estonia: Training was extended to five years in 2001/02.

Cyprus: The majority of teachers undergo the general stage of their training abroad. The professional training of teachers occurs during the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

Latvia: As the duration of professional training varies from one institution to the next, the diagram relates solely to the training acquired during the practical school placement.

Lithuania: There are three training paths. The two most common models are four-year training provided in accordance with the concurrent model and five-year training in accordance with the consecutive model. A three-year training course can be taken in a teacher training college.

Malta: Training in accordance with the consecutive model may last four or five years. Professional training is provided in a PGCE course lasting one year. The proportion of professional training shown here applies solely to the concurrent model, provided at the University of Malta.

Poland: Several training routes may be identified and the most widespread model is shown here. For teachers of foreign languages, a three-year training course is also provided (with the proportion of professional training accounting for 19 %).

Romania: Training may last four or five years, depending on the subject to be taught.

Slovenia: The official period of training is four years for the concurrent model excluding the 10-months final 'on-the-job'-qualifying phase. Four-and-a-half year training is provided in accordance with the consecutive model. The professional training lasts 6 months. Trainee teachers are entitled to undertake their professional training phase and the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase within the same 10-month period.

Explanatory note (see Figure G3)

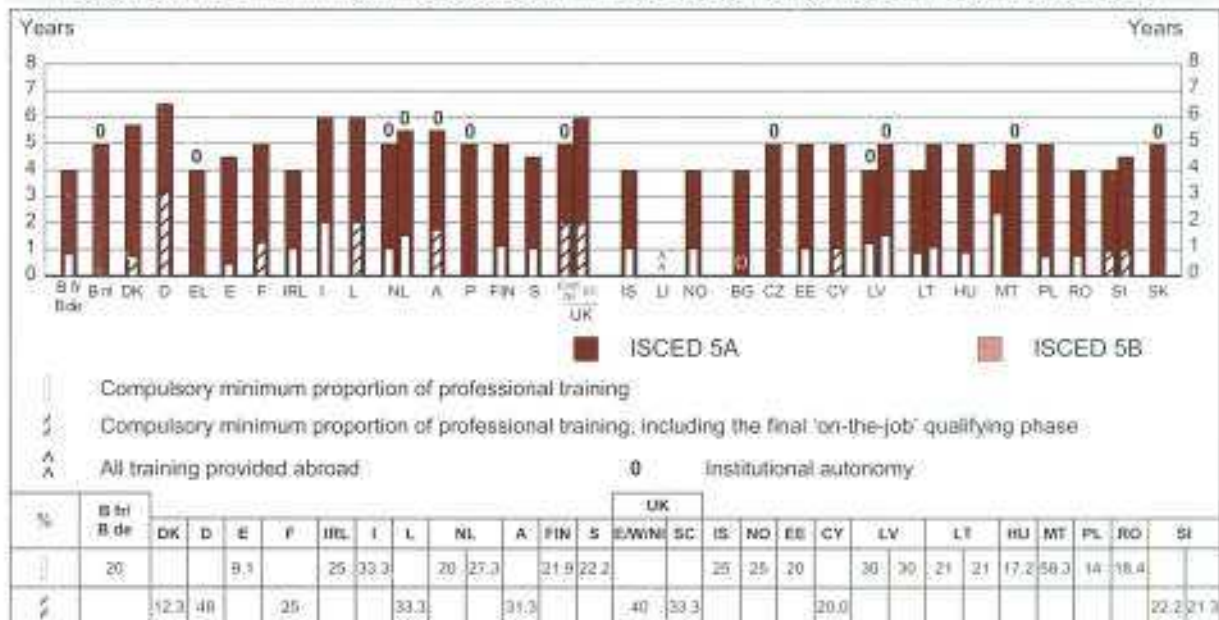


In all European countries, university level training (ISCED 5A) is provided for **teachers in upper secondary education**. Initial teacher training for those concerned most commonly lasts five years, even though around ten countries offer shorter periods of training. At six-and-a-half years, training lasts longest in Germany.

Irrespective of the model in accordance with which training is provided (see Figure G2), the relative proportion of theoretical and practical teacher training in the initial training of upper secondary school teachers rarely exceeds 30 % (except in Germany, the United Kingdom and Malta and, a little less noticeably, in Italy, Luxembourg, Austria and Latvia). In the majority of countries, the percentage of time devoted to the acquisition of teaching skills and their different aspects varies between 16 and 30 %.

Certain countries (Denmark, Spain and Poland) devote a smaller proportion of teacher training for upper secondary education (less than 15 %) to the specifically professional training. In Greece, only general training is compulsory. In France and Cyprus, future teachers undergo their professional training during the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

FIGURE G6: THE MINIMUM LENGTH AND LEVEL OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING FOR UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION AND THE MINIMUM PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO PROFESSIONAL TRAINING, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Postgraduate teacher training may be undertaken either parallel to the university course (along with the degree, in one or two years, and two years in the French Community) or following the university course (in one or two years part-time, and one year in the French Community). Lower secondary level teachers (see Figure G5) can teach in the first three years of general secondary school and in the first four years of technical secondary education but also, by special dispensation, in the whole of upper secondary education.

Germany: University level training lasting at least nine semesters (four-and-a-half years) at the *Universität, Kunsthochschule, Musikhochschule* or *Pädagogische Hochschule* (depending on the *Land*) is followed by two years of *Vorbereitungsdienst*.

Greece: Professional teacher training is not compulsory. Its provision depends on the training institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers are specialising. With effect from 2003, they will have to obtain a certificate testifying to their teaching skills. Depending on the university faculty, training lasts between four and six years.

Spain: The university level qualification obtained after four-and-a-half or six years has to be followed by at least 300 hours of training for those intending to teach at secondary level.

France: Two types of teachers can work at this level: *professeurs certifiés* who have obtained the CAPES (see Figure G5) and *professeurs agrégés*. After five years of university level training and obtaining the *agrégation*, they are admitted to the year of professional training in the IUFM.

Ireland: Concurrent training lasts four years while consecutive training involves a one-year, full-time post-graduate course.

Italy: The university qualification obtained after a minimum of four years is not a qualification for teaching at secondary level. Since the 1999/2000 school year, a professional qualification is obtained after a two-year post-graduate course leading to an examination.

Luxembourg: The general component of training has to be undertaken abroad. The length of initial training does not include completion of an optional research project.

Additional notes (continued)

Netherlands: Teachers who have grade 2 can obtain grade 1 by following a course parallel to the university course, comprising 68 units (equivalent to one and a half years of study), or a post-graduate university course, requiring 42 units (equivalent to one year of study). There is no prescribed amount of time for specifically professional training with the result that the proportion of time devoted to it is an estimate based solely on school placements.

Portugal: Although training institutions are free to determine how their provision (in hours) should be allocated, the time devoted to professional training should not exceed 20 % of the total duration of training. One institution offers training lasting six years, in accordance with the consecutive model.

Finland: The diagram illustrates training in accordance with the concurrent model. Training in accordance with the consecutive model normally lasts longer but the relative proportion of specifically professional training does not substantially change.

Sweden: Since the 2001/02 academic year, all forms of initial teacher training have been brought within a common structure.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): The consecutive model is the most common, although there are several routes to *Qualified Teacher Status*, including part-time training and employment. The professional component of initial training is defined in relation to standards and skills rather than minimum quantitative requirements. Nevertheless, such requirements exist as regards the time that future teachers have to spend in schools (24 weeks of one year's full-time postgraduate training in accordance with the consecutive model). In addition, successful completion of an induction period is necessary to continue to teach in maintained schools in England and Northern Ireland (Wales from 2003).

Liechtenstein: Training occurs in Switzerland or Austria.

Norway: Depending on the subject chosen, training may last from four to seven years. The shorter the overall course, the greater is the relative proportion earmarked for professional training (ranging from 25 % in the case of a four-year course to 14.3 % for a seven-year one). The majority of teachers of general subjects have more than four years of training.

Bulgaria: Training may last five years depending on the institution concerned.

Czech Republic: Training leading to a Master's level qualification may last four to six years. Initial training of teachers for upper secondary education generally lasts five years.

Estonia: Teachers trained for upper secondary education may also work in lower secondary education. Whether training is in accordance with the concurrent or consecutive model, it lasts a total of five years and the time devoted to professional training remains unchanged.

Cyprus: The majority of teachers undergo the general stage of their training abroad. The professional training of teachers occurs during the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase.

Latvia: As the duration of professional training varies from one institution to the next, the diagram relates solely to the training acquired during the practical school placement.

Lithuania: Four-year training is provided in accordance with the concurrent model, and five-year training in accordance with the consecutive model.

Malta: The proportion of professional training applies solely to the concurrent model. In the case of the consecutive model, schools are fully autonomous.

Poland: Several training routes may be identified and the most widespread model is shown here. For teachers of foreign languages, a three-year training course is also provided (with the proportion of professional training accounting for 19 %).

Romania: Training may last four or five years.

Slovenia: The official period of training is four years. Typically, it lasts five years or five-and-a-half years. Four-year training is provided in accordance with the concurrent model and four-and-a-half year training in accordance with the consecutive model.

Explanatory note [see Figure G3]



OVER 6 MILLION TEACHERS IN 29 EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

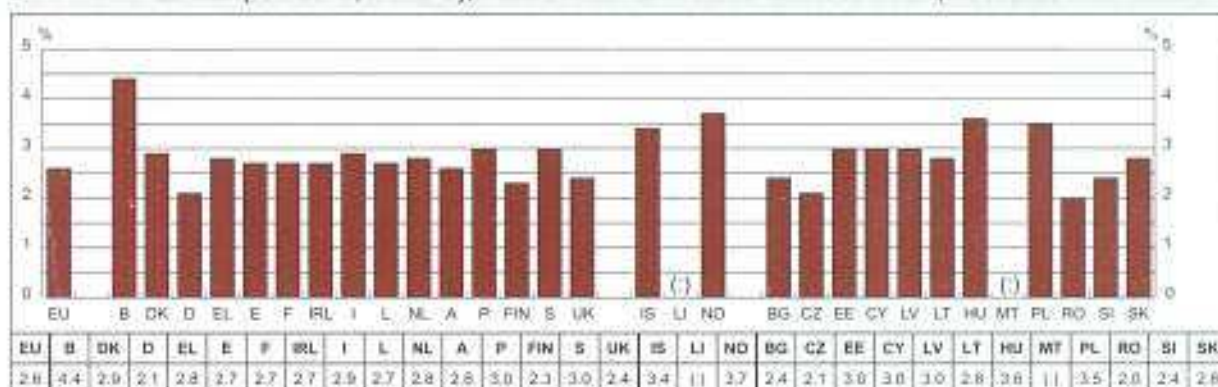
Figure G7 shows the number of teachers in primary, lower and upper secondary levels as a percentage of the total active population.

In view of the variety of situations around Europe, caution is necessary when comparing percentages between countries. An analysis of this sort should take into account demographic differences and factors such as the duration of compulsory education and the magnitude of the ratio of the active population to the total population.

At present, the EU has over 4.5 million teachers in the primary and secondary levels taken together; the total for the 29 European countries is over 6 million.

The teaching profession employs 2.6 % of the total active population in the EU and 2.7 % in the European countries for which data are available. Percentages vary however from one country to another: from 2.1 % or less in Germany, the Czech Republic and Romania to 3.7 % in Norway.

FIGURE G7: TEACHERS AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL ACTIVE POPULATION. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS (ISCED 1, 2 AND 3), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE and Labour force survey 2000 - spring results.

Additional notes

Belgium: The numerator excludes teachers in the German-speaking Community. Includes ISCED level 0 and ISCED level 4 teachers.

Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom and Hungary: Includes ISCED 4 teachers.

Luxembourg: Public sector only.

Netherlands: Includes ISCED 0 and ISCED 4 teachers.

Austria: 1998/99 data. School heads with or without teaching responsibilities are partly included.

Finland: Data on teachers in ISCED level 3 vocational programmes includes teachers in ISCED 4, 5A and 5B vocational and technical programmes.

Explanatory note

Only teachers in post are taken into account (allowing for exceptions): staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teaching heads, teachers on secondment, etc.) and teachers-to-be doing teaching practice in schools are excluded. Part-time teachers are sometimes counted twice in certain countries, particularly candidate countries.

The 'active population' represents the total number of employed and unemployed persons in the population.

THE RATIO OF PUPILS TO TEACHING STAFF IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION VARIES WIDELY; — IT RANGES FROM 10:1 IN SOME COUNTRIES TO 18:1 IN OTHERS —

Taking primary and secondary education together, there is a lot of variation in the ratio of pupils to teaching staff across countries (see Figure G8). In Ireland, the ratio of pupils to teaching staff is 1.8 times as high as in Denmark (18:1 and 10:1 respectively).

In **primary education**, the ratio has an even wider range, going from 10:1 in Denmark to 21:1 in Ireland. Some countries (Greece, Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands, Estonia and Poland) saw notable decreases in the ratios of pupils to teaching staff, at this level, over the last 3-6 years. Such decreases are often either a result of policy changes or of demographic changes. In Spain and Ireland, for example, the number of pupils enrolled at primary level decreased by approximately 19 % and 22 % respectively over the period 1993/94 to 1999/2000. On the other hand, there were notable increases in the ratios of pupils to teaching staff at this level in Austria and Lithuania.

The number of pupils/students per teacher decreased between **primary and secondary education** (see notes to Figure G8) in all countries with the exception of the Netherlands, Sweden and Poland. However, the magnitude of this decrease varies from country to country. In France, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Cyprus and Malta, the drop in the ratio of pupils to teaching staff from the primary to the secondary level is far more marked than in other countries (with differences between the two levels of 6-9 pupils per teacher).

There is less variation between countries in the ratio of pupils to teaching staff at **secondary level**. At lower secondary level, the ratio ranges from 9 pupils per teacher in Luxembourg and Malta, to 17 in the Netherlands. At upper secondary level, the ratio of students to teachers ranges from 9 students per teacher in Denmark, to 17 in Finland, Malta and Poland.

Explanatory note (Figure G8)

The pupil-teacher ratio is calculated by dividing the number of full-time equivalent pupils at a given level of education by the number of full-time equivalent teachers teaching at that level. Only teachers in service are taken into account (allowing for exceptions). Therefore staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teaching heads, teachers on secondment, etc.) and prospective teachers doing teaching practice in schools are excluded. Teachers include special education teachers and other teachers who work with students as a whole class in a classroom, in small groups in a resource room, or in one-to-one teaching inside or outside a regular classroom.

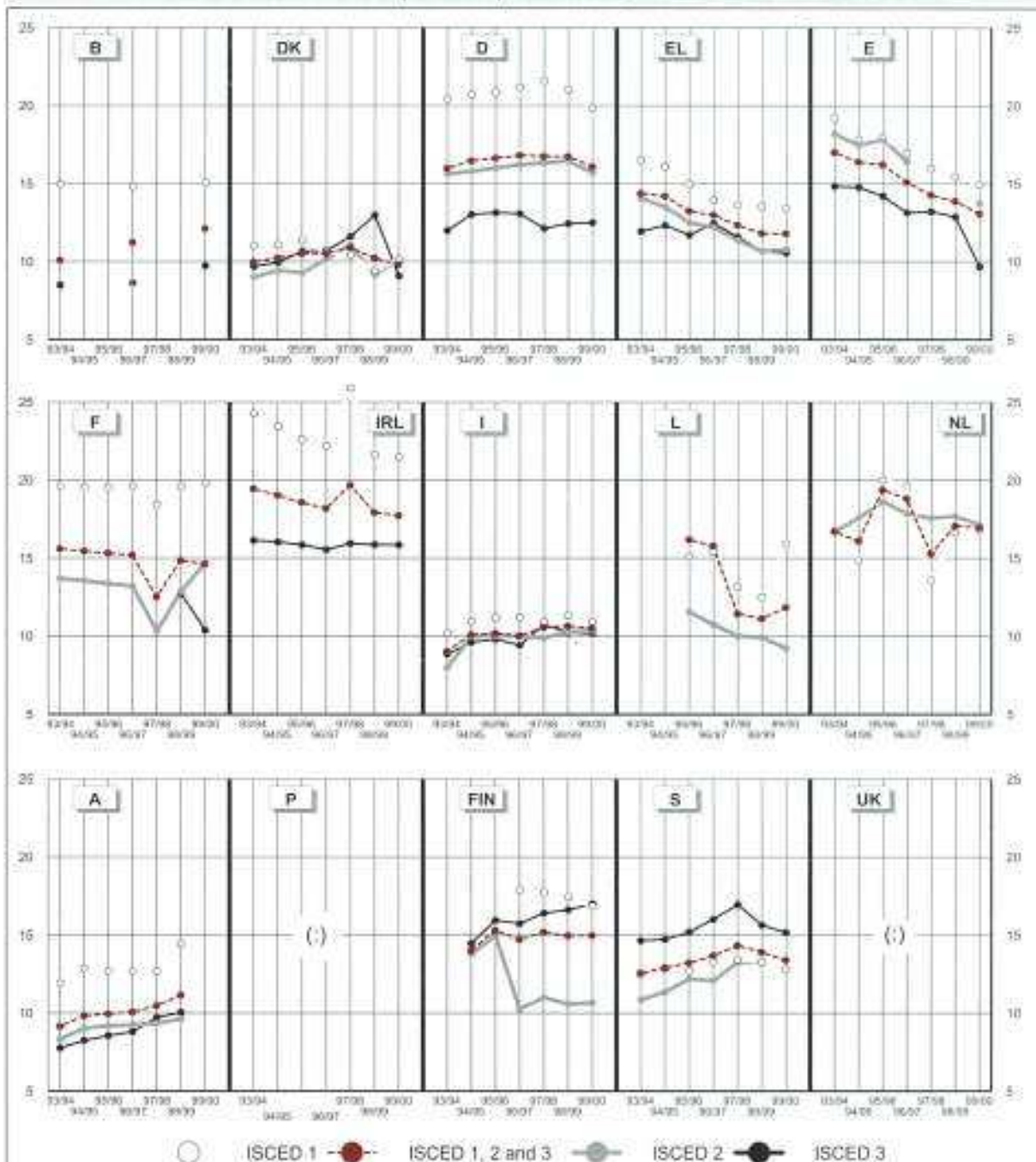
The pupil-teacher ratio should not be confused with average class size. Two of the many factors contributing to the difference between these two measurements are:

- the greater the number of teachers who only teach small groups of special needs pupils or specialised/ minority subject areas, the lower the pupil/teacher ratio, while this will have no effect on the size of the average class which does not include either of these categories of pupils;
- the difference between the number of hours of teaching provided by teachers and the number of hours of instruction prescribed for pupils (e.g. a teacher, especially in a country that has a single structure system for ISCED 1 and 2, may teach two groups of pupils per day in a shift system).



TEACHERS

FIGURE G8: RATIO OF PUPILS TO TEACHING STAFF IN PRIMARY (ISCED 1), IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY (ISCED 1, 2 AND 3), LOWER SECONDARY (ISCED 2) AND UPPER SECONDARY (ISCED 3) EDUCATION, 1993/94 - 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: The data includes teachers at ISCED levels 0 and 4. ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2. Data for 1999/2000 does not include the German-speaking Community.

Spain: ISCED level 4 is included in ISCED 3 since 1997 and in ISCED 2 for 1997/98 and 1998/99.

France: ISCED 2 includes ISCED 3.

Ireland: Most pupils who were classified as ISCED 0 in old ISCED (ISCED 76) are now classified as ISCED 1 in ISCED 97. ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2 and ISCED 4.

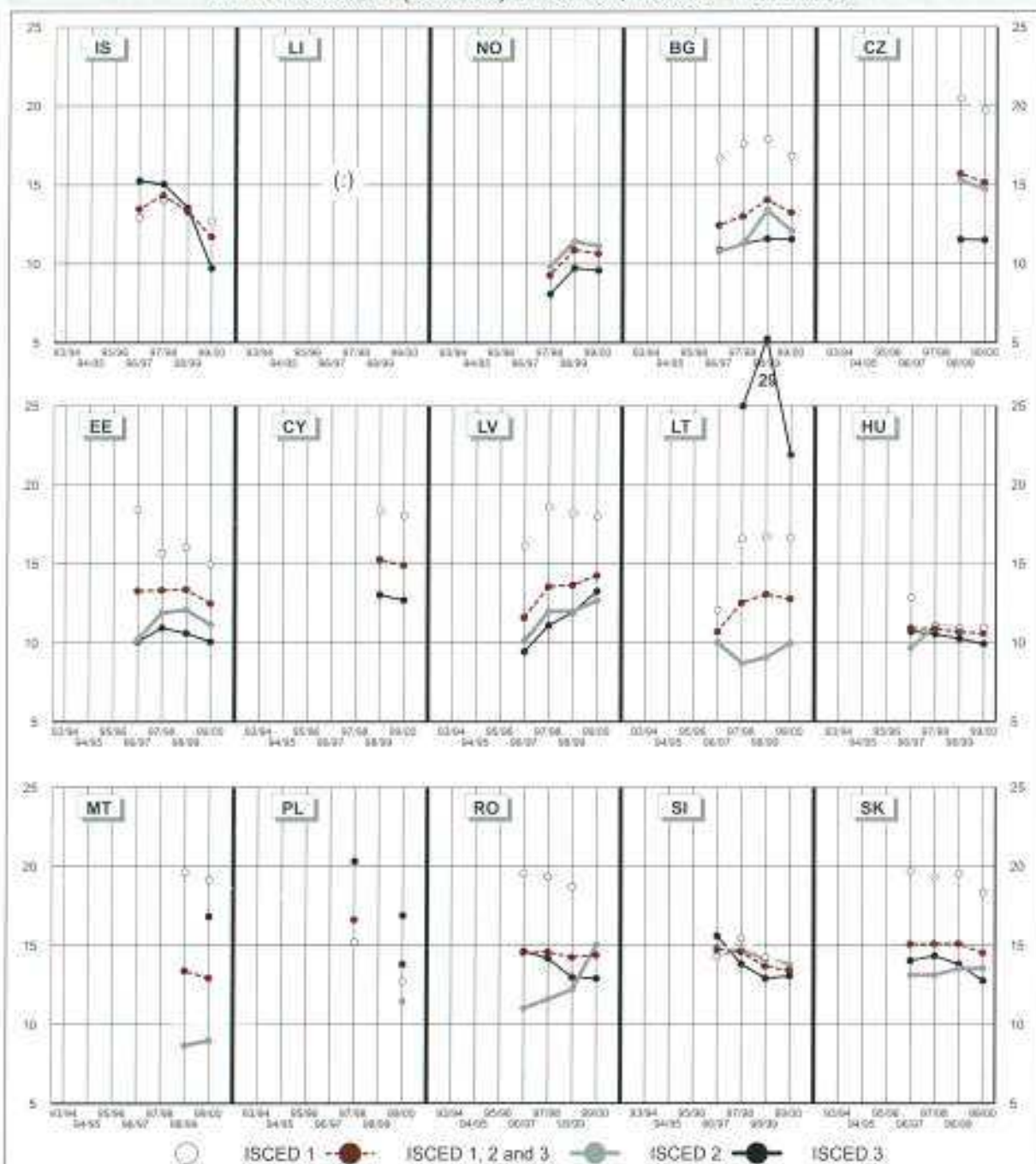
Luxembourg: Public sector only; ISCED 2 includes ISCED 3.

Netherlands: ISCED 1 includes ISCED 0, while ISCED 2 includes ISCED 3.

Portugal: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2. In 1999/2000, data are available separately for ISCED 2 and 3.

Finland: The distribution of educational staff for ISCED levels 1 and 2 is estimated. In 1994/95 and 1995/96, ISCED 1 is included in ISCED 2. Teachers in ISCED 3 vocational programmes include teachers in ISCED 4, 5A and 5B vocational and technical programmes (prior to 1997/98, ISCED 76 levels 5 and 6).

FIGURE G8 (CONTINUED): RATIO OF PUPILS TO TEACHING STAFF IN PRIMARY (ISCED 1), IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY (ISCED 1, 2 AND 3), LOWER SECONDARY (ISCED 2) AND UPPER SECONDARY (ISCED 3) EDUCATION, 1993/94 - 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Iceland: ISCED 1 includes ISCED 2. In the case of 1996/97, data for ISCED 3 relates solely to full-time public-sector education. Data for 1999/2000 includes teacher overtime.

Norway: ISCED 2 includes ISCED 1.

Cyprus: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2.

Lithuania: ISCED level 2 data for 1997/98, 1998/99 and 1999/2000 includes ISCED 3 teachers and refers to general programmes only. ISCED level 3 data for 1996/97 includes ISCED 2. Since 1999/2000, the duration of ISCED 2 general programmes has been extended, while that of ISCED 3 general programmes has been shortened.

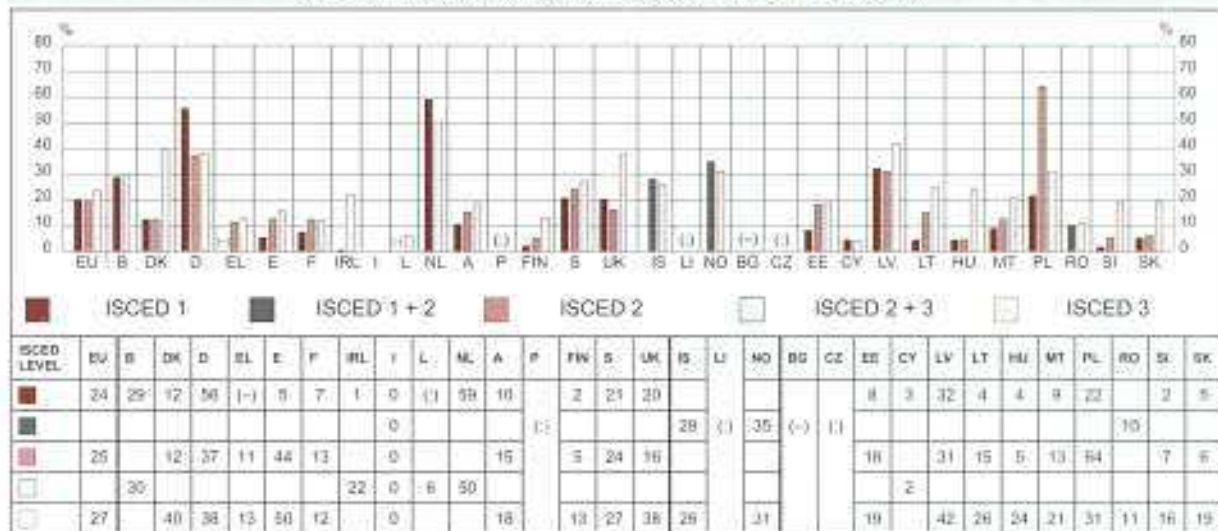
Romania: In 1999/2000, ISCED 2 data includes ISCED 1.

PART-TIME TEACHING IS NOT A VERY COMMON PRACTICE

In the EU, on average, one in four teachers works part-time at primary and secondary levels taken together. In candidate countries as a whole, part-time teachers are even less common. The proportion of teachers working part-time varies considerably from one country to another. The highest percentages of part-time teachers are found in Germany and the Netherlands, with respectively 43 % and 55 % part-time staff. On the other hand, fewer than 10 % of teachers work part-time in Greece, Luxembourg, Finland, Cyprus or Malta. In Italy, the percentage of part-time teachers is negligible.

The extent of part-time work also differs depending on the level of education. In general, the highest percentage of part-time teachers is found at upper secondary level and the next highest is found at lower secondary level. However in Germany, the Netherlands and Cyprus the percentage of part-time teachers is highest in primary education and in France and Poland the highest percentages are found at lower secondary. In Iceland and Norway there are higher proportions of part-time teachers at ISCED 1+2 than at ISCED 3.

FIGURE G9: PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS WORKING PART-TIME, PRIMARY (ISCED 1) AND SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) LEVELS, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium, Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom, Iceland, Norway and Hungary: The level combining ISCED 2 and 3 includes ISCED 4 teachers.

Belgium: Data for ISCED level 1 teachers includes ISCED 0. ISCED 3 data includes ISCED 2. The German-speaking Community is not included. Flemish Community teachers working in 'social advancement' provision at secondary level are included.

Luxembourg: Public sector only.

Netherlands: ISCED 0 teachers are included with ISCED 1 teachers.

Austria: 1998/99 data. School management staff with and without teaching responsibilities are partly included.

United Kingdom: There is a higher proportion of part-time teachers at ISCED 3 than at ISCED 2 because vocational education teachers are more likely to be part-time.

Czech Republic: Part-time teachers are included in full-time teachers.

Lithuania: ISCED 2 teachers include ISCED 3 general programme teachers.

Hungary: Distribution of teachers between ISCED 1 and 2 is estimated.

Explanatory note

Those whose workload is lower than 75 % of the full-time workload are considered part-time. All degrees of part-time work are taken into account.

Only teachers in post are taken into account (allowing for exceptions): staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teaching heads, teachers on secondment, etc.) and teachers-to-be doing teaching practice in schools are excluded.



ALMOST TWO-THIRDS OF TEACHERS (PRIMARY AND SECONDARY) ARE 40 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

For those countries for which data are available, the analysis of the distribution of teachers by age shows that, in almost all European countries (exceptions are Portugal, Malta and Slovenia), teachers aged 40 years and over make up more than half of the teaching staff. The high proportion of older teachers can be observed at both primary and secondary levels.

At **primary level**, Belgium, Bulgaria and Slovenia have the youngest teaching staff in the 20 countries for which data are available. These are the only countries where the proportion of teachers aged 40 and over is less than half of the teaching staff. Germany and Sweden have relatively older teaching staff (80 % and 72 % of teachers respectively are aged 40 or over). Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Malta and Slovakia have a relatively young teaching staff (45 % to 50 % of teachers are under 40). Luxembourg and Malta have the greatest proportion of primary teachers who are under 30 years old (28 % and 36 % respectively). In Germany and Italy, conversely, the percentage of young teachers (under 30 years) is very small (5 % and 4 % respectively).

In the vast majority of countries for which data is available, the teaching staff is older in **secondary education** than in primary. The exceptions to this rule are Spain, Portugal, Sweden and Malta.

Teachers in Germany and Italy are relatively older (83 % and 88 % of teachers respectively are aged 40 or over) while teachers are relatively younger in Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal, the UK and all the candidate countries for which data are available (37 % to 63 % of teachers are under 40 years of age). Portugal, the United Kingdom, Malta, Romania and Slovakia have the greatest proportion of secondary teachers under 30 years old (ranging from 15 % to 32 %). In contrast, Italy shows the smallest percentage of young teachers with only 0.1 % of teachers under 30.



TEACHERS

FIGURE G10: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY AGE BAND.
PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Excludes the German-speaking Community. Includes ISCED 0 teachers.

Germany: Some teachers cannot be allocated by level.

Luxembourg: Public sector only.

Netherlands: Includes ISCED 0 teachers.

Austria: 1998/99 data. School management staff with and without teaching responsibilities are partly included.

Finland: The distribution of educational staff for ISCED 1 is estimated.

Iceland: Includes ISCED 2 teachers.

Czech Republic: Part-time teachers are included in the data for full-time teachers.

Hungary: Distribution of teachers between ISCED 1 and 2 is estimated.

Romania: ISCED 1 teachers are included with ISCED 2 teachers.

Explanatory note

Only teachers in post are taken into account (allowing for exceptions): staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teaching heads, teachers on secondment, etc.) and teachers-to-be doing teaching practice in schools are excluded.

FIGURE G11: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY AGE BAND.
SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Excludes the German-speaking Community. Teachers in the Flemish Community working in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Belgium, Spain, Ireland, Netherlands, United Kingdom, Iceland, Norway and Hungary: Data include ISCED 4 teachers.

Denmark: National data. Teachers in private schools are not included.

Germany: Some teachers cannot be allocated by level.

Luxembourg: Refers to public sector only. A teacher can teach in the two levels of education (ISCED 2 and 3) as well as in general and vocational programmes.

Austria: 1998/99 data. School management staff with and without teaching responsibilities are partly included.

Finland: The distribution of educational staff in ISCED 1 and 2 is estimated; teachers in ISCED 3 vocational programmes include teachers in ISCED 4, 5A and 5B vocational and technical programmes.

United Kingdom: ISCED 3 teachers refer to general programmes only.

Iceland: ISCED 2 teachers are included with ISCED 1 teachers; secondary education refers to ISCED 3 teachers and some ISCED 4 teachers only.

Norway and Romania: Data include ISCED 1 teachers.

Czech Republic: Part-time teachers are included in the data for full-time teachers.

Explanatory note

Only teachers in post are taken into account (allowing for exceptions); staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teaching heads, teachers on secondment, etc.) and teachers-to-be doing teaching practice in schools are excluded.



THE OFFICIAL AGE OF RETIREMENT IS OFTEN 65

In virtually all European Union and EFTA/EEA countries, Cyprus, Malta, Poland and Romania, the official age of retirement sets the limit beyond which teachers no longer continue their occupational activity, unless there are special circumstances. This upper age limit is in most cases 65 years of age. It is less than 65 in France, Liechtenstein, Cyprus, Malta, Poland (in the case of women) and Romania. It is above 65 in Denmark, Portugal (the second and third stages of *ensino básico*) and Norway.

In most of these countries, teachers are able to retire before they reach official retirement age. In general, the normal minimum age at which they can retire is around 60 and carries with it full pension entitlement when teachers have completed the number of years of service required. This number varies widely from one country to the next and is, for example, 30 years of service in Spain (for teachers who are civil servants) and Norway, 40 years in the United Kingdom and over 41 years in Belgium. Additional or 'bonus' years (such as those spent studying or doing military service) may also sometimes be authorised for inclusion in this period, as is the case in Belgium. It should be noted that Poland is the only country to have retained arrangements for retirement after 30 years of service (including 20 years of actual teaching) without specifying a minimum retirement age. In France, the official age of retirement is 60. However, teachers may continue their careers until the age of 65, without having to satisfy any particular requirements.

In Finland (in the case of teachers appointed after 1993), Sweden and Malta, reaching the official age is the sole acceptable criterion for retirement, and it is not possible to retire any earlier.

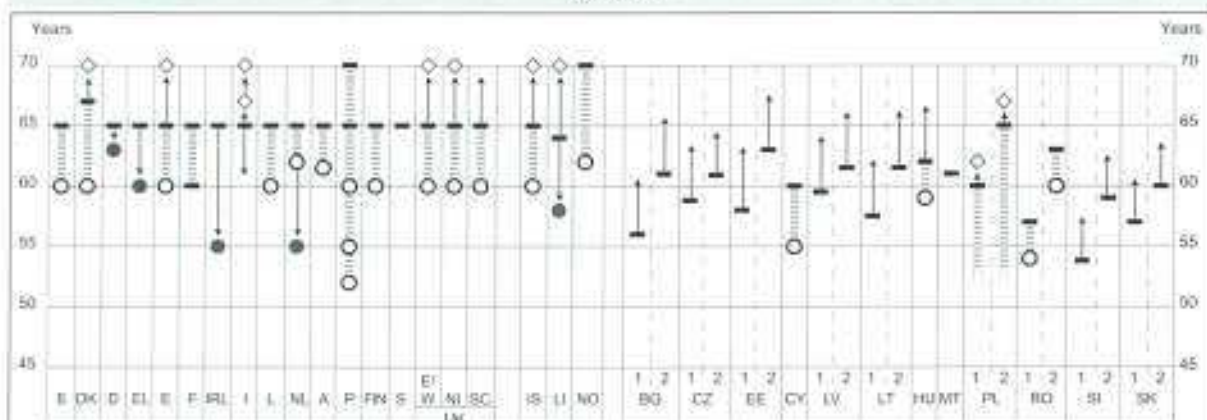
In some countries, the pension of those who retire before they reach official retirement age is reduced in proportion to the number of years of service still normally outstanding. This is the case in Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and Liechtenstein. In Belgium, Austria (for teachers who are civil servants) and the United Kingdom, it may be possible to retire from teaching earlier than the normal minimum retirement age. Where this occurs, the pension entitlement is reduced.

In several countries, teachers may extend their career beyond official retirement age if they have not completed the number of years of service entitling them to a full pension (as is the case in Spain, Italy and Poland). In the United Kingdom, an extension is also possible subject to an agreement with the employer and does not necessarily affect pension entitlement.

In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, the Baltic States, Slovenia and Slovakia, the official age of retirement corresponds to a lower age limit following which teachers may cease their occupational activity and secure a pension. There is no upper or maximum age threshold in these countries, beyond which they can no longer work. The official age of retirement is well below 65. Reforms are under way to place it between 60 and 63 years of age depending on the country concerned.

In the majority of countries, the criteria governing the age of retirement are the same for both men and women. However, differences exist in Austria (solely in the case of contracted teachers) and in several candidate countries. In these countries, women may in most cases secure their pension earlier than men. The tendency has been to lessen this difference between men and women. Ongoing reforms in Estonia, Slovenia and Slovakia are aiming to minimise it or abolish it altogether.

FIGURE G12: RETIREMENT AGE IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



- 1 | 2 Women | Men
- Official retirement age(s)
 - Minimum retirement age (with full pension entitlement subject to completion of the number of years of service required)
 - Minimum retirement age (with reduced pension entitlement)
 - ◇ Maximum age to which service may be extended beyond official retirement age, subject to conditions
 - Opportunities for extension / earlier retirement
 - ≡ The vertical bands illustrate the age ranges during which retirement with full pension entitlement is possible subject to completion of the number of years' service required (and shown in the table below).

NUMBER OF YEARS OF SERVICE REQUIRED FOR FULL PENSION ENTITLEMENT, IN CASES WHERE EARLY RETIREMENT IS POSSIBLE

B	37.5 – 41.25	P	32-30-36	CZ	25
E	30-35	FIN	30	CY	33.33
F	37.5	UK	40	HU	20
L	30-35	IS	32	PL	30
NL	40	NO	30	RO	Women, 25; men, 30

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Greece: The information applies to teachers who were appointed after 1 January 1993. Previously, the official age of retirement depended on the number of years of service and the sex of the teacher concerned.

Spain: A regulation of 31 December 1996 authorises teachers to remain in service until the age of 70 if they have not completed the number of years' service for full pension entitlement.

France: The diagram illustrates the situation of category A teachers (including the *professeurs des écoles*). Category B teachers, including the *instituteurs*, may still retire at the age of 55 in accordance with the 1972 law (with possible extension up to the age of 60).

Italy: Teachers who were in service on 1 October 1974 and have not completed the number of years' service required for full pension entitlement may remain in service until the age of 70. The minimum retirement age varies in compliance with progressive implementation of the 1995 law.

Netherlands: In the case of primary education, it is possible to retire or join the teaching profession after the age of 65, with the abolition of the current legal restrictions. Since April 1997, a flexible retirement scheme has authorised employees to retire or reduce their working time if they so wish between the ages of 55 and 65.

Austria: The diagram illustrates solely the situation of teachers who are civil servants. In the case of teachers employed under contract, retirement age is 60 for women and 65 for men.

Portugal: The diagram combines the situation of teachers working in the first stage of *ensino básico* (whose official retirement age is fixed at 65 but who can retire from the age of 52 onwards if they have completed 32 years of service, or 55 onwards in the case of 30 years of service) and that of teachers in the second and third stages (whose official retirement age is fixed at 70 but who can retire from the age of 60 onwards if they have completed 36 years of service).

Finland: Retirement age is 65 for those who have entered service since 1 January 1993. For those whose service began earlier, the retirement age alternates between 60 and 65 depending on the number of years in service and the date of birth.

United Kingdom: Most teachers retire at 60. After the age of 65, and up to the age of 70, teachers wishing to remain in service have to reach an agreement on the matter with their employer. Early retirement is also possible on health grounds.

Iceland: Teachers appointed before 1997 may retire after 35 years of service provided they have reached the age of 60, after 34 years of service if they have reached the age of 61, and so on. Since 1997, a new system has come into effect for the benefit of newly appointed teachers and teachers with many years of completed service wishing to take advantage of it.

Bulgaria: In compliance with the legislation, the retirement age is subject to changes on an annual basis.

Czech Republic: Since the law of 1996, the age of retirement has been raised each year by a few months with a view to reaching 61 for women and 62 for men in 2007. The retirement age of women is being lowered in accordance with the number of children. It is also possible, under relatively controlled circumstances, to retire two or three years earlier.

Additional notes (continued)

Estonia: The official age of retirement for both men and women will be 63 by 2016.

Latvia: Since the law of 1999, the age of retirement is being raised by six months every year to reach 62.

Lithuania: Since 1995, the age of retirement has been raised each year by a few months with a view to reaching 62.5 for men in 2003 and 60 for women in 2006.

Romania: The law of 2000, which is being progressively implemented between 2000 and 2013, sets the retirement age at 60 for women and 65 for men. The number of years of service required is being raised to 30 for women and 35 for men.

Slovenia: The 1999 law, which is being progressively implemented, fixes the official age of retirement at 58 for both women and men, subject to their having completed 38 and 40 years of service respectively. Years of service completed after the official retirement age has been reached are taken into account in determining the pension entitlement up to the age of 64 for women and 66 for men.

Slovakia: The retirement age of women becomes lower as the number of children they have increases (53 years of age is the minimum). A law is being drafted to raise the retirement age of women by a few months each year until it reaches 60 in 2019.

Explanatory note

Opportunities for early retirement (before the minimum retirement age) in some countries are not taken into account in this Figure.

A MAJORITY OF TEACHERS RETIRE AS EARLY AS POSSIBLE

Figures G13 (A and B) give the statistical data on proportions of teachers in the age groups closest to retirement age, combining it with the information on the official age of retirement already set out in Figure G12. Overall, most teachers leave the profession as soon as they are able to do so, whether they are working in primary or secondary education. Countries in which they tend to extend their career beyond official retirement age are few in number (Iceland, the Czech Republic and Latvia). In a few other cases (such as Ireland and the Netherlands), a significant proportion of teachers continue to pursue their professional activities after reaching the minimum age of retirement. It is worth pointing out that in both these countries, those who retire from the age of 55 onwards receive lower pensions (see Figure G12).

FIGURE G13A: PROPORTIONS OF TEACHERS IN AGE GROUPS CLOSE TO RETIREMENT AGE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 1999/2000

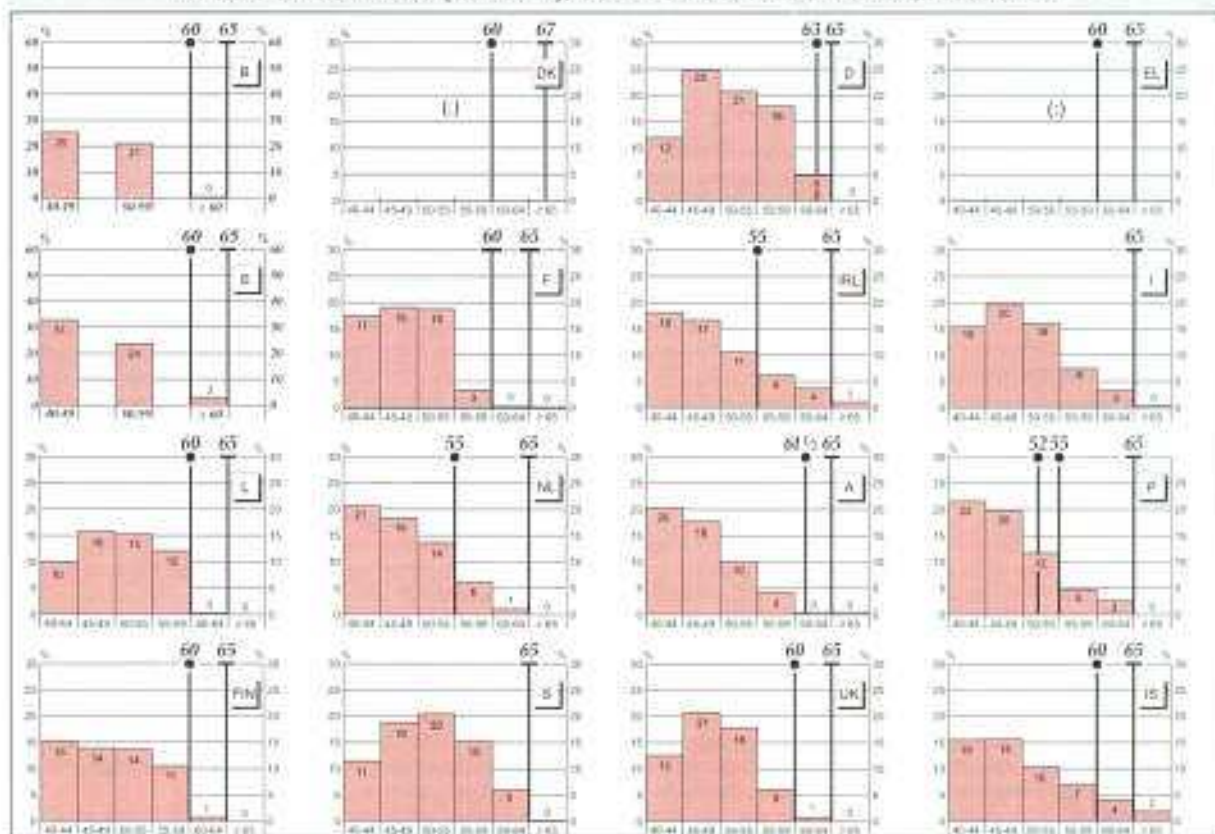
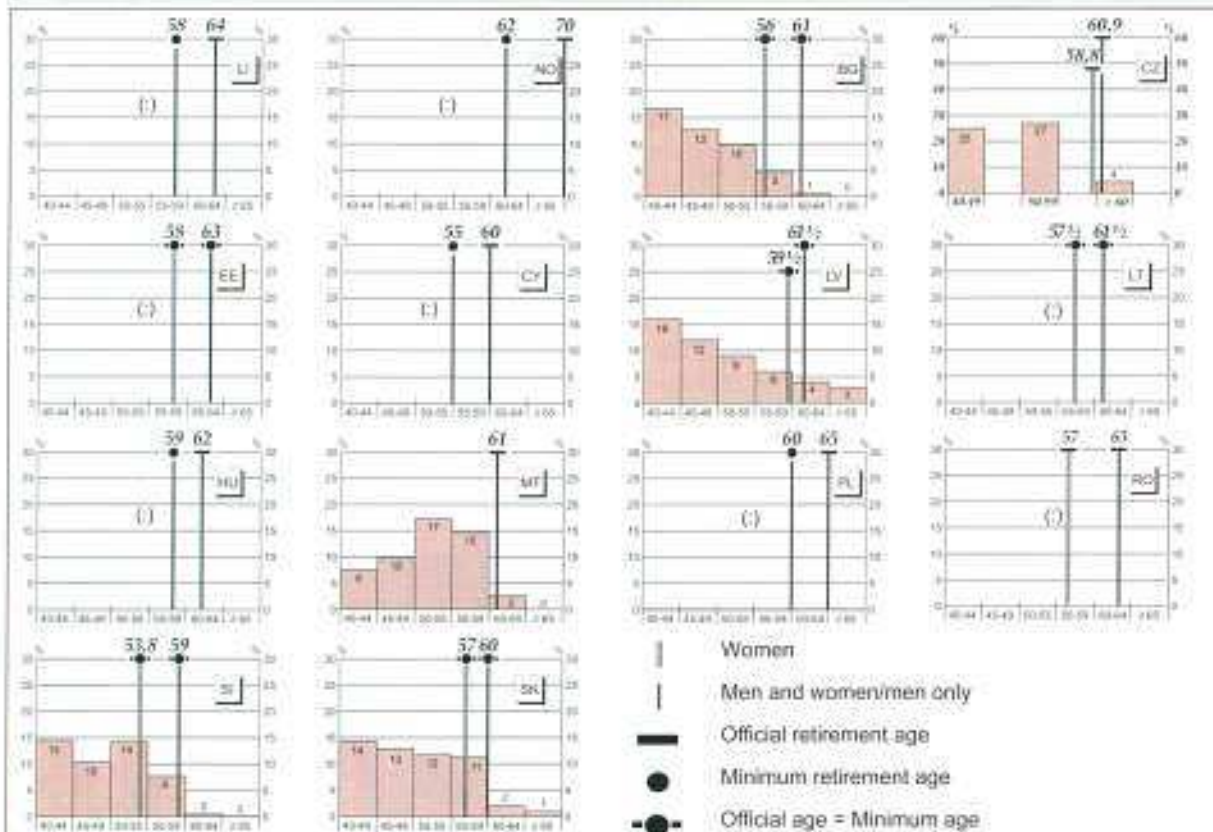


FIGURE G13A (CONTINUED): PROPORTIONS OF TEACHERS IN AGE GROUPS CLOSE TO RETIREMENT AGE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 1999/2000



Source: statistical data: Eurostat, UOE (1999/2000); retirement age data: Eurydice (2000/01).

Additional notes

- Belgium:** ISCED 1 data includes ISCED 0 data. Teachers in the German-speaking Community are not included.
- Belgium, Spain and Czech Republic:** The data are set out in age groups covering 10 years.
- France and Netherlands:** ISCED 1 data includes ISCED 0 data.
- Luxembourg and Czech Republic:** The data relates solely to public-sector education.
- Austria:** 1999/99 data. School management staff who may or may not have teaching responsibilities are partly included.
- Finland:** The distribution of teaching staff at ISCED 1 is an estimate.
- Iceland:** ISCED 2 data are included in ISCED 1.
- Norway and Romania:** ISCED 1 data are included in ISCED 2 and 3.

FIGURE G13B: PROPORTIONS OF TEACHERS IN AGE GROUPS CLOSE TO RETIREMENT AGE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 1999/2000

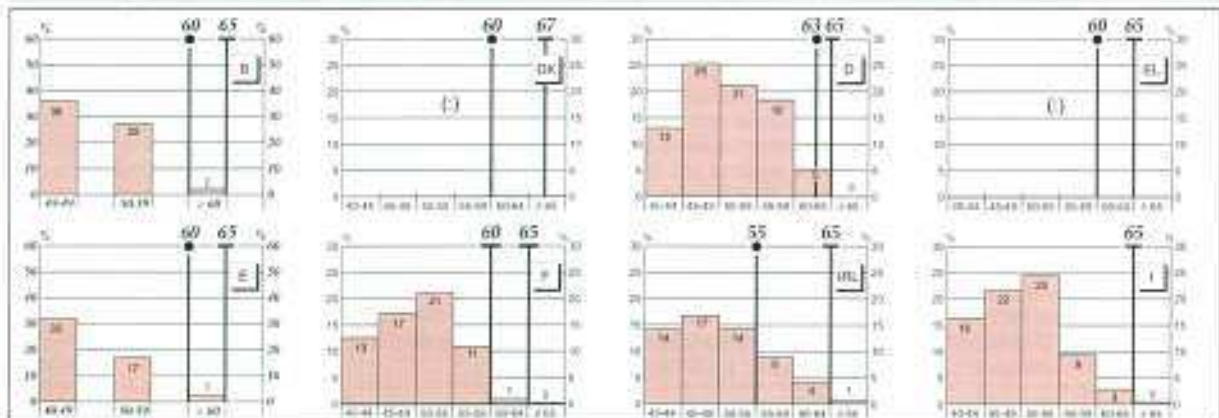
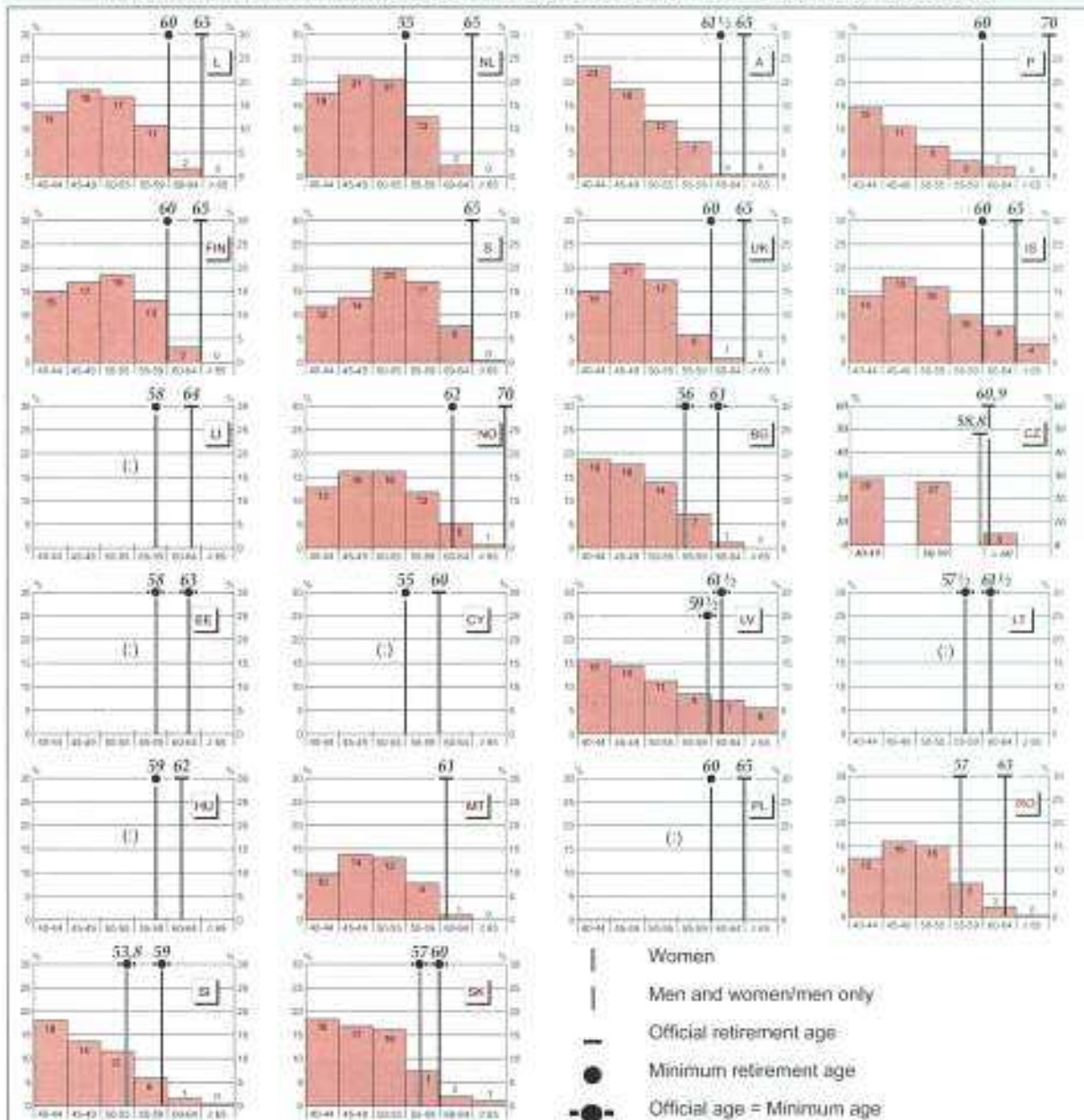




FIGURE G13B (CONTINUED): PROPORTIONS OF TEACHERS IN AGE GROUPS CLOSE TO RETIREMENT AGE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 1999/2000



Source: statistical data: Eurostat, UOE (1999/2000); retirement age data: Eurydice (2000/01).

Additional notes

- Belgium:** Teachers in the German-speaking Community are not included. Teachers in the Flemish Community working in 'social advancement' education at secondary level are included.
- Belgium, Spain and Czech Republic:** The data are set out in age groups covering 10 years.
- Belgium, Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway:** ISCED 2 and 3 data includes ISCED 4 data.
- Italy:** Data is missing for 18 % of teachers at ISCED 3.
- Luxembourg and Czech Republic:** The data relates solely to public-sector education.
- Austria:** 1998/99 data. School management staff who may or may not have teaching responsibilities are partly included.
- Finland:** The distribution of teaching staff at ISCED 2 is an estimate. The data includes ISCED 4 and 5 in the case of technical and vocational courses.
- United Kingdom:** ISCED 3 data relates solely to general courses.
- Iceland:** ISCED 2 data are included in ISCED 1. Data only includes ISCED 3 and some ISCED 4.
- Norway and Romania:** ISCED 1 data is included in ISCED 2 and 3.

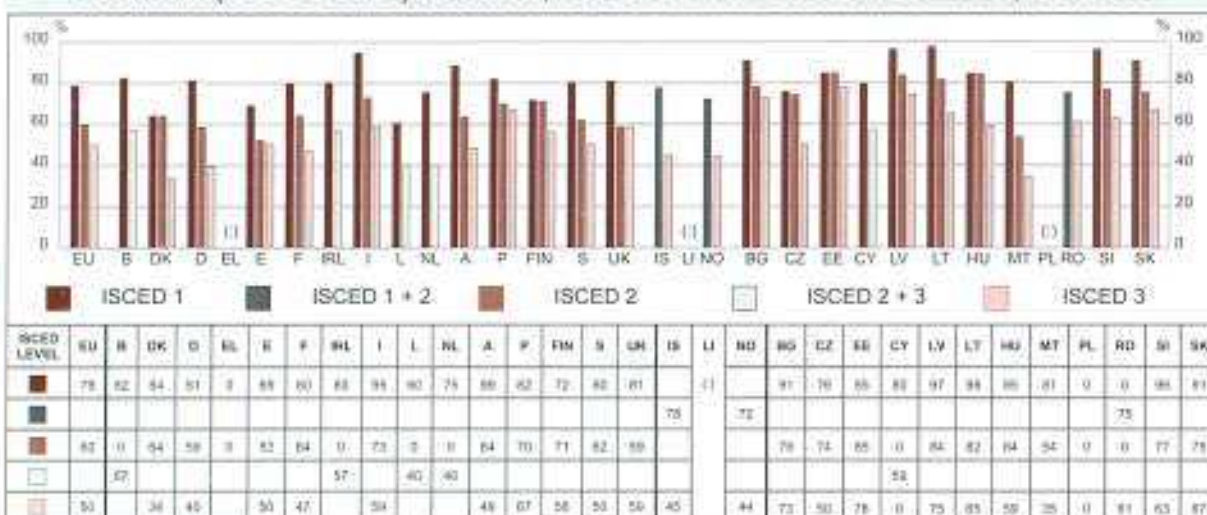
MORE FEMALE TEACHERS ESPECIALLY IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Primary level teaching is a predominantly female profession in Europe. In all the countries for which data is available, women are clearly in the majority at this level of education. The largest proportion of female teachers at primary level are found in Italy (95 %), Bulgaria (91 %), Latvia (97 %), Lithuania (98 %), Slovenia (96 %) and Slovakia (91 %). A particularly high proportion of female primary teachers is found in the candidate countries in general — with 85 % or more in all countries for which data is available except the Czech Republic, Cyprus and Malta. More equal proportions of men and women are observed at this level in Denmark (64 % female) and Luxembourg (60 % female).

The percentage of women in the teaching population declines at higher levels of education.

In upper secondary education, the male/female ratio in the teaching staff is more balanced. For the 25 countries for which data is available women are, on average, in the majority. However, in 5 of the 13 EU and EFTA/EEA countries for which data is available, men are in the majority. Denmark (34 %) and Malta (35 %) have a particularly low proportion of women teachers in upper secondary education. In the candidate countries, women outnumber men at both lower and upper secondary levels, except in Malta at the upper secondary level.

FIGURE G14: PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE TEACHERS, PRIMARY (ISCED 1) AND SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes:

Belgium: Excludes the German-speaking Community. Teachers in the Flemish Community working in education for 'social advancement' are included.

Belgium, Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom, Iceland, Norway and Hungary: Secondary education (ISCED 3) includes ISCED 4 teachers.

Luxembourg: Public sector only.

Netherlands: ISCED 0 teachers are included with ISCED 1 teachers.

Austria: 1998/99 data. School management staff with or without teaching responsibilities are partly included; part-time teachers are estimated.

United Kingdom: ISCED 3 teachers refer to general programmes only.

Lithuania: ISCED 2 teachers include ISCED 3 general programme teachers.

Hungary: Distribution of teachers between ISCED 1 and 2 is estimated.

Explanatory note:

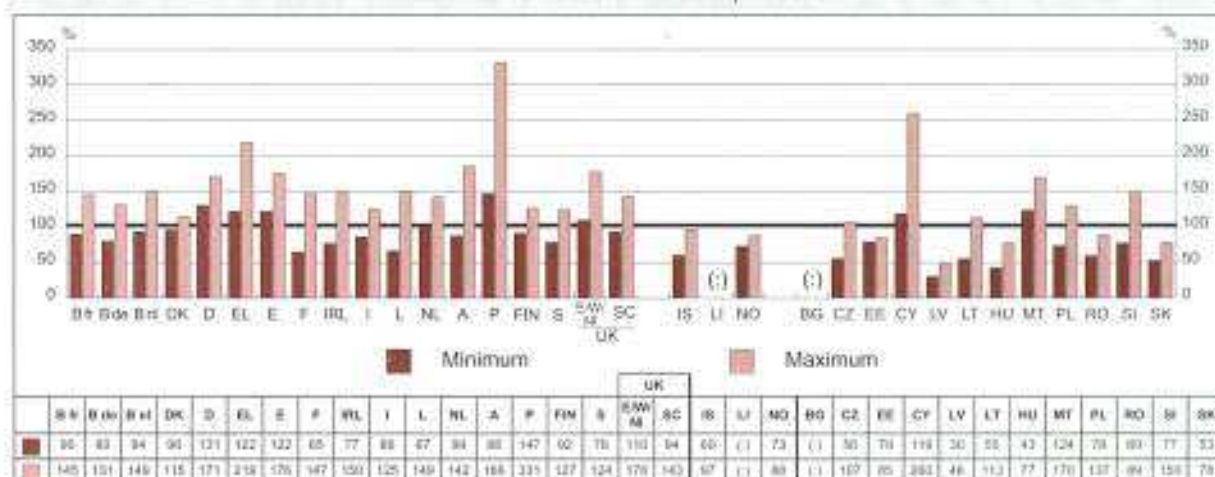
Only teachers in post are taken into account (allowing for exceptions): staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teaching heads, teachers on secondment, etc.) and teachers-to-be doing teaching practice in schools are excluded.

LENGTH OF SERVICE, RATHER THAN THE LEVEL AT WHICH TEACHING IS PROVIDED, REMAINS THE MAIN SOURCE OF DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER SALARIES

In order to illustrate teachers' financial position relative to the average standard of living in their countries, Figures G15 to G17 show for each level of education, teachers' minimum and maximum salaries as a percentage of **per capita gross domestic product (GDP)**, which gives an indication of the general standard of living in the country concerned. This indicator is obtained by dividing the GDP, which reflects the country's wealth, by the total population of the country. By systematically relating the salary of teachers (in national currency) to per capita GDP (at national currency prices), it is possible to compare their purchasing power both within each country and between countries. Analysis of this ratio provides an insight into the salary status of teachers.

Teacher salaries are established with reference to a salary scale determined in most cases at national level. Depending on the country concerned, one or several scales are used on which the number of grades may vary. Criteria governing progression on the scale may also vary but the number of years of service, merit and additional qualifications acquired, etc. are among those most frequently used. In some countries, these criteria are considered separately whereas, in others, movement up the scale is determined by considering them in combination. For this reason, it is not always possible to indicate the salary of teachers at the beginning and end of their career. In such instances, the minimum and maximum salaries given correspond to the two possible extremes of the salary scale.

FIGURE G15: MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01



Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

The reference year for per capita GDP is 2000. The reference period for salaries is 2000 or the 2000/01 school year.

Additional notes

Germany: Given the complexity and wide variety of individual circumstances, the salaries of teachers have been calculated on the basis of the average age at the start of a career (related to age at the outset and the total period of study) and salaries in the Länder of former West Germany.

Spain: Salaries in the Castilla-La Mancha Autonomous Community have been taken as an example because they are close to the average. Teachers in the other Communities therefore may have salaries that are either higher or lower.

Sweden: The minimum salary corresponds to the agreement reached by the teacher unions and the Swedish Association for Local Authorities. The maximum salary is not established with reference to an official scale and is not directly linked to the age of teachers or their career.

United Kingdom: A considerable number of teachers have special responsibilities and therefore receive higher salaries than those shown here.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): Data is based on salaries in London.

Iceland: Only basic salaries are shown. Possible additional payments (for overtime, extra responsibility, etc.) are considerable.

Liechtenstein: Per capita GDP not available.

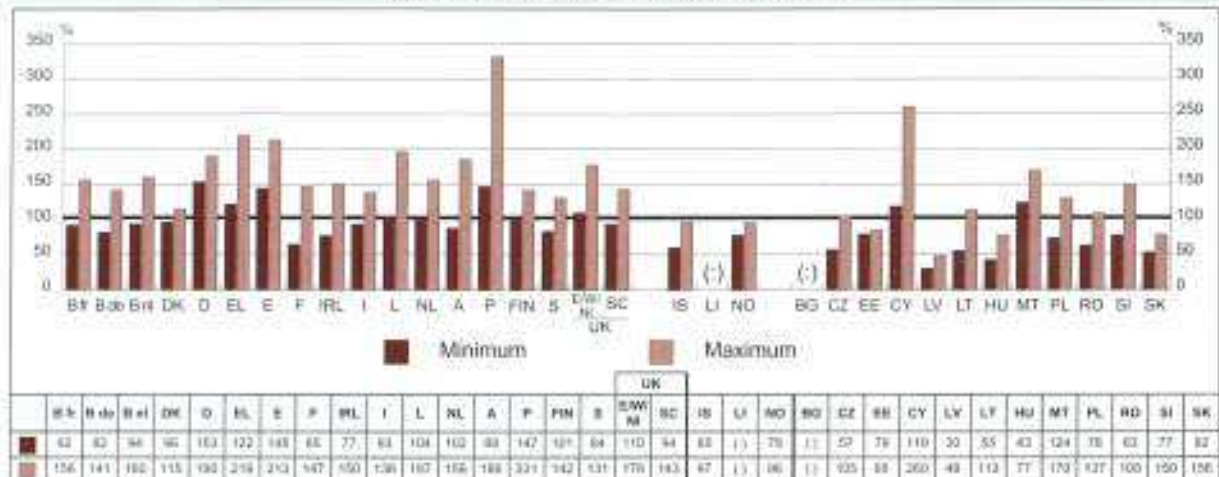
Czech Republic: The data includes the salaries of school heads.

Latvia: Even though they constitute a major share of teacher remuneration, bonuses and other additional payments are not included as they vary in accordance with resources and the prevailing system in each municipality.

Hungary: Data relates to teachers with a *fiiskola* diploma (the minimum requirement) without any additional professional qualification (for example, in-service training).

Poland: Teacher salaries and per capita GDP relate to 2001.

FIGURE G16: MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN LOWER GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01



Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

The reference year for per capita GDP is 2000. The reference period for salaries is 2000 or the 2000/01 school year.

Additional notes:

Germany: See Figure G12. Only the salaries of *Realschule* teachers have been used.

Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Czech Republic, Latvia, Hungary and Poland: See Figure G15.

France: The data refers to *professeurs certifiés*.

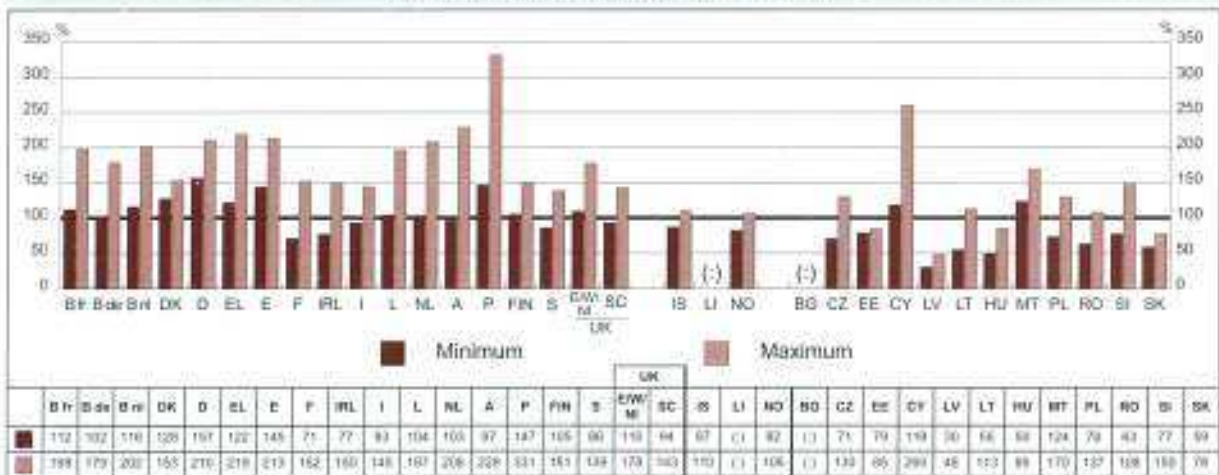
Netherlands: The salary shown is that of a teacher on grade 2 (the qualification required to teach in lower secondary education).

Austria: The data refer to *Hauptschule* teachers.

United Kingdom (SC): The maximum salary is that of a teacher who has not been promoted.

Norway: The salaries shown relate to an *adjunkt* teacher.

FIGURE G17: MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN UPPER GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01



Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

The reference year for per capita GDP is 2000. The reference period for salaries is 2000 or the 2000/01 school year.

Additional notes:

Germany, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Czech Republic, Latvia and Poland: See Figure G15.

France: The data refers to *professeurs agrégés*. Another category of teachers, the *professeurs certifiés*, can teach in upper secondary education.

Netherlands: The salary shown is that of a teacher on grade 1 (this qualification entitles its holders to teach in lower and upper secondary education).

Austria: The data refer to teachers in *allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen*.

United Kingdom (SC): The maximum salary is that of a teacher who has not been promoted.

Norway: The salaries shown relate to a *lektor*.

Hungary: Data relates to teachers with an *egyetemi* diploma without any additional professional qualifications (for example, in-service training).

**Explanatory note (Figure G17)**

The values appearing in these diagrams have been obtained by dividing the gross annual salary (minimum and maximum) in national currency by the per capita GDP (at national currency prices in 2000/01) of the country concerned.

Gross annual salary is defined as the amount paid by the employer in the year – including all bonuses, increases and allowances such as those for cost of living, end of year (if applicable), holiday pay, etc. – less the employer's social security and pension contributions. This salary does not include any other financial benefits in respect of honorary titles, further qualifications or special responsibilities.

The figures are based on the situation of a teacher who is (a) single and without children and (b) living in the capital.

Minimum salary is the salary received by teachers in the above-mentioned circumstances, who are starting teaching, having completed their education, initial training and trial period.

Maximum salary is the salary received by teachers in the above-mentioned circumstances, who are at the end of their career, i.e. during the last year prior to retirement.

In the majority of European countries, the minimum salary of teachers is lower than per capita GDP. They therefore need to have completed a certain number of years of service, or satisfied other conditions, which vary from country to country, before their salary reaches a level equivalent to or higher than this indicator of the standard of living. In a few countries (Estonia, Latvia, Hungary and Slovakia), the salary of teachers working at any level of education is less than the per capita GDP of their country, throughout their entire career. In Iceland and Norway, the same applies to teachers at primary and lower secondary levels and, in Romania, to those working at primary level. Only in Germany, Greece, Spain, Portugal and Malta does the minimum salary of a teacher reach over 1.2 times per capita GDP as a matter of course.

Among the factors examined here (the level of education and number of years of service), the number of years of service is the main reason for differences between teachers' salaries. The maximum salary can be as much as twice the minimum one. The greatest difference between minimum and maximum salaries (relative to per capita GDP) occurs in Portugal and Cyprus, but there are also significant differences in Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria, the Czech Republic, Lithuania and Slovenia. Conversely, the least significant increase between minimum and maximum salary is to be found in Denmark, Germany, Norway, Estonia and Slovakia.

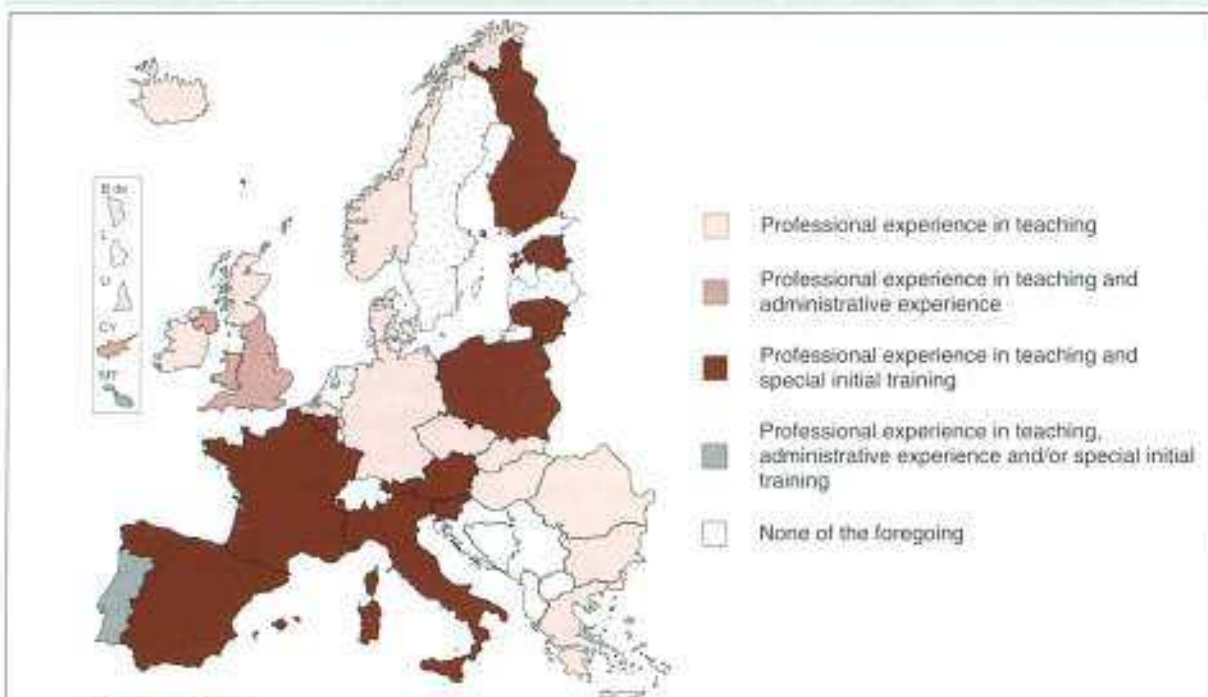
In a few countries, the differences are attributable to the levels of education at which teachers work. In Spain, Italy, Luxembourg and Romania, the main salary differences are between those who work in primary and secondary education, respectively. By contrast, in Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Austria, Iceland, the Czech Republic and Hungary, differences are most striking between the salaries of teachers employed in upper secondary education and the remainder. These differences are in some cases at least partly attributable to the level at which the former are trained.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE AND INITIAL TRAINING REQUIRED TO BECOME A SCHOOL HEAD

In most countries, different criteria are considered in appointing someone as a school head at a given educational level. They may include professional teaching experience, administrative/managerial experience, special initial training or the requirement that the person concerned should be of good conduct, sound moral character and in good health. Figure G18 examines how the number of years of professional teaching experience and administrative/management experience, as well as initial special training, are taken into account when appointing a school head. Any performance assessment that may have occurred during the period of teaching and special initial training is not considered here.

In nearly all European countries, one or more official documents stipulate the requirements expected of those wishing to become school heads, regardless of whether the school concerned provides the whole of compulsory education or a single level of education, whether primary, or lower or upper secondary.

FIGURE G18: PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE AND SPECIAL INITIAL TRAINING OFFICIALLY REQUIRED IN ORDER TO BECOME A SCHOOL HEAD IN PRIMARY, LOWER SECONDARY OR UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): The situation described is that of school heads in education administered by the French Community and in grant-aided public-sector education. In grant-aided private education, no compulsory training is required for those intending to become school heads although such provision exists.

Belgium (B de): To be appointed permanently to the position of school head in an establishment administered by the German-speaking Community – and this does not apply in the case of schools in the grant-aided public or private sectors – a management certificate is required in addition to professional experience.

Luxembourg: The situation described is that of school heads in secondary education. The post of school head does not exist in primary education in Luxembourg. The official documents do not refer to any requirement regarding professional teaching but, in practice, those who become school heads often have such experience.

Netherlands: The official documents do not refer to any requirement regarding professional teaching or administrative experience but, in practice, those who become school heads often have such experience.

Netherlands, Finland, Iceland, Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia: The information also applies to school heads in the entire grant-aided private sector.

United Kingdom (E/W/Ni): It is expected that the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), PQH in Northern Ireland, will eventually be mandatory for all new school heads.

Latvia: The current legislation refers to no specific requirement for appointment as a school head. The sole condition is that applicants must hold a tertiary education qualification in teaching. Each municipality is free to stipulate other requirements. With effect from 2002, it is necessary to have completed additional training in school management.

Explanatory note

This indicator is solely concerned with the professional experience in teaching, administrative experience and special initial training required to become a school head in the public sector.

By 'school head', is meant any person heading a school who, alone or within an administrative body such as a board or council, is responsible for its management/administration. Depending on circumstances, the person concerned may also exercise educational responsibilities (which may include teaching tasks, but also responsibility for the general functioning of the institution in areas such as the timetable, implementation of the curriculum, decisions about what is to be taught and the materials and methods used, appraisal of teachers and their performance, etc.) and/or financial responsibilities (often limited to responsibility for administering the resources allocated to the school).

By 'professional experience in teaching' is meant a certain number of years working professionally as a classroom teacher, for most of the time at the level of education at which the person concerned is seeking appointment as a school head.

By 'administrative experience' is meant experience of school management acquired, for example, in the post of deputy school head. The term is not referring to training in management or administration.

By 'special initial training' is meant training subsequent to training leading to a teaching qualification. It can therefore only be undertaken by those who already have one. Depending on circumstances, this training may be provided either prior to the initial application for a post as school head or to involvement in the recruitment procedure, or during the one or more early years after taking up a post (on a temporary or permanent basis). It may therefore be provided either before or after the appointment of those concerned: its aim is to equip them with the skills required to carry out their new duties. When training is provided after a school head has been appointed, the special training generally occurs in the first year or months immediately following the appointment. It is not to be confused with the in-service or further training of school heads.

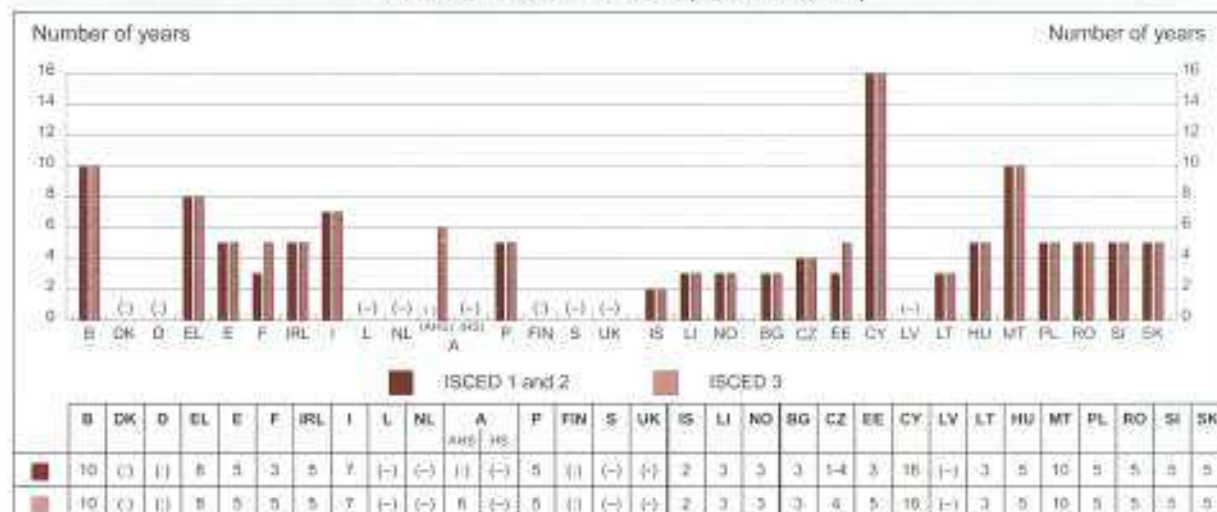


At the present time, only four countries (Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and Latvia) do not officially stipulate **any requirement** linked to professional teaching experience as a condition for appointment to the position of school head. However, in Sweden, only those who have acquired skills in the educational field as a result of training or experience may be promoted to headships, and it is recommended that they should undergo special training after taking up their post.

In countries in which official documents set out requirements that have to be met by future school heads, **professional teaching experience** is the **minimum condition for appointment**. In several countries, this is supplemented by one or more other conditions. For example, in Malta, prospective school heads must not just have teaching and administrative experience but also have undergone special initial training prior to appointment. In the French Community of Belgium (public-sector education), Spain, France, Italy, Austria, Finland, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia, applicants for a post as school head must have worked as teachers for a certain number of years and received special initial training. In France (in lower secondary education), they must demonstrate that they have teaching experience but also staff experience in tutoring or counselling. A qualification as a counsellor or mentor is also part of the professional experience required in Slovenia (for the three levels of education considered here). In the United Kingdom and Cyprus, future school heads have to have both teaching and administrative experience.

The minimum period of professional experience required ranges from at least a year in the Czech Republic (in the case of small schools) to 16 years in Cyprus. In most cases, the requisite minimum period is between three and five years. In some countries (French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Greece, Spain, Italy, the Czech Republic, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia), only full-time teaching is taken into account in determining the period of professional experience. In Denmark, Germany, Finland, the United Kingdom and Malta, teaching experience is required but the official documents do not state precisely how much.

FIGURE G19: MINIMUM PERIOD OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE REQUIRED TO BECOME A SCHOOL HEAD (ISCED 1, 2, 3)



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): The minimum period of professional experience required in schools administered by the *communes* and provinces is six years.

Belgium (B de): The minimum period of professional experience required in government-dependent private institutions is six years.

Czech Republic: The minimum period of professional experience required varies in accordance with the size of school.

In countries in which administrative or management experience is necessary, the shortest periods required are three years (Portugal and Cyprus) or four years (Malta).

In many European countries, school heads are able to receive training after they have been appointed and indeed it is strongly recommended that they do so. Such provision often takes the form of in-service or further training. It is rarely compulsory and its content and length depend on the body

providing it. However, in 12 countries, future school heads have to have received **special initial training**. In most cases, they must also have fulfilled this requirement before taking up their responsibilities. However, in Italy and Lithuania, training takes place following their appointment. In Austria, prospective school heads are obliged to take several training modules if they wish to secure permanent appointment. In France, those who perform successfully in the competitive examination for management staff, receive training in two stages, on successful completion of which they are admitted to this professional sector with full tenure. The duration of special initial training for school heads varies very widely. It lasts only a few hours in some of the Spanish Autonomous Communities and Lithuania but one year in Portugal and Malta.

FIGURE G20: DURATION OF COMPULSORY INITIAL TRAINING BEFORE OR AFTER APPOINTMENT TO THE POST OF SCHOOL HEAD, (ISCED 1, 2, 3)

	ISCED 1 and 2	ISCED 3
Before appointment		
B, fr	12 days	12 days
E	Variable	Variable
F	ISCED 2 only 2 years (including a placement as deputy head and training sessions of a minimum of 70 days in total)	2 years (including a placement as deputy head and training sessions of a minimum of 70 days in total)
A	6 different modules (over a four-year period)	6 different modules (over a four-year period)
P	1 year	1 year
FIN	Variable	Variable
EE	160-240 hours	240 hours
MT	1 year (2 years part time)	1 year (2 years part time)
PL	200 hours (+ 20 hours at the discretion of the training institution)	200 hours (+20 hours at the discretion of the training institution)
SI		144 hours
After appointment		
Italy	300 hours	300 hours
Lithuania	20-28 hours	20-28 hours
Not applicable B, de, B, nl, DK, D, EL, IRL, L, NL, S, UK (E/W/NI), UK (SC), IS, LI, NO, BG, CZ, CY, LV, HU, RO, SK		Not applicable B, de, B, nl, DK, D, EL, IRL, L, NL, S, UK (E/W/NI), UK (SC), IS, LI, NO, BG, CZ, CY, LV, HU, RO, SK
Source: Eurydice.		
Additional notes:		
Spain: The duration of initial training depends on the Autonomous Community and training institution concerned.		
Finland: According to the legislation, a school head must have obtained the National Board of Education qualification in school management (8 credits), or at least obtained 15 credits in this field at university, or have satisfactorily completed any other form of training testifying to in-depth knowledge of the field.		
Sweden: Initial training may be provided following appointment to a post but it is no more than recommended. It lasts 30 days over a period of 2-3 years.		
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): New heads may undertake the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), PQH in Northern Ireland. The time taken to complete this qualification varies according to existing qualifications and experience. It is expected that the NPQH/PQH will eventually be mandatory for all new school heads.		
Estonia: At ISCED 1-2, the initial training of <i>aikoo</i> school heads lasts 160 hours, whereas that of <i>põhikool</i> school heads is 240 hours.		

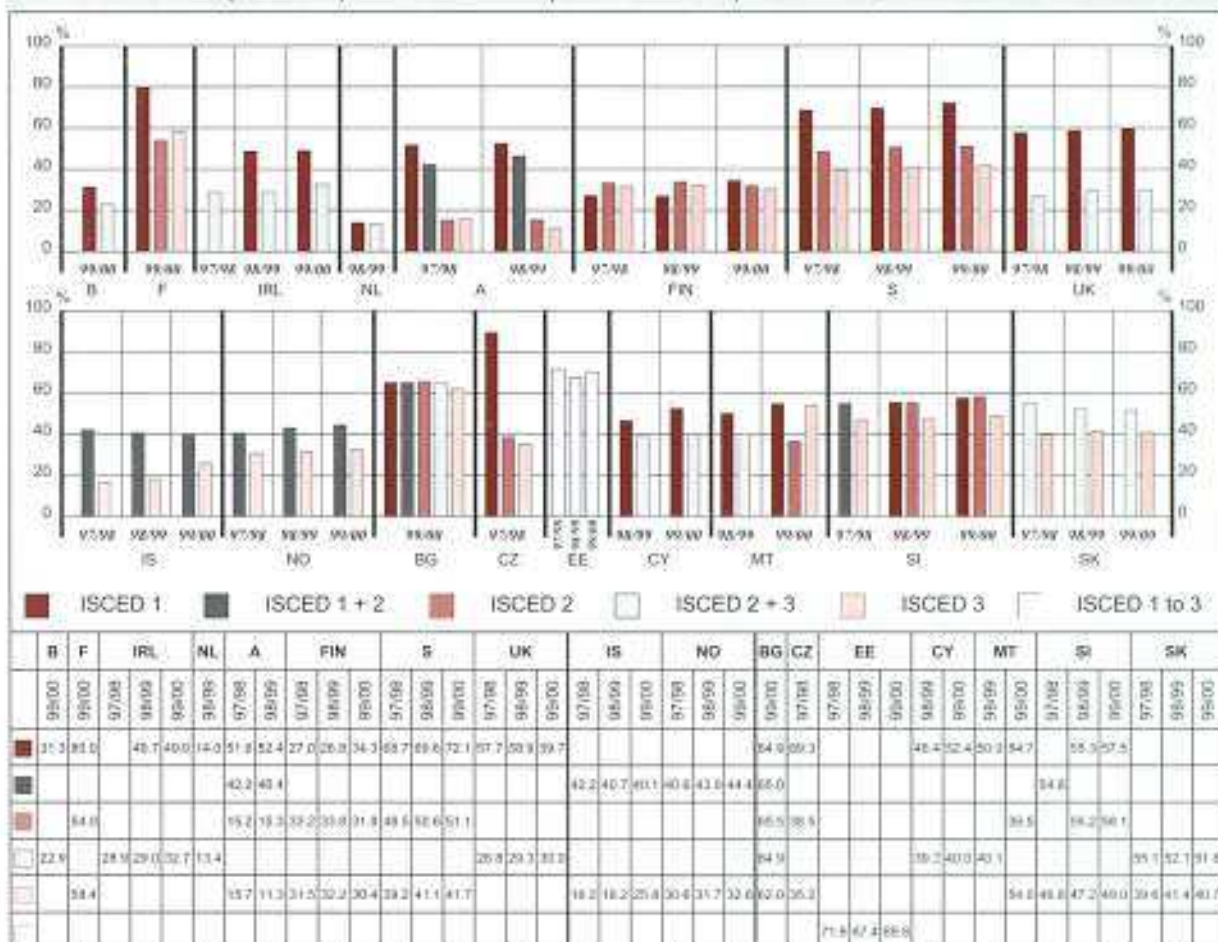
All countries providing special initial training for school heads include in it educational or teaching aspects, administrative aspects, and aspects relating to financial management and the management of school resources. Some countries incorporate further elements such as ICT (in Italy and Portugal), or legislation (in Austria, Poland and Slovenia). In Spain, the content of these courses depends on the Autonomous Community concerned and the institution providing the training but, in most cases, it includes aspects of administration and financial and human resources management.



THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AMONG MANAGEMENT STAFF
IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION VARIES WIDELY;
IT RANGES FROM 14 % TO 70 %

Taking primary and secondary education together, there is a lot of variation in the percentage of women among management staff across countries. Data are only available for 17 countries for this indicator and in some cases the data are not for the most recent year. In Estonia the percentage of women among management staff is five times as high as that in the Netherlands (70 % in 1999/00 and 14 % in 1998/99 respectively).

FIGURE G21: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AMONG SCHOOL MANAGEMENT STAFF
IN PRIMARY (ISCED 1) AND SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) EDUCATION, 1997/98 - 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Data refers to the Flemish Community only. ISCED level 2+3 includes ISCED 4 and teachers who work in social advancement education.

Ireland and Austria: Teachers at ISCED level 4 are included.

Finland: Data for ISCED level 3 include teachers in ISCED 4 and 5B vocational education programmes.

United Kingdom (E): Data refers to headteachers.

Malta: For 1998/99, teachers at ISCED level 2 include those in ISCED 3.

Slovakia: The data concerning management staff in institutions at ISCED levels 2+3 relates to the few institutions which offer both levels.

Explanatory note

The percentage of female management staff is calculated by dividing the number of female management staff by the total number of male and female management staff and then multiplying the result by 100.



AT ANY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, THE SALARIES OF SCHOOL HEADS ARE HIGHER THAN THOSE OF TEACHERS

In order to enable a meaningful comparison, the salaries of school heads in the various European countries have been related to the average standard of living in each (for further details, see Figures G15 to G17). Figures G22 to G24 set out, by level of education, the minimum and maximum salaries of school heads as a percentage of **per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP)** which provides an indication of the standard of living in the country concerned.

While in the majority of countries, the minimum salaries of school heads are equivalent to or higher than per capita GDP in their country, the opposite is true at all educational levels in France, Italy, Sweden, Latvia and Lithuania (in the case of small schools), Hungary, Romania and Slovakia. This is also the case of school heads at primary and lower secondary levels in Iceland. However, the maximum salary of school heads in nearly all European countries is higher – and sometimes much higher (Portugal, United Kingdom and Cyprus) – than per capita GDP. It is only in Slovakia that the maximum salaries of school heads are equivalent to this particular indicator of the standard of living.

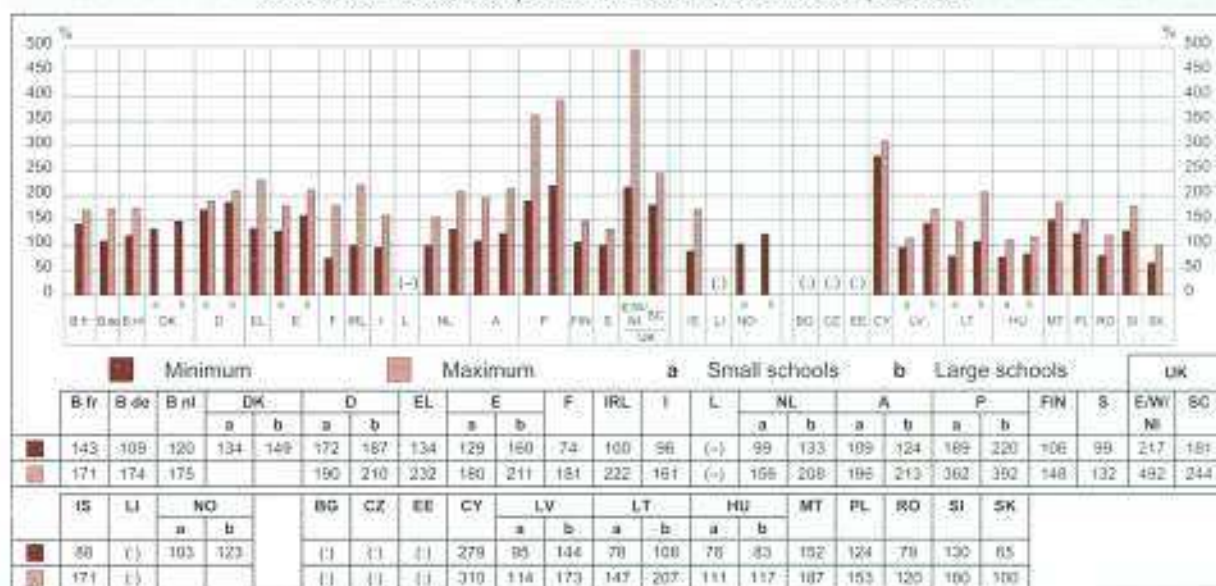
Furthermore, although the salaries of school heads are the same in the majority of countries irrespective of the educational level of the school concerned, salary variations attributable to educational level are observable in several countries (as in the case of the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Finland and Cyprus).

Finally, school heads generally begin their career on a salary at least slightly higher than that of a new entrant to teaching. However, when school heads in the Netherlands start their career in a small establishment at primary or lower secondary level, they receive a salary slightly lower than that of a new recruit to teaching at the same level. In several countries (such as Spain, Ireland, Austria and Hungary), they retain their teacher's salary with a bonus reflecting their new responsibilities. Depending on the country concerned, the amount of the bonus varies with the educational level of the school and/or the number of pupils attending it. At the same level of education, therefore, in Germany (in the case of small schools), Hungary (large schools) and Poland, school heads start their career on a salary close to the maximum salary that a teacher may hope for. And at the three levels of education in Germany (large schools), the United Kingdom, Norway, Cyprus and Latvia, as well as Finland and Iceland in the case of just upper secondary education, the minimum salary of a school head is distinctly higher than the maximum salary of a teacher.

On the other hand, when the salary of school heads at the end of their career at any of the three levels of school education is compared with that of teachers at the end of theirs at the same level, the salary of the former turns out to be higher in virtually all cases. In most countries, the salary of school heads increases proportionally less than that of teachers. There are few countries in which the proportional variation between the minimum and maximum salaries of school heads is greater than in the case of teachers: those countries are the Netherlands, at primary and lower secondary levels, and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Iceland and Slovakia, at lower and upper secondary levels.



FIGURE G22: MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF SCHOOL HEADS
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01



Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): The minimum salary corresponds to the salary of a teacher who has completed 13 years of service.

Belgium (B fr), Ireland, Italy and Austria: The data relates to 2001.

Denmark: The maximum salary depends on additional payments received by individual school heads.

Germany: Given the complexity and wide variety of individual circumstances, the salaries of school heads have been calculated on the basis of the average age at the start of a career (related to age at the outset and the total period of study) and salaries in the 11 Länder of former West Germany. As there is no minimum age or minimum number of years' experience required in order to become a school head, the minimum salary has been calculated on the basis of a hypothetical age of 40 years.

Spain: Salaries in the Castilla-La Mancha Autonomous Community have been taken as an example because they are close to the average. School heads in the other Communities therefore may have salaries that are either higher or lower.

Italy: The salaries taken into account in this figure are related to the period between 1 July 2000 and 1 December 2000. School heads also receive certain additional payments, not included here.

Luxembourg: There are no school heads in primary education.

Netherlands: The position of teachers appointed as school heads, in relation to the salary scale for the latter, depends on their salaries as teachers immediately prior to appointment. They may thus initially find themselves on a salary below the minimum scale for school heads.

Austria: The salary bonus linked to the responsibilities entailed rises by over 40 % after 16 years of service in the post concerned.

Sweden: The salaries of school heads are determined at local level. The data corresponds to the 10th and 90th percentiles.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): The minimum and maximum salaries correspond to the two extremes of the salary scale for school heads. Actual minimum and maximum salaries are determined according to an individual school range, which has due regard for several factors such as the number of pupils and their age. In practice, at present, only the very largest secondary schools have individual school ranges which cover the uppermost points on the scale. Data is based on salaries in London.

Iceland: Only basic salaries are shown. Possible additional payments (for overtime, extra responsibility, etc.) are considerable.

Liechtenstein: Per capita GDP not available.

Norway: The maximum salary depends on additional payments received by individual school heads which may vary.

Estonia: The salaries of school heads are determined by the local authorities.

Latvia: In schools of the same size, the minimum and maximum salaries of the school heads may vary depending on their professional qualifications. The authorities draw up categories that take account of school achievement.

Poland: School head salaries and per capita GDP relate to 2001.

Explanatory note (see page 156)

**Explanatory note**

The reference year for per capita GDP is 2000. The reference period for salaries is 2000 or the 2000/01 school year.

The values appearing in these diagrams have been obtained by dividing the gross annual salary (minimum and maximum) in national currency by the per capita GDP (at national currency prices in 2000/01) of the country concerned.

Given the number of national-level criteria in some countries for determining upward progression on the salary scale for school heads, it has not always been possible to indicate their salary at the beginning and end of their career. In such cases, the minimum and maximum salaries correspond to the two extremes of the salary scale. The real minimum and maximum salaries may vary with respect to factors such as the size of the school, the ages of its pupils, and the teacher/pupil ratio, etc. Where the maximum salary varies in accordance with whether the school head works in a small or large school, the two salaries are indicated in columns a and b, respectively.

Gross annual salary is defined as the amount paid by the employer in the year – including all bonuses, increases and allowances such as those for cost of living, end of year (if applicable), holiday pay, etc. – less the employer's social security and pension contributions.

The figures are based on the situation of a school head who is single and without children and living in the capital.

Minimum salary is the salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances, in the year following their appointment and after their probationary period (where applicable).

Maximum salary is the salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances, who are at the end of their career (within one year of retirement).



FOREIGN LANGUAGES

COMPULSORY LEARNING OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE STARTS AT PRIMARY SCHOOL IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

For an overall view of how the teaching of foreign languages is organised within the minimum level of educational provision as defined by the central (or top-level) education authorities, Figures H1 and H2 should be read in conjunction with each other. It is particularly interesting also to consider these Figures in relation to the statistical data in this chapter which provides information on the real proportions of pupils engaged in learning foreign languages. For a clear idea of the percentage of overall taught time devoted to foreign languages, readers should turn to Figures D5 (primary education) and E5 (secondary education).

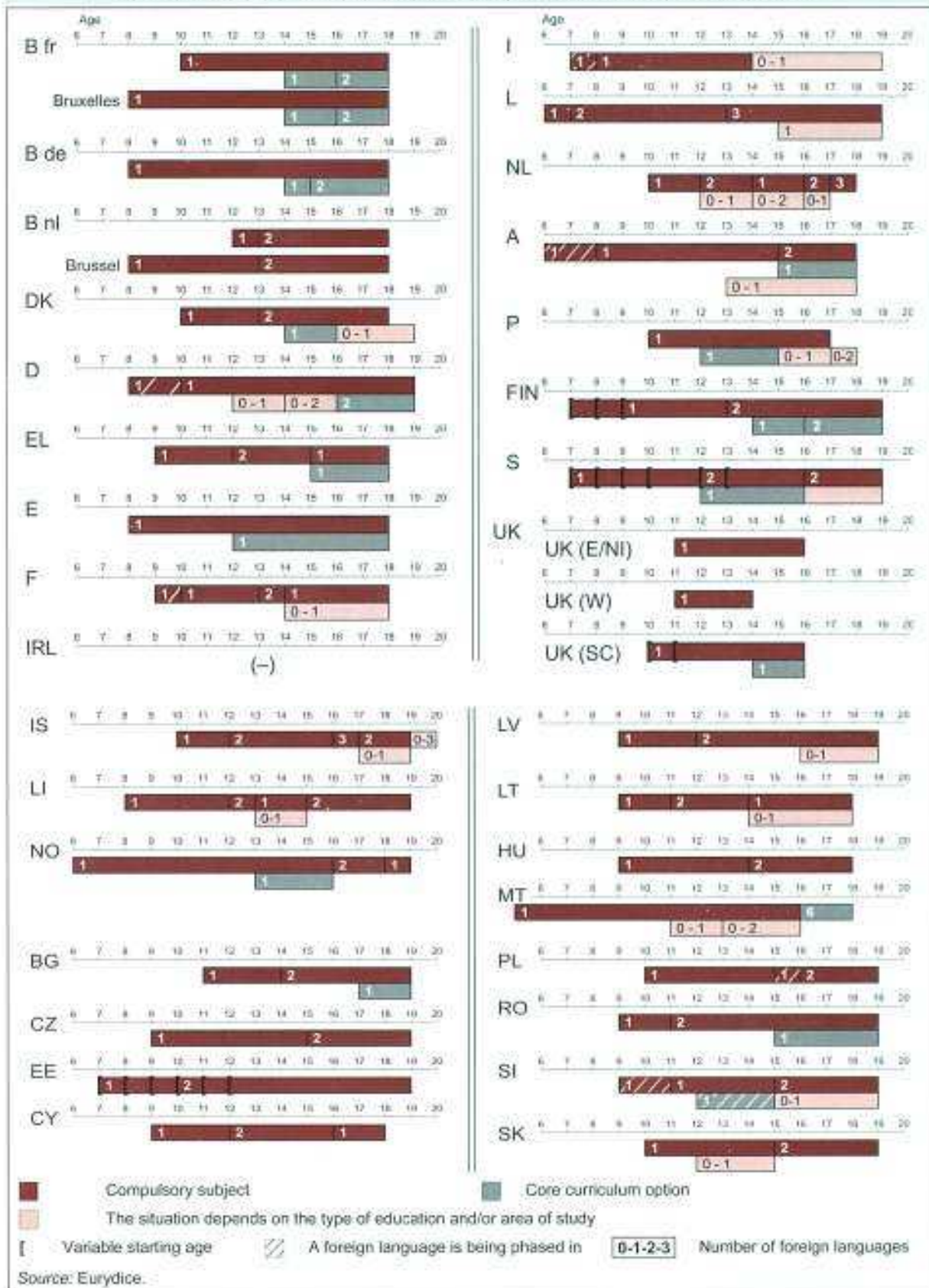
In all countries, except Ireland, all pupils are obliged to learn at least one foreign language while at school. In Ireland, they learn Irish and English which are not, however, regarded as foreign languages. The central education authorities require all pupils to learn a foreign language from primary level onwards, except in the Flemish Community of Belgium, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Bulgaria and Slovakia. As the statistics clearly indicate (see Figures H6, H7 and H8 in particular), this does not mean that pupils at this level of education do not learn foreign languages. Furthermore, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, the central education authorities stipulate that pupils who attend schools in Brussels must be taught a foreign language from primary level onwards.

In half the countries/regions in the European Union, as well as in all EFTA/EEA countries and the candidate countries with the exception of Malta, two foreign languages are included in the compulsory curriculum of all pupils in general secondary education. In only four countries (Luxembourg, Sweden, Iceland and Estonia) do pupils start learning a second compulsory foreign language from primary level onwards. In Luxembourg, all pupils learn two foreign languages by the second year of primary school. Although these two languages have official status, they are nonetheless regarded as foreign languages in the curricula.

In several countries, the central (or top-level) education authorities require that schools include at least one foreign language among their core curriculum options. Among countries that do not insist on two compulsory foreign languages, only three – namely Italy, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Malta – do not require all schools to offer a second foreign language as a core curriculum option (the first foreign language being compulsory). In the great majority of cases, this second foreign language may be learnt from lower secondary education onwards, whether as a compulsory subject or a core curriculum option.

In countries in which different types of education and areas of study are provided, the number of foreign languages that must be studied as compulsory subjects and/or are offered as core curriculum options may, in certain branches of education, be greater than the number that are either compulsory and/or offered to all pupils during the same stage of their schooling.

FIGURE H1: FOREIGN LANGUAGES AS A COMPULSORY SUBJECT OR CORE CURRICULUM OPTION IN PRE-PRIMARY, PRIMARY, OR GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, AS DETERMINED BY THE CENTRAL (TOP-LEVEL) EDUCATION AUTHORITIES, 2000/01



Additional notes:

France: New primary education curricula are being introduced in schools with effect from the 2002/03 school year. A foreign language should be taught in the third year to children aged 8.

Ireland: The teaching of foreign languages is not compulsory. The official languages of English and Irish are taught to all pupils, but the curriculum does not consider them to be foreign languages.

Italy: Pupils at a *liceo artistico* do not learn a foreign language as a compulsory subject unless they enrol in an experimental class, for which the school may make the teaching of a foreign language compulsory.

Luxembourg: In the classics section, English is started at the age of 14 instead of 13. The curriculum regards German and French, which are official languages, as foreign languages and they are taught from primary education onwards.

Netherlands: The teaching of a foreign language is compulsory in primary education. In practice, its teaching takes place from the ages of 10 to 12.

Austria: All children aged 6 should be taught a foreign language in 2002/03.

Portugal: Since the 2001/02 school year, all pupils aged between 12 and 15 have had to study two foreign languages.

Finland: The curriculum for the (upper secondary) *lukko/gymnasium* does not specify the number of foreign languages schools have to offer, but strongly encourages them to enable pupils to study four.

Sweden: In upper secondary education, the number of foreign languages depends on what pupils choose. Syllabuses do not specify the number of foreign languages but simply the allocation of credits. Pupils may therefore choose to extend their knowledge of a foreign language they have already studied, or to learn one or several other foreign languages.

United Kingdom (E/NI): There is scope for schools to modify or disapply the requirement to learn a foreign language for a small number of pupils aged 14 to 16.

United Kingdom (SC): In the *Curriculum Guidelines*, no subjects are compulsory, except religion, but the local educational authorities are strongly encouraged to require that their schools make the teaching of one foreign language compulsory for all pupils aged 10 to 16 and offer to all between 14 and 16, the opportunity to learn a second one.

Iceland: As the new guidelines for upper secondary education have not been entirely implemented, the situation relating to upper secondary level in the diagram reflects the former guidelines.

Norway: Only pupils who have selected a foreign language as one of their core curriculum options between the ages of 13 and 16 do not have to study a foreign language as a compulsory subject when they are aged 16 and 19.

Latvia: Since 2001/02, the first compulsory foreign language has begun also at the age of 9 in schools for linguistic minorities.

Poland: With effect from the 2001/02 school year, all pupils in primary and lower secondary education are being taught within the restructured system of schooling introduced in 1999/2000. The diagram illustrates the situation of foreign language teaching at upper secondary level prior to the reform.

Explanatory note

These diagrams deal only with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or ancient languages are included solely when the curriculum regards them as alternatives to foreign languages.

The minimum level of educational provision may be defined either by the minimum curriculum and/or by the minimum amount of time for teaching at school established by the central (top-level) education authorities.

Foreign languages as a compulsory subject: The curriculum laid down by the central (top-level) education authorities states that all pupils must study at least one foreign language.

Foreign languages as a core curriculum option: The central (top-level) education authorities stipulate that at least one foreign language must be among the set of subjects which schools have to offer in accordance with the centrally determined curriculum, and from which each pupil must choose one or more.

The situation varies with the type of education and/or area of study: Whether the minimum curriculum contains foreign languages offered as either compulsory subjects or core curriculum options (in addition to those languages that are compulsory or core curriculum options for everyone), depends on the area of study or type of general education concerned.

A foreign language is being phased in: A new law concerning the teaching of foreign languages cannot be introduced immediately in all schools, so they have been granted time to adjust gradually to its requirements.

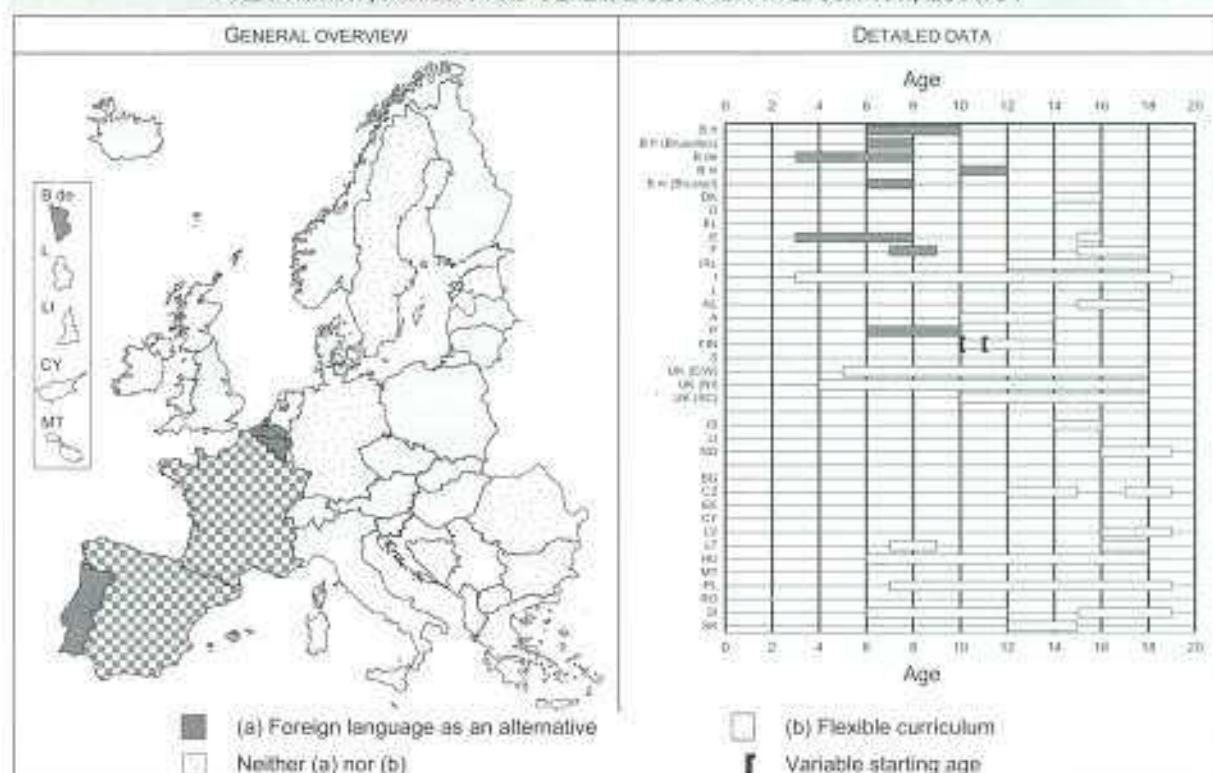
Number of foreign languages at any one time: The significance of this number varies depending on whether foreign languages are compulsory subjects or core curriculum options. Where they are **compulsory subjects**, the number corresponds to the number of languages that pupils must study. Where they are **core curriculum options**, the number corresponds to the minimum number of languages that schools must include within the entire set of subjects on offer. The scale shown in the **bands** which indicates that **the situation depends on the type of education and/or area of study**, corresponds to the minimum and maximum number of foreign languages pupils may study (as compulsory subjects or core curriculum options) in all areas of study or types of education considered as a whole, in addition to those that are studied by everyone. The total number of foreign languages learnt is obtained by adding the one or more languages indicated in the other bands.

Variable starting age: The central education authorities do not stipulate the age at which subjects have to be taught for the first time, but confine themselves to setting objectives for a given level of education. Schools are thus free to decide when they start to teach a foreign language.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF DECISION-MAKING DELEGATED TO SCHOOLS MAY INCREASE LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the majority of countries, the central education authorities leave schools free to decide whether or not to teach a foreign language over and above the requirements described in Figure H1 and still as part of the minimum level of educational provision. As mentioned at the outset, Figures H1 and H2 read together provide an overall view of how the teaching of foreign languages is organised within the minimum level of educational provision as defined by the central education authorities.

**FIGURE H2: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING WITHIN THE MINIMUM LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL PROVISION
DEVOLVED TO LOCAL DECISION-MAKING:
PRE-PRIMARY, PRIMARY AND GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01**



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: The Act on the Folkeskole encourages schools to offer a foreign language as an optional subject for pupils aged between 14 and 16.

Finland: The curriculum for the *perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning* (compulsory education) strongly encourages schools to offer a foreign language as an optional subject to pupils aged 10 or 11.

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): The statutory curriculum subjects are the foundation of a broad and balanced curriculum, but they are not sufficient in themselves to be considered as the minimum level of educational provision. Schools are expected to develop the curriculum to reflect their particular needs and circumstances; this can mean teaching a foreign language beyond the statutory minimum. There is no compulsory common core curriculum for pupils aged 16-18.

Poland: When the local authorities (*Gmina*) are small and have insufficient financial means at their disposal, parents contribute to the funding of foreign language teaching over and above the provision stipulated by the central education authorities.

**Explanatory note**

These diagrams deal only with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or ancient languages are included solely when the curriculum regards them as alternatives to foreign languages.

The minimum level of educational provision may be defined either in the minimum curriculum and/or by the minimum amount of time for teaching at school established by the central (top-level) education authorities.

Foreign language as an alternative: The central education authorities leave schools and/or municipalities free to decide whether they will teach a foreign language during a percentage of the school time normally allocated for teaching one or several subjects in the minimum curriculum. A foreign language therefore becomes compulsory for all pupils on the initiative of the school/municipality concerned.

Flexible curriculum: A set of subjects that schools and/or municipalities have to select and offer in order to provide the minimum level of educational provision specified by the central (top-level) authorities for education. Languages may or may not be among those subjects. Two possible situations may be distinguished:

- Subjects included in the flexible curriculum are additional to those taught within the curriculum specified by the central (top-level) education authorities.
- No minimum curriculum is specified by these authorities. The flexible curriculum corresponds to all subjects taught, whether as subjects which each school (or municipality) decides are compulsory, or ones belonging to a set of subjects from which pupils have to choose.

Variable starting age: Education authorities do not stipulate the age at which subjects have to be taught for the first time, but confine themselves to setting objectives for a given level of education. Schools are thus free to decide when they start to teach a foreign language.

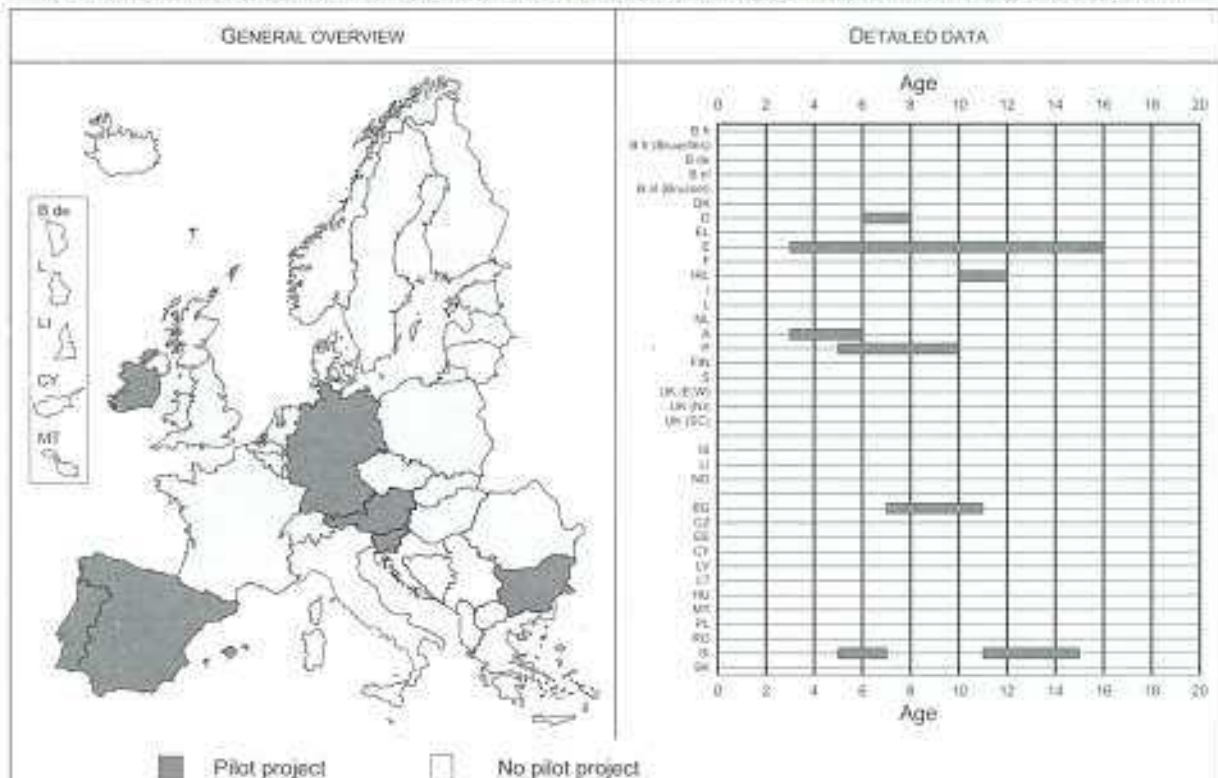
In a few countries in the south of Europe, the central education authorities allow schools to use time normally allocated to other subjects for the purpose of teaching a foreign language. This occurs solely in primary education, in which it is not yet compulsory for all pupils to learn one. Schools thus use this room for manoeuvre to arrange for the teaching of a foreign language at an early stage, as part of the minimum level of educational provision.

Schools are free to act in another way at any level of education, especially secondary level, in a greater number of countries. In these countries, the central (top-level) education authorities expect/require schools to offer subjects, or other learning opportunities, in addition to whatever is centrally specified, but allow them to decide which subjects or opportunities in accordance with their particular needs. As a result, the content of the minimum level of educational provision may up to a point vary from one school to the next, and include a foreign language as a compulsory subject and/or a core curriculum option over and above the provision described in Figure H1. This is the case, for example, in Italy and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), in which the central education authorities neither require that two foreign languages must be learnt, nor oblige all schools to offer a second foreign language as a core curriculum option (see Figure H1). As a result of this freedom, certain schools in the United Kingdom and Italy either require all their pupils to study two foreign languages or arrange for a second foreign language to be offered as a core curriculum option.

PILOT PROJECTS ARE OFTEN USED TO PREPARE
FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AT AN EARLIER STAGE

Pilot projects organised and funded by the educational authorities have currently been established in seven countries. Most of them are mainly aimed at introducing the teaching of foreign languages at levels at which it is not yet compulsory, as in the case of primary and pre-primary education. In Spain, however, the pilot project seeks eventually to enable pupils to obtain both the Spanish and English qualifications at the end of compulsory education. Similarly, in Slovenia, one of the two pilot projects is concerned with pupils aged between 11 and 15 and offers them a second foreign language as a compulsory subject.

FIGURE H3: FOREIGN LANGUAGES OUTSIDE THE MINIMUM LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL PROVISION, AS PART OF A PILOT PROJECT IN PRE-PRIMARY, PRIMARY OR GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

These diagrams deal only with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or ancient languages are included solely when the curriculum regards them as alternatives to foreign languages.

Foreign languages taught within a pilot project Foreign languages taught outside the minimum level of educational provision are part of an experimental pilot project covering a limited period, which has been set up and at least partly funded by the public authorities (the educational authorities concerned). The number of schools taking part and the age of the pupils involved in the project are determined by the organising authorities, which conduct a selection procedure. Such experiments are subject to systematic evaluation.



WHEN A LANGUAGE IS PRESCRIBED, ENGLISH PREDOMINATES

Figure H4 illustrates the languages which are referred to specifically by the central (top-level) authorities for education and which may (or must) be taught in schools. It takes account of all curricula and/or official documents concerned with compulsory full-time education. Spain, Finland, Hungary and Poland are the only countries not to draw up a list of foreign languages.

In almost half of the countries/regions concerned, the very great majority of which are in the European Union or EFTA/EEA, pupils obliged to study a foreign language for the first time have to study a specific prescribed language. In the great majority of countries, this language is English. In a few countries, two prescribed languages have to be learnt and, in Luxembourg, there are three. French is most frequently a prescribed language when pupils are obliged to study a second foreign language. Certain languages are prescribed in some countries for historical or political reasons, as in the case of the German-speaking or Flemish Communities of Belgium, or in Luxembourg, Finland and Iceland.

In EU and EFTA/EEA countries, the great majority of languages referred to in official documents belong primarily to the Germanic group (English, German and, to a markedly lesser extent, Dutch) and the Romance group (in which French predominates and is followed by Spanish and Italian, with Portuguese only specifically referred to twice). Languages in the Slavonic and Nordic groups are included in curricula far less frequently. Hungarian is referred to only once. The same applies to Greek, referred to once only, in the United Kingdom (England and Wales) curriculum, which requires schools to offer at least one of the official working languages of the EU.

A minority of EU and EFTA/EEA countries offer a range of languages less commonly specified in curricula. They may include the dead languages (ancient Greek, etc.), minority or regional languages or those not associated with a specific geographical area, languages introduced following recent immigration, such as Turkish, or more unfamiliar languages like Chinese or Japanese.

In the candidate countries, Russian supplements the dominant Germanic and Romance languages (English, German, French, Spanish and Italian). Virtually all these countries offer no other languages specifically. Only the Maltese and Slovenian curricula offer other additional languages.

In Sweden and the United Kingdom (England and Wales) with certain provisos, and in Lithuania when pupils have to study a second foreign language, curricula state that schools may offer those languages that they wish.



FOREIGN LANGUAGES

FIGURE H4: FOREIGN LANGUAGES SPECIFIED AS PRESCRIBED OR ON OFFER IN OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS (FOR FULL-TIME COMPULSORY SCHOOLING) ISSUED BY THE CENTRAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES, 2000/01

	n	Spanish	Danish	German	Greek	English	French	Irish	Italian	Dutch	Portuguese	Finnish	Swedish	Czech	Hungarian	Polish	Slovenian	Slovak	Russian	Others
B fr	1	■		■		■			■	■										Latin, ancient Greek
B de	1					■				■										
B nl	2	■		■					■											Latin, ancient Greek
DK	2			■			■													
D	1	■	■			■	■		■	■			■	■		■			■	Latin, Japanese, Chinese, Turkish, ancient Greek, ancient Hebrew
EL	2			■			■													
E	1																			
F	2	■		■		■			■	■	■					■			■	(1)
IRL	0	■		■			■		■											Latin, ancient Greek, ancient Hebrew
I	1	■		■		■	■													
L	3			I		III	II													
NL	2			■			■													
A	1	■				■	■		■					■	■		■	■	■	Croatian, Romany
P	1	■		■		■	■													
FIN	2											■								
S	2	■		■			■													
UK (E/W)	1	■	■	■	■		■		■	■	■	■	■							
UK (NI)	1	■		■			■	■	■											
UK (SC)	1	■		■			■		■										■	Latin, ancient Greek, Urdu, Gaelic
IS	2		II			I														
LJ	2	■				I	II		■											
NO	1			■			■					■								
BG	2	■		■		■	■		■											■
CZ	1	■		■		■	■													■
EE	2			■		■	■													■
CY	2					I	II													
LV	2			■			■													■
LT	2			■		■	■													■
HU	2			■		■	■													
MT	1	■		■			■		■										■	Arabic, Latin
PL	1																			
RO	2	■		■		■	■		■											■
SI	1	■		■		■	■		■											■
SK	2	■		■		■	■		■											■
		ES	DA	DE	EL	EN	FR	GA	IT	NL	PT	FI	SV	CS	HU	PL	SL	SK	RU	
		Languages																		
n		Number of languages compulsory for everyone																		
		Prescribed foreign language																		
		Foreign languages on offer																		
i,ii,iii		These numerals indicate the order in which the prescribed foreign languages have to be learnt																		
(1) France:		The Alsace regional languages, Arabic, Basque, Breton, Catalan, Chinese, Corsican, Creole, Gallo, modern Hebrew, Japanese, the Mefanesian languages, the languages of the Moselle region, Occitan, Tahitian and Turkish.																		

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): The French-speaking minority who are taught in French are obliged to learn German as a first foreign language.

Germany: The regulations may differ from one *Land* to the next. Generally, pupils can choose English or French when they first have to learn a foreign language, but they are obliged to study English at some stage during compulsory education.

Spain: No list of specific foreign languages is provided. Theoretically, schools may offer any language.

Ireland: All pupils are taught English and Irish, the official languages, which are not regarded as foreign languages in curricula.

Netherlands: VWO pupils are obliged to learn English, French and German. Pupils who attend the VWO *gymnasium* also have to learn Greek and Latin (neither of which however are regarded as foreign languages in the curriculum).

Austria: In the *Gymnasium*, pupils officially have Latin as a second compulsory foreign language but most schools teach a second modern language at this stage.

Finland: The legislation does not prescribe the range of foreign languages to be offered. The second state language (Swedish or Finnish depending on the mother tongue of the pupil concerned) has to be learnt as a compulsory subject.

Sweden: The ordinance for compulsory education states that any other language in addition to those referred to may be offered by schools, provided that it remains on offer in upper secondary education.

United Kingdom (E/W): The *National Curriculum* requires schools at secondary level to offer at least one of the official working languages of the European Union. Only then may they offer other languages as a choice. Pupils may study any modern foreign language that the school offers.

United Kingdom (NI): The Northern Ireland Curriculum requires schools at secondary level to offer at least one of French, German, Italian or Spanish; only then may they offer Irish as a choice. Pupils must learn at least one of these five languages.

Iceland: Swedish and Norwegian may be offered in place of Danish, outside school hours, for pupils who have lived in Sweden or Norway or whose parents are from these countries.

Liechtenstein: Since the reform of 1996/97, English has replaced French as the first taught foreign language. Since 2001/02, this new provision has applied to all pupils.

Norway: Pupils of Finnish origin living in the two northernmost counties are entitled to learn Finnish as a second foreign language.

Estonia: The schools that have Russian as the language of instruction have to teach Estonian from the first year of compulsory schooling.

Latvia: The data relate to schools that have Latvian as the language of instruction.

Lithuania: As regards the second compulsory foreign language, the official document states that in addition to the languages referred to, schools are free to offer any other language of their choice.

Hungary: No precise list of foreign languages is provided. Theoretically, schools may offer any language.

Slovenia: Schools are obliged to offer at least two of the languages referred to in the diagram; the first as a compulsory subject and the second as a core curriculum option.

Explanatory note

These diagrams deal only with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum/official documents. Regional and/or ancient languages are included solely when the curriculum regards them as alternatives to foreign languages.

In the case of prescribed languages, only situations applicable to all pupils, irrespective of their area of study, are shown in the diagram. Where foreign languages are referred to in official documents as those on offer, all these languages are indicated, regardless of the ages or areas of study of the pupils concerned.

By a **prescribed foreign language** is meant a specific foreign language that is compulsory for all pupils. The central education authorities decide which specific language must be studied.

Where no roman numeral is shown, either the language concerned is the only prescribed language, or the order in which it and other prescribed languages have to be learnt is not specified.

The arabic numerals in the diagram correspond to the maximum number of compulsory foreign languages that any one pupil will be obliged to study simultaneously at any given point in his/her compulsory schooling.

HALF OF ALL PRIMARY PUPILS LEARN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

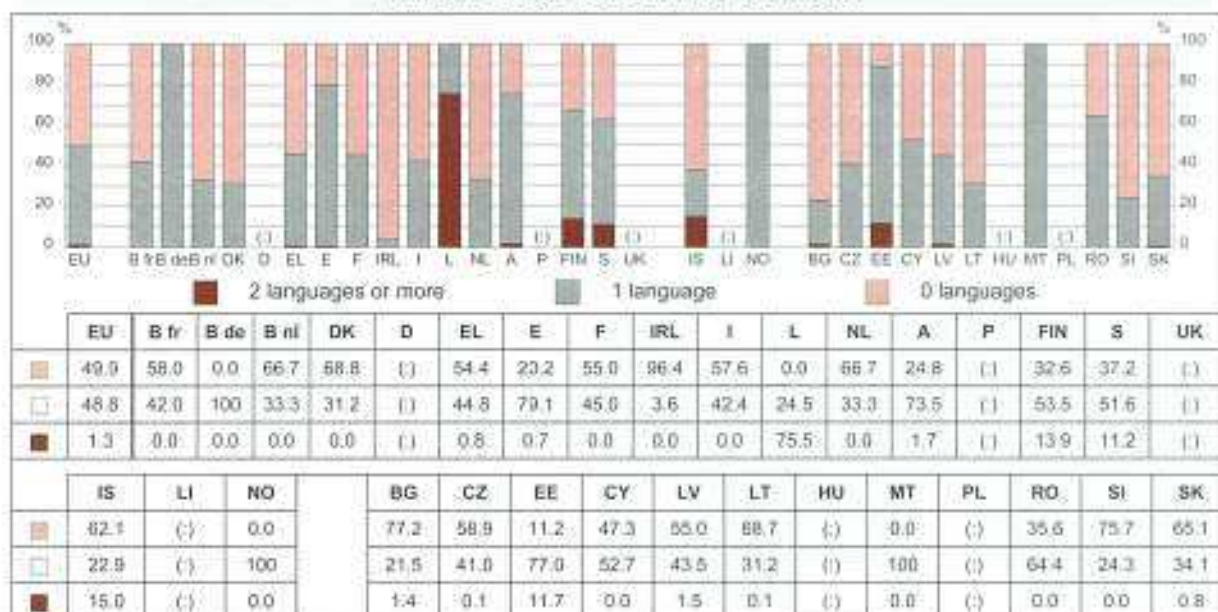
As seen in Figure H1, foreign language learning is compulsory for primary pupils in most European countries. In certain countries, it is even compulsory to learn two languages.

Figure H5 shows the percentage of pupils enrolled in primary education learning one, two or no foreign languages in 1999/2000. The most frequently learned languages differ from country to country (see Figure H6); all foreign languages are taken into account here.



F O R E I G N L A N G U A G E S

FIGURE H5: DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1) ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNED, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Greece, Italy and Austria: 1998/99 data.

Ireland: All pupils in primary study the Irish language (Gaeilge) at school. While this could not be considered to be a foreign language, it is not the mother tongue of the vast majority of the population. Therefore when considering 'language learning' in the Irish Education system this factor should be taken into account.

Netherlands: All pupils in groups 7 and 8 of primary education (accounting for 30 % of pupils at this level) learn English.

Finland and Estonia: The national language taught in schools where it is not the teaching language is counted as a foreign language.

Hungary: Pupils learning languages at ISCED level 1 are included with ISCED level 2 pupils.

Slovenia: The number of children learning at least one foreign language is underestimated.

Explanatory note

The percentage of pupils learning foreign languages is calculated with respect to all pupils in all years of primary education, even if such learning only takes place in one or two years. Percentages do not indicate whether attendance in such courses is compulsory.

Irish, Lëtzeburgesch and regional languages are excluded, although provision may be made for them in certain Member States.

Allowing for exceptions, when one of the national languages is taught in schools where it is not the teaching language, it is not considered as a foreign language.

In the countries for which data are available, on average half of all primary pupils follow foreign language courses. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Bulgaria, Lithuania and Slovenia, the proportion of pupils learning languages at this level is considerably smaller (one third or less). As mentioned earlier, in Ireland foreign language teaching is not generally provided in primary schools (see also figure H1). Conversely, in Spain, Austria, Finland and Estonia (Finland and Estonia include their national languages as a foreign language if it is not the mother tongue of the pupil) percentages are relatively high. In Belgium (the German-speaking Community), Luxembourg, Norway and Malta, all pupils learn a foreign language (which is a compulsory subject from the first year of primary education onwards in Luxembourg, Norway and Malta).

On average, in the countries displayed on the graph, 50 % of pupils learn one foreign language and 1.2 % learn two foreign languages. For the EU countries the corresponding percentages are 49 % and 1.3 % respectively. Finland, Iceland and especially Luxembourg have the greatest proportions of pupils learning two foreign languages (14 %, 15 % and 75 % respectively).



APART FROM ENGLISH, THE MOST POPULAR FOREIGN LANGUAGE AT PRIMARY LEVEL IN THE 27 COUNTRIES TAKEN TOGETHER, IS GERMAN

In some EU and EFTA/EEA countries, foreign languages other than English and French are learned. Among the main ones are German in the German-speaking Community of Belgium; France, Luxembourg and Finland; Dutch in the French Community of Belgium; and Danish in Iceland.

In candidate countries, in addition to English, German is taught at this level in 9 of the 12 countries. In addition, other languages are learned. Among the main ones are French in Romania, Estonian in Estonia and Russian in Poland and Estonia.

FIGURE H6: FOREIGN LANGUAGES MOST LEARNED AT PRIMARY LEVEL (ISCED 1) AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS LEARNING THEM, BY COUNTRY, 1999/2000

	1st	2nd	3rd		1st	2 nd	3rd		1st	2nd	3rd
B fr	nl 33	● 9		NL	● 33			EE	● 58	ee 25	○ 11
B de	▲ 86	■ 14		A	● 75	▲ 1	it 1	CY	● 53		
B nl	▲ 33			P		()		LV	● 43	■ 2	○ 1
DK	● 31			FIN	● 63	■ 7	sv 4	LT	● 25	■ 5	▲ 1
D	● 17	▲ 4		S	● 63	■ 5	▲ 3	HU	■ 71	● 69	hu 3
EL	● 46	▲ 1		UK		()		MT	● 100		
E	● 78	▲ 2		IS	● 33	da 20		PL	● 38	■ 20	○ 11
F	● 36	■ 7	◇ 1	LI		()		RO	▲ 33	● 28	■ 3
IRL	▲ 2	■ 1	◇ 1	NO	● 100			SI	● 32	■ 7	
I	● 51	▲ 7	■ 1	BG	● 14	■ 2	○ 2	SK	● 19	■ 10	
L	■ 95	▲ 79	● 2	CZ	● 23	■ 18					

● English ▲ French ■ German ◇ Spanish ○ Russian

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): There exists a French-speaking minority who is legally entitled to be taught in French and legally obliged to learn German as a first foreign language.

Greece and Austria: 1998/99 data.

Ireland: All pupils in primary study the Irish language (Gaeilge) at school. While this could not be considered to be a foreign language, it is not the mother tongue of the vast majority of the population. Therefore when considering 'language learning' in the Irish Education system this factor should be taken into account.

Luxembourg: Pupils learning English refer to pupils in international and European schools.

Finland, Estonia and Hungary: The national language taught in schools where it is not the teaching language is counted as a foreign language.

Sweden: The data excludes adult education and education for children with special needs.

Hungary: Data refer to ISCED level 1 and 2 full-time pupils.

Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows, for each country, the languages (3 at the most) most frequently taught at primary level. They are classified according to the percentage of pupils learning them, in decreasing order. Marginal cases (less than 1%) are excluded.

Allowing for exceptions, when one of the national languages is taught in schools where it is not the teaching language, it is not considered as a foreign language.

The percentage of pupils learning foreign languages is calculated with respect to all pupils in all years of primary education, even if such learning only takes place in one or two years. Percentages do not indicate whether attendance in such courses is compulsory.



ENGLISH: THE MOST TAUGHT FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The foreign language that is most taught in primary schools in the European countries for which data are available is **English**. On average, over 40 % of pupils learn English. The countries with the highest percentages of primary pupils learning English are Spain (78 %), Austria (75 %), Norway and Malta (100 %). The percentage is also 60 % or more in Finland, Sweden and Hungary. In Luxembourg, the English language is not generally taught at this level and in Belgium, the number of children learning English at primary school is very low.

FIGURE H7: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1) LEARNING ENGLISH, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes:

Greece and Austria: 1998/99 data.

Luxembourg: English is not taught in public primary schools. Data refers to International and European schools only.

Netherlands: All pupils in groups 7 and 8 of primary education (accounting for 30 % of pupils at this level) learn English.

Hungary: Data refers to ISCED level 1 and 2 full-time pupils.

Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.

Explanatory note

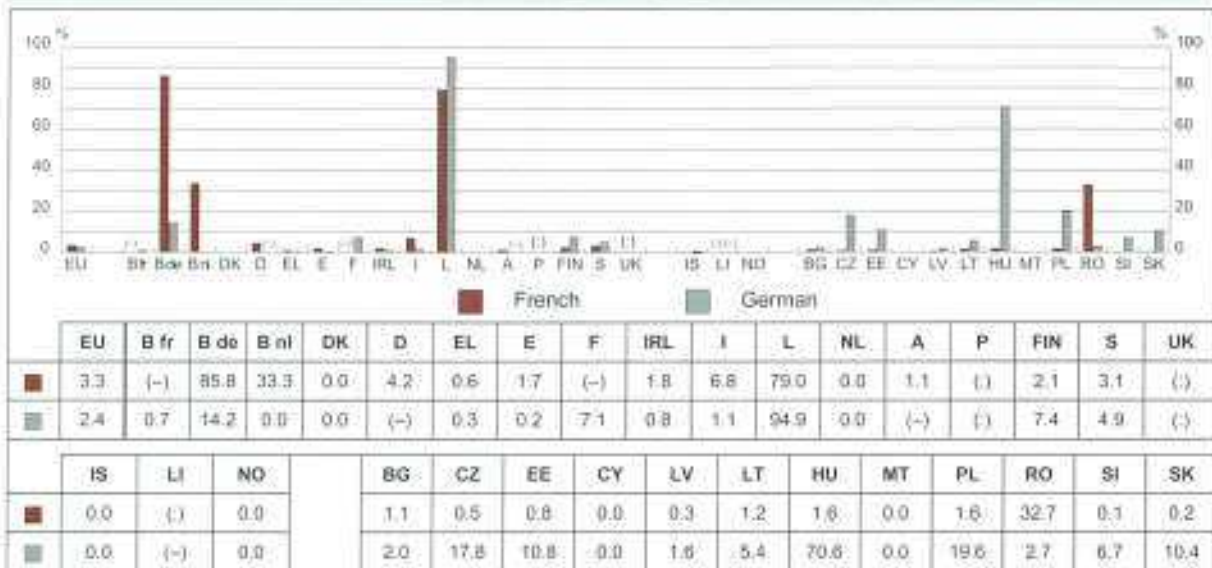
The percentage of pupils learning English is calculated with respect to all pupils in all years of primary education, even if such learning only takes place in one or two years. Percentages do not indicate whether attendance in such courses is compulsory.

Of all the other foreign languages taught at primary level, **German** ranks second with an average of 7 % learning it. Percentages are below 10 %, except in Belgium (German-speaking Community), in Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia (where 14 %, 95 %, 18 %, 11 %, 71 %, 20 % and 10 % respectively learn this language). However, in EU countries, French is the second most taught foreign language at primary level (3.3 % on average learn French in the EU compared to 42 % learning English and 2.4 % learning German).

Considering all the European countries for which data are available, **French** comes third with an average of 4 % learning it. Percentages are below 7 %, except in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Luxembourg and Romania (where 86 %, 33 %, 79 % and 33 % respectively learn this language). In Luxembourg, all pupils in public education learn French from the 2nd year of primary school, as French is one of the country's official languages.



FIGURE H8: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1) LEARNING GERMAN OR FRENCH, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): There exists a French-speaking minority who is legally entitled to be taught in French and legally obliged to learn German as a first foreign language.

Greece and Austria: 1998/99 data.

Ireland: Data on foreign languages refers to the Primary Modern Languages Initiative being run in some public-sector primary schools (corresponding to the last two years of primary school).

Hungary: Data refers to ISCED level 1 and 2 full-time pupils.

Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.

Explanatory note

The percentage of pupils learning German or French is calculated with respect to all pupils in all years of primary education, even if such learning only takes place in one or two years. Percentages do not indicate whether attendance at such courses is compulsory.

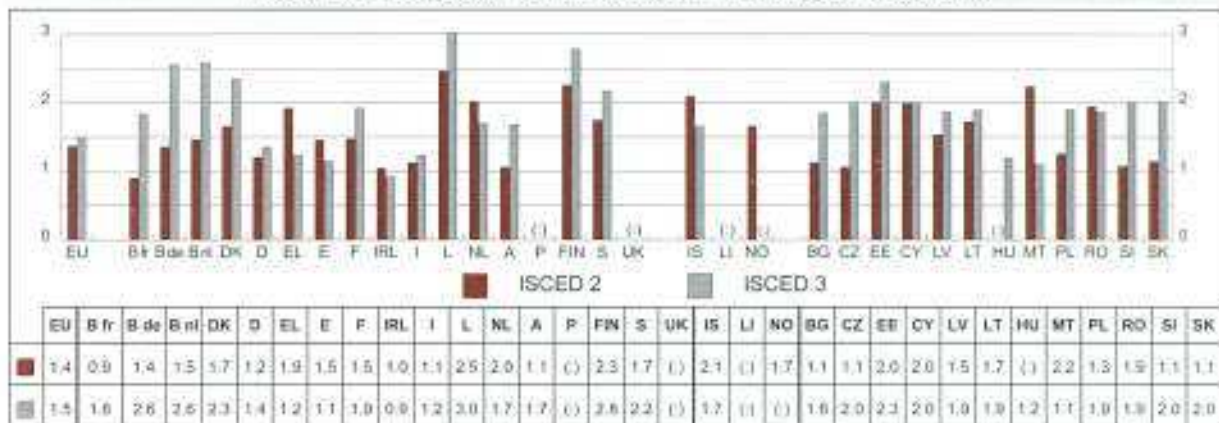
ALMOST ALL PUPILS IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION LEARN AT LEAST ONE FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Almost every young person enrolled in general secondary education learns at least one foreign language. In the 27 countries for which data is available, the average number of foreign languages studied per pupil in general secondary education is 1.4. It ranges from 1 language in Ireland to 2.5 or more in Luxembourg and Finland.

For most countries there are differences in the number of foreign languages learned between general lower and upper secondary education. In the former, the number of foreign languages learned is less than the number learned in the latter (1.3 and 1.5 respectively). At general lower secondary level, the number of languages learned ranges from approximately 1 language in Belgium (French Community), Ireland, Italy, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia to 2 or more in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, Iceland, Estonia, Cyprus and Malta. At general upper secondary level, the number of languages learned ranges from approximately 1 language in Ireland to 3 in Luxembourg.



FIGURE H9: AVERAGE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNED PER PUPIL
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Greece and Austria: 1998/99.

Ireland, Netherlands, Hungary and Slovakia: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Ireland: All pupils in secondary education study the Irish language (Gaeilge) at school. While this could not be considered to be a foreign language, it is not the mother tongue of the vast majority of the population. Therefore, when considering 'language learning' in the Irish Education system, this factor should be taken into account.

Netherlands: Data does not include pupils in special schools; Data on ISCED level 2 are missing.

Finland, Estonia, Hungary: The national language taught in schools where it is not the teaching language is counted as a foreign language.

Finland: ISCED level 2 excludes pupils in comprehensive schools (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) receiving supplementary education. ISCED level 3 includes adult education.

Sweden: At ISCED level 3, only graduate pupils (from *gymnasieskola*) are included.

United Kingdom: All pupils at secondary education level in England, Wales and Northern Ireland learn at least one foreign language, but there is no data on the number of pupils who learn more than one. Although Welsh is not the mother tongue for the majority of pupils, all pupils in Wales learn Welsh, either as a first or as a second language.

Czech Republic: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.

Explanatory note

The average number of foreign languages learned in general secondary education is obtained by dividing the total number of pupils learning foreign languages by the number of pupils at that level.

Irish, Letzeburgesch and regional languages are excluded, although provision may be made for them in certain Member States.

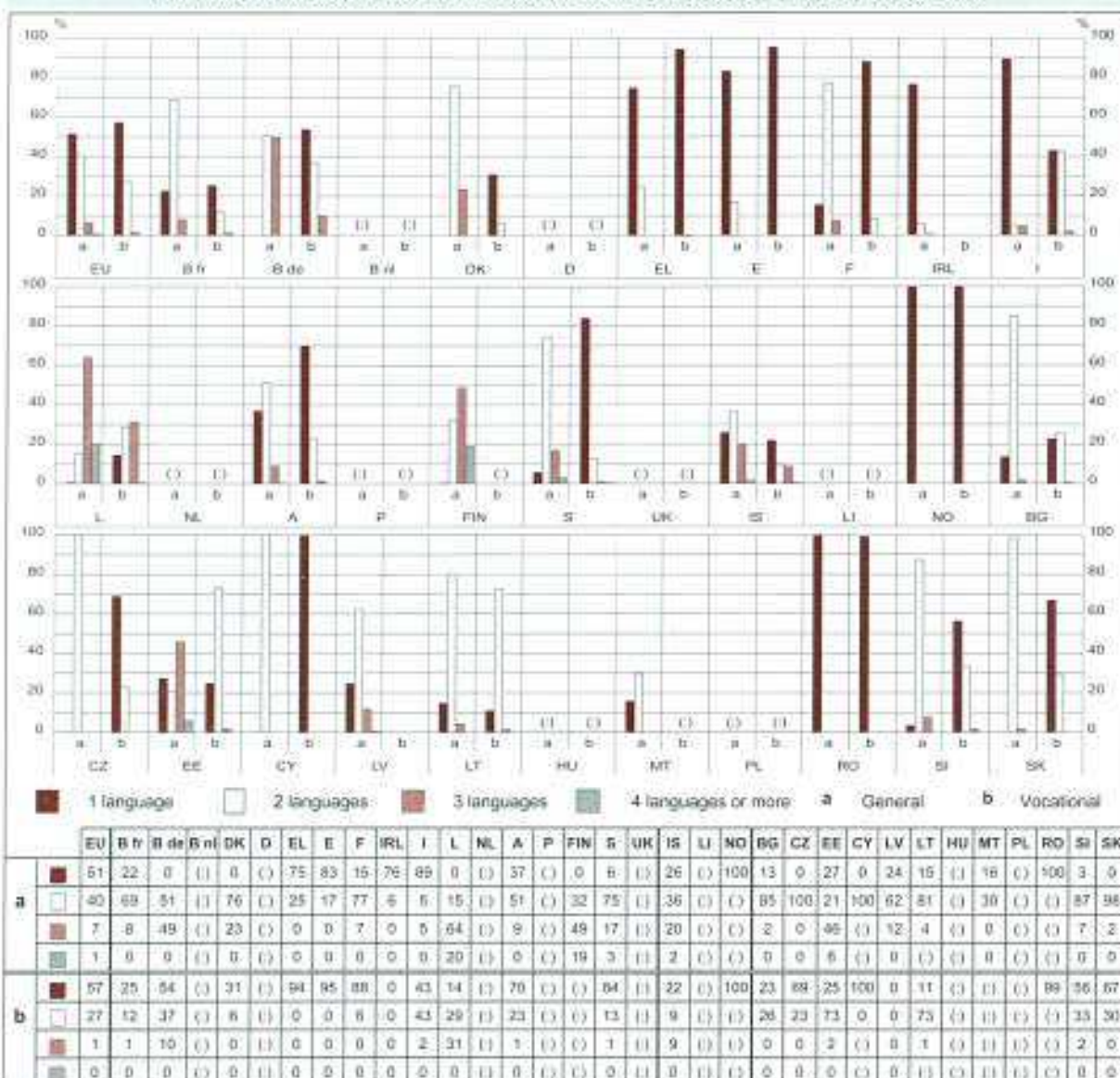
Allowing for exceptions, when one of the national languages is taught in schools where it is not the teaching language, it is not considered as a foreign language.

**FOREIGN LANGUAGES ARE TAUGHT MORE IN GENERAL EDUCATION
THAN IN THE VOCATIONAL STREAM**

On average, in the countries for which data is available, at upper secondary level the percentage of pupils learning two or more foreign languages is greater in the general stream than in the vocational stream. Conversely, the percentage of pupils learning just one foreign language is greater in the vocational stream than in the general stream. However this average hides considerable differences between countries.



FIGURE H10: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3) LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES. DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF LANGUAGES LEARNED, 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

- Denmark: The figure for vocational training is underestimated.
- Greece, France, Italy and Austria: 1998/99.
- Ireland: The data refers to full-time pupils only.
- Netherlands: Excludes pupils in pre-vocational programmes and special schools.
- Finland and Estonia: The national language taught in schools where it is not the teaching language is counted as a foreign language.
- Sweden: Excludes adult education and education for children with special needs.
- Lithuania: 3 languages refers to 3 or more in general education.
- Romania: '1 language' refers to 1, 2, 3, or more languages.
- Slovenia: The number of children learning at least one foreign language is underestimated.

Explanatory note

Irish, Letzeburgesch and regional languages are excluded, although provision may be made for them in certain Member States. Allowing for exceptions, when one of the national languages is taught in schools where it is not the teaching language, it is not considered as a foreign language.



APART FROM ENGLISH, THE MOST TAUGHT FOREIGN LANGUAGES
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION VARY

In some countries, languages other than English, French, German and Spanish are learnt: Dutch in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Russian in Germany and most of the candidate countries (the exceptions being the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta and Slovenia), Italian in France, Austria, Malta and Slovenia, Swedish in Finland, Danish in Iceland, Estonian in Estonia and Hungarian in Hungary.

FIGURE H11: FOREIGN LANGUAGES MOST LEARNED AT GENERAL SECONDARY LEVEL (ISCED 2 AND 3) AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS LEARNING THEM, BY COUNTRY, 1999/2000

	1 st	2nd	3rd	4th		1 st	2nd	3rd	4th		1st	2nd	3rd	4th
B fr	nl 68	● 60	■ 4	◇ 3	NL	● 99	■ 41	▲ 30		EE	● 86	○ 54	■ 38	ee 31
B de	▲ 79	● 88	nl 25	■ 21	A	● 98	▲ 13	it 6	◇ 2	CY	● 100	▲ 100		
B nl	▲ 95	● 72	■ 25	◇ 1	P	()				LV	● 88	○ 39	■ 33	▲ 2
DK	● 100	■ 67	▲ 14	◇ 7	FIN	● 99	sv 91	■ 31	▲ 14	LT	● 73	○ 58	■ 34	▲ 7
D	● 94	▲ 23	○ 3	◇ 2	S	● 100	■ 41	▲ 23	◇ 14	HU	● 98	■ 47	▲ 6	hu 4
EL	● 94	▲ 59	■ 9		UK	()				MT	● 94	it 80	▲ 41	■ 7
E	● 94	▲ 37	■ 2		IS	● 82	da 96	■ 23	▲ 10	PL	● 80	■ 63	○ 18	▲ 11
F	● 95	◇ 37	■ 22	it 4	LI	()				RO	▲ 88	● 80	○ 12	■ 11
IRL	▲ 70	■ 23	◇ 4		NO	● 63	■ 30	▲ 11		SI	● 88	■ 37	▲ 3	it 3
I	● 78	▲ 33	■ 5		BG	● 61	○ 28	■ 21	▲ 17	SK	● 56	■ 61	○ 7	▲ 4
L	▲ 94	■ 93	● 84	◇ 7	CZ	● 64	■ 49	▲ 4	◇ 1					

● English ▲ French ■ German ◇ Spanish ○ Russian

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): There exists a minority of French-speaking pupils who are taught in French and who learn German as a first foreign language.

Greece and Austria: 1998/99.

Ireland, Netherlands and Hungary: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Netherlands: Excludes ISCED level 2 and ISCED level 3 pre-vocational programmes. Pupils in special schools are not included either.

Finland: ISCED level 2 excludes pupils in comprehensive schools (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) receiving supplementary education. ISCED level 3 includes adult education.

Sweden: At ISCED level 3, only graduate pupils (from *gymnasieskola*) are included.

Norway: Data for ISCED level 3 are not available.

Czech Republic: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Estonia and Hungary: The national language taught in schools in which it is not the language of instruction is counted as a foreign language.

Hungary: Data refers to ISCED level 3 pupils only.

Malta: Pupils learning English refer to ISCED level 2 only.

Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year. ISCED level 2 was introduced as a three-year programme in 1999.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows, for each country, the languages most taught (4 at the most) in general secondary education. They are classified according to the percentage of pupils learning them, in decreasing order. Marginal cases (less than 1%) are excluded.

Allowing for exceptions, when one of the national languages is taught in schools where it is not the teaching language, it is not considered as a foreign language.

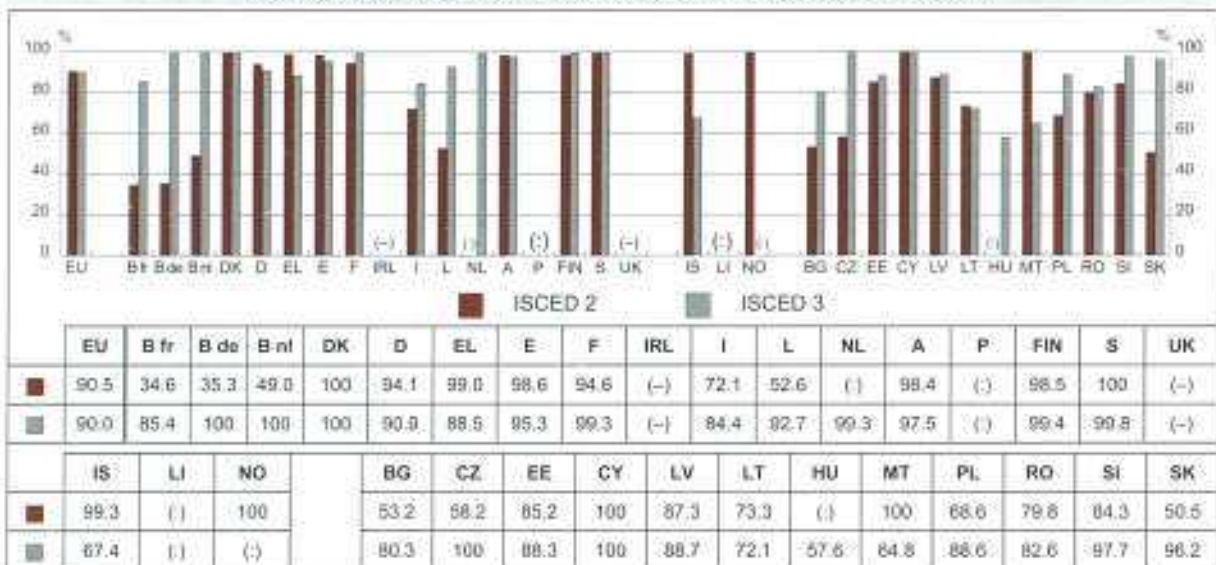


ENGLISH IS THE MOST TAUGHT FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

English is by far the most popular foreign language at secondary level. Far fewer pupils learn other languages. Thus, on average in the 27 European countries for which data are available, 87 % of pupils in general secondary education learn English whereas 25 % study French, 15 % German and 7 % Spanish. In EFTA/EEA and candidate countries on average, pupils are more inclined to study German than in EU countries.

In many countries, over 90 % of pupils in general secondary education are taught English. Proportions are lower (between 56 and 88 %) in Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Iceland, and the candidate countries with the exception of Cyprus and Malta.

FIGURE H12: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS LEARNING ENGLISH
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, LOE.

Additional notes

Greece and Austria: 1998/99.

Ireland, Netherlands and Hungary: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Netherlands: Excludes ISCED level 2 and ISCED level 3 pre-vocational programmes. Pupils in special schools are not included either.

Finland: ISCED level 2 excludes pupils in comprehensive schools (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) receiving supplementary education. ISCED level 3 includes adult education.

Sweden: At ISCED level 3, only graduate pupils (from *gymnasieskola*) are included.

Czech Republic: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

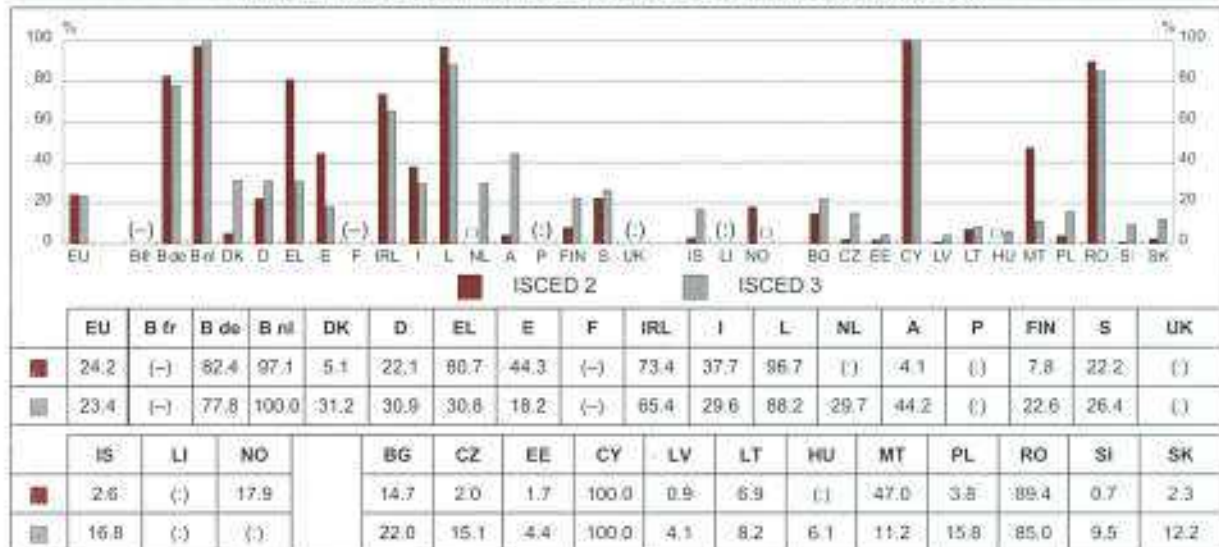
Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year. ISCED level 2 was introduced as a three-year programme in 1999.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.



French is the second most taught foreign language in the European countries for which data is available, but with variations between countries. Fewer than one pupil in five learns French in Denmark, Austria, Finland, Iceland, Norway and the candidate countries with the exception of Cyprus, Malta and Romania. On the other hand, percentages exceed 60 % in the Flemish-speaking community of Belgium (98 %), the German-speaking community of Belgium (80 %), Ireland (70 %), Luxembourg (94 %), Cyprus (100 %) and Romania (88 %), where French is the most taught foreign language at this level. In Cyprus, all pupils enrolled in general secondary education learn French. In Luxembourg, French is one of the country's national languages.

FIGURE H13: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS LEARNING FRENCH
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Greece and Austria: 1998/99.

Ireland, Netherlands and Hungary: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Netherlands: Excludes ISCED level 2 and ISCED level 3 pre-vocational programmes. Pupils in special schools are not included either.

Finland: ISCED level 2 excludes pupils in comprehensive schools (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) receiving supplementary education. ISCED level 3 includes adult education.

Sweden: At ISCED level 3, only graduate pupils (from *gymnasieskola*) are included.

Czech Republic: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

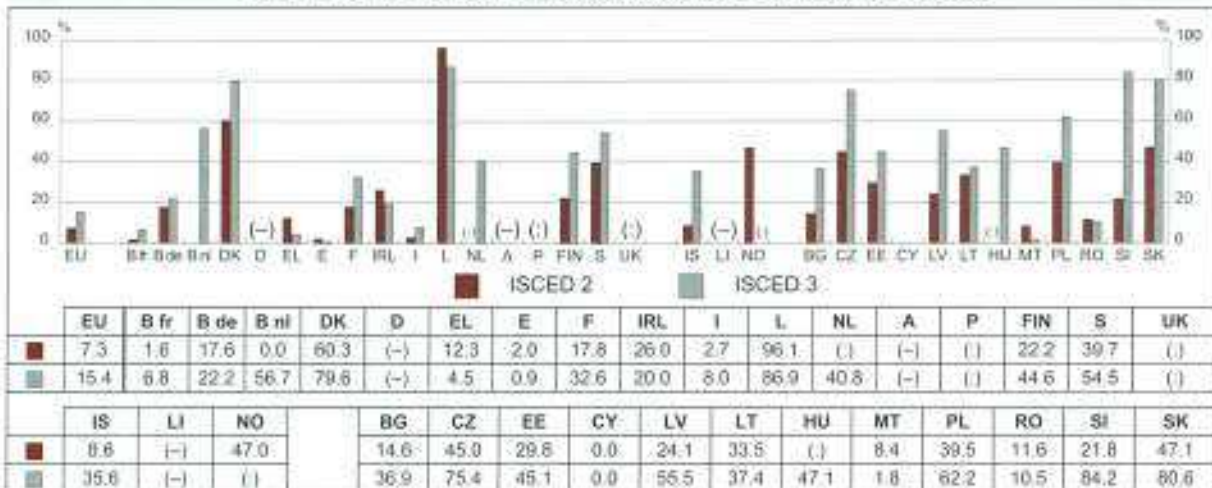
Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year. ISCED level 2 was introduced as a three-year programme in 1999.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower-secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.



German as a foreign language is taught in all the countries for which data is available except in Cyprus. In Luxembourg, German is an official language and is obligatorily learned by all pupils. Of the four languages under consideration here, it comes second in Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, Iceland, Norway and in all the candidate countries with the exceptions of Cyprus, Malta and Romania. The percentages of pupils learning German in general secondary education are particularly high in Denmark (67 %) and Luxembourg (93 %).

FIGURE H14: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS LEARNING GERMAN
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): There exists a minority of French-speaking pupils who are taught in French and who learn German as a first foreign language.

Greece: 1998/99.

Ireland, Netherlands and Hungary: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

Netherlands: Excludes ISCED level 2 and ISCED level 3 pre-vocational programmes. Pupils in special schools are not included either.

Finland: ISCED level 2 excludes pupils in comprehensive schools (*perusopetus/grundläggande utbildning*) receiving supplementary education, ISCED level 3 includes adult education.

Sweden: At ISCED level 3, only graduate pupils (from *gymnasieskola*) are included.

Czech Republic: The data refers to full-time pupils only.

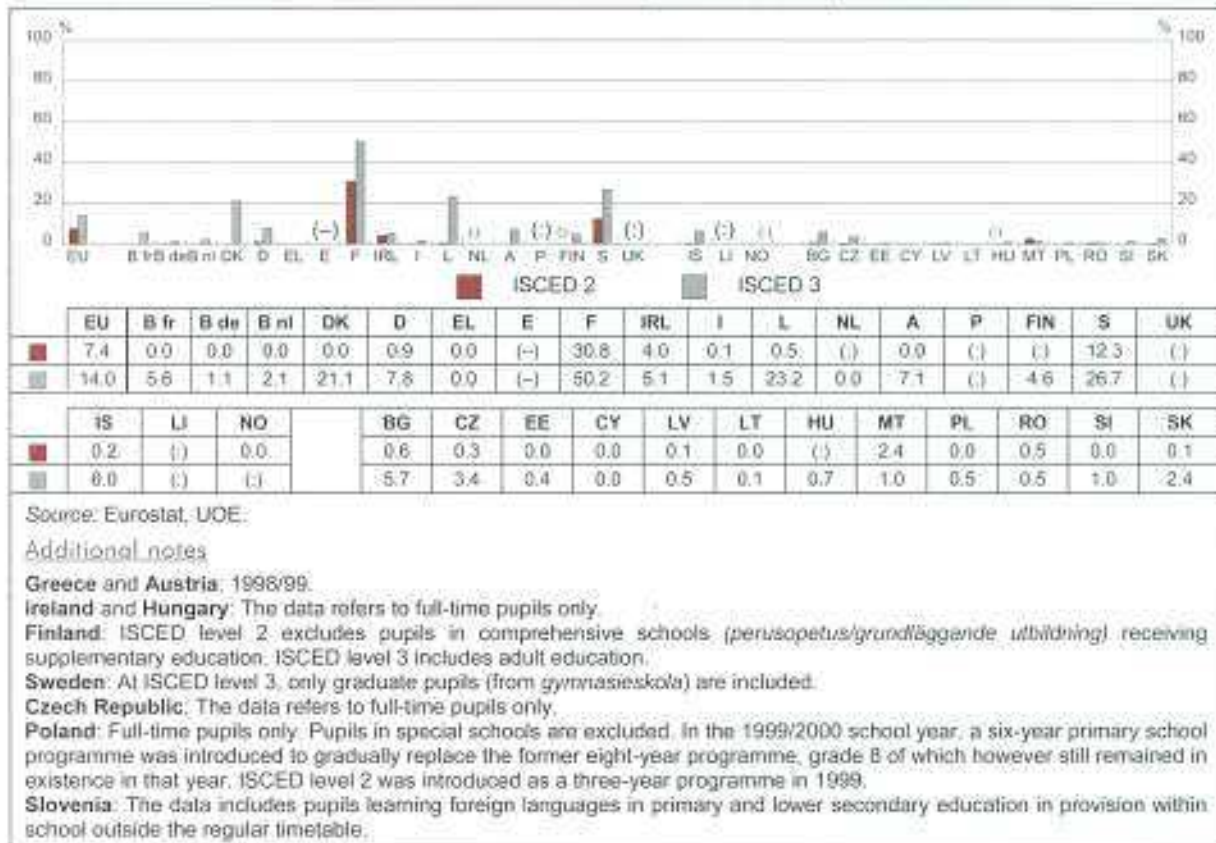
Poland: Full-time pupils only. Pupils in special schools are excluded. In the 1999/2000 school year, a six-year primary school programme was introduced to gradually replace the former eight-year programme, grade 8 of which however still remained in existence in that year. ISCED level 2 was introduced as a three-year programme in 1999.

Slovenia: The data includes pupils learning foreign languages in primary and lower secondary education in provision within school outside the regular timetable.



While **Spanish** is taught in most European countries at secondary level (exceptions are Greece, the Netherlands, Norway and Cyprus), the proportion of pupils learning it in general secondary education does not exceed 7 % on average. In many countries, only 1 % or less is involved. The percentages of pupils learning Spanish are highest in France and Sweden (37 % and 14 % respectively).

FIGURE H15: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS LEARNING SPANISH
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000



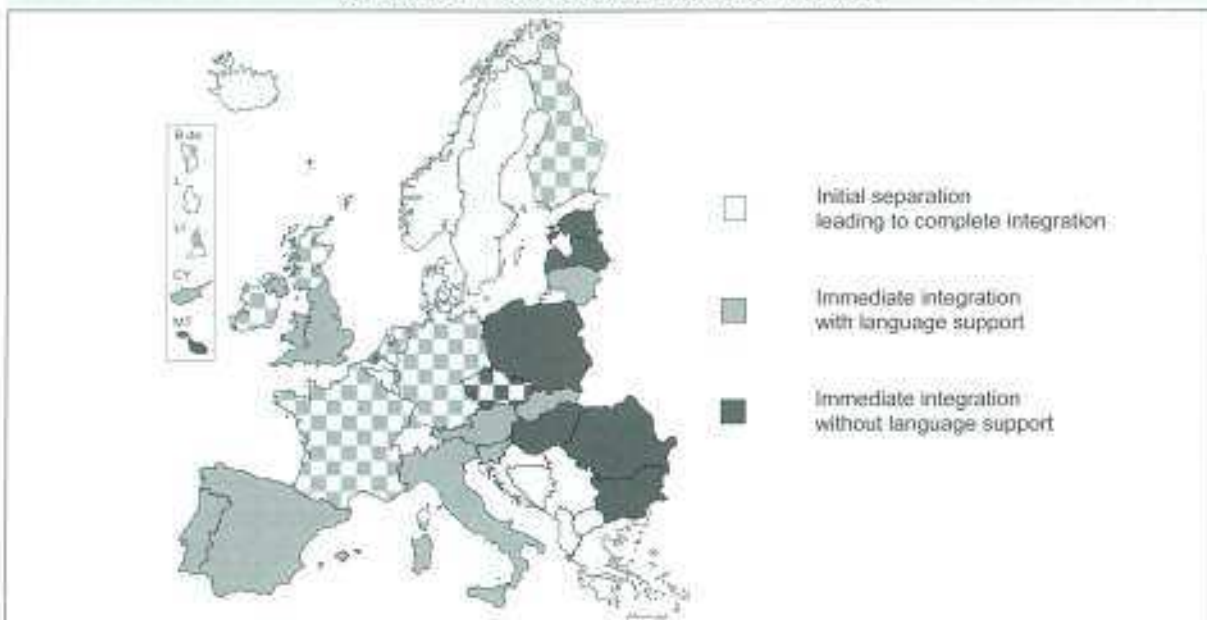
DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPPORT FOR CHILDREN OF FOREIGN MOTHER TONGUE

Only some candidate countries offer no special support for children of foreign mother tongue (i.e. those whose native language is different from the one or more state languages and not recognised as a minority or regional language), so that they integrate more easily within the education system. In the case of the European Union, there is a Council directive (77/486/EEC) asking each Member State to take appropriate measures to ensure that 'free tuition to facilitate initial reception, including, in particular, the teaching (...) of the official language or one of the official languages of the host State' is offered to children who are dependants of any worker with the nationality of another Member State.

The legislation of EU countries thus addresses this issue. However, its scope is less than that of the present diagram which concerns all children whose mother tongue is different from the state language(s) and not recognised as a minority or regional language, regardless of the nationality of their parents.

While all Nordic countries provide wholly or partially for initial separation, no candidate country has introduced this kind of measure, except the Czech Republic in certain cases. With the exception of Greece, the countries of southern Europe tend to prefer immediate integration measures with language support.

FIGURE H16: TYPES OF SUPPORT OFFERED TO CHILDREN IN FULL-TIME COMPULSORY SCHOOLING, WHOSE MOTHER TONGUE IS DIFFERENT FROM THE ONE OR MORE STATE LANGUAGES AND NOT RECOGNISED AS A MINORITY OR REGIONAL LANGUAGE, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Ireland: The official documents do not specify that schools have to introduce support measures. However, since support from the education authorities is available, virtually all schools apply for it and arrange for such measures.

Finland: Both school legislation and the national core curriculum strongly encourage municipalities to arrange for linguistic support without specifying in what form.

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The central authorities (England and Wales) and the Education and Library Boards (local authorities in Northern Ireland) provide additional funding for schools to meet the particular needs of pupils for whom English is an additional language.

United Kingdom (SC): Provision varies throughout Scotland as this is a matter for the local authorities. The main support is initial separation leading to complete integration.

Czech Republic: Since 1999, schools with a centre for asylum-seekers within their catchment area may offer separate classes preparing pupils for integration. In the year 2000/2001, nine schools offered such classes.

Poland: The amendment to the Act on the Education System providing for the introduction of separate classes to prepare pupils of foreign mother tongue for integration and/or supplementary lessons for them was adopted in December 2000. The amendment will come into force when Poland joins the European Union.

Explanatory note

Only types of support specified in official documents emanating from the central (or top-level) authorities for education are referred to. Where these authorities explicitly empower local authorities or schools to decide what policies to adopt, this is indicated in a note and the map shows the one or more most frequently encountered situations.

Initial separation: temporary attendance in classes/lessons specially organised for eligible children of foreign mother tongue, during at least half of the minimum time spent at school. In these classes, they receive special instruction for language support.

Immediate integration: (eligible) children who speak a different language enrol directly in the courses normally offered to all schoolchildren. Immediate integration may involve:

- **language support** in which the children concerned receive linguistic assistance entailing, for example, tuition in the language of instruction. Such assistance may also entail lessons in subjects in the curriculum which are given in the children's mother tongue, provided the lessons correspond to less than half of the minimum time spent at school.
- **No language support.**



ORAL ABILITY THE PRIORITY
AT THE OUTSET OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

All official curricula on how the first compulsory foreign language should be taught express the core aims of communication skills in terms of four major skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. The educational aims with which they are associated are not always equally ranked. Where priorities are evident, they are almost always focused on oral skills (speaking and listening).

FIGURE H17: RELATIVE PRIORITY GIVEN TO THE AIMS ASSOCIATED WITH THE FOUR MAJOR SKILLS, 2000/01

FIGURE H17A: WHEN COMPULSORY TEACHING OF THE FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGE BEGINS							FIGURE H17B: WHEN COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION ENDS						
Age of pupils at the outset	Explicit priority				No priority explicitly stated	No reference		Explicit priority				No priority explicitly stated	No reference
	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing				Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing		
10	■	■					B fr	■	■				
8	■	■					B de	■	■				
12					■		B nl					■	
10					■		DK					■	
8	■	■					D					■	
9						■	EL						■
8					■		E					■	
9	■	■					F					■	
						■	IRL						■
7	■	■					I					■	
6					■		L					■	
10	■	■	■				NL					■	
6	■	■					A					■	
10					■		P					■	
7-9						■	FIN						■
7-10	■	■					S	■	■				
11					■		UK (E/W/NI)					■	
10-11	■	■	■				UK (SC)	■	■	■			
10					■		IS					■	
8					■		LI					■	
6						■	NO						■
11					■		BG					■	
9	■	■					CZ						■
7-9					■		EE					■	
9					■		CY					■	
9					■		LV					■	
9					■		LT					■	
9					■		HU					■	
5	■	■					MT						■
10	■	■					PL	■	■				
9	■	■	■				RO	■	■	■			
9					■		SI					■	
10					■		SK					■	

Source: Eurydice.

Additional Notes

Belgium (B fr, B nl): In Brussels, the first compulsory foreign language is taught to pupils at the age of 8.

Ireland: The teaching of foreign languages is not compulsory. Data for this figure is taken from the foreign languages curricula used for the *Junior Certificate* (awarded at the age of 15).

Italy: The data in Figure H17B relates solely to the end of *scuola media*.

Finland and Sweden: The central educational authorities do not specify the age at which pupils must learn a foreign language for the first time. Schools are free to decide the point at which this should occur. In practice, this is situated within the range of years shown in the figure.

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The *National Curriculum* and the Northern Ireland Curriculum place equal emphasis on each of the four skills.

United Kingdom (SC): Schools may start teaching the first compulsory foreign language when pupils are aged 10 or 11.

Explanatory Note

The age at which all pupils have to learn a foreign language for the first time and which is shown in the figure is the one referred to in the official documents. This applies even in cases where such documents are very recent and new legislation has not been implemented in all schools.

Major skill: one of the areas of competence concerned with effective communication. There are four such areas, namely listening (understanding what is said), speaking (expressing oneself orally), reading (understanding what is read) and writing (expressing oneself in writing).

Explicit priority given to one or more major skills: the official curricula for foreign languages state clearly and explicitly that greater emphasis is attached to the aims of one or more major skills in the whole teaching/learning process.

No priority explicitly stated: the official curricula for foreign languages explicitly state that, as far as aims are concerned, no priority should be attached to any one or more of the major skills.

No reference: the official curricula for foreign languages do not address the question of whether priority should be given to one or more major skills compared to others.

Several curricula that attach explicit priority to the major skills of 'listening' and 'speaking' when a foreign language is first taught as a compulsory subject, attach equal importance to the four major skills at the end of compulsory schooling or no longer consider the priority issue at all.

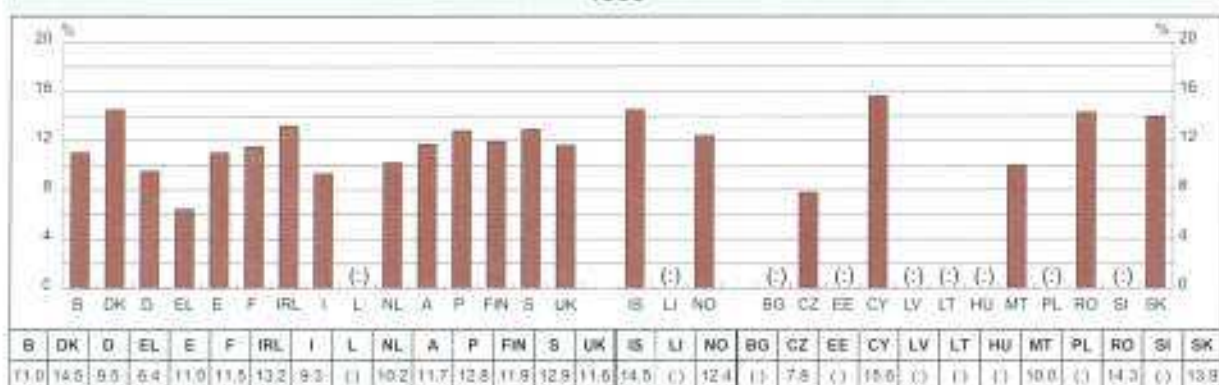
In primary education, most countries in which foreign language curricula explicitly state that no priority should be given to one or more major skills are countries in which pupils first have to learn a foreign language at a relatively late stage (over the age of 9 or 10). By contrast, the curricula of the great majority of countries in which pupils first learn a foreign language quite early (before the age of 9) attach priority to oral skills (listening and speaking) or do not address the question of priority.

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

EDUCATION BUDGETS AMOUNT TO 11 % OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON AVERAGE, WITH MOST EU COUNTRIES IN THE NARROW 9-13 % RANGE

Figure I1 shows the proportion of the total public expenditure allocated to education: The range here is between 14.5 % (Denmark) and 6.4 % (Greece), with an EU average of 11.2 %. Denmark, Ireland, Portugal and Sweden all spend more than the average on education. In Belgium, Spain, France, Austria, Finland and the United Kingdom, education has a close to average share of public expenditure (from 11.0 % to 11.9 %). In Germany, Greece, Italy and the Netherlands, the proportion spent on education is less than average. In Norway the pattern is similar to that in Sweden, with 12.4 % of the public expenditure accounting for education.

FIGURE I1: TOTAL EDUCATION BUDGET AS A SHARE OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE, 1999



Source: Eurostat UOE; Public expenditure: Eurostat.

[Additional note](#)

France: Does not include DOM.

[Explanatory note](#)

Total education expenditure for all levels of government combined; for candidate countries (except Czech Republic) data on public expenditure come from alternative national sources.

Too little data on total government spending is available at European level for the candidate countries. The Czech Republic, for which data is available, spends 7.8 % of its overall public expenditure budget on education, which is well below the EU average, and exceeds that of only Greece among the EU countries. Data have been submitted from national sources for some of the countries. Romania with 14.3 %, Slovakia with 13.9 % report figures higher than most EU countries while Cyprus has the highest share of all countries examined with 15.6 %.

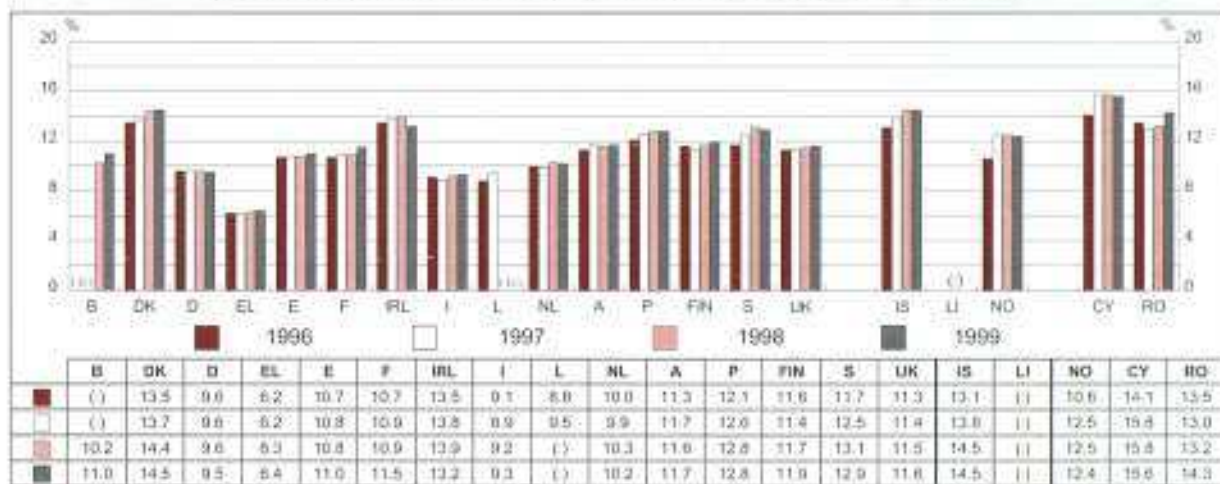


THE PERCENTAGE OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE GOING TO EDUCATION HAS REMAINED STABLE OR EVEN TENDED TO INCREASE, DESPITE REDUCTION IN THAT EXPENDITURE AS A SHARE OF GDP

As will be noted subsequently in Figure 14, four EU countries (Denmark, Greece, Portugal and Sweden) have reported an increase in public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP. In Greece, public expenditure on education has increased only slightly as a proportion of the total public expenditure. This means that the substantial increase in public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP in Greece has been the case also for other public expenditure. Overall, a similar pattern applies to the modest increase observed in Figure 14 in the case of Portugal, so that public expenditure on education has remained stable as a proportion of the total public expenditure. A different pattern applies in the case of Denmark and Sweden. As a proportion of GDP, public expenditure on education has increased while overall public expenditure seems to have gone down; consequently, the share of education in the total public expenditure has increased considerably. In most of the other EU countries, public expenditure on education as a proportion of total public expenditure has slightly increased or at least remained stable, despite the downward trend in the former as a proportion of GDP. This is because public expenditure in general has been declining as proportion of GDP. In Norway, except for a large increase recorded from 1996 to 1997, the share of public expenditure going to education has remained stable thereafter.

For most candidate countries, data is available for 1999 only, making trend comparisons impossible. That is why it is not included in this figure.

FIGURE 12: THE EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AS A PROPORTION OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OVER TIME SINCE 1996



Source: Eurostat Rapid Data Collection Questionnaire and UOE.

Additional note

Cyprus: Data from national sources.

Explanatory note

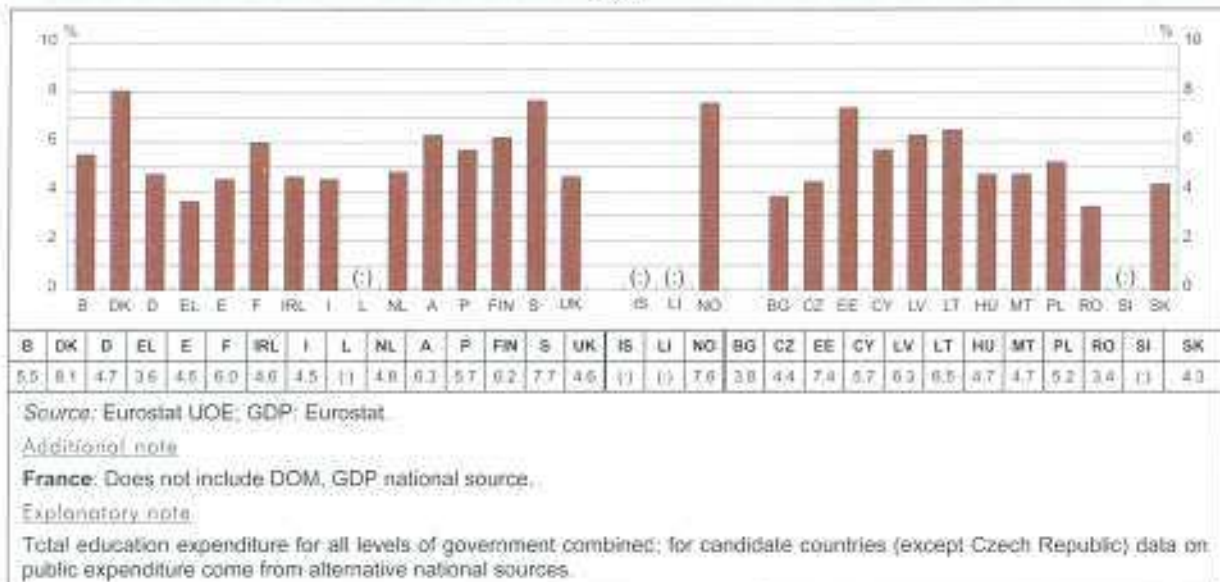
Figure 12 measures changes in the proportion of total public expenditure allocated to education. (The figures shown are only from 1998 because of the non-availability of data on total public expenditure before that year.) The figures illustrate whether, and, if so, the extent to which the trends observed in Figure 14 in public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP are also reflected in the case of public expenditure in general.



**NATIONAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION
AMOUNTS TO 5.5 % OF GDP ON AVERAGE, BUT THE PROPORTION
IS ALMOST TWICE AS MUCH IN SOME COUNTRIES AS IN OTHERS**

In Figure 13, the percentage of the Gross Domestic Product as a whole that is allocated to expenditure on education is shown. Across EU countries there is a wide range of variation, from the highest at 8.1 % in Denmark to the lowest at 3.6 % in Greece. Norway is again well-above EU average at 7.6 %. All three Baltic States, Estonia (7.4 %), Latvia (6.3 %) and Lithuania (6.5 %) spend well above the EU-15 average (5.5 %); Cyprus (5.7 %) and Poland (5.2 %) spend around average, while relatively low figures are reported for the Czech Republic (4.4 %), Hungary (4.7 %), Malta (4.7 %) and Slovakia (4.3 %). The data for Bulgaria (3.8 %) and Romania (3.4 %) are well below average. Wide variations in such expenditure reflect both the share of GDP devoted to it, and the share of it allocated to education.

FIGURE 13: TOTAL EDUCATION BUDGET AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP, 1999



Countries who have high percentages (6 % or more) of GDP allocated to public expenditure include Denmark, France, Austria, Finland and Sweden in the EU. In Denmark and Sweden, this results both from public expenditure forming a well above-average share of GDP; and education expenditure forming a well above-average share of all public expenditure. Interestingly, this is achieved in Austria and Finland largely as a result of higher share of total public expenditure in GDP, while the share of education in the total public expenditure exceeds the average only modestly. The same pattern applies in the case of France and Greece, in the latter case it is noteworthy that the gap with other EU countries is narrowed as a result of total public expenditure forming a high proportion of GDP.

By contrast, for Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom, education receives a below-average share of GDP largely because the same pattern applies to all public expenditure as a proportion of GDP. The pattern for Norway is similar to that in Sweden and Denmark.

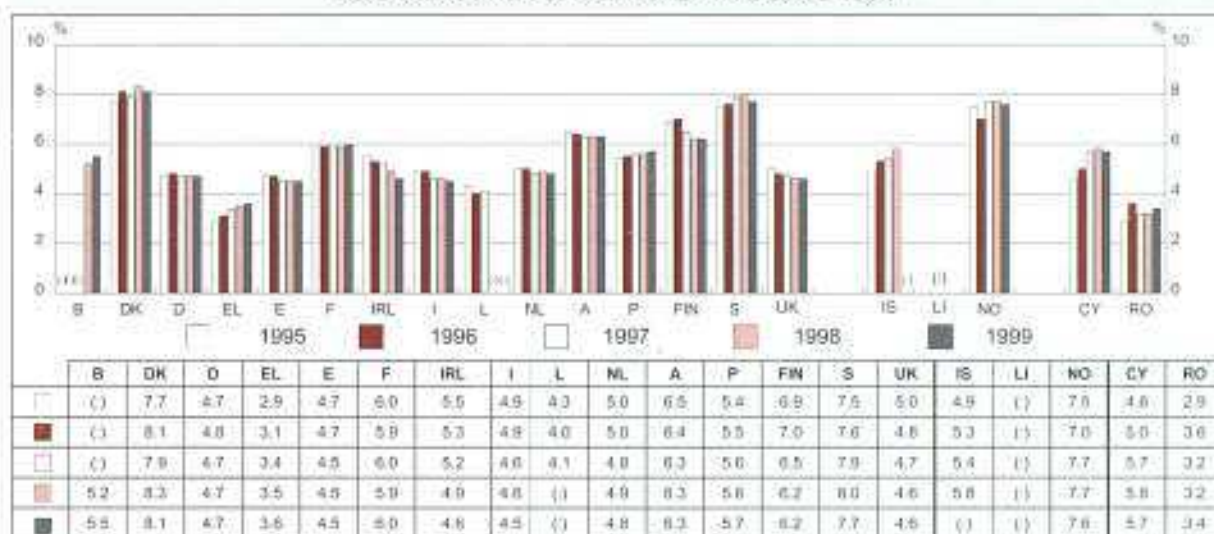
In summary, it is possible to identify those countries that place a higher priority on public expenditure and, within this group of countries, those that also put a high priority on education. These are Belgium, Denmark, France, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Norway and Cyprus. Consistently lower percentages are observed in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Malta. Greece and, to a lesser extent, the Czech Republic spend well below average on education, despite allocating a higher percentage of GDP to public expenditure, while Ireland, Romania and Slovakia present a contrasting picture.



MOST COUNTRIES SHOW DECREASE IN PERCENTAGE OF GDP SPENT ON EDUCATION SINCE 1995, WITH VERY SUBSTANTIAL REDUCTION IN SOME COUNTRIES

During this five-year period, the proportion of public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP has risen in only four countries. In three of them – Denmark, Portugal and Sweden – the increase has been small (5 % or less). The only substantial (25 %) increase has been in the case of Greece, where this trend has brought the country closer to the EU average for public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP. The data are available for Belgium only for the last two years, 1998 and 1999, recording a significant increase.

FIGURE 14: THE EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION
AS A PROPORTION OF GDP OVER TIME SINCE 1995



Source: Eurostat Rapid Data Collection Questionnaire and UOE.

Additional note

France: Does not include DOM, GDP national source.

Explanatory note

Figure 14 provides an illustration of the changes in the proportion of public expenditure as a percentage of GDP over time in the individual countries. It charts these changes annually between 1995 and 1999 where relevant data are available. Most of the data presented here have been collected specially for the Structural indicator on Spending on Human Resources through a Eurostat Rapid Data Collection.

Among the remaining European Union countries, there has been a substantial reduction of 10 % in Finland and the United Kingdom, and of 15 % in Ireland. This trend has moved Ireland and the United Kingdom further below the EU average for public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP. A small downward trend (a reduction of up to 5 % over the five-year period) is observed in most of the remaining EU countries. Data from Iceland reveal an increase in the percentage of the GDP spent on education, while there is no overall trend in the case of Norway except for a significantly lower figure reported for year 1996.

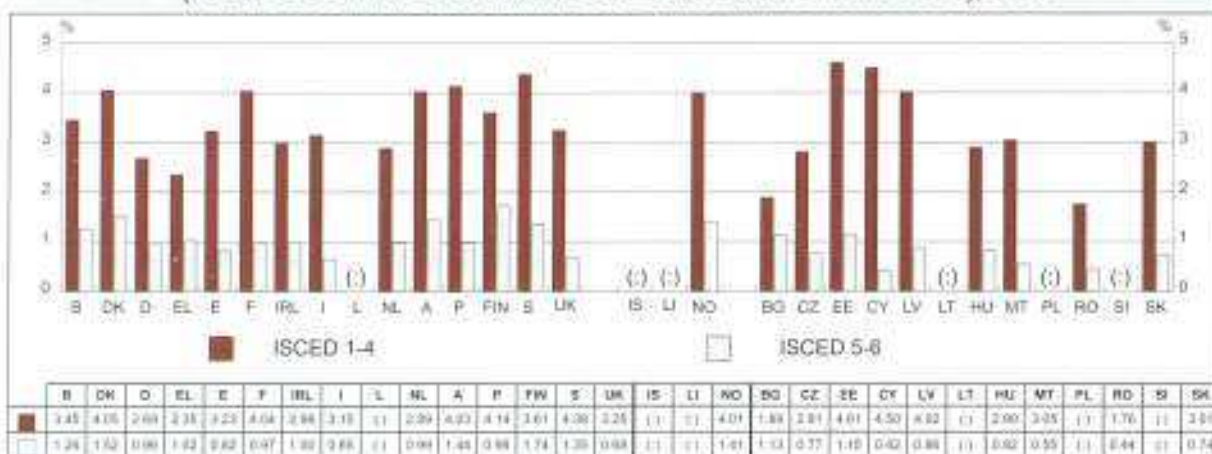
For most candidate countries, data are available for 1999 only, making trend comparisons impossible. That is why most of them are not included in this figure.



LARGER SHARE OF GDP ALLOCATED TO PRIMARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS

Figure 15 concerns both public-sector and government-dependent private institutions (i.e. institutions that receive more than 50 % of public funds). The variation shown between the European Union countries is not so striking in Figure 15.

FIGURE 15: PUBLIC FINANCING AS A SHARE OF GDP
(PUBLIC-SECTOR AND GOVERNMENT-DEPENDENT PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS), 1999



Source: Eurostat. UOE: GDP: Eurostat.

Additional notes

Denmark, Netherlands and Norway: Primary and secondary does not include post-secondary non-tertiary (public institutions).

Denmark, Portugal, Sweden, Norway, Hungary and Malta: Primary and secondary does not include post-secondary non-tertiary (government-dependent institutions).

Denmark and Portugal: For ISCED 5/6, only direct expenditure for public institutions is included.

France: Does not include DOM.

Ireland: Only direct expenditure for public institutions.

Netherlands: Pre-primary (ISCED 0) institutions are included in the data.

Cyprus and Romania: Only direct expenditure for public institutions included throughout.

Hungary: Tertiary does not include ISCED 5B (government-dependent institutions).

Slovakia: No government-dependent private institutions for ISCED 5 and 6 existed in 1999.

Explanatory note

Figure 15 shows the total amount of resources awarded by the public authorities to education as a share of the Gross Domestic Product. The figure shows the division of resources earmarked for the primary, secondary and non-tertiary post-secondary levels (ISCED 1-4) and for the tertiary level (ISCED 5-6).

The breakdown by level clearly reveals that a much larger proportion is allocated to primary and secondary levels. Here, the EU average is 3.5 % of GDP and countries are basically grouped according to whether they spend more than, less than or close to the average on these levels. These groups are: more than average (4 % or more) in Denmark, France, Austria, Portugal and Sweden; around the average (3-4 %) in Belgium, Spain, Italy, Finland and the United Kingdom; and less than the average (between 2-3 %) in Germany, Greece, Ireland and the Netherlands.

For the tertiary level, the EU average is 1.1 % of the GDP that is allocated to direct public financing of all public sector and government-dependent private institutions. Five countries allocate significantly more than this average: Belgium, Denmark, Austria, Finland and Sweden. Only two, Greece and Ireland, spend just over 1 % of their GDP on the financing of tertiary education. The others range from 0.65 % in Italy to nearly 0.99 % in the Netherlands.

In the candidate countries, a similar pattern can be observed. Again, in all countries, a larger proportion of GDP is earmarked for the primary and secondary levels of education, ranging from 4.6 % in Estonia and 4.5 % in Cyprus, to 1.8 % in Romania. Overall, the average among the candidate countries for primary and secondary levels is not much lower than the average among EU countries.



The difference from the EU average is more marked for tertiary education. For this level, the total percentages are more homogeneous between the candidate countries, but all but two – Bulgaria and Estonia – are below the EU average of 1.1 %. Cyprus and Romania report the lowest percentage at just over 0.4 % while the others range between 0.5 % and 0.9 %.

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

Figure 16 identifies the decision-making level that determines the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for schools providing compulsory education. In most countries, decisions are made by central and/or local government according to the category of resource. In some countries, however, these bodies decide on only global amounts for educational expenditure, while decisions relating to specific categories of resource are taken at school level. Depending on circumstances, the amount of funding for a particular resource is established either in terms of an overall sum to be shared out optimally among schools, or by means of a formula which, when applied to each school individually, points to the total level of funding required. Figure 16 does not distinguish between these two different procedures.

The overall level of public expenditure earmarked for **teaching staff** is decided on at the level of central government and/or the top-level authority for education in over half of the European countries concerned, most of them in southern Europe. The central government is the top-level authority for education in most countries. In three cases, however, decision-making occurs at a lower level, namely that of the governments of the Communities in Belgium, the *Länder* in Germany and the governments of the Autonomous Communities in Spain.

In the Nordic countries and Bulgaria, the level of public expenditure on teaching staff is the responsibility of the local authorities. In Latvia, Poland and Slovenia, expenditure is partly centrally, partly locally determined.

Decision-making procedures concerned with the overall level of public expenditure to be earmarked for **non-teaching staff, operational resources and movable capital assets** (movables) may be examined together.

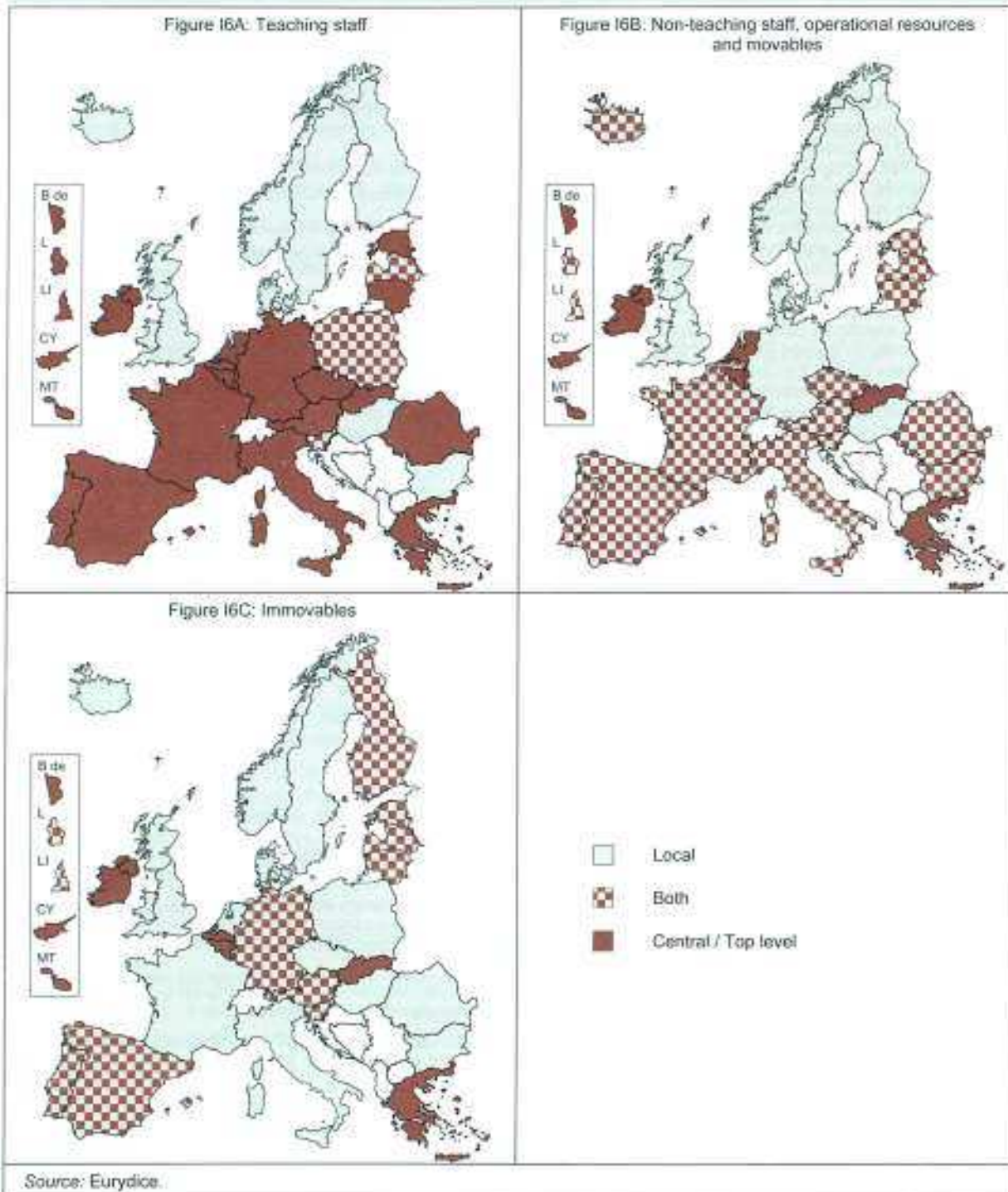
In general, these decisions are taken exclusively at local level. They remain centralised in a small number of countries as follows: Luxembourg (in the case of secondary education), Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria (secondary education in the case of the *allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen*), Portugal for the first and second stages of *ensino básico*, Liechtenstein in the case of secondary education, Cyprus, Malta and Slovakia. Responsibility for the decisions concerned lies with the Communities in Belgium and the Autonomous Communities in secondary education in Spain. In Greece the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for non-teaching staff, operational costs and movables taken together is determined by the central authorities and allocated to the municipalities which decide how much is to be allocated to each school (see Figure 17).

In several countries, decision-making is shared between the local and central levels (France in secondary education, Italy, Portugal in the case of the first stage of *ensino básico*, Iceland and the majority of candidate countries), or the local and top levels in the case of Spanish primary education. In general, decisions are shared in accordance with the following principle: those relating to the resources intended for some or all teaching equipment and materials (including computers, which come under the 'movables' heading) are taken centrally, whereas the remainder are taken locally. Depending on the country concerned, the share of centrally determined resources varies very widely. In some of the countries in this group, school textbooks are always centrally produced and distributed.



In the United Kingdom, the global amount of public expenditure to be earmarked for schools is determined by the local authorities (except in Northern Ireland in which the decision is taken by central government). Decisions relating to specific categories of resource are taken at school level.

FIGURE I6: SHARING OF DECISIONS TO DETERMINE THE OVERALL AMOUNT OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE EARMARKED FOR SCHOOLS PROVIDING COMPULSORY EDUCATION (ISCED 1 AND 2). PUBLIC SECTOR OR EQUIVALENT, 2000/01



*Additional notes for Figures 16A, 16B, 16C*

Belgium (B fr, B de): In the case of schools administered by the municipalities and provinces, the latter may decide whether or not to earmark a budget specifically for operational resources and movables, in addition to the grants allocated by the Communities (Figure 16B).

Spain: In primary education, the local level is responsible for some of the resources for non-teaching staff, operational resources and movables (Figure 16B) and responsibility for capital resources is shared between the Autonomous Community and local levels whereas, at secondary level, it lies solely with the Autonomous Community concerned (Figure 16C).

France: In lower secondary education, the central level is responsible for non-teaching staff resources (Figure 16B).

Luxembourg: In primary education, the local level is responsible for non-teaching staff resources, operational resources and movables (Figure 16B). Public expenditure earmarked for immovables in primary education is the responsibility of the municipalities whereas, in secondary education, it is the responsibility of the government (Figure 16C).

Austria: In primary education and in the *Hauptschulen* and *Polytechnische Schulen*, the local level is responsible for non-teaching staff resources, operational resources and movables (Figure 16B) and responsibility lies with the *Länder* and the municipalities for capital resources (Figure 16C) whereas, in the case of other schools, it lies with the central level.

Portugal: The local level is responsible for operational resources and movables (Figure 16B) and capital resources (Figure 16C) in schools offering the first stage of *ensino básico*.

Sweden: Between 2001 and 2006, the central government is providing the municipalities which satisfy certain conditions with a special allocation for employing school staff. From 2006 onwards, this allocation will be part of the general government allocation to each municipality (Figures 16A and 16B).

United Kingdom (E/W): Local education authorities establish the overall amount to be spent on school education in their area (using central government grants and local taxes, and taking into account central government guidelines). **(NI)** the Department of Education provides a block grant to *Education and Library Boards*: **(E/W/NI)** A general budget is delegated to individual schools which are free to allocate funds to the various resource categories (except fixed capital assets). Direct funding by central government is increasing. The Standards Fund **(E)** and GEST **(W)** provide additional funding for all schools for specific educational profiles.

Liechtenstein: In primary education, the local level is responsible for non-teaching staff resources, operational resources and movables (Figure 16B) with responsibility shared between local and central levels for capital resources, whereas it lies with the central level in the case of secondary education (Figure 16C).

Iceland, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania and Slovenia: Amounts earmarked for books and/or audio-visual equipment or computers, if not all teaching materials and equipment, are fixed at central level (Figure 16B).

Czech Republic: The central level is responsible for determining the amount allocated for non-teaching staff, while the local level is responsible for other operational resources and movables (Figure 16B).

Lithuania: The overall amount for teaching staff and non-teaching staff is determined at municipal level on the basis of data provided by schools, and following central government regulations. A new system of financing which is based on a per capita model will be implemented during 2002-2004 for staff, textbooks and other teaching aids (Figures 16A et 16B). Under the 2001 school building renovation scheme, supplementary financial resources are being allocated to the municipalities for schools selected in accordance with central government criteria (Figure 16C).

Hungary: Local governments get block grants (already divided between staff, operational and capital expenditure) from the central government for all services they provide, including educational services, and determine the amounts to be allocated to education. In the case of teaching staff, they determine the amount in accordance with central regulations. They then allocate funds to each school in the form of a block grant. Schools determine the final amounts to be allocated to the various categories of resources, and may pay higher wages to staff.

Poland: In determining the level of resources for teaching staff, local authorities have to apply legislation relating to salaries, class size and teacher/pupil ratios, but they may supplement the amount from their own income (Figure 16A).

Explanatory notes for figures 16A, 16B, 16C

The resource categories considered are as follows: teaching staff, non-teaching staff, operational resources required for teaching, other operational resources, movables and immovables. The gathering of financial data groups these six categories into three main ones, namely current expenditure on staff, other current expenditure and capital expenditure. However, from the standpoint of administrative decision-making, it is more helpful to adopt a different set of categories distinguishing between a) teaching staff, b) non-teaching staff, operational resources and movables and c) immovables.

Current expenditure covers goods and services that are used during the ongoing year and have to be annually renewed. Capital expenditure covers assets that last longer than a year. It refers to construction, renovation or major repairs to buildings (immovables) as well to equipment, furniture, computers (movables). Minor expenditure under a certain fixed amount is however included in operational expenditure.

Resources for schools with target populations corresponding to specific programmes of support (such as education action zones, programmes for pupils from ethnic minorities, etc.) are not included in this Figure.

Only schools in the public sector are considered. However, in the case of three countries (Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands), government-dependent private institutions are included as they enrol a substantial proportion of pupils and are regarded as equivalent to schools in the public sector.

In the majority of cases, the administrative levels responsible for determining the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for **fixed capital assets** (immovables) are also those that determine amounts for operational resources and movables (excluding teaching equipment and materials). However several countries constitute exceptions to this rule. In Germany, Finland, Slovenia, Luxembourg (primary education), and in secondary education in Liechtenstein, the top-level (generally central) authority is wholly or partially involved in fixing the amounts to be earmarked for immovables but not for operational resources (excluding teaching equipment and materials).



It should be noted that the opposite may also apply. In the Netherlands, the amount a municipality receives from central government for buildings is fixed on the basis of a number of criteria. However municipalities can use this amount at their discretion and merge it with other budgets. As a result, they effectively determine the overall amount allocated to capital expenditure, whereas the government determines the overall amount for other resources. Finally, in France, Italy, Iceland, Bulgaria and Romania, responsibility for determining the overall amount of public expenditure earmarked for operational resources in the broad sense is shared between the local and central levels, while immovables are the sole preserve of the former.

From a comparison of the diagrams, it is clear that, on the one hand, there is a tendency for decisions relating to the financing of teaching staff to be taken by the central government or regional entity fully responsible for education and, on the other, for decisions concerned with the financing of operational resources (in the broad sense) to be entrusted to the local authorities. When the way decisions are shared between different administrative levels is analysed, it is also clear that, for each of the main resource categories (staff, operational resources and capital), there is a greater overall tendency to decentralise decisions for determining the overall amounts to be allocated to resources not directly related to teaching.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF RESOURCES AMONG SCHOOLS IS SLIGHTLY MORE DECENTRALISED

In principle, it may reasonably be assumed that the distribution of resources among schools presupposes some degree of familiarity with their circumstances and is subject to greater decentralisation than decisions about the overall amounts to be earmarked for education. Figure 17 compares the administrative levels responsible for the two kinds of decision and indicates whether decisions regarding resource distribution among schools are taken a) at the same administrative level as those on amounts, b) by a decentralised authority that reports directly to the first level, or c) at a lower level unrelated to that at which decisions on overall amounts are taken.

In most countries, as Figure 17 illustrates, the authority that fixes the overall level of public expenditure earmarked for compulsory education (see the previous indicator) also decides how resources will be distributed among the different schools. This authority can be located at central, regional or local level depending on the country concerned.

In some cases, the central government assumes responsibility for determining the amount of resources but relies on geographically decentralised administration (exemplified by a Department of the Ministry of Education or a locally situated branch of central government) to distribute them among schools. However, this situation is not representative of the general trend and the categories of resources concerned vary from one country to the next.

The central government may also be responsible for determining the overall amount of resources while entrusting their distribution among the various schools to the local authorities. Such decentralised decision-making exists in the case of all resources distributed to certain categories of school in Ireland and Northern Ireland. In the other countries concerned, it is applicable solely to certain resource categories.

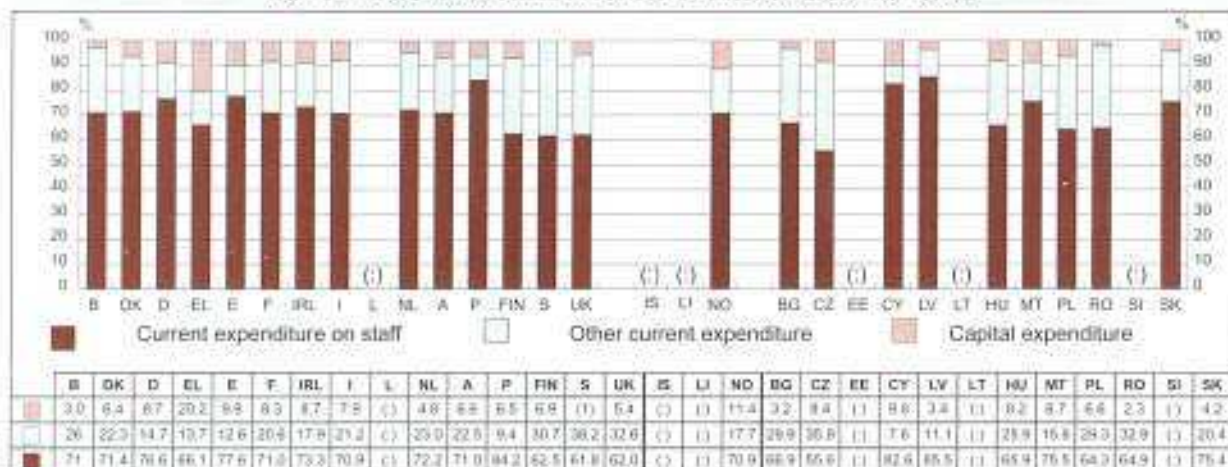
To sum up, the resources for teaching staff and, to a lesser extent, operational resources remain distributed by the central level in many countries. In the case of immovables, on the other hand, this same level only forgoes responsibility for distributing financial resources among schools in relatively sparsely populated countries. In some countries, such as Austria and Portugal, the sharing of decisions about the distribution of resources leads to the involvement of several players.



THE VAST MAJORITY OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE CORRESPONDS TO CURRENT COSTS, AROUND THREE-QUARTERS OF WHICH ARE EARMARKED FOR STAFF REMUNERATION

Figure 18 illustrates the distribution of expenditure between capital and current expenditure, the latter including staff salaries and costs, running costs, building maintenance, purchase of school supplies and the purchase of goods and services. It demonstrates the extremely high proportion of expenditure which is allocated to current costs, over 90 % in all countries but one – Greece – with a total current expenditure of 80 %. The figure of 100 % for Sweden simply reflects the fact that capital expenditure has not been separated out from current expenditure in the data reported here.

FIGURE 18: DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE IN PUBLIC SECTOR AND GOVERNMENT-DEPENDENT PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS ACROSS MAJOR EXPENDITURE CATEGORIES, 1999



Source: Eurostat UOE.

Additional notes

Belgium: Only data from the Flemish Community is available.

Greece, Spain, Ireland, Cyprus, Hungary, Poland and Romania: Only public educational institutions are included.

Italy, Norway, Malta and Romania: Only public educational institutions are included, except in total non-staff costs.

Finland: The amount of services bought from outside providers affects the proportion of staff costs/current expenditure.

Sweden: (1): capital expenditure is included in reported current expenditure.

Bulgaria: Only public institutions (public and private sources) are included.

Slovakia: Only public educational institutions are included in the case of capital expenditure.

Explanatory note

Figure 18 provides information on the distribution of expenditure in public sector and government-dependent private institutions between the various categories of capital and current expenditure, and illustrates the share given to staff costs as against other current expenditure in the various countries. The figures also reflect the numbers of staff engaged and the salary levels in individual countries.

The candidate countries for which there are data exhibit much the same spending patterns, with all allocating 90 % or over to current expenditure. Romania with 98 %, and Bulgaria and Latvia with 97 % spend almost the entire amount on current costs, leaving only 2-3 % for all capital expenditure.

In all European Union countries, staff costs account, by a wide margin, for the bulk of the current expenditure on education. But, although the pattern is consistent throughout the EU countries, there are striking differences between the individual countries. Taking a simple EU average over countries, this breaks down at approximately 75 % for staff costs and 25 % for operational costs across the Union.

Among the EU countries, the most striking pattern exists in Portugal, where 90 % of the total current expenditure is allocated to staff costs, leaving only 10 % for all non-staff current costs. Germany, Greece, Spain and Portugal spend well above average on their staff remuneration, while Denmark,



France, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and Austria at about the average level. At around 62 %, only Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom are well below the EU average.

Norway follows the same pattern as the European Union countries, with nearly 80 % of its current expenditure incurred on staff and just over 20 % on other current expenditure categories.

Candidate countries exhibit a wider variation in this regard. Data are available for only a few of the countries and among them, Cyprus, Latvia, Malta and Slovakia expend more than the EU average on staff salaries and remuneration, while the Czech Republic and Romania are below the average.

SCHOOLS CAN ACT MORE FREELY IN ACQUIRING OPERATIONAL RESOURCES — THAN IN THE CASE OF STAFF RESOURCES OR IMMOVABLES —

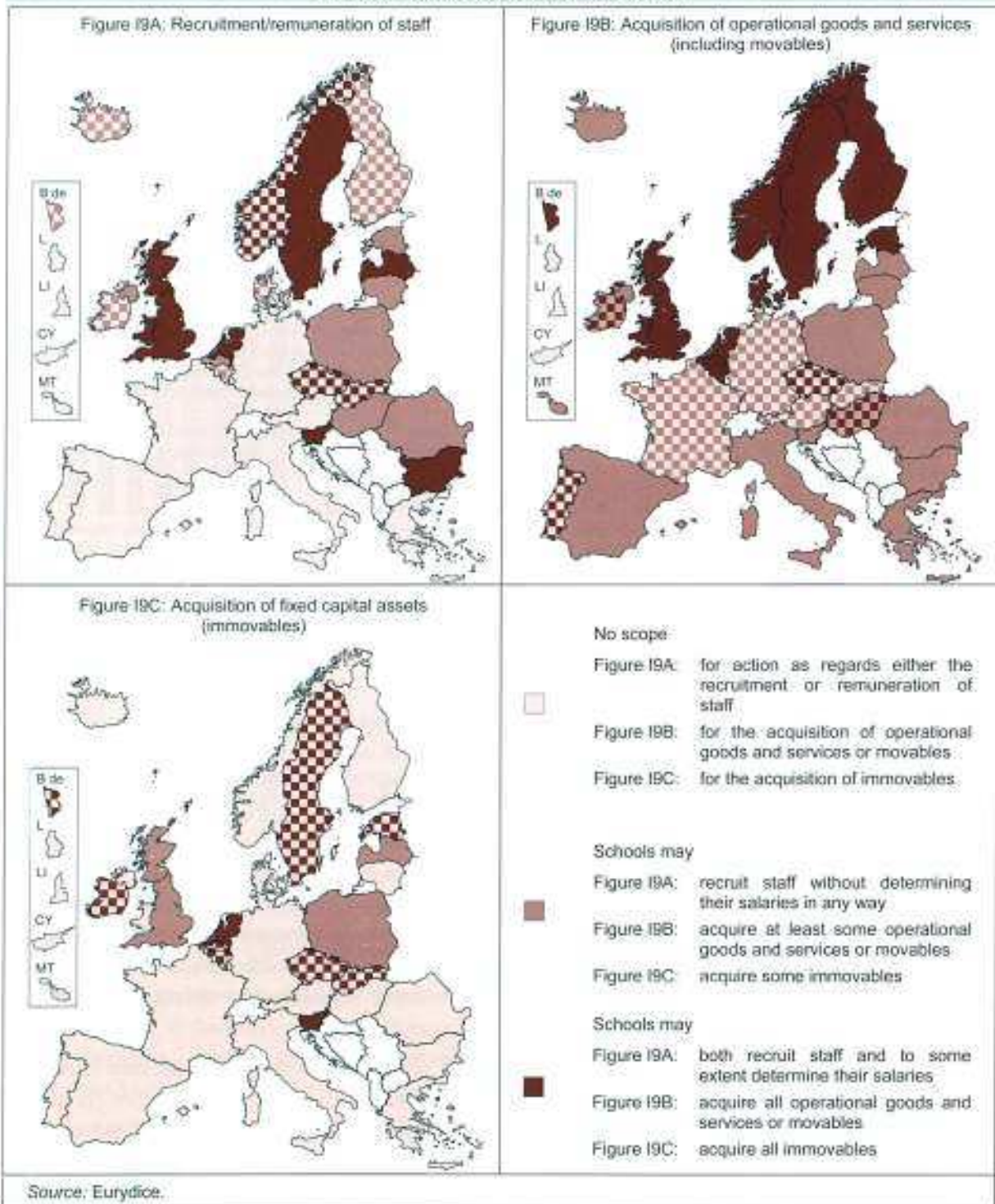
The extent to which schools can take action in the area of staff resources varies depending on whether one considers the recruitment of staff (implying their selection) or their remuneration (with some scope for determining their salaries). Scope for intervention vis-à-vis salaries should be taken to mean that, subject to a basic legal framework, schools may introduce salary bonuses or determine the precise amount of salaries with due regard for the duties actually accomplished by staff.

The simple payment of salaries without any scope for determining their amount may be regarded as a purely administrative activity devoid of any real freedom of action. In general, schools that are free to recruit staff also pay their salaries. In this respect, Belgium is something of an exception in that government-dependent private institutions recruit their staff and report on this to the Ministry which then remunerates them. Conversely, schools with no scope for recruiting staff are not expected to pay their salaries, except in the case of Portuguese schools offering the second and third stages of *ensino básico*. In this particular case, the process is a purely administrative one.

In over a third of the countries considered, schools have no room for manoeuvre as regards the **recruitment or remuneration** of their staff. In some countries, namely the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovenia, all schools are free either to recruit staff or both to recruit and remunerate them. In the remainder, the situation is dependent on the status of the school concerned. Schools administered by the public authorities in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium and the *vocational schools* and *community schools* in Ireland are unable to take action in these areas, whereas the government-dependent private institutions recruit their own staff. In some Nordic countries, the scope schools have for recruiting or remunerating staff depends on the municipalities, which are empowered to delegate some or all of their responsibilities. Finally, in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, certain schools have no independent legal status and are exclusively the responsibility of the public authorities, whereas others have a legal status which confers on them some freedom of action in the areas concerned.



FIGURE 19: THE EXTENT TO WHICH SCHOOLS PROVIDING COMPULSORY EDUCATION (ISCED 1 AND 2) ARE FREE TO ACQUIRE STAFF, GOODS AND SERVICES, BY RESOURCE CATEGORY, PUBLIC SECTOR OR EQUIVALENT, 2000/01



*Additional notes for Figures 19A, 19B and 19C*

Germany: The precise situation depends on each individual local authority which is empowered to delegate some of its responsibility for acquiring goods and services to schools (Figure 19B).

France: Primary schools with no independent legal status have no scope for action in this area, whereas secondary schools are free to acquire some of their operational resources (Figure 19B).

Ireland: Schools for which the *Vocational Education Committees* are responsible have less scope for the acquisition of operational goods and services, particularly movables, than the government-dependent private institutions (Figure 19B).

Netherlands: Schools may to some extent determine salaries but only in secondary education. Schools for both primary and secondary education may recruit staff (Figure 19A).

Austria: The situation depends on the level of education and the status of the school concerned. The *Allgemeinbildender höherer Schulen* initially receive equipment from the Ministry of Education and then, subsequently, a budget out of which they have to cover their running expenditure and the cost of new equipment (Figure 19B).

Portugal: The situation depends on the level of education and the status of the school concerned. Schools with the status of a legal entity are able to acquire all their operational resources and movables. This category mainly comprises schools offering the second and third stages of *ensino básico*, but it may also include those which offer the first stage and have been grouped together (Figure 19B).

Finland: The situation depends on the municipality concerned. Figure 19B shows the most widespread practice.

Sweden: In some municipalities where overall responsibility for staff is retained at municipal level, schools are nonetheless very actively involved in staff recruitment (Figure 19A).

United Kingdom (E/W/Nl): In some categories of school, formal approval or final decision-making rests with the official employer (Figure 19A). **(E/W):** Most 'movables' expenditure is funded through schools' individual budget, with the possible exception of expenditure on equipment associated with new or renovated buildings. (Figure 19B). **(Nl):** In *controlled and maintained schools*, expenditure on movables over a certain limit is the responsibility of the *Education and Library Board* (Figure 19B). **(E):** All schools receive a limited amount of capital funding to use, subject to certain restrictions, as they wish (Figure 19C).

Estonia and Lithuania: The school head is recruited by the local authority (corresponding to position A = no scope for action) whereas the remainder of the staff is recruited by the school head (position B = freedom to recruit staff) (Figure 19A).

Explanatory note

The resource categories considered are as follows: teaching staff, non-teaching staff, operational resources required for teaching, other operational resources, movables and immovables. The gathering of financial data reduces these six categories into three main ones, namely current expenditure on staff, other current expenditure and capital expenditure. However, in the case of this indicator, it is more helpful to adopt a different set of categories distinguishing between a) staff, b) operational resources and movables and c) immovables.

Only schools in the public sector are considered. However, in the case of three countries (Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands), government-dependent private institutions are included as they enrol a substantial proportion of pupils and are regarded as equivalent to schools in the public sector.

As far as **operational resources** (including movables) are concerned, the freedom of schools to act is viewed in terms of their scope for acquiring their goods and/or services themselves. They thus enjoy some room for manoeuvre which stops short of total autonomy. Figure 19B shows that, in contrast to the situation where staff are concerned, countries in which no school is free to acquire operational goods and services or movables are relatively few in number. Variations from one school to the next are attributable either to the power of municipalities to delegate their responsibilities, as in Germany or Hungary, or to differences of status between schools. Some of them may have the status of an independent legal entity and others not, and this distinction may correspond to specific levels of education. It should be noted that, where operational resources are directly acquired by the public educational authority responsible for the school concerned, the latter is asked to specify its requirements.

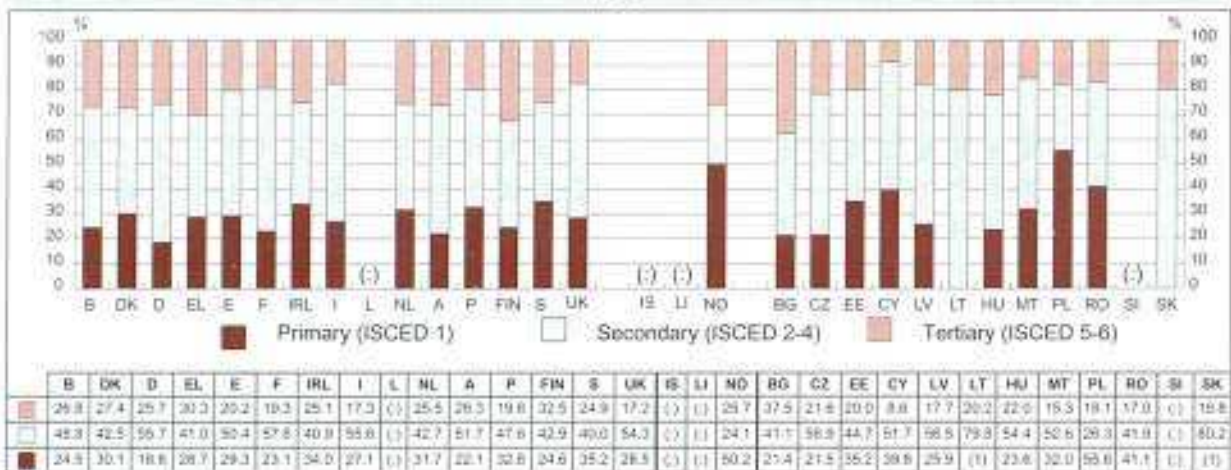
As regards **immovables**, schools in the vast majority of countries are clearly not allowed to acquire them on their own. However, they may do so to a limited extent in the United Kingdom (England), Latvia and Poland and are only totally free to do so in Slovenia. The countries in which the situation varies are Belgium and Ireland, in which schools responsible to the public authorities and the *Vocational Education Committees*, respectively, have no freedom of action in this area, the Netherlands, in which the municipalities are empowered to delegate their responsibility for immovables (outdoor maintenance) to secondary schools, Sweden and Lithuania in which schools may also act at the discretion of the municipality, Estonia, and the Czech Republic and Slovakia, in which the status of legal entity granted to some schools is the determining factor.



ON AVERAGE, SECONDARY EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS ACCOUNT FOR — NEARLY HALF OF ALL DIRECT PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION —

In all European Union countries, the largest share of direct public funding is allocated to secondary education, which receives roughly between 40 % and 60 % of all such funding earmarked for educational institutions within the Union, with a simple average among the countries of under 50 %. Germany, France, Italy, Austria and the United Kingdom earmark the largest percentage for secondary educational institutions, with Greece, Ireland and Sweden allocating the smallest proportion.

FIGURE 110: DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC FUNDING TO EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1999



Source: Eurostat UOE.

Additional notes

- Denmark:** Tertiary does not include private institutions. Secondary does not include post-secondary non-tertiary education.
- Greece:** Primary includes also pre-primary.
- Norway:** Primary includes also lower secondary, secondary is only upper-secondary.
- Lithuania and Slovakia:** (1) Primary has been included in secondary.
- Poland:** Primary includes also lower secondary; secondary includes upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary.
- Romania:** A significant proportion of expenditure could not be allocated by level.

Explanatory note

Figure 110 presents the share of the direct public funding allocated to educational institutions at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Direct public funding for education refers to direct transfers from central, regional and local government to educational institutions, whether public, government-dependent private, or other private. Any other public funding provided for educational purposes indirectly through the private and household sectors is not included in the figures shown.

The average allocation of primary educational institutions in the European Union countries is 28 %. Eight countries – Denmark, Greece, Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, and the United Kingdom – allocate the average or more than this amount to primary institutions. The others range from 19 % in Germany to 27 % in Italy.

Tertiary level educational institutions receive, at the EU average, 24 % of the overall public educational funding budget. Nine countries – Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and Sweden – allocate more than this average to the tertiary level. These institutions in Finland and Greece receive 30 % or more of the overall allocation. Other countries range from Italy and the United Kingdom at 17 % to 20 % in Spain and Portugal. The figures for Norway should be used with caution since the pattern has been disturbed by the fact that the figures for primary also include lower secondary.

The overall or average pattern in the candidate countries is similar to that for EU countries, except for a somewhat lower share (20 %) going to tertiary education. However, the share given in particular to secondary educational institutions varies a great deal between countries. In Lithuania and in Slovakia,



it would appear that around 80 % of the overall allocation is made to the secondary sector. In these countries, however, there is no breakdown between primary and secondary so the secondary figure appears extremely high. In other countries, secondary education receives from a high of 56-57 % in the Czech Republic and Latvia, to a low of 26 % in Poland.

In a break from the pattern observed elsewhere, Poland's primary educational institutions receive 56 % of the overall allocation to educational institutions, considerably more than its secondary and tertiary sectors. One reason is the inclusion of lower secondary education under primary level. In the other countries, the primary education institutions receive between 41 % in Romania to 21 % in Bulgaria.

With this much heavier concentration on primary and secondary educational institutions in the candidate countries, the share for tertiary educational institutions is obviously much less. Cyprus reports the lowest allocation to tertiary education at 9 %. At the other end, Bulgaria earmarks 37 % for this sector. The other countries report in the narrow range from 15 % in Malta to 22 % in Hungary and the Czech Republic.

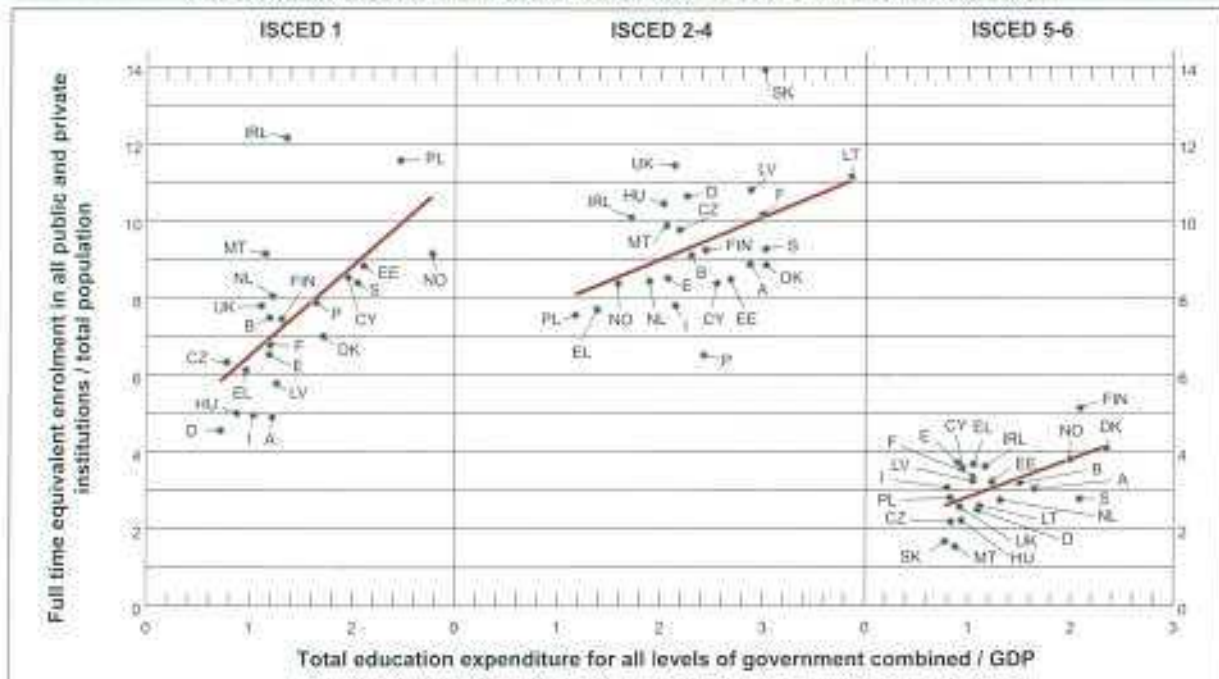
PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP VARIES BY COUNTRY AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION, IN PART REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS INVOLVED

The share of the Gross Domestic Product taken by public financing of educational institutions broken down by the level of education to which the financing is allocated reflects of course the same relative proportions witnessed in Figure 110. Secondary educational institutions throughout the European Union receive a larger proportion of the total GDP than the other sectors. Denmark, France and Sweden allocate the highest proportion of its GDP to secondary education at 3.0 % and Greece the lowest at 1.4 %. Other countries can be divided into those that allocate between 1.7 and 2.2 % – Spain, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom – and those with higher allocations between 2.2 % and 2.9 % – Belgium, Germany, Austria, Portugal and Finland. For primary educational institutions, the range is between 0.7 % in Germany to three times as high at 2.1 % in Sweden. Tertiary education shows a similar range, but from 0.8 % in Italy to 2.4 % in Denmark. In Norway, with a total of 6.4 % of GDP spent on education, the level is above the EU average.

In the candidate countries, there is a similar pattern. Lithuania and Slovakia again report a high share for secondary education; once again, this figure includes the proportion for primary education and should therefore be disregarded at these levels. Other countries range from between 0.7 % of GDP spent on secondary education in Romania to 2.9 % of GDP in Latvia. In most candidate countries, the share for primary education is less than for secondary level. The Czech Republic, for example, reports only 0.8 % for primary and 2.2 % for secondary, and Hungary spends 2.0 % of its GDP on direct financing of secondary educational institutions and only 0.9 % on primary. Only Poland and Romania report a higher rate of expenditure for primary than for secondary. However, this data should be interpreted cautiously, given possible bias as a result of the inclusion of lower secondary education under primary level in Poland, and the fact that much of the expenditure in Romania could not be allocated by level.



FIGURE 111: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SHARE OF PUBLIC FUNDING (AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP) AND THE NUMBER OF PUPILS/STUDENTS ENROLLED AS A PROPORTION OF THE TOTAL POPULATION, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1999



ISCED 1	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
		1.2	1.7	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.0	()	1.2	1.2	1.8	1.3	2.1	1.1	()	()	2.8	()	0.8	2.1	2.0	1.3	(1)	0.9	1.2	2.5	()	()
	7.5	7.0	4.6	6.1	6.5	6.6	12.2	9.0	()	6.0	4.9	7.9	7.4	6.4	7.8	()	()	9.2	()	6.5	6.8	6.5	5.8	(1)	5.0	9.1	11.6	()	()	(1)
ISCED 2-4	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
	2.3	3.0	2.3	1.4	2.1	3.0	1.7	2.1	()	1.9	2.9	2.4	2.4	3.0	2.1	()	()	1.6	()	2.2	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.9	2.0	2.1	1.2	()	()	3.0
	9.1	8.9	10.6	7.7	8.5	10.2	10.1	7.6	()	8.4	8.9	6.5	9.3	9.2	11.4	()	()	6.4	()	9.8	8.5	8.4	10.8	11.1	10.5	9.9	7.6	()	()	13.9
ISCED 5-6	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
	1.6	2.4	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.2	0.8	()	1.3	1.7	()	2.1	2.1	0.9	()	()	2.0	()	0.5	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8	()	()	0.8
	3.2	4.1	2.5	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.6	3.1	()	2.7	3.1	()	5.1	2.8	2.6	()	()	3.8	()	2.2	3.2	3.6	3.3	2.6	2.2	1.5	2.8	()	()	1.7

Source: Eurostat, UOE; Population: Eurostat.

Additional notes

- Belgium:** Tertiary includes only ISCED 5A/6.
- Denmark:** Secondary does not include post-secondary non-tertiary.
- Greece:** Primary includes also pre-primary.
- Norway:** Primary includes also lower secondary. Secondary is only upper-secondary.
- Lithuania and Slovakia:** (1) Primary education has been included in secondary education.
- Hungary:** Compulsory education goes on through complete secondary.
- Poland:** Primary includes also lower secondary; secondary includes upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary.

Enrolment data

- Belgium:** All private institutions are considered government dependent.
- Denmark:** No private institutions at tertiary level.
- France:** Does not include DOM, national source.
- Ireland, Austria, Norway and Hungary:** Enrolment data only for 1998/99.
- Cyprus:** Includes tertiary students abroad.

Explanatory note

Total education expenditure for all levels of government combined; full time equivalent enrolment in all public and private institutions. The figure distinguishes between the primary (ISCED 1), secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels (ISCED 2-4) and tertiary level (ISCED 5-6).

The variation in public expenditure on education according to the level of education reflects in part differences in the number of students involved at different levels, since the amount of resources allocated to educational institutions as a proportion of the GDP will, of course, vary according to the number of students who attend them. Putting these two factors together – the proportion of the GDP



which is provided as public financing for educational institutions and the number of pupils and students who are enrolled in educational institutions as a proportion of the total population – will allow us to understand the background to the educational policies which inform spending decisions on education.

The figures are presented as percentages of the entire population and are broken down by relevant level of education. In all European Union countries, the proportion of secondary school pupils is higher than for either of the other two levels. Percentages vary from 6.5 % in Portugal to 11.4 % in the United Kingdom. We can group the other countries into those between the low of roughly 6.5-7.8 % – Greece, Italy and Portugal, those with between around or above 8.5 % of the population in secondary education – Denmark, Spain, the Netherlands and Austria, and those with higher proportions of secondary school pupils – Belgium, Germany, France, Ireland, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

Percentages of primary school pupils range widely from a low of 4.6 in Germany to the highest percentage of 12.2 % in Ireland.

For those European countries for which the data is available, the percentages of the population who are students of tertiary educational institutions range from 2.5 % in Germany to 5.1 % in Finland. Four countries report percentages of below 3 % – Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In the majority of EU countries, there are between 3.0 % and 3.7 % of the population in private and public tertiary level educational institutions. Iceland and Norway follow a similar pattern. In Norway, there are more primary pupils as a percentage of the population (9.2 %) with only 3.8 registered at tertiary institutions. Iceland reports 11.1 % in primary education with only 2.7 % registered at tertiary institutions.

Poland, which also reported a higher proportion of its GDP going to primary education, has 11.6 % of its population in primary institutions, with 7.6 % in secondary and 2.8 % in tertiary. The same pattern in terms of population allocated to educational levels applies to Cyprus and Estonia. In all remaining candidate countries, percentages of the population are higher in secondary education, next highest in primary education and the lowest in tertiary education. This was also reflected in the share of the GDP accounted for by the same levels.

THE LEVEL OF PRIVATE FUND-RAISING AND USE OF THE RESOURCES SO ACQUIRED: VARIABLE ROOM FOR MANOEUVRE

It is difficult to determine the extent to which schools are free to raise and use funds from private sources, as the legislation in a particular country does not always provide a clear indication as to their real room for manoeuvre in this respect. No legislation, therefore, may mean either that schools have usually engaged in private fund-raising, by way of tradition or on the grounds of necessity, and that the government is not seeking to regulate in this area or, alternatively, that they take no such action so that legislation would be pointless. Furthermore, the scope for private fund-raising is partly related to the extent to which schools are free to use the funds concerned. The sums of money involved also differ depending on whether the aim is to finance the acquisition of immovables or extra-curricular activity. Under these circumstances, three considerations may help to clarify the room for manoeuvre of schools in this area, namely the type of legislation, limits to the possible sources of private funding and limits on the way it may be used.

Legislation may be of four different kinds. In some countries, it provides no opportunity for active fund-raising or very little scope for it as, for example, when schools may accept donations but not campaign for them. This applies to Greece, France (in primary education), Luxembourg, Iceland and Norway. In other countries, the scope for fund-raising by schools depends on the local public authorities (usually municipalities) acting in accordance with framework legislation. This is the situation in Denmark, Germany, Finland, Sweden, Lithuania and Poland. In Austria, the appropriate public authority in each



FIGURE 112B: THE KINDS OF RESOURCES WHICH PUBLIC-SECTOR OR EQUIVALENT SCHOOLS FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION (ISCED 1 AND 2) MAY PROCURE FROM PRIVATE FUNDING, 2000/01

		UK																																	
Scope		B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	E/W/NI	SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	
5													•			•		•								•									
4b										•	•														•				•		•				•
4a		•	•	•																															
3b																																			
3a																					•														
2b		•	•											•																					
2a						•		•							•																				
1					•		(-)	•				(-)			•						(-)	(-)													
		• ISCED 1 and 2							○ Solely ISCED 1							• Solely ISCED 2																			
5	Indeterminate																																		
4	Staff, operational resources and capital																																		
4b	Operational resources, capital and staff																																		
4a	Operational resources, capital and non-teaching staff																																		
3	Operational resources and immovables, or operational resources and teaching staff																																		
3b	Operational resources, movables and teaching staff																																		
3a	Operational resources, movables and immovables																																		
2	Operational resources in the broad sense																																		
2b	Operational resources, movables and non-teaching staff																																		
2a	Operational resources and movables																																		
1	Operational resources in the strict sense																																		
Source: Eurydice.																																			
Additional notes for figures 112A and 112B																																			
Belgium (B fr): The scope for fund-raising depends on the school concerned. In education administered by the Community loans are not allowed (Figure 112A) and the use of private funds is limited to the acquisition of operational resources (Figure 112B).																																			
Belgium (B de): In the public sector, the use of private funds is limited to the acquisition of operational resources (Figure 112B).																																			
Netherlands: A covenant is signed between the ministry and 16 organisations - among them umbrella organisations in the education field, publishers, and organised interest groups in the advertising world - settling sponsorship in primary and secondary education.																																			
Sweden: Only in the case of operational expenditure unrelated to teaching (Figure 112B).																																			
United Kingdom (NI): Not all categories of school may take out loans.																																			
Czech Republic and Slovakia: Only applicable in the case of schools with the status of a legal entity (Figure 112B).																																			
Explanatory note																																			
Only schools in the public sector are considered. However, in the case of three countries (Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands), government-dependent private institutions are included as they enrol a substantial proportion of pupils and are regarded as equivalent to schools in the public sector.																																			

Information as to the existence or otherwise of legislation on acceptable forms of private funding is given in a table in the annexe which also refers to the frequency with which schools rely on this kind of funding. For example, very limited use is made of the opportunities provided by law in Denmark, Spain, France or Estonia. By contrast, most schools frequently rely more on one of the particular sources of private funding in Belgium, Ireland, Portugal (schools offering the second and third stages of *ensino básico*) and the United Kingdom.

VARIATIONS IN THE FINANCING OF GOVERNMENT-DEPENDENT PRIVATE EDUCATION

Figure 113 shows the extent to which the public authorities finance schools in the government-dependent private sector compared to public-sector schools as far as amounts and sources of funding are concerned. Private schools receiving no public support whatever are not considered.

As regards amounts, first of all, countries may be categorised as follows: those that offer a subsidy whose amount differs from that of allocations to public-sector schools in the case of all resource categories; countries that offer a subsidy whose amount is identical to that of allocations to public-sector schools in the case of some resource categories (teaching staff, or all staff and/or operational resources); and, finally, those that offer a subsidy whose amount is calculated in accordance with the same formula used to calculate allocations to public-sector schools, irrespective of the category of resources concerned.

FIGURE 113: FUNDING ALLOCATED TO GOVERNMENT-DEPENDENT PRIVATE SCHOOLS FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION (ISCED 1 AND 2) IN COMPARISON WITH SCHOOLS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR, 2000/01

Category	UK																																	
	B fr	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	EW/NI	SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		
3																								(-)										
2 c	•	•					•						•											(-)		•	•					•		
2 b								•																(-)					•					•
2 a													•											(-)	•									
1			•	•	(-)	•			○	•								(-)	•	•	•		(-)	•	•	(-)				•	•			
	• ISCED 1 and 2 ○ Solely ISCED1 * Solely ISCED 2																																	
3	Same amount/method of calculation for teaching and non-teaching staff, operational resources and capital																																	
2 c	Same amount/method of calculation for teaching and non-teaching staff and operational resources																																	
2 b	Same amount/method of calculation for teaching and non-teaching staff																																	
2 a	Same amount/method of calculation for teaching staff																																	
1	Different amount/method of calculation in the case of all resource categories																																	
Source: Eurydice.																																		
Additional notes																																		
Belgium: Government-dependent private institutions may use their allocation for operational resources to remunerate their non-teaching staff in the same way as schools administered by the provinces and municipalities and in contrast to Community-administered schools which receive more resources for non-teaching staff. (B de): A 2002 decree states that 80 % of the capital investment (construction and renovation of school buildings) by government-dependent private institutions will be subsidised.																																		
Germany: Either the <i>Länder</i> allocate a flat-rate subsidy with due regard for certain statistical data and the type of school concerned or, alternatively, schools may itemise their financial requirements and receive a subsidy to cover a certain proportion of them in return.																																		
Portugal: The figure shows the situation of schools with partnership contracts. Schools with sponsorship contracts receive subsidies which are always less than in the case of public-sector schools, regardless of the category of resources.																																		
United Kingdom (EW/NI): Voluntary aided schools in England and some voluntary grammar schools in Northern Ireland must contribute towards capital costs.																																		
Lithuania: As regards operational resources, only the grant for teaching equipment and materials is the same as in the public sector.																																		

In many countries, the amounts are **different** from those earmarked for public-sector schools. Often, government-dependent private institutions get a sum corresponding to a percentage of the allocation to the former. The second most frequently encountered situation is one in which **a similar subsidy is awarded in the case of staff resources (or sometimes even operational resources)**. Finally, in the Netherlands and Sweden, there is **no difference** in the subsidy earmarked for schools administered by the public authorities and the subsidy for government-dependent private institutions, while in



Finland and the United Kingdom (England and Wales) generally speaking, the same principles apply to the financing of public-sector schools as in the government-dependent private sector. In England and Wales, depending on the category of school concerned, the amounts and sources of funding may vary, especially in the case of capital resources, to which some government-dependent private institutions have to contribute. It should be noted that the latter (the *voluntary aided schools* and *voluntary controlled schools*) are regarded as belonging to the public sector.

As far as the source of financial support is concerned, schools in the government-dependent private sector generally receive their allocation directly from central government. This means that the funding source is different in all cases in which the local authorities finance one or more particular categories of resources for public-sector schools. However, there are certain exceptions to this rule: in Sweden, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Estonia, the local authorities are responsible for financing government-dependent private institutions and public-sector schools alike. In the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), the *Education and Library Boards* fund one category of government-dependent private institutions but the others are funded directly by central government. Dutch government-dependent private institutions and public-sector schools receive identical amounts from the same sources.

COSTS PER PUPIL/STUDENT GENERALLY INCREASE WITH LEVEL OF EDUCATION, WITH CANDIDATE COUNTRIES REPORTING MARKEDLY LOWER COSTS AT ALL LEVELS

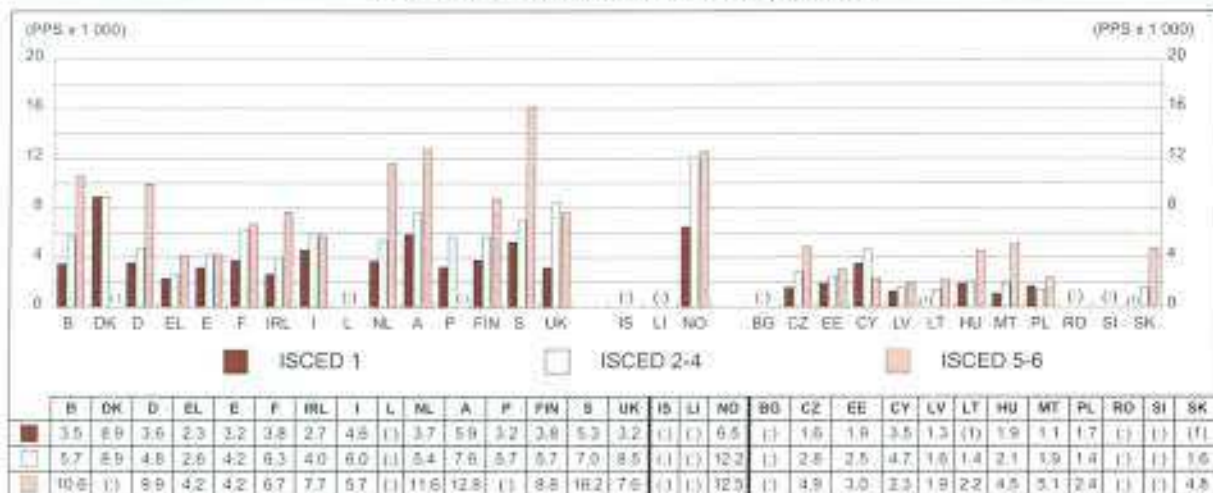
The simple average across EU countries for which the data is available is around PPS 4 100 per student in primary education, increasing to PPS 5 900 per student in secondary education, and PPS 8 800 per student in tertiary education. Hence the cost per student in tertiary education is well over twice the average cost per student in primary education. In almost all countries of the European Union, the unit cost per student increases with the level of education. In Italy and the United Kingdom, unit costs are higher in secondary than in primary or higher education.

There are, however, significant variations between the countries. Considering first at primary level, Greece and Ireland come below PPS 2 700 per student, compared with the average among EU countries of 4 100 PPS mentioned above. Other EU countries with low spending per student at primary level include Spain, Portugal and the UK, each with a figure of around PPS 3 200. At the upper end of the distribution are included Denmark (with around PPS 8 900 per student in primary education), Austria (PPS 5 900), Sweden (PPS 5 300) and Italy (PPS 4 600).

At secondary level, there are also great differences. Countries at the extremes of the distribution are mainly the same ones as noted above in relation to primary education. Greece, Ireland and Spain come well below the average of 5 900 per secondary student among EU countries at around PPS 2 600, PPS 4 000 and PPS 4 200 per student respectively. At the upper end we have six countries, Denmark (with PPS 8 900), the United Kingdom (PPS 8 500), Austria (PPS 7 600), Sweden (PPS 7 000), Italy (around PPS 6 000) and France (over PPS 6 200).



FIGURE I14: PUBLIC EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL/STUDENT BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, IN PPS (THOUSANDS), ALL PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS, 1999



Source: Eurostat UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark: Secondary does not include post-secondary non-tertiary.

Greece: Enrolment data is only full-time equivalent in public institutions.

France: Does not include DOM.

Austria, Norway and Hungary: enrolment data only for 1998/99.

Norway: Secondary covers only lower secondary.

Cyprus: National figures; data includes students in tertiary education abroad.

Lithuania and Slovakia: (1) primary level is included in secondary level.

Poland: Primary education also includes lower secondary education; secondary level includes upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels.

Explanatory note

Figure I14 shows the amount of expenditure provided from public sources per student in both public and private institutions offering education at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The expenditure figures include funds provided to educational institutions, whether public, government-dependent private, or other private institutions. Also included are amounts provided by public sources, including central, regional and local governments to other private bodies, households and students for the purpose of education.

The data on which the Figure is based result from the division of the total amount provided by public authorities by the number of full-time equivalent pupils registered at the level concerned (primary, secondary or tertiary education) in public and private institutions. The expenditure figures have been converted into Purchasing Power Standards (PPS) in order to eliminate differences in price levels between the different countries. The PPS is Euro based.

The figure distinguishes between the primary level (ISCED 1), the secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels (ISCED 2-4) and the tertiary level (ISCED 5-6).

At tertiary level, the disparities become even more marked, and the pattern across countries is quite different from the above. Sweden at PPS 16 200 is far above the EU average of PPS 8 800, as are Austria (at PPS 12 800) and the Netherlands (PPS 11 600). The figure for tertiary education exceeds PPS 9 000 also for Belgium and Germany. At the lower end are Greece and Spain, each with around PPS 4 200 per student in tertiary education (which is less than half the average among EU countries), and to a lesser extent Italy (PPS 5 700).

In Norway the level of public expenditure per student is well above the average for EU countries at all the three levels of education while the extremely high figure (PPS 12 200) reported per student in secondary education is particularly noteworthy.

In most candidate countries the overall pattern by level of education is similar to the above – that is, unit costs per pupil or student rising with the level of education. However, the average amount per student at each level of education is considerably lower than the average among EU countries: being around PPS 1 900 per student at primary level, PPS 2 200 per student at secondary level, and 3 500 per student at tertiary level. These are less than half the corresponding EU averages at all levels.

Clearly, the apparent variation among the countries is very large. However, in relation to this large variation observed across countries, it is important to note that the figures here refer only to public



expenditure. It is even more important to exercise caution in interpreting the results because the data on financial support and enrolment are incomplete in a number of countries. In many countries, enrolment data are available only for students in public and government-dependent private educational institutions, i.e. excluding other private institutions.

VARIED PUBLIC-SECTOR SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

There are three major types of financial support for students in tertiary education, namely study grants and/or loans to cover the cost of living, support for the payment of tuition fees, and allowances for the parents of students.

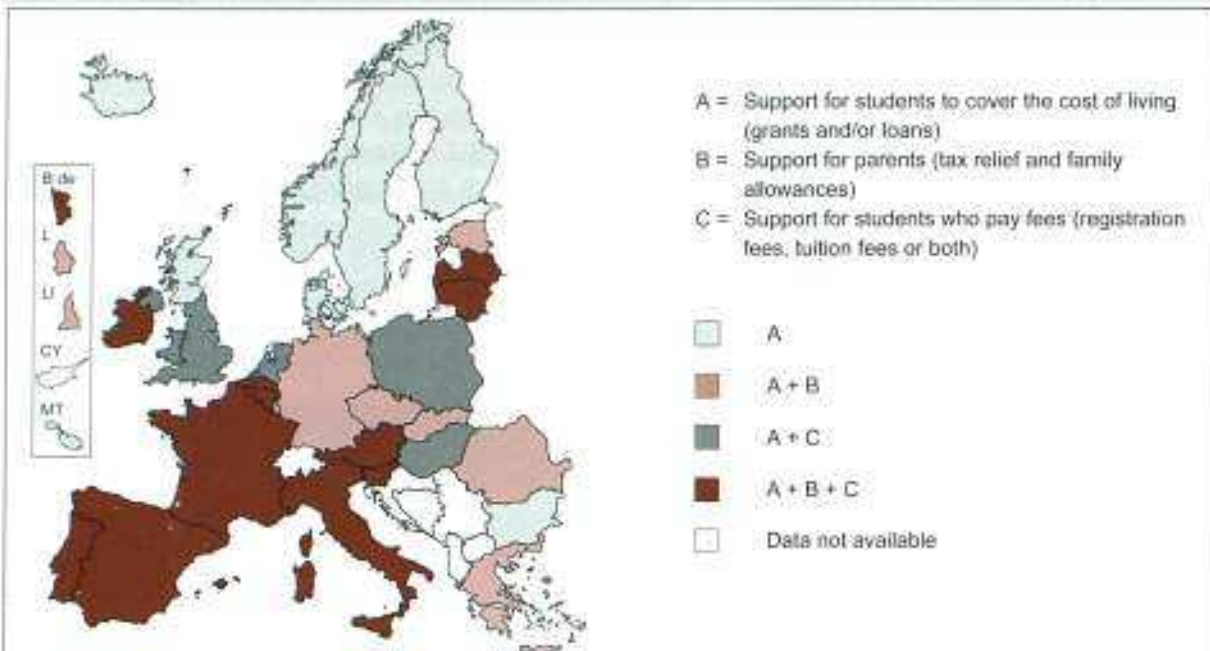
These kinds of support complement each other and should be regarded as the constituents of a particular system. Four models may be identified in accordance with whether or not they include the foregoing components. Only public financial support for full-time undergraduates in tertiary education is considered.

The first model exists in the Nordic countries, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Bulgaria and Malta. Tertiary education is provided free of charge, students pay no tuition fees (discounting contributions paid to student organisations) and receive support to cover the cost of living. In Scotland, tuition fees are paid by the *Student Awards Agency for Scotland* in the case of all eligible full-time students studying at publicly funded institutions. Accordingly there is free tuition. In Iceland, a large majority of university students enrol in public institutions at which education can be considered as free of charge although there are registration fees. They receive support to cover the cost of living.

The second model is to be found in Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, Liechtenstein, the Czech Republic, Romania and Slovakia. The main feature distinguishing it from the first is that additional support is awarded to the parents of students. Such support includes family allowances (except in Liechtenstein) and tax relief. Depending on the country concerned, support for students to cover the cost of living is awarded directly to students or parents. Latvia and Lithuania may also be regarded as offering support in accordance with this model to all students who secure a state-subsidised place in a tertiary education institution. In Estonia, similar support is offered to all students in tertiary education, irrespective of whether their places are state subsidised.

The third model is the least widespread. It exists in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (except Scotland), as well as in Hungary and Poland, and involves solely support to students to cover the cost of living and tuition fees. In the Netherlands, the overall amount of student support is calculated to cover fees. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), student contributions towards tuition fees (up to a quarter of the full cost) are based on a means test. Around 50 % of students are not required to make any contributions. In Poland, students in evening and extramural studies (which they pay for) are entitled to apply for support.

The fourth model comprises the three types of support. It applies to Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Austria, Portugal and Slovenia, in all of which tertiary education institutions require payment of fees: registration fees (to cover administrative costs), tuition fees (which help to finance some of the costs of education itself), or both. The support consists of family means-tested student grants, family allowances (except in Italy), tax relief for parents of the students concerned and assistance with the payment of tuition fees which takes the form either of exemption from payment/a reduction in the amount required or, alternatively, the award of special grants. Latvia and Lithuania offer support corresponding to this model to students who pay tuition fees.

FIGURE I15: PUBLIC SUPPORT FOR FULL-TIME UNDERGRADUATES IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5).
PUBLIC SECTOR OR EQUIVALENT, 2000/01

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Ireland: There is free tuition for undergraduate students who only pay registration fees.

Luxembourg: Most students study abroad. Their financial support covers fees they may have to pay in the host country.

United Kingdom (SC): Tuition fees are not paid by students but by the *Student Awards Agency for Scotland*.

Czech Republic: Study is free of charge. The payment of registration fees is required solely for entrance examinations. Family allowances are means tested and not awarded to families with incomes higher than three times the minimum subsistence income.

Estonia: Tertiary education institutions receive state subsidies, in accordance with a state order, for a given proportion of students (55 % in 2000/01). The remainder pay tuition fees in the same way as students attending private institutions asked by the government to make a certain number of places available.

Lithuania: The *kolegijos* are regarded as non-university tertiary education institutions. Tertiary education institutions are allowed to enrol students for whom they receive no subsidy and who pay their own tuition fees.

Malta: Financial assistance is awarded to students to facilitate and promote the continuation/pursuit of studies.

Romania: Students in the public sector do not pay tuition fees, but they have to pay registration fees.

Explanatory note

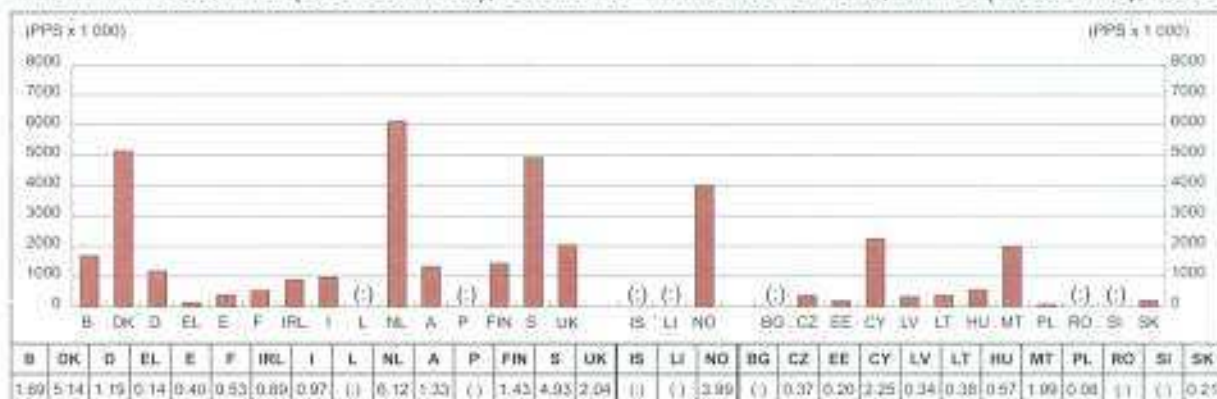
The expression 'registration fees' generally refers to expenditure related to enrolment and/or the certified assessment of each student, whereas the expression 'tuition fees' is used for contributions to the costs of education supported by the tertiary education institution concerned.



WIDE VARIATION IN PUBLIC FINANCIAL SUPPORT PER STUDENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

The figure shows a wide disparity in the amount provided in the countries for which data were available. The simple average for EU countries is around PPS 2 100 per student. The range is wide, with the Netherlands providing the largest amount (over PPS 6 000 per student), and Greece the lowest (under PPS 150 per student). In Norway the amount of financial support at nearly PPS 4 000 per student is substantially above the average among EU countries, and lower than that in Denmark, the Netherlands and in Sweden. The figure is slightly below the unweighted EU average in Belgium, Austria, Finland and the United Kingdom, and is substantially below that average in Germany, Spain, France, Ireland and Italy.

FIGURE I16: PUBLIC FINANCIAL SUPPORT (GRANTS AND/OR LOANS) PER STUDENT
IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6), PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS, IN PPS (THOUSANDS), 1999



Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes

Denmark: No private institutions at tertiary level.

Greece, Austria, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom, Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia: Enrolment only in public and government-dependent private institutions has been taken into account.

France: Does not include DOM.

Austria, Norway and Hungary: Enrolment data only for 1998/99.

Cyprus: National figures, includes tertiary students abroad.

Slovakia: No government-dependent private institutions for ISCED 5-6 existed in 1999.

Explanatory note

Figure I16 shows the amount of financial support that is provided from public sources per student in both public and private tertiary level educational institutions. Public financial support to students includes child allowances contingent on student status, scholarships and other grants to students/households and student loans. Student may also be provided loans by private banks, which are not included in public financial support.

Generally, a weighted average over two school years is taken to correspond the financial reference year (1999). Full-time equivalent in all public and private institutions at ISCED 5-6.

The data on which the Figure is based results from the division of the total amount provided by public authorities to students (or their households) in tertiary education by the number of full-time equivalent students registered in tertiary education in public and private institutions. The expenditure figures have been converted into Purchasing Power Standards (PPS) in order to eliminate differences in price levels between the different countries. The PPS is Euro based. Data are not available on the proportion of students who receive such support or on the average amount each student receives.

Clearly, the apparent variation among the countries is very large. However, in relation to this large variation observed across countries, it is important to note that the figures here refer only to public assistance to students. By itself, this is not a full measure of the true level of assistance students may receive. For instance, students may also receive financial support from non-governmental sources. However, much more important is the fact that the actual or 'effective' level of assistance received by students is a mixture of the assistance provided directly to the students concerned, and assistance provided indirectly through educational institutions.



The relative share of the two components can vary greatly depending on the national system. In systems where a larger part of the effective assistance is provided indirectly through educational institutions, the levels of direct public grants and loans to students may be lower, but offset by the reduced levels of net payments which students need to make to educational institutions. Other elements that are not covered by the data available are support that students (or their parents) receive through tax relief, the repayment of loans and the amount of tuition fees students have to pay, which may differ substantially between countries.

Caution is also required in interpretation of the results because the data on financial support and enrolment lack completeness in a number of countries. In many countries, enrolment data are available only for students in public and government-dependent private institutions, i.e. excluding other private educational institutions.

Data is available for nine of the candidate countries. Amongst these, the figure for Cyprus is high, well above the EU average at PPS 2 200. This is likely to be connected to the lack of facilities for tertiary education within the country. Malta provides nearly PPS 2 000 of direct public support per student in tertiary education. Apart from these two countries, the figure exceeds PPS 500 per student only in Hungary.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION: FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN ALL COUNTRIES

Three distinct major types of financial support are earmarked for the parents of children in the compulsory school age-range. They are family allowances, tax relief and grants.

Family allowances exist in all European countries, without exception, and are generally awarded immediately following the birth of the children concerned. In some countries, payments continue until young people have reached the end of their compulsory education. In others, they are maintained throughout the entire period of education and training, including tertiary education.

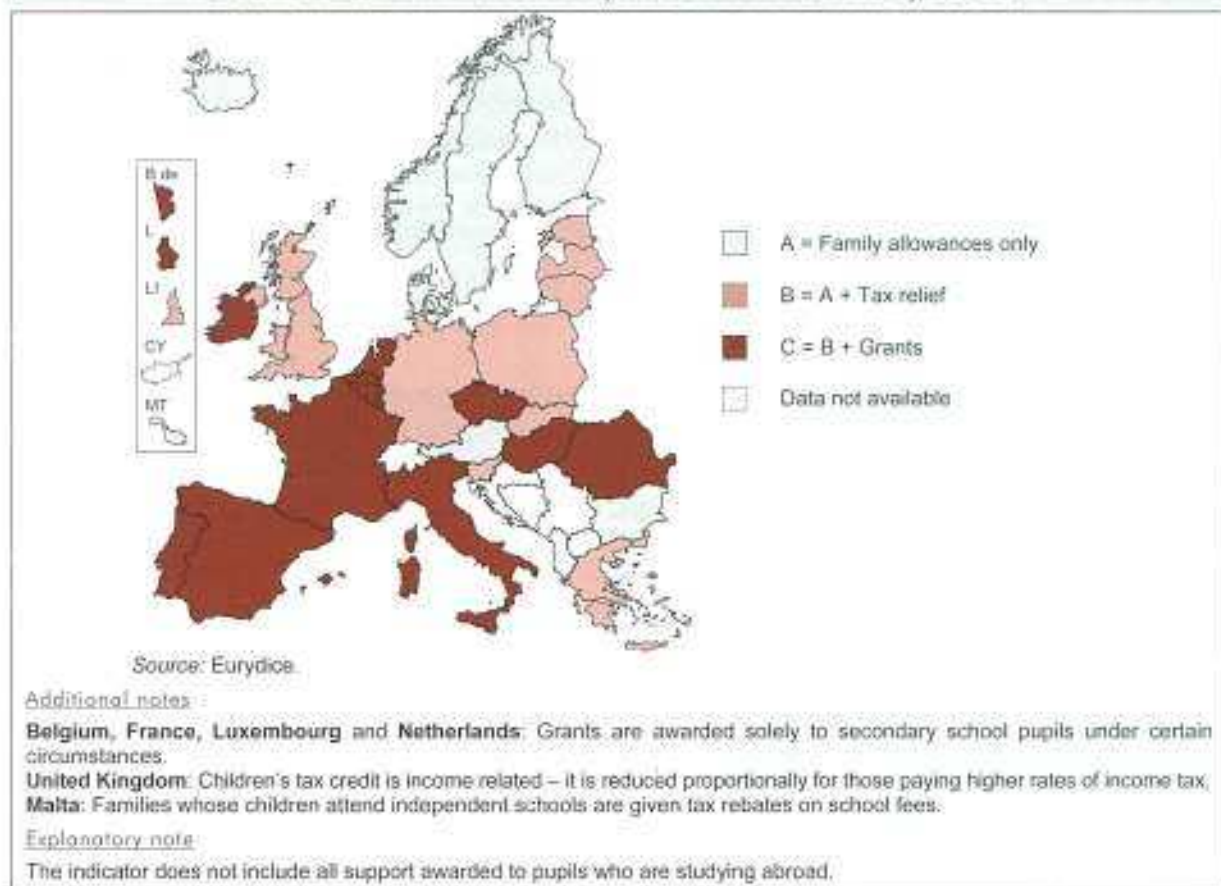
In all cases, the amounts awarded depend on the age and number of children. In many countries, they are allocated across the board irrespective of income. In some countries, such as Italy, Portugal, Iceland, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia, the amount is family means tested. In Spain, the Czech Republic, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia, allowances are not awarded to families whose income is higher than a certain amount.

Tax relief exists in most countries except the Nordic countries and Malta. Unlike family allowances, it is generally granted regardless of the number of children or their age. A few countries are exceptions to this such as the Netherlands, which takes the age of children into account, and Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg, Poland and Romania, in which the number of children is a relevant factor. In Estonia, families become eligible for tax relief with the birth of the third child. In general, entitlement to tax relief is unrelated to family income, given that taxes have to be paid in the first place in order to benefit from relief. As for the tax savings achieved in the case of tax allowances, this depends on the calculation formula adopted in the country concerned.

Study grants for children in the compulsory education age-range exist only in some countries and, in certain cases, they are available solely for secondary education. Such grants are always family means tested.



FIGURE I17: TYPES OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN UNDERGOING COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN ANY KIND OF SCHOOL (AT ISCED LEVELS 1 AND 2), 2000/01



— ON AVERAGE, FINANCIAL SUPPORT TO STUDENTS ACCOUNTS FOR ABOUT A SIXTH OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON TERTIARY EDUCATION —

Figure I18 illustrates the proportion of the public expenditure on education at a given level of education, which is provided as direct support to students. The figures for each country are shown separately for two levels: primary and secondary education, and tertiary education.

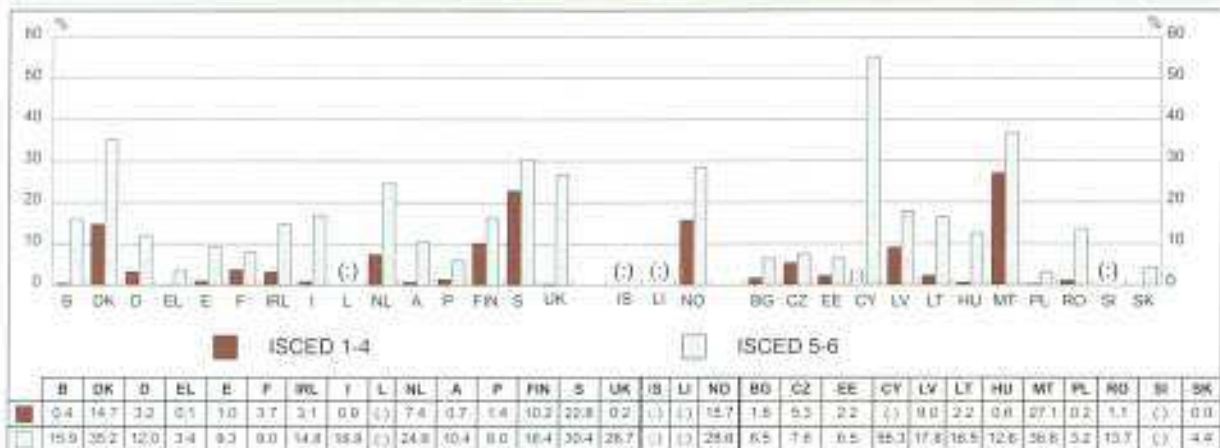
Direct financial support forms, of course, a much larger proportion of the public expenditure on education at tertiary level, compared to that proportion at other levels. Taking a simple average over EU countries, this proportion is 16 % for the tertiary level, and only a third of that at other levels.

There is a wide variation across countries. For primary and secondary levels, direct student support forms 23 % of public expenditure on education in Sweden, and the figure is over 10 % also for Denmark and Finland. However, in the case of Sweden most of the financial support to pupils reported for primary and secondary levels is given to adults in post-secondary non-tertiary education. At the other end, a large number of EU countries report negligible proportions (under 1 %) of public expenditure on education at these levels devoted to direct financial support to pupils. These countries include Belgium, Greece, Spain, Italy, Austria and the United Kingdom.

As for tertiary level, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom report high shares for direct financial support to students in the public expenditure on education at that level, with the figures varying in the range from 35 % in Denmark to 6 % in Portugal and 3.4 % in Greece that reports the lowest share among the EU countries. The pattern for Norway is similar to that in Sweden and Denmark. Financial support to students accounts for over 15 % of public expenditure on education at primary and secondary levels and nearly 30 % at tertiary level.



FIGURE I18: DIRECT PUBLIC SUPPORT (GRANTS AND/OR LOANS) TO STUDENTS/PUPILS AS PERCENTAGE OF PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1999



Source: Eurostat/DOE.

Additional notes:

The ISCED levels 1-4 do not include:

- Denmark and Portugal:** Post-secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 4).
- Finland, Norway and Latvia:** Primary and lower secondary (ISCED 1-2).
- Sweden:** Primary (ISCED 1).
- Malta:** Primary, lower secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 1-2 and ISCED 4).

Explanatory note:

Public financial support to students includes child allowances contingent on student status, scholarships and other grants to students/households and student loans. The figure distinguishes between the primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels (ISCED 1-4) and the tertiary level (ISCED 5-6). In some countries, ISCED 4 includes large numbers of adults who are the main recipients of financial support.

The average among candidate countries is very close to the average among EU countries, both for primary and secondary and for tertiary levels. Particularly noteworthy are the high figures for Malta and especially Cyprus. In Cyprus, financial support to students forms a majority share (55 %) of the public expenditure on education at tertiary level.

Clearly, the apparent variation among the countries is very large. However, as noted above in Figure I16 above, the data on direct public support to students are not fully comparable across countries due to differing national systems. The figures here refer only to direct public assistance to students, which by itself is not a full measure of the true level of assistance students may receive. Furthermore, the expenditure figures include scholarships and other grants to students or households and student loans, where relevant. As these vary greatly between countries, and in some countries not all such components are included in the expenditure totals, care should be taken in the interpretation of these percentages. Some public financial support may also be received by students indirectly through private organisations as intermediaries: this has not been included in the figures for public support, but is of course included in the total public expenditure on education.

ANNEXES

CHAPTER A: CONTEXT

NUMBER OF THE POPULATION IN THE 0-9, 10-19 AND 20-29 AGE GROUPS, 2000

(Figure A2)

(1 000)

	0 TO 9 YEARS	10 TO 19 YEARS	20 TO 29 YEARS	TOTAL POPULATION
EU	41 353.3	44 913.4	50 972.8	376 546.4
B	1 188.3	1 221.6	1 327.0	10 239.1
DK	882.4	880.1	723.2	5 330.0
D	8 199.2	9 330.9	9 745.9	82 163.5
EL	1 023.9	1 272.5	1 585.7	10 554.4
E	3 797.3	4 723.7	6 573.2	39 733.0
F	7 236.4	7 778.3	7 879.7	58 748.7
IRL	530.1	631.6	623.0	3 776.6
I	5 478.5	5 942.8	6 160.3	57 679.8
L	57.2	49.2	66.5	435.7
NL	1 985.2	1 887.8	2 132.2	15 664.0
A	696.9	954.4	1 057.2	8 102.6
P	1 087.0	1 242.0	1 611.3	10 262.8
FIN	626.9	648.3	632.5	5 171.3
S	1 076.7	1 067.7	1 115.5	8 861.4
UK	7 487.3	7 582.4	7 749.4	59 623.4
IS	44.2	42.7	41.7	279.0
LI	4.0	4.1	4.6	32.4
NO	611.2	548.9	611.6	4 478.5
BG	774.5	1 090.4	1 226.1	8 190.9
CZ	1 058.7	1 348.0	1 714.7	10 278.1
EE	143.1	210.6	189.2	1 371.8
CY	100.8	107.9	91.2	688.8
LV	237.8	365.1	325.5	2 379.9
LT	440.3	581.7	540.3	3 688.5
HU	1 101.8	1 269.7	1 613.8	10 043.2
MT	49.8	56.5	54.3	380.2
PL	4 565.1	6 358.3	5 926.8	38 653.6
RO	2 413.2	3 431.6	3 785.1	22 458.5
SI	195.5	265.7	294.9	1 987.8
SK	658.0	859.1	894.7	5 398.7
AL	725.0	672.0	515.0	3 401.0
MK	292.2	330.7	318.0	2 021.6

Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data from national source.

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE IN THE 0-29 AGE GROUP BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 2000

(FIGURE A3)

		TOTAL POPULATION (1 000)	POPULATION 0 TO 29 YEARS (1 000)	0 TO 29 YEARS (%)
B	BELGIQUE-BELGIË	10 239.1	3 746.9	37
BE1	RÉG. BRUXELLES-CAP.-BRUSSELS HOOFD. GEWEST	859.3	371.6	39
BE2	VLAAMS GEWEST	5 940.3	2 120.4	36
BE3	RÉGION WALLONNE	3 339.5	1 255.0	38
DK	DANMARK	5 330.0	1 985.7	37
D	DEUTSCHLAND	82 163.6	27 276.1	33
DE1	BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	10 475.9	3 617.6	35
DE2	BAYERN	12 155.0	4 115.4	34
DE3	BERLIN	3 386.7	1 091.2	32
DE4	BRANDENBURG	2 601.2	853.8	33
DE5	BREMEN	663.1	208.6	31
DE6	HAMBURG	1 704.7	537.0	32
DE7	HESSEN	6 052.0	1 971.2	33
DE8	MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	1 789.3	610.8	34
DE9	NIEDERSACHSEN	7 898.8	2 663.3	34
DEA	NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	17 999.8	5 987.4	33
DEB	RHEINLAND-PFALZ	4 030.8	1 337.7	33
DEC	SAARLAND	1 071.5	332.7	31
DED	SACHSEN	4 459.7	1 406.8	32
DEE	SACHSEN-ANHALT	2 648.7	842.8	32
DEF	SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	2 777.3	902.8	33
DEG	THÜRINGEN	2 448.1	796.5	33
EL	ELLADA	10 554.4	3 882.1	37
GR1	VOREIA ELLADA	3 422.8	1 269.3	37
GR2	KENTRIKI ELLADA	2 057.4	846.0	36
GR3	ATTIKI	3 451.3	1 272.7	37
GR4	NSIA, AIGAIU, KRITI	1 022.9	394.1	39
E	ESPAÑA	39 733.0	15 094.2	38
ES1	NOROESTE	4 287.1	1 476.9	34
ES2	NORESTE	4 030.4	1 376.0	34
ES3	COMUNIDAD DE MADRID	5 111.8	1 930.5	38
ES4	CENTRO (E)	5 250.8	1 906.5	36
ES5	ESTE	10 927.3	4 079.8	37
ES6	SUR	6 463.5	3 427.0	43
ES7	CANARIAS	1 662.2	706.6	43
F	FRANCE	58 728.1	23 351.6	40
FR1	ÎLE DE FRANCE	11 088.2	4 708.9	42
FR2	BASSIN PARISIEN	10 525.6	4 220.0	40
FR3	NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	4 009.2	1 769.7	44
FR4	EST	5 151.5	2 074.2	40
FR5	QUEST	7 728.4	2 991.3	39
FR6	SUD-QUEST	6 155.4	2 199.9	36
FR7	CENTRE-EST	6 997.2	2 790.5	40
FR8	MEDITERRANÉE	7 072.6	2 597.1	37
FR9	DÉPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	1 636.2	843.2	52
IRL	IRELAND	3 776.4	1 784.0	47
IE01	BORDER, MIDLANDS and WESTERN	956.3	465.9	47
IE02	SOUTHERN and EASTERN	2 780.3	1 318.9	47
I	ITALIA	57 679.9	19 574.7	34
IT1	NORD OVEST	6 033.7	1 710.0	28
IT2	LOMBARDIA	9 056.4	2 864.5	32
IT3	NORD EST	6 033.1	2 115.3	32
IT4	EMILIA-ROMAGNA	3 981.1	1 122.1	28
IT5	CENTRO (I)	5 832.9	1 725.3	30
IT6	LAZIO	5 264.1	1 748.2	33
IT7	ABRUZZO-MOLISE	1 607.0	546.1	34
IT8	CAMPANIA	5 781.0	2 441.0	42
IT9	SUD	6 741.9	2 671.2	40
ITA	SICILIA	5 087.8	2 015.8	40
ITB	SARDEGNA	1 651.8	606.7	37
L	LUXEMBOURG	435.7	162.0	37
NL	NEDERLAND	15 864.0	6 005.2	38
NL1	NOORD-NEDERLAND	1 657.0	622.5	38
NL2	OOST-NEDERLAND	5 314.0	1 297.1	26
NL3	WEST-NEDERLAND	7 396.8	2 807.5	38
NL4	ZUID-NEDERLAND	3 497.2	1 276.2	37

		TOTAL POPULATION (1 000)	POPULATION 0 TO 29 YEARS (1 000)	0 TO 29 YEARS (%)
A	ÖSTERREICH	9 102,6	2 908,6	36
AT1	ÖSTÖSTERREICH	3 424,2	1 168,7	34
AT2	SÜDÖSTERREICH	1 766,7	632,0	36
AT3	WESTÖSTERREICH	2 911,8	1 107,9	38
P	PORTUGAL	10 262,9	3 940,3	38
PT1	CONTINENTE	8 780,2	3 723,3	38
PT11	NORTE	3 639,2	1 501,4	41
PT12	CENTRO (P)	1 779,3	638,3	36
PT13	LISBOA E VALE DO TEJO	3 448,8	1 270,4	37
PT14	ALENTEJO	526,0	176,6	34
PT15	ALGARVE	380,5	136,7	35
PT2	ACORES	237,9	109,7	46
PT3	MADEIRA	244,8	107,3	44
FIN	SUOMI (FINLAND)	5 171,3	1 807,7	37
FI1	MANNER-SUOMI	5 145,0	1 898,5	37
FI13	ITA-SUOMI	695,2	239,1	35
FI14	VALI-SUOMI	702,5	264,1	38
FI15	POHJOIS-SUOMI	596,7	226,2	41
FI16	UUSIMAA	1 379,7	528,6	38
FI17	ETELÄ-SUOMI	1 620,5	640,4	39
FI2	AHVENANMAA/ÅLAND	25,7	9,2	36
S	SVERIGE	8 861,4	3 259,9	37
SE01	STOCKHOLM	1 803,4	682,5	38
SE02	ÖSTRA MELLANSVERIGE	1 490,3	553,6	37
SE04	SYDSVERIGE	1 274,4	465,1	36
SE05	NORRA MELLANSVERIGE	837,9	290,5	35
SE07	MELLERSTA NORRLAND	380,0	131,0	34
SE08	ÖVRE NORRLAND	514,8	190,5	37
SE09	SMÅLAND MED ÖARNA	798,3	291,2	36
SE0A	VÄST-SVERIGE	1 762,2	655,4	37
UK	UNITED KINGDOM	59 617,5	22 796,0	38
UKC	NORTH EAST	2 587,9	978,7	38
UKD	NORTH WEST (INCLUDING MERSEYSIDE)	8 996,2	2 653,4	38
UKE	YORKSHIRE and THE HUMBER	5 059,4	1 601,5	38
UKF	EAST MIDLANDS	4 201,2	1 577,5	38
UKG	WEST MIDLANDS	5 348,4	2 051,1	38
UKH	EASTERN	5 430,0	2 040,5	38
UKI	LONDON	7 299,5	3 005,2	41
UKJ	SOUTH EAST	8 085,9	3 020,1	37
UKK	SOUTH WEST	4 947,8	1 766,1	36
UKL	WALES	2 944,7	1 100,3	37
UKM	SCOTLAND	5 114,6	1 921,0	38
UKN	NORTHERN IRELAND	1 691,8	752,5	44
IS	ISLAND	279,0	128,5	46
LI	LIECHTENSTEIN	32,4	12,7	39
NO	NORGE	4 478,5	1 771,7	40
BG	BÄLGARUA	8 190,9	3 091,1	38
CZ	ČESKA REPUBLIKA	10 278,1	4 121,4	40
EE	EESTI	1 371,8	543,1	40
CY	KYPROS	666,8	299,8	45
LV	LATVIJA	2 379,9	928,4	39
LT	LIETUVA	3 698,5	1 542,3	42
HU	MAGYARORSZÁG	10 043,2	3 985,3	40
MT	MALTA	380,2	160,6	42
PL	POLSKA	36 653,6	16 850,1	44
RO	ROMÂNIA	22 455,5	9 609,9	43
SI	SLOVENIJA	1 987,8	756,3	38
SK	SLOVENSKA REPUBLIKA	5 398,7	2 411,8	45
AL	ALBANIE (National source)	3 491,0	1 912,0	56
MK	FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA	2 021,6	940,8	47

Source: Eurostat, population statistics.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

PUPILS AND STUDENTS IN THE 0-29 AGE GROUP AND POPULATION IN THE 0-29 AGE GROUP, 1999/2000

(FIGURE A7)

(1 000)

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL
STUDENTS 0-29	79 145.3	2 385.6	1 180.9	16 356.0	2 028.2	8 602.9	14 201.0	360.3
POPULATION 0-29	137 249.4	3746.9	1985.7	27276.1	3982.1	15094.2	22694.4	1764.8
	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
STUDENTS 0-29	10 261.4	79.4	3 436.3	1 094.9	2 181.0	1 160.2	2 094.8	13 412.5
POPULATION 0-29	19 581.6	162.8	6 005.2	2 900.6	2 940.3	1 997.7	3 256.9	22 819.1
	IS	LI	NO		BG	CZ	EE	CY
STUDENTS 0-29	83.7	4.9	1 093.9		1 551.6	2 189.5	340.4	154.5
POPULATION 0-29	128.5	12.7	1 711.7		3 091.1	4 121.4	543.1	299.8
	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
STUDENTS 0-29	534.9	650.5	2 214.4	86.7	9 097.2	4 560.2	432.0	()
POPULATION 0-29	926.4	1 542.3	3 985.3	160.8	16 050.1	9 609.9	756.2	2 411.6

Source: Eurostat, IJCE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

TRENDS IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY AGE GROUP AND MEMBER STATE, 1990-2000

(FIGURE A10)

(%)

B											DK											
1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	
6.6	6.4	7.1	8.6	9.8	9.7	9.5	9.2	9.3	8.6	6.3	15-64 YEARS	7.2	7.9	8.6	9.0	7.7	6.7	6.3	5.2	4.9	4.8	4.4
14.6	14.2	15.4	20.7	23.2	22.9	22.1	22.0	22.1	22.7	17.0	15-24 YEARS	10.5	10.7	11.7	12.8	10.2	9.6	9.7	7.7	7.3	6.8	7.0
5.4	5.4	6.0	7.1	8.1	8.1	8.1	7.8	8.0	7.1	5.7	25-64 YEARS	5.4	7.2	7.9	8.9	7.2	6.1	5.6	4.7	4.4	4.1	4.0
D											EL											
()	()	6.6	7.9	9.0	8.2	8.9	9.9	10.0	8.8	7.9	15-64 YEARS	6.4	7.0	7.9	8.6	8.9	9.2	9.6	9.8	10.9	11.6	10.9
()	()	6.5	8.0	8.8	9.0	9.0	10.0	9.8	9.1	6.0	15-24 YEARS	23.5	22.9	25.1	29.5	27.7	28.5	31.0	30.8	30.1	31.3	29.4
()	()	6.6	7.9	8.4	9.1	8.8	9.8	9.2	8.5	7.6	25-64 YEARS	4.1	4.6	5.3	5.9	6.2	6.5	6.7	7.0	6.1	5.6	6.5
E											F											
16.1	16.2	18.3	22.5	23.9	22.7	22.0	20.6	18.6	15.7	14.0	15-64 YEARS	8.6	9.1	10.0	11.3	11.8	11.3	11.5	11.6	11.4	10.7	9.3
32.2	31.0	34.4	43.2	46.0	42.4	41.8	39.0	35.4	29.4	26.1	15-24 YEARS	19.2	21.0	23.1	27.1	28.7	26.9	28.4	28.3	25.6	21.3	19.7
12.0	12.6	14.5	17.8	19.3	18.8	18.0	17.0	15.5	13.2	11.9	25-64 YEARS	7.0	7.4	8.3	9.3	9.8	9.5	10.1	10.1	9.9	9.4	8.1
IRL											I											
13.4	14.7	15.4	19.6	14.3	12.3	11.7	9.8	7.5	5.6	4.2	15-64 YEARS	8.9	8.5	8.7	10.1	11.0	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.2	10.4	
19.4	22.4	24.4	25.3	23.0	19.5	18.2	15.3	11.3	8.4	6.5	15-24 YEARS	26.9	25.6	26.7	30.1	31.9	33.3	33.4	33.4	32.3	30.6	
11.7	12.6	13.0	13.1	12.2	10.6	10.2	9.6	6.6	4.9	3.7	25-64 YEARS	5.4	5.2	5.4	6.6	7.6	8.1	8.5	8.5	8.7	8.5	8.0
L											NL											
1.7	1.7	2.1	2.6	3.2	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.7	2.4	2.4	15-64 YEARS	5.8	5.5	5.3	6.2	6.8	6.6	6.0	4.9	3.8	3.2	2.8
3.9	3.2	4.0	5.3	7.3	7.4	8.5	8.1	7.1	7.1	7.3	15-24 YEARS	8.1	7.8	8.1	10.6	10.9	11.4	11.1	9.1	7.8	6.7	5.8
1.3	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.8	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.3	1.9	1.9	25-64 YEARS	5.3	4.9	4.7	5.3	5.9	5.6	5.0	4.1	3.1	2.5	2.2
A											P											
()	()	()	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.4	4.4	4.5	3.8	3.7	15-64 YEARS	4.8	4.2	4.3	5.6	6.9	7.3	7.3	6.8	5.1	4.5	4.1
()	()	()	6.3	6.7	6.6	6.3	6.7	6.4	5.8	5.3	15-24 YEARS	10.7	9.4	10.4	12.8	15.0	16.5	16.7	15.1	10.5	8.9	8.8
()	()	()	3.5	3.5	3.6	4.0	4.0	4.2	3.7	3.4	25-64 YEARS	3.3	3.0	3.0	4.3	5.4	5.7	5.7	5.4	4.2	2.7	2.3
FIN											S											
3.2	6.6	11.7	16.4	16.8	15.4	14.6	12.7	11.4	10.2	9.8	15-64 YEARS	1.7	3.1	5.6	8.1	9.4	8.8	9.6	9.9	8.3	7.2	5.9
9.3	16.3	26.4	33.6	34.0	29.7	28.0	25.2	23.5	21.4	21.3	15-24 YEARS	4.4	7.6	13.2	22.0	22.0	19.0	20.5	20.6	16.6	13.6	11.3
2.1	5.1	9.6	14.1	14.6	13.7	13.0	11.0	9.7	8.6	8.1	25-64 YEARS	1.2	2.3	4.4	7.2	7.6	7.4	8.2	8.6	7.4	6.4	5.3
UK																						
6.9	6.6	9.8	10.2	9.4	8.5	8.0	6.9	6.2	5.9	5.4	15-64 YEARS											
10.4	13.8	16.3	17.5	16.4	15.3	15.0	13.7	13.1	12.6	12.3	15-24 YEARS											
6.0	7.4	8.4	8.7	7.9	7.2	6.6	5.6	4.9	4.7	4.2	25-64 YEARS											

Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

CHAPTER B: STRUCTURES AND SCHOOLS

DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY (ISCED 1), SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) AND POST-SECONDARY NON TERTIARY (ISCED 4) STUDENTS ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION THEY ATTEND, 1999/2000

(FIGURE B3)

(1 000)

	Public	Private total			Total
		Total of which	Government dependent private	Independent private	
EU	45 380.1	13 246.2	10 641.5	1 950.0	61 950.3
B	790.9	1 088.2	1 085.2	(-)	679.1
DK	723.9	90.3	90.3	(-)	613.9
D	11 768.2	654.6	(x)	(x)	1422.8
EL	1 357.3	103.8	(-)	103.8	461.1
E	4 126.0	1 813.6	1 527.6	286.1	939.6
F	7 780.6	2 056.0	1 648.7	407.3	9 836.6
IRL	622.0	7.4	(-)	7.4	629.4
I	6 658.7	420.5	32.6	387.9	7 279.2
L	66.2	6.1	3.8	4.3	66.3
NL	636.2	2 047.3	2 012.1	35.2	2 683.5
A	1 110.0	67.5	67.5	(x)	1 197.5
P	1 463.9	181.3	(-)	181.3	1 642.2
FIN	839.1	43.1	43.1	(-)	682.2
S	1 694.1	48.3	48.1	0.2	1 742.4
UK	8 334.3	4 596.1	4 059.5	536.6	12 930.4
IS	62.1	1.7	1.7	(-)	63.8
LJ	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4.0
NO	764.3	34.1	(x)	(x)	798.4
BG	1 089.7	7.1	(-)	7.1	1 095.7
CZ	1 578.4	74.1	74.1	(-)	1 652.5
EE	245.5	3.8	(-)	3.8	249.3
CY	118.7	9.0	(-)	9.0	127.6
LV	403.6	3.8	(-)	3.8	407.4
LT	643.2	1.6	(-)	1.6	644.9
HU	1 466.6	101.9	101.9	(-)	1 568.5
MT	46.4	21.9	15.3	6.6	71.3
PL	7 194.8	308.1	284.6	23.6	7 502.9
RO	3 498.9	50.5	50.5	(-)	3 509.4
SI	303.5	2.0	2.0	(-)	305.5
SK	637.0	49.9	49.9	(-)	686.8
AL	646.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	646.9
MK	348.0	0.7	0.3	0.4	348.7

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data does not include institutions that provide post-secondary general and vocational education (ISCED level 4)

CHAPTER C: PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

PARTICIPATION RATES OF 4-YEAR-OLDS IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. CANDIDATE COUNTRIES, 1999/2000

(FIGURE C1)

(%)

	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	MT	HU	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
1999/2000	67.0	61.0	78.2	56.4	62.4	50.4	102.5	89.2	33.3	100.0	67.7	70.3		(-)	(-)

Source: Eurostat, UOE and population statistics.

PARTICIPATION IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION AND PRIMARY EDUCATION, BY AGE, 1999/2000

(FIGURE C4)

	Country	ISCED 0 (1 000)				ISCED 1 (%)		ISCED 0 (%)	ISCED 1 (%)	Total population	ISCED 0 (1 000)				ISCED 1 (%)		ISCED 0 (%)	ISCED 1 (%)	Total population	ISCED 0 (%)		ISCED 1 (%)		
		ISCED 0	ISCED 1	Total population	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 0				ISCED 1	Total population	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 0	ISCED 1								
3 years	B	115.0	(-)	117.1	96.2					DK	49.2	(-)	65.0	71.8					D	438.6	(-)	799.6	94.8	
4 years		115.2	(-)	116.1	96.2					DK	64.4	(-)	71.1	90.6					D	829.2	(-)	773.3	81.4	
5 years		114.6	1.4	117.1	97.8	1.2				DK	65.8	(-)	71.3	96.0					D	856.3	(-)	792.8	83.8	
6 years		5.8	115.4	121.9	4.8	94.7				DK	65.9	3.0	65.8	95.8	4.4				D	529.7	366.3	614.6	65.0	45.9
7 years		0.2	124.8	126.6	0.2	98.0				DK	6.6	61.8	99.5	6.5	88.9				D	44.0	815.0	833.8	5.3	97.8
TOTAL					300.2					DK			364.0						D			290.4		
										DK									D					
3 years	EL	(-)	(-)	100.1	(-)					E	388.2	(-)	364.1	84.1					F	724.8	0.1	719.9	100.0	0.0
4 years		58.1	(-)	100.9	57.8					E	362.7	(-)	365.6	99.2					F	728.7	0.2	715.2	100.0	0.0
5 years		60.7	3.0	103.0	87.1	2.9				E	376.8	(-)	372.4	100.0					F	702.2	8.9	702.3	100.0	1.4
6 years		(-)	102.2	102.6	(-)	99.5				E	0.3	390.0	388.1	0.1	100.7				F	9.7	701.8	898.7	1.4	100.3
7 years		(-)	109.2	103.8	(-)	105.1				E	0.2	407.7	399.1	0.0	102.2				F	0.5	740.4	731.5	0.1	101.2
TOTAL					144.7					E			283.4						F			301.5		
										E									F					
3 years	IRL	1.5	0.1	51.7	2.9	0.3				I	513.9	(-)	535.3	96.0					L	2.3	0.0	5.0	37.5	0.1
4 years		1.0	25.0	51.0	2.0	49.0				I	523.6	(-)	532.2	98.4					L	5.5	0.0	5.0	94.0	0.2
5 years		0.6	50.0	50.3	1.2	99.4				I	530.3	11.0	539.1	98.4	2.1				L	5.5	0.2	6.0	91.2	2.8
6 years		(-)	52.1	51.5	(-)	101.2				I	0.2	536.4	552.2	1.3	97.1				L	0.2	5.3	5.9	3.4	91.3
7 years		(-)	53.9	53.0	(-)	101.7				I	0.0	574.5	574.7	(-)	100.0				L	0.0	5.3	5.7	0.2	93.4
TOTAL					6.1					I			293.9						L			226.0		
										I									L					
3 years	NL	0.3	(-)	192.8	0.1					A	95.1	(-)	89.5	39.3					P	61.3	(-)	108.3	58.0	
4 years		192.4	(-)	193.3	98.5					A	71.0	(-)	93.2	79.8					P	76.0	(-)	104.5	73.8	
5 years		195.5	(-)	198.6	98.5					A	83.1	(-)	92.9	89.4					P	88.7	(-)	100.5	88.3	
6 years		0.1	187.1	189.0	0.0	98.5				A	31.3	59.9	95.8	32.7	82.5				P	3.7	135.0	103.2	3.8	111.4
7 years		0.0	200.0	199.8	0.0	100.1				A	0.8	94.4	95.1	0.8	98.3				P	(-)	134.2	107.3	(-)	108.4
TOTAL					198.1					A			241.8						P			222.1		
										A									P					
3 years	FIN	20.6	(-)	60.8	33.9					S	65.3	(-)	95.8	68.0					UK	383.0	(-)	729.4	53.9	
4 years		26.5	(-)	63.2	41.9					S	75.5	(-)	103.7	72.8					UK	729.4	(-)	729.5	100.0	
5 years		32.3	(-)	65.2	49.8					S	85.4	(-)	126.6	75.8					UK	0.7	740.8	750.8	0.1	99.9
6 years		47.2	0.7	65.0	72.7	1.0				S	113.4	5.0	117.7	96.4	4.3				UK	-0.0	754.8	763.5	0.0	98.9
7 years		(-)	65.9	66.9	(-)	98.5				S	1.5	119.1	123.9	1.2	96.2				UK	(-)	782.8	777.9	(-)	100.6
TOTAL					158.1					S			334.2						UK			154.0		
										S									UK					
3 years	IS	3.8	(-)	4.4	95.9					LI	(-)	(-)	0.4	(-)					NO	43.9	(-)	62.0	79.9	
4 years		3.9	(-)	4.3	95.9					LI	(-)	(-)	0.4	(-)					NO	48.0	(-)	61.4	78.7	
5 years		4.1	0.0	4.5	92.5	0.3				LI	(-)	(-)	0.4	(-)					NO	49.7	(-)	61.2	81.2	
6 years		0.0	4.5	4.5	(-)	98.8				LI	(-)	0.4	0.4	(-)	97.2				NO	0.7	60.5	60.9	1.1	99.3
7 years		(-)	4.5	4.5	(-)	98.9				LI	(-)	0.4	0.4	(-)	111.7				NO	(-)	61.5	61.7	(-)	99.7
TOTAL					270.2					LI			(-)						NO			231.0		
										LI									NO					
3 years	BG	40.2	(-)	70.8	56.9					CZ	49.4	(-)	90.0	54.9					EE	9.2	(-)	32.7	72.0	
4 years		47.6	(-)	71.0	67.0					CZ	77.4	(-)	95.5	81.0					EE	10.0	(-)	32.8	78.2	
5 years		54.6	0.6	78.8	69.3	0.7				CZ	103.9	0.1	106.0	99.1	0.1				EE	10.7	0.0	33.0	80.8	0.0
6 years		59.0	8.9	82.6	71.4	10.8				CZ	96.7	63.5	120.2	47.2	52.8				EE	12.5	1.9	34.3	87.8	13.0
7 years		2.0	81.8	86.4	2.3	94.7				CZ	6.5	114.5	120.9	5.2	94.7				EE	0.0	16.5	16.7	0.1	98.7
TOTAL					289.9					CZ			288.3						EE			318.9		
										CZ									EE					
3 years	CY	3.1	(-)	9.0	31.7					LV	10.8	(-)	18.1	56.5					LT	17.9	(-)	38.7	45.2	
4 years		5.6	(-)	9.9	56.4					LV	12.6	(-)	20.3	62.4					LT	20.5	(-)	40.6	50.4	
5 years		7.9	0.2	10.4	72.2	1.7				LV	15.1	(-)	22.4	67.4					LT	23.2	0.0	42.1	95.1	0.0
6 years		0.2	10.5	10.8	2.0	98.7				LV	16.4	1.1	24.8	66.2	4.4				LT	28.1	9.2	45.7	61.5	11.3
7 years		x	11.3	11.6	x	97.8				LV	1.8	28.3	29.5	3.4	89.3				LT	3.7	47.5	52.2	7.7	91.1
TOTAL					162.3					LV			257.8						LT			216.3		
										LV									LT					
3 years	HU	71.3	(-)	104.0	62.6					MT	3.9	(-)	4.9	79.0					PL	98.3	(-)	422.9	23.3	
4 years		98.7	(-)	110.7	95.2					MT	4.9	(-)	4.8	100.0					PL	142.0	(-)	426.8	33.3	
5 years		110.8	(-)	114.1	97.1					MT	1.3	3.8	4.8	26.2	76.5				PL	193.8	x	473.3	60.9	
6 years		84.8	42.9	115.4	73.5	37.6				MT	(-)	5.4	5.2	(-)	104.8				PL	468.4	3.6	485.5	95.7	0.8
7 years		1.2	108.3	119.7	1.0	93.9				MT	(-)	5.5	5.4	(-)	101.0				PL	8.1	485.9	505.2	1.6	102.1
TOTAL					329.3					MT			208.2						PL			105.7		
										MT									PL					
3 years	RO	84.9	(-)	224.0	37.9					SI	10.0	(-)	19.0	52.4					SK	33.4	(-)	59.5	96.1	(-)
4 years		134.9	(-)	229.7	59.0					SI	12.9	(-)	19.1	67.7					SK	42.7	(-)	60.7	70.9	(-)
5 years		180.3	(-)	237.4	75.9					SI	14.4	(-)	19.7	73.3					SK	63.4	(-			

CHAPTER D: PRIMARY EDUCATION

RECOMMENDED MINIMUM ALLOCATION OF HOURS OF TEACHING FOR COMPULSORY SUBJECTS (AS A PERCENTAGE) WITH RESPECT TO THE ENTIRE PERIOD OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1) CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE, 2000/01

(Figure D5)

(%)

	MOTHER TONGUE	MATHEMATICS	HUMAN SCIENCES AND EXACT SCIENCES	FOREIGN LANGUAGES	SPORT	ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES	RELIGIOUS/MORAL EDUCATION	ICT	COMPULSORY EDUCATION	OTHER	FLEXIBLE TIMETABLE		MOTHER TONGUE	MATHEMATICS	HUMAN SCIENCES AND EXACT SCIENCES	FOREIGN LANGUAGES	SPORT	ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES	RELIGIOUS/MORAL EDUCATION	ICT	COMPULSORY EDUCATION	OTHER	FLEXIBLE TIMETABLE
B fr	27.9	17.4	18.02	2.3	7.0	12.5	7.0	3			7.8	UK (NI)	●	●	●		●	●	●	3			100
B de	23.8	17.9	19.25	11.9	7.1	12.8	7.1					UK (SC)	20.0	15.0	15.00		7.6	7.5	15.0	●			20.0
B nl	●	●	●	●	●	●	7.1	3			92.9	IS	17.6	14.0	10.86	4.1	9.6	14.5	3.2	6.3		5.4	14.5
DK	29.2	16.7	11.11	5.6	9.0	18.8	5.6	3		4.2		LI	24.8	18.2	12.41	2.2	10.9	24.8	0.0	3			
D	26.3	21.1	14.74		13.7	15.8	8.4	3				NO	24.5	15.0	14.29	5.9	8.1	10.6	0.7	3		4.0	
EL	31.1	16.8	23.86	5.4	7.2	16.8	4.8					BG	27.6	14.3	7.10		8.0	13.7		3	8.8	3.9	15.7
E	18.5	10.6	10.60	7.0	7.2	7.2	6.5	3			32.4	CZ	37.7	21.1	12.28	5.3	8.8	14.9					
F	31.2	20.4	15.38	1.2	11.0	11.0		3		7.7	2.3	EE	21.2	13.9	12.01	9.3	9.3	18.9		3			15.1
IRL	21.2	17.4	9.07	17.4	5.0	17.5	12.5	3				CY	36.3	16.0	14.93	3.0	6.0	18.9	6.0				
I	●	●	●	8.2	●	●	8.8				85.0	LV	38.4	18.7	9.35	7.3	9.5	18.7					
L	3.0	19.0	9.52	29.3	9.5	10.7	7.1	3		1.2		LT	31.8	17.5	5.29	2.3	9.7	17.5	4.4				11.6
NL	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●			100	HU	38.9	17.7	11.77	3.5	11.7	14.1		3			4.7
A	30.4	17.4	13.04	2.2	10.9	17.4	8.7	3				MT	24.0	23.0	10.00	22.0	4.0	3.0	10.0	3			4.0
P	8.0	4.8	7.14	4.8	3.6	9.5	1.2	3			63.1	PL	14.7	7.7	5.77	5.1	5.8		7.7	1.3		1.0	50.0
FIN	24.2	16.7	13.64	6.1	11.4	22.0	6.1	3				RO	31.2	15.6	6.49	5.2	10.4	10.4	5.2	5.2	10.4		
B	22.4	13.6	25.28	12.0	7.5	13.6		3			5.7	SI	23.2	17.2	17.48	6.0	14.6	15.7		3.2		2.7	
UK (E)	22.5	16.9	●	●	●	●	●	●			60.7	SK	39.1	20.7	11.98		10.0	13.0					2.2
UK (W)	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●			100												

● Compulsory subject with the school free to determine the number of hours allocated to it in all years

○ ICT compulsory and an integral part of other courses

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

The raw data used to prepare this diagram is available for each country and each year of primary education on the Eurydice website: www.eurydice.org

CHAPTER E: SECONDARY EDUCATION

RECOMMENDED MINIMUM PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN OF TAUGHT TIME FOR EACH COMPULSORY SUBJECT WITH RESPECT TO THE ENTIRE PERIOD OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE, 2000/01

(Figure E5)

(%)

	MOTHER TONGUE	MATHEMATICS	NATURAL SCIENCES	HUMAN SCIENCES	FOREIGN LANGUAGES	SPORT	ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES	RELIGIOUS/ETHICS	ICT	CORE CURRICULUM options	OTHER	FLEXIBLE TIMETABLE	
B fr	24.6	18.8	5.1	14.1	6.3	7.8	9.2	7.0	0.8	3	2.3	0.0	6.1
B de	20.0	18.3	6.1	13.1	33.8	7.2	8.9	6.8	3	7.2	0.0	0.0	
B nl	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	4.8	3	0.0	0.0	95.2	
DK	25.5	15.3	8.9	7.7	11.9	6.1	12.8	4.3	3	1.7	3.8	0.0	
D	18.3	16.2	8.3	8.3	8.6	11.6	12.4	7.5	3	10.8	0.0	0.0	
	17.3	15.5	8.5	8.5	13.3	11.4	11.8	7.4	3	8.3	0.0	0.0	
EL	23.9	14.7	10.3	12.9	9.2	7.4	9.9	5.1	1.6	0.0	4.8	0.0	
E	14.9	9.0	5.4	6.2	8.7	5.4	6.2	5.8	2.2	3	0.0	36.3	
F	24.2	17.3	10.0	10.0	8.4	11.1	9.3	0.0	2.5	3	4.2	3.8	1.1
IRL	23.0	10.4	2.7	2.7	●	3.0	10.4	7.4	3	0.0	0.0	40.4	
I	8.8	5.1	3.3	6.6	9.1	2.9	4.8	5.4	3.3	0.0	1.4	49.2	
L	2.7	16.6	0.2	5.5	37.7	8.9	10.1	7.0	0.6	3	3.9	0.0	
	4.0	4.1	4.8	4.1	3.2	2.9	2.3	0.0	1.4	1.6	0.0	69.7	
NL	3.7	4.3	4.7	4.1	6.0	2.8	2.4	0.0	1.4	1.8	0.0	69.7	
	4.3	2.8	2.3	4.3	5.5	2.8	2.3	0.0	1.4	5.5	0.6	64.2	
A	19.0	13.8	10.5	9.5	7.5	10.3	16.4	7.1	0.8	3	5.1	0.0	0.0
P	19.1	13.1	9.6	9.6	7.6	11.2	15.5	7.2	0.8	3	0.0	0.0	6.4
	8.4	7.7	7.7	8.4	8.5	6.7	9.6	1.9	3	3.4	0.0	40.8	

● Compulsory subject with the school free to determine the number of hours allocated to it in all years

○ ICT compulsory and an integral part of other courses

Source: Eurydice.

(Figure E5)

(%)

	MOTHER TONGUE	MATHEMATICS	NATURAL SCIENCES	HUMAN SCIENCES	FOREIGN LANGUAGES	SPORT	ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES	RELIGION/ETHICS	ICT	CORE CURRICULUM OMISSIONS	Others	Flexibly Timetable
FIN	18.0	14.0	7.7	9.0	9.9	9.5	17.1	5.0	3	9.0	0.9	0.0
S	22.4	13.5	12.0	13.3	12.0	7.5	13.8	0.0	3	0.0	0.0	5.7
UK(E)	15.4	12.5	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0.0	0.0	72.1
UK(W)	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0.0	0.0	100.0
UK(NI)	2.3	2.3	2.3	1.4	0.9	0.9	●	0.0	3	0.0	0.0	89.7
UK(SC)	20.0	13.3	9.2	9.2	6.0	7.0	7.0	11.2	0.8 3	0.0	0.0	22.3
IS	16.4	13.4	5.5	6.1	9.1	9.1	12.8	2.7	4.9 3	0.0	5.8	14.3
LI	18.7	16.1	7.5	11.2	8.1	9.9	17.2	5.9	0.7 3	4.8	0.0	0.0
	18.7	16.1	7.5	9.7	9.2	9.9	18.7	6.2	0.7 3	3.3	0.0	0.0
NO	21.3	14.5	7.8	9.0	7.4	8.4	16.7	6.2	3	3.2	3.8	0.0
BG	17.7	11.5	9.5	7.9	8.8	7.1	10.7	9.0	1.2 3	9.5	3.2	12.8
CZ	24.1	17.0	10.6	14.6	8.2	7.7	11.3	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	3.5
	25.0	17.8	12.3	11.4	8.1	7.6	11.4	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	5.1
EE	17.4	13.4	12.2	7.3	11.7	8.2	15.8	0.0	3	1.2	0.0	12.8
CY	31.6	14.0	9.1	7.6	6.5	6.9	18.0	3.9	0.0	0.0	2.5	0.0
LV	23.5	17.4	8.0	13.0	13.5	7.5	16.2	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
LT	21.1	14.5	8.9	10.2	11.6	7.5	13.4	3.6	0.7	0.0	0.0	8.4
HU	20.4	13.2	16.3	6.0	12.5	6.7	8.2	0.3	1.3 3	3.6	2.6	6.6
MT	18.1	18.9	7.5	7.2	23.7	4.3	2.9	6.0	1.3 3	4.3	1.6	2.1
	18.4	18.4	7.3	8.1	23.1	3.9	3.1	7.8	1.3 3	7.3	1.3	2.1
PL	14.6	9.7	8.5	5.3	6.9	7.3	1.2	7.3	1.6	0.0	2.4	35.2
RO	22.9	15.1	6.1	8.4	11.2	6.7	8.4	4.5	4.5	9.5	2.8	0.0
SI	18.9	15.3	10.6	11.9	7.7	12.3	12.6	0.0	3.6	4.8	2.2	0.0
SK	23.5	17.4	11.7	12.5	8.3	9.5	9.5	2.3	0.8	1.9	2.7	0.0

- Compulsory subject with the school free to determine the number of hours allocated to it in all years
- ICT compulsory and an integral part of other courses

Source: Eurydice

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

The raw data used to prepare this diagram is available for each country and each year of primary education on the Eurydice website: www.eurydice.org

CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT AT THE END OF GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION OR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION, 2000/01

(Figure E6)

THE CERTIFICATE IS AWARDED ON THE BASIS OF	
a final examination	D (in certain Länder for the Hauptschule and the Realschule), IRL, RO
the grades and work over the year	DK (optional final examination), D (most Länder), E, L, A, FIN, S, BG, HU, PL, SI
a final examination and the grades and work over the year	B, EL, F, I, NL (VBO), P, UK, IS, LI, NO, EE, CY, LV, LT, MT
WHEN THERE IS AN EXAMINATION, IT IS	
Written	B de, EL, F, IRL (+ optional oral), NL (external exam), P, LI, CY, RO
Written and oral	B fr, B nl, DK, D (in certain Länder for the Hauptschule and the Realschule), I, NL (school exam), UK, IS, NO, EE, LV, LT, MT
WHEN THERE IS A WRITTEN EXAMINATION, IT IS SET	
by the school (internally)	B, EL, NL (school exam), P, IS, LI, CY
by the school with external verification	D (in certain Länder for the Hauptschule and the Realschule), I
by an external body/authority with no verification by the school	DK, D (in certain Länder for the Hauptschule and the Realschule), F, IRL, NL (external exam), UK, IS, NO, EE, LV, LT, MT, RO
WHEN THERE IS AN ORAL EXAMINATION, IT IS SET	
by the school (internally)	B fr, B nl, DK, D (in certain Länder for the Hauptschule and the Realschule), NL (school exam), UK (SC), IS
by the school with external verification	I, UK (SC), NO
by an external body/authority with no verification by the school	IRL, UK (EWNB), LV, LT, MT
THE FINAL GRADE IS AWARDED BY	
only the pupil's teachers	B, D (most Länder), EL, E, L, A, P, FIN, S, LI, BG, CY, HU, PL, SI
the teachers, but weighted by an external grade	DK, D (in certain Länder for the Hauptschule and the Realschule), F (work of 2 years and examination), I, IS, NO
the teachers, on the basis of criteria defined by an external body	NL, LV, LT
external examiners	IRL, UK, MT, RO

Source: Eurydice

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

PARTICIPATION RATES, OVERALL AND BROKEN DOWN BY SEX, AT THE END OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 1999/2000

(FIGURE E7)

(%)

	B (X=18)			DK (X=16)			D (X=18)			EL (X=15)			E (X=16)		
	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL
X-1	95.0	99.1	97.0	95.8	96.8	96.3	92.7	92.4	92.6	94.4	95.7	95.0	99.5	100.0	99.8
X	81.5	88.5	84.9	89.9	91.6	90.8	85.8	85.7	85.8	90.9	95.0	93.4	88.2	92.4	90.2
X+1	68.5	79.0	73.7	80.5	82.7	81.6	65.0	70.0	67.4	91.5	98.7	94.0	77.1	83.3	80.1
X+2	58.7	69.0	62.7	79.8	77.9	76.8	45.0	54.0	49.0	81.7	89.6	85.9	63.7	73.9	69.7
	F (X=16)			IRL (X=15)			I (X=15)			L (X=15)			NL (X=17)		
	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL
X-1	97.8	98.4	98.1	98.1	99.6	98.9	100.0	96.6	98.6	98.9	99.3	99.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
X	95.8	95.9	95.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	92.8	84.7	88.9	85.9	95.6	91.1	94.2	92.4	93.3
X+1	91.4	93.1	92.3	88.7	96.7	92.6	85.5	80.1	82.9	85.5	88.7	87.1	78.9	77.9	78.4
X+2	79.3	83.7	81.5	75.8	88.1	82.3	72.4	73.7	73.0	78.5	82.6	80.5	53.7	52.3	53.0
	A (X=15)			P (X=15)			FIN (X=16)			S (X=16)			UK (X=16)		
	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL
X-1	99.2	99.8	99.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.4	99.2	99.3	99.7	98.7	97.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
X	84.8	94.9	94.9	97.8	100.0	100.0	94.3	96.7	95.4	94.4	100.0	97.6	81.1	87.8	84.4
X+1	90.1	90.2	91.7	91.0	93.2	92.0	94.1	93.3	93.7	92.3	100.0	97.4	70.3	76.4	73.2
X+2	91.9	88.3	89.2	79.3	95.6	87.2	83.8	91.0	87.3	91.4	96.9	95.5	54.4	56.7	55.5
	IS (X=16)			LI (X=15)			NO (X=16)			BG (X=16)			CZ (X=15)		
	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL
X-1	98.8	99.1	99.4	114.0	105.4	109.8	99.2	100.0	100.0	89.2	98.1	93.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
X	88.1	92.2	90.2	109.6	101.5	105.6	93.1	94.5	93.7	83.9	81.0	82.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
X+1	72.5	79.7	75.9	36.5	31.0	33.7	92.4	92.8	92.5	69.1	68.5	68.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
X+2	63.9	72.8	68.2	19.9	13.6	16.7	85.1	88.5	86.8	43.0	48.6	46.2	96.0	99.2	97.8
	EE (X=16)			CY (X=15)			LV (X=16)			LT (X=16)			HU (X=16)		
	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL
X-1	96.8	99.2	98.0	83.3	96.4	94.8	94.7	97.3	96.0	94.7	97.6	96.1	97.5	97.1	97.3
X	95.2	98.4	97.3	88.7	96.2	92.5	85.8	82.4	84.1	100.2	98.4	99.3	94.8	94.8	94.7
X+1	86.8	91.4	89.0	85.7	95.0	90.2	80.3	88.3	84.2	84.6	91.4	88.0	83.7	85.6	84.6
X+2	66.8	79.0	73.8	75.2	86.4	80.7	63.3	74.0	68.6	67.3	77.5	72.3	76.0	76.6	77.3
	MT (X=16)			PL (X=15)			RO (X=16)			SI (X=15)			SK (X=15)		
	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL	M	W	TOTAL
X-1	100.0	100.0	100.0	97.5	96.8	97.2	95.3	98.1	95.7	98.5	100.0	98.3	()	()	()
X	77.7	84.0	80.8	95.7	96.3	96.0	79.3	81.1	80.2	99.8	98.4	99.5	()	()	()
X+1	47.6	38.1	42.9	93.4	94.8	94.1	76.0	70.7	73.6	95.9	95.8	96.3	()	()	()
X+2	35.7	38.6	37.1	88.2	91.6	89.9	62.5	66.6	64.5	89.6	94.7	92.1	()	()	()

Source: Eurydice, Eurostat, UOE et population statistics.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1999/2000

(FIGURE E8)

(1 000)

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL
General	8 608.8	227.6	99.3	1 011.2	252.6	796.4	1 119.0	152.2	1 054.5	6.2	197.7
Vocational	10 274.2	457.5	119.9	1 735.8	119.6	400.0	1 505.0	(-)	838.1	10.9	426.0
	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
General	106.3	292.9	130.6	298.4	1 565.7	13.8	0.4	91.1	145.6	85.6	37.5
Vocational	261.7	113.0	161.8	282.4	4 042.9	6.6	1.0	122.3	183.4	347.3	18.1
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
General	26.5	82.4	59.3	444.2	3.4	977.6	343.5	32.4	56.1	88.5	32.6
Vocational	4.4	39.2	38.9	90.8	1.0	1 769.4	573.1	84.5	206.6	14.5	59.7

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF UPPER SECONDARY STUDENTS (ISCED 3) IN GENERAL EDUCATION BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 1999/2000

(FIGURE E9)

	Total number of upper secondary pupils (ISCED 3) (1 000)	Total number of students in general upper secondary education (1 000)	Rate %
B BELGIQUE-BELGIE	685.1	227.6	33.2
BE1 REG. BRUXELLES-CAP. BRUSSELS HFODST. GEWEST	()	()	()
BE2 VLAAMS GEWEST	()	()	()
BE3 REGION WALLONNE	()	()	()
DK DANMARK	219.2	99.3	45.3
D DEUTSCHLAND	2 747.0	1 011.2	36.8
DE1 BADEN-WURTTENBERG	368.6	141.6	38.4
DE2 BAYERN	351.8	109.2	31.0
DE3 BERLIN	109.2	50.7	46.5
DE4 BRANDENBURG	100.6	44.0	43.8
DE5 BREMEN	26.7	9.5	35.4
DE6 HAMBURG	57.2	23.5	41.0

KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE – 2002

(FIGURE E9)

		Total number of upper secondary pupils (ISCED 3) ('000)	Total number of students in general upper secondary education ('000)	Rate %
DE7	HESSEN	196.6	80.1	40.7
DE8	MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	67.5	19.8	29.3
DE9	NIEDERSACHSEN	283.3	93.9	33.5
DEA	NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	614.7	240.3	39.1
DEB	RHEINLAND-PFALZ	123.7	44.7	36.2
DEC	SAARLAND	36.1	13.1	36.2
DED	SACHSEN	161.1	52.3	32.5
DEE	SACHSEN-ANHALT	91.3	26.4	31.1
DEF	SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	86.2	30.5	35.4
DEG	THURINGEN	92.3	30.2	32.7
EL	ELLADA	393.4	292.0	74.2
GR1	VOREIA ELLADA	124.3	88.0	70.8
GR2	KENTRIKI ELLADA	84.7	62.8	74.2
GR3	ATTIKI	147.3	114.7	77.9
GR4	NISIA AIGAIU, KRITI	37.1	26.5	71.4
E	ESPAÑA	1 197.2	796.4	66.5
ES1	NOROESTE	133.7	89.3	66.8
ES2	NORESTE	127.3	77.7	61.0
ES3	COMUNIDAD DE MADRID	162.8	117.8	72.5
ES4	CENTRO (E)	176.2	105.8	60.0
ES5	ESTE	278.7	190.0	68.2
ES6	SUR	258.9	177.6	68.5
ES7	CANARIAS	59.6	38.0	64.8
F	FRANCE	2 624.8	1 119.0	42.6
FR1	ÎLE DE FRANCE	458.7	224.1	48.9
FR2	BASSIN PARISIEN	467.7	197.4	42.5
FR3	NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	210.9	82.3	39.0
FR4	EST	237.3	93.7	39.5
FR5	QUEST	370.8	147.3	39.7
FR6	SUD-QUEST	256.4	107.1	41.8
FR7	CENTRE-EST	311.0	137.5	44.2
FR8	MEDITERRANEE	291.9	128.6	44.4
FR9	DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	92.3	36.9	39.9
IRL	IRELAND	152.2	152.2	100.0
IE01	BORDER, MIDLANDS and WESTERN	41.4	41.4	100.0
IE02	SOUTHERN and EASTERN	110.8	110.8	100.0
I	ITALIA	2 390.6	1 954.5	75.4
IT1	NORD-OVEST	218.3	162.5	74.5
IT2	LOMBARDIA	348.0	259.7	75.1
IT3	NORD-EST	261.8	187.8	71.7
IT4	EMILIA-ROMAGNA	140.3	102.0	72.7
IT5	CENTRO (I)	240.8	177.0	73.5
IT6	LAZIO	251.1	197.0	78.4
IT7	ABRUZZO-MOLISE	82.0	60.8	74.4
IT8	CAMPANIA	315.8	242.2	76.7
IT9	SUD	369.1	280.7	76.0
ITA	SICILIA	271.2	200.7	74.1
ITB	SARDEGNA	94.2	75.3	79.9
L	LUXEMBOURG	17.1	6.2	36.5
NL	NEDERLAND	609.8	197.7	32.4
NL1	NOORD-NEDERLAND	69.4	19.9	28.6
NL2	OOST-NEDERLAND	125.1	40.5	31.4
NL3	WEST-NEDERLAND	278.6	93.9	33.7
NL4	ZUID-NEDERLAND	132.8	43.4	32.7
A	ÖSTERREICH	369.4	186.5	50.5
AT1	OSTÖSTERREICH	140.1	43.2	30.9
AT2	SÜDÖSTERREICH	83.2	25.4	30.7
AT3	WESTÖSTERREICH	146.1	38.8	27.2
P	PORTUGAL	405.9	292.9	72.2
FIN	SUOMI (FINLAND)	292.4	130.6	44.7
FI1	MANNER-SUOMI	291.3	130.2	44.7
FI3	ITÄ-SUOMI	42.1	17.9	41.5
FI4	VÄLI-SUOMI	41.2	18.0	43.6
FI5	POHJOIS-SUOMI	36.2	15.2	41.9
FI6	UUSMAA	72.0	36.7	51.0
FI7	ETELÄ-SUOMI	99.9	42.9	43.0
FI2	AHVENANMAA/ÅLAND	1.1	0.4	34.5

(Figure E9)

		Total number of upper secondary pupils (ISCED 3) (1 000)	Total number of students in general upper secondary education (1 000)	Rate %
S	SVERIGE	579.0	298.9	51.6
	SE01 STOCKHOLM	150.0	67.0	57.0
	SE02 ÖSTRA MELLANSVERIGE	101.7	53.6	52.9
	SE04 SYDSVERIGE	79.9	41.3	51.9
	SE06 NORRA MELLANSVERIGE	60.8	28.4	43.3
	SE07 MELLERSTA NORRLAND	33.3	17.6	53.1
	SE08 ÖVRE-NORRLAND	36.4	18.7	51.4
	SE09 SMÅLAND MED ÖARNA	53.3	25.5	48.0
	SE10 VÄSTSVENRIKE	134.4	68.6	51.3
UK	UNITED KINGDOM	4 006.6	1 965.7	32.7
	UKC NORTH EAST	284.0	81.2	28.6
	UKD NORTH WEST (including MERSEYSIDE)	781.2	217.0	27.8
	UKE YORKSHIRE and THE HUMBER	568.2	160.0	28.7
	UKF EAST MIDLANDS	461.0	138.3	30.0
	UKG WEST MIDLANDS	699.6	175.7	25.1
	UKH EASTERN	404.9	170.1	44.2
	UKI LONDON	612.2	217.4	35.9
	UKJ SOUTH EAST	741.5	263.0	35.5
	UKK SOUTH WEST	518.7	160.0	30.8
	UKL WALES	304.1	87.8	32.1
	UKM SCOTLAND	490.7	200.1	40.8
	UKN NORTHERN IRELAND	152.6	76.2	49.9
IS	ISLAND	20.4	13.8	67.7
LI	LIECHTENSTEIN	5.3	0.4	26.1
NO	NORGE	213.4	91.1	42.7
BG	BÄLGARIJA	329.0	145.6	44.3
CZ	ČESKÁ REPUBLIKA	30.9	26.6	85.8
EE	EESTI	432.9	85.6	19.8
CY	KYPROS	55.6	37.5	67.4
LV	LATVIJA	496.0	444.2	89.7
LT	LIEŤUVÄ	101.6	62.4	61.4
HU	MAGYARORSZÄG	96.2	59.3	60.4
MT	MALTA	7.2	5.4	75.2
PL	POLSKA	2 726.9	977.6	35.8
RO	ROMÄNIA	916.6	343.5	37.5
SI	SLOVENIJA	262.6	99.1	21.4
SK	SLOVENSKÄ REPUBLIKA	116.9	32.4	27.7
AL	ALBANIA (National source)	103.0	89.5	85.9
MK	FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA	92.3	32.6	35.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s).

**DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS, BY SEX,
IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1999/2000**

(Figure E10)

(1 000)

		EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL
General	Men	4 105.3	105.0	43.2	454.5	114.2	367.8	492.8	72.7	1 016.4	2.9	92.7
	Women	4 500.4	122.6	58.1	556.7	138.5	428.5	626.2	79.5	938.1	3.4	104.9
Vocational	Men	5 164.9	230.6	64.7	990.9	88.0	194.3	840.3	(-)	353.1	5.6	230.4
	Women	5 090.3	228.9	65.2	745.0	51.6	206.5	685.4	(-)	282.9	5.3	196.6
		A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
General	Men	48.1	130.4	55.3	124.7	987.6	5.7	0.2	39.4	51.9	11.6	34.1
	Women	58.3	162.5	75.3	171.7	978.1	8.1	0.2	51.7	93.8	14.9	51.5
Vocational	Men	147.9	65.7	83.5	121.3	1 788.6	4.2	0.6	67.8	114.8	3.7	184.2
	Women	113.8	47.4	78.3	161.1	2 254.4	2.4	0.4	64.5	68.6	0.7	163.1
		CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
General	Men	20.9	15.3	215.2	25.7	13.2	25.4	2.3	369.6	133.7	42.3	14.0
	Women	32.2	22.2	229.9	35.8	19.2	34.0	3.1	608.0	209.0	46.2	18.6
Vocational	Men	106.3	11.7	33.0	23.5	45.2	23.3	1.1	1 035.5	324.8	10.6	34.1
	Women	100.3	6.4	17.8	15.6	39.3	15.6	0.7	713.9	248.3	4.6	25.6

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s).

CERTIFIED ASSESSMENT AT THE END OF GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01

(FIGURE E12)

THE CERTIFICATE IS AWARDED ON THE BASIS OF	
a final examination	F, IRL, A, P, FIN (Maturität Examination); CZ, HU (Gimnázium Érettség Bizonyítvány); PL (Świadectwo maturalne); RO, SI, SK
the grades and work over the year	E (continuous assessment); FIN (leaving certificate); S (marks in the final three years); HU (Gimnázium Bizonyítvány); PL (Świadectwo ukończenia rocznym ogólnokształceniowym)
a final examination and the grades and work over the year	B (marks in the final two years); DK, D, EL, I, L, NL, UK, IS, LI, NO, BG, EE, CY, LV, LT, MT
WHEN THERE IS AN EXAMINATION, IT IS	
Written	EL, NL (central exam); P, FIN (Maturität Examination); BG, CY, LT
Written and oral	B, DK, D, F, IRL, I, L, NL (school exam); A, UK, IS, LI, NO, CZ, EE, LV, HU (Gimnázium Érettség Bizonyítvány); MT (oral for languages); PL, RO, SI, SK
WHEN THERE IS A WRITTEN EXAMINATION, IT IS SET	
by the school (internally)	B, EL, I (one examination); NL (school exam); P, IS, CZ, EE (gimnázium írásbeli); SK
by the school with external verification	D (in some Länder); A, LI
by an external body/authority with no verification by the school	DK, D (in some Länder); EL, F, IRL, I (two examinations); L, NL (central exam); P, FIN (Maturität Examination); UK, NO, BG, EE (nigelsamtunnistus); CY, LV, LT, HU (Gimnázium Érettség Bizonyítvány); MT, PL, RO, SI
WHEN THERE IS AN ORAL EXAMINATION, IT IS SET	
by the school (internally)	B, DK, NL (school exam); UK (SC); IS, CZ, EE (gimnázium írásbeli); PL, SK
by the school with external verification	D, I, A, UK (SC); LI, NO, LV, HU (Gimnázium Érettség Bizonyítvány)
by an external body/authority with no verification by the school	F, IRL, L, UK, EE (nigelsamtunnistus); LV (for centralized examinations); MT, RO, SI
THE FINAL GRADE IS AWARDED BY	
only the student's teachers	B, E, FIN (leaving certificate); S, IS, CZ, EE (gimnázium írásbeli); HU (Gimnázium Bizonyítvány); PL, SK
the teachers, but weighted by an external grade	DK (oral); D (results in Abitur); EL, I (written); A, P (average); LI, NO (marks obtained in course work + in the examination); BG (marks in 3 final years + in the examination); CY (marks of the year + final examination)
the teachers, on the basis of criteria defined by an external body	I (oral); NL, LV, LT, HU (Gimnázium Érettség Bizonyítvány)
external examiners	DK (written); F (jury); IRL, L, FIN (Maturität Examination); UK, EE (nigelsamtunnistus); LV (for centralized examinations); LT (in the case of centrally devised examinations); MT, RO, SI

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

NUMBER OF GIRLS AND BOYS OBTAINING
A GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION, 2000

(FIGURE E13)

(1 000)

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL
Men and women	1 343.0	45.9	32.2	312.0	81.8	240.2	255.0	40.4	185.0	1.3	69.3
Women	762.5	25.0	19.3	168.1	45.4	133.2	145.3	21.0	120.7	0.7	37.2
Men	581.4	20.8	12.9	144.0	36.4	107.0	109.7	19.4	67.3	0.6	32.1
	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
Men and women	()	()	34.0	43.8	()	2.1	0.1	34.4	32.8	12.0	8.2
Women	()	()	20.2	23.5	()	1.3	0.0	20.8	21.7	7.0	4.9
Men	()	()	13.8	20.4	()	0.8	0.0	13.6	11.1	5.3	3.2
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men and women	7.3	17.7	25.9	38.3	()	209.1	85.1	6.2	16.2	15.5	6.4
Women	4.3	9.4	15.0	23.0	()	134.2	54.5	3.8	9.3	9.0	3.8
Men	3.0	8.3	10.9	15.3	()	75.0	33.7	2.4	6.9	6.5	2.6

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

CHAPTER F: TERTIARY EDUCATION

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION TO TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2000/01

(FIGURE F1)

	LIMITS ON THE NUMBER OF PLACES AT NATIONAL/REGIONAL LEVEL	LIMITS IMPOSED BY INSTITUTIONS IN THE LIGHT OF THEIR CAPACITY	SELECTION ON THE BASIS OF ABILITY	UNRESTRICTED ADMISSION
B fr			Civil engineering, medicine, dentistry (selection: examination set by the institution). For the continuation of study after the candidate stage, there is a numerus clausus in medicine and dentistry (selection: examination set by the institution).	Most courses
B de		Teacher training college (Pädagogische Hochschule). Foreign students may not enrol once the total number of German-speaking students enrolled exceeds 20. And the majority of the students enrolled (i.e. at least half plus one) must always be of Belgian nationality.		Most courses

	LIMITS ON THE NUMBER OF PLACES AT NATIONAL/REGIONAL LEVEL	LIMITS IMPOSED BY INSTITUTIONS IN THE LIGHT OF THEIR CAPACITY	SELECTION ON THE BASIS OF ABILITY	UNRESTRICTED ADMISSION
Bel			Some courses: Civil engineering and, since 1997, dentistry, medicine, nautical science and some art courses (selection: examination set by the institution or the government)	Most courses
DK	Medicine and education	Most courses (selection: by the institution, specific requirements in relation to prior knowledge and, if the number of applicants exceeds the number of places, selection on the basis of school results and previous relevant work experience)	Journalism, photo-journalism, film studies, music	
D	Generally no numerus clausus, but a supranational selection procedure for some disciplines (such as medicine) based on an inter-state agreement between the Länder (selection: average mark in the Abitur, the period spent waiting between the Abitur and the application, and social criteria; around 20 % of places may be allocated by the universities themselves – selection in accordance with ability, motivation or special requirements).	Almost all Fachhochschulen (selection: by the institution, generally on the basis of the average mark in the Abitur, and the period spent waiting between the Abitur and the application) In courses to which admission is limited at federal level, around 20% of the places may be allocated by the universities themselves (selection: on the basis of ability, motivation or specific conditions)	Art and sports courses (selection: aptitude test)	Most university courses
EL	All courses (selection: national examination)		Certain courses in artistic, linguistic, musical, sports and architectural fields, and the military colleges	
E		All courses (selection: on the basis of results in the national examination)	Some courses in art, translation or interpreting and physical education (selection: aptitude test in addition to the national examination)	
F	Medicine, paramedical subjects (selection: competitive examinations organised by each institution)	Applicable to some general courses in certain institutions (selection: priority to students resident in the académie, with a numerus clausus for the rest)	Certain courses (IUT, CPGE, etc.) (selection: by the institution, based on school record and interviews)	General university courses
IRE	Medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine and teacher training courses including those leading to a Bachelor of Education (places limited on the basis of course capacity with an additional numerus clausus for medicine and education)	All courses (selection: by the institution, based on results in upper secondary school)		
I	Courses in medicine and surgery, dentistry, veterinary medicine, architecture. All university Diplôme (D.U.). All specialisation courses. (number of places and selection criteria determined by the government; selection organised by the institution)	Certain university courses		Certain university courses
L	Teacher training (pre-primary and primary teachers)			Other courses
NL	Certain courses as decided by the government each year (4 university courses – courses related quota)	Certain courses: 4 university courses (institution quota) and 15 higher professional education courses (non-university – institution quota) (selection: by the institution)	For certain courses one of the following 4 subjects combinations is required: Culture and society, economics and society, science and health, science and technology (selection: national decision)	All courses for which all 4 subject combinations are allowed
A		All non-university courses (for example, Fachhochschul-Studiengänge) and some other institutions of the post-secondary education sector	All <i>Universität</i> er <i>oder</i> <i>Kunst</i> le courses (selection: aptitude test) and university courses in sport	Most university courses
P	The number of places available is determined by institutions and approved by the government.	All courses have a numerus clausus fixed by each institution according to its capacity. Furthermore, institutions have to specify a minimum entrance requirement for their various courses. (selection: national competitive examination for candidates with satisfactory school and exam results; candidates' marks to be above a minimum set by each institution)	Some courses (music and PE teachers) (selection: exam set by the institution)	
FIN	Graduate quotas fixed by the government for each discipline	All courses (selection: by the institution, in the case of universities, on the basis of school results and/or an entrance exam; in some fields also work experience, studies etc. are taken into account; in the case of polytechnics, on the basis of school results, work experience, an entrance exam)		

KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE — 2002

	LIMITS ON THE NUMBER OF PLACES AT NATIONAL/REGIONAL LEVEL	LIMITS IMPOSED BY INSTITUTIONS IN THE LIGHT OF THEIR CAPACITY	SELECTION ON THE BASIS OF ABILITY	UNRESTRICTED ADMISSION
S	No maximum limitation for the number of registrations, but maximum limitation for financial support. Graduate quotas fixed by the government.	All courses (selection: by the institution; specific requirements in relation to prior knowledge and, if the number of applicants exceeds the number of places, selection on the basis of school results, the results of a national university aptitude test, other tests, work experience)		
UK (EW/NI)	Each institution agrees target numbers with the funding authorities No absolute upper limits on student numbers, except in medicine, dentistry and initial teacher training, where quotas apply	All courses (selection: by the institution)		
UK (SC)	Target number set for each institution	All courses (selection: by the institution)		
IS		Certain courses (selection: in accordance with results in the matriculation examination taken on completion of upper secondary school) and/or professional experience or competitive examination	Courses in musical and artistic fields (selection: on the basis of school reports, interviews and an aptitude test)	Most university courses
LI		Some courses: Fachhochschule Leoben (selection: general admission requirements and/or aptitude test; results)		
NO	Number of places fixed by the government (for the majority of courses) Most courses (selection: by the institution on the basis of school results, age, and work experience)		Courses in musical and artistic fields (selection: test) Certain courses, e.g. medicine, engineering (selection: specific requirements from upper secondary school)	Some university courses
BG	Number of places fixed at central level (selection: by the institution, depending on the number of places allowed centrally)			
CZ	The government fixes the number of state-subsidised places and the institution has the final decision on the number of places available	All courses (selection: by the institution on the basis of the upper secondary examination results and on an entrance examination) For some courses, the institution requests only the upper secondary leaving examination		
EE	Number of places, subsidised by the State, decided at central level	All courses (selection: on the basis of the results at upper secondary State examination and/or admission procedure set by the institution)		
CY		All university courses (selection: entrance examination set by the Ministry of Education and Culture)		
LV	Number of places subsidised by the State, decided at central level	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of performance in the entrance examination, or the results of upper secondary examinations)	Certain courses in art and music (selection: on the basis of an entrance examination and an aptitude test)	
LT	The institution fixes the number of state-subsidised places, subject to approval by the Ministry of Education and Science	All courses (selection: on the basis of the results of upper secondary examinations)	Certain courses – in languages, artistic and musical fields, law and computer science (selection: by institutions on the basis of results in the upper secondary school leaving examination, and an aptitude test)	
HU	The government fixes the number of state-subsidised places	All courses (selection: by the institution)		
MT		All courses (selection: by the institution, based on general entry requirements and specific grades in the MATSEC examination) subject to the availability of resources		
PL	Courses in medicine (number of places limited by the Ministry of Health)	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance examination (written and/or oral), an interview, an aptitude test, results in final upper secondary school leaving certificate)		
RO	Number of places subsidised by the State decided at central level	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance examination or results obtained in upper secondary schools)	For certain courses in art, music, sports, architecture, the entrance examination contains in addition eliminatory ability tests	
SI	Number of places determined by the institutions and approved by the Government	All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of final upper secondary school exam results, upper secondary school results, or results in specific subjects)	Some courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an aptitude test)	
SK		All courses (selection: by the institution, on the basis of an entrance examination)		

Source: Eurydice

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

TRENDS IN THE NUMBERS OF STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6), FROM 1975/76 TO 1999/2000

(FIGURES F3, F4 AND F5)

(1 000)

MEN AND WOMEN

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
75/76	5 648	176	97	1 334	117	548	1 053	46	977	()	291	97	89	90	()	733	3	()	()
80/81	6 543	217	115	1 515	121	698	1 176	50	1 126	()	364	125	90	113	()	828	4	()	()
85/86	7 992	248	125	1 842	182	934	1 398	70	1 192	()	405	174	118	128	183	1 030	4	()	89
90/91	9 620	276	151	2 049	195	1 222	1 689	90	1 452	()	479	206	185	165	193	1 258	5	()	143
95/96	11 933	358	167	2 144	229	1 582	2 091	128	1 775	2	492	239	320	214	261	1 821	7	()	181
96/97	12 266	361	180	2 131	263	1 694	2 063	134	1 850	2	469	240	351	227	276	1 892	8	()	185
97/98	12 329	357	183	2 098	374	1 740	2 027	143	1 869	2	461	247	352	250	281	1 930	8	()	183
98/99	12 481	352	190	2 087	388	1 787	2 012	151	1 797	3	470	253	357	263	335	2 037	8	()	187
99/00	12 563	356	189	2 055	422	1 829	2 015	161	1 770	2	488	261	374	270	347	2 024	10	49	191
	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK					
96/97	263	198	39	10	62	84	200	()	()	254	53	102	34	30					
97/98	260	215	43	11	70	96	258	()	1 191	381	68	113	37	32					
98/99	270	231	49	11	82	107	279	6	1 399	408	79	123	39	35					
99/00	261	254	54	10	91	122	307	6	1 580	453	84	136	40	37					

WOMEN

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
75/76	2 299	69	45	569	43	199	500	16	381	()	94	37	42	41	()	254	1	()	()
80/81	2 877	93	54	680	50	305	694	22	482	()	144	53	44	53	()	300	2	()	()
85/86	3 777	113	60	829	89	458	709	30	551	()	166	79	65	62	96	470	2	()	47
90/91	4 673	133	77	872	98	624	902	41	720	()	212	94	103	86	104	607	3	()	76
95/96	6 086	179	92	956	159	841	1 147	65	940	1	233	116	181	113	144	919	4	()	100
96/97	6 342	182	98	975	174	890	1 134	69	1 022	1	226	117	200	120	154	980	5	()	104
97/98	6 497	183	102	975	188	926	1 109	76	1 023	1	224	122	197	134	158	1 021	5	()	104
98/99	6 547	183	107	989	195	948	1 085	81	991	1	232	127	199	142	190	1 063	5	()	106
99/00	6 650	186	108	999	211	969	1 092	87	983	()	244	133	211	140	202	1 092	6	()	112
	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK					
96/97	161	92	22	6	36	50	109	()	()	177	30	51	17	17					
97/98	159	104	24	6	41	58	138	()	677	180	38	58	20	17					
98/99	161	115	28	6	51	64	151	3	798	208	44	64	23	19					
99/00	150	126	31	6	58	73	165	3	909	235	47	68	24	20					

MEN

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO
75/76	3 349	107	52	765	74	350	553	30	596	()	197	60	47	49	()	499	2	()	()
80/81	3 866	124	61	835	71	390	662	33	644	()	220	72	46	60	()	525	2	()	()
85/86	4 215	135	66	1 013	80	478	649	40	641	()	239	95	53	68	87	583	2	()	43
90/91	4 945	143	74	1 176	97	598	797	49	732	()	286	112	62	79	89	651	2	()	67
95/96	5 846	179	75	1 188	170	751	944	63	835	1	258	123	129	101	117	902	3	()	81
96/97	5 924	179	82	1 156	180	794	929	85	871	3	243	123	151	107	122	912	3	()	83
97/98	5 892	174	82	1 122	187	820	919	67	846	1	237	126	155	116	123	918	3	()	79
98/99	5 935	186	83	1 098	193	839	917	70	806	1	238	128	157	121	142	974	3	()	80
99/00	5 910	170	82	1 068	211	861	923	74	787	()	248	128	160	125	145	932	4	()	79
	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK					
96/97	102	104	17	4	25	34	94	()	()	178	23	51	17	14					
97/98	102	112	18	5	29	38	117	()	514	180	31	55	17	15					
98/99	109	116	21	5	32	43	128	3	601	200	36	59	16	16					
99/00	112	127	22	4	33	49	142	3	671	218	37	67	16	17					

Source: Eurostat, UOE and trend data.

Additional notes: See Figure(s).

Albania: National source (Ministry of Education and Science).

FYR of Macedonia: Second cycle of secondary education excluded.

TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6)
AS NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS AND STUDENTS, BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 1999/2000

(Figure F6A)

		TOTAL POPULATION (1 000)	ISCED 5 AND 6 (1 000)	ISCED 5 AND 6 (%)
B	BELGIQUE-BELGIE	2 634.8	355.7	13.5
	BE1 REG. BRUXELLES-CAP-BRUSSELSHOOFDST. GEWEST	333.2	84.7	25.4
	BE2 VLAAMS GEWEST	1 431.5	161.2	11.3
	BE3 REGION WALLONNE	870.0	109.8	12.6
DK	DANMARK	1 258.3	189.2	15.0
D	DEUTSCHLAND	16 847.1	2 654.8	12.2
	DE1 BADEN-WURTEMBERG	2 246.2	234.6	10.4
	DE2 BAYERN	2 399.8	253.0	10.5
	DE3 BERLIN	717.1	148.5	20.4
	DE4 BRANDENBURG	525.7	36.2	6.9
	DE5 BREMEN	141.4	27.6	19.5
	DE6 HAMBURG	335.5	70.4	21.0
	DE7 HESSEN	1 212.9	169.2	13.1

KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE — 2002

(Figure F6A)		TOTAL POPULATION (1 000)	ISCED 5 AND 6 (1 000)	ISCED 5 AND 6 (%)
DE6	MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	377.2	28.6	7.5
DE9	NIEDERSACHSEN	1 590.7	171.2	10.8
DEA	NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	3 671.4	582.8	15.1
DEB	RHEINLAND-PFALZ	622.1	97.2	11.8
DEC	SAARLAND	209.5	24.4	11.7
DED	SACHSEN	609.9	91.4	10.0
DEE	SACHSEN-ANHALT	511.7	41.9	8.2
DEF	SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	537.4	49.8	9.2
DEG	THURINGEN	478.4	40.6	8.5
EL	ELLADA	1 966.2	385.9	19.6
GR1	VOREIA ELLADA	631.6	127.0	20.1
GR2	KENTRIKI ELLADA	397.4	90.6	12.7
GR3	ATTIKI	730.9	189.7	25.9
GR4	NSIA AIGAIOL. KRITI	184.9	18.6	10.1
E	ESPAÑA	8 903.7	1 829.0	20.5
ES1	NOROESTE	857.9	182.0	21.2
ES2	NORESTE	815.6	182.1	22.3
ES3	COMUNIDAD DE MADRID	1 201.7	291.2	24.2
ES4	CENTRO (E)	1 134.4	193.4	17.1
ES5	ESTE	2 266.4	431.0	19.0
ES6	SUR	2 084.1	348.2	16.7
ES7	CANARIAS	402.6	58.0	14.8
F	FRANCE	14 876.2	2 045.2	13.7
FR1	ÎLE DE FRANCE	2 946.5	529.2	18.0
FR2	BASSIN PARISIEN	2 503.8	254.9	10.2
FR3	NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	1 168.1	143.6	13.0
FR4	EST	1 257.1	164.1	13.1
FR5	QUEST	1 891.0	241.9	12.8
FR6	SUD-OUEST	1 373.6	209.6	15.3
FR7	CENTRE-EST	1 716.3	244.9	14.3
FR8	MEDITERRANEE	1 654.2	227.3	13.7
FR9	DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	527.6	29.8	5.7
IRL	IRELAND	995.2	160.6	16.2
IE01	BORDER, MIDLANDS and WESTERN	255.8	27.7	10.8
IE02	SOUTHERN and EASTERN	737.3	132.9	18.0
I	ITALIA	10 623.3	1 770.0	16.7
IT1	NORD OVEST	976.0	131.7	15.0
IT2	LOMBARDIA	1 456.3	240.0	16.5
IT3	NORD EST	1 083.0	167.3	15.5
IT4	EMILIA-ROMAGNA	637.0	163.9	25.7
IT5	CENTRO (I)	897.1	228.1	22.9
IT6	LAZIO	1 053.3	236.4	22.4
IT7	ABRUZZI-MOLISE	369.7	51.3	16.6
IT8	CAMPANIA	1 359.4	205.2	15.1
IT9	SUD	1 388.8	140.3	10.1
ITA	SICILIA	1 122.2	151.8	13.5
ITB	SARDEGNA	338.5	53.9	15.9
L	LUXEMBOURG	82.2	2.4	3.0
NL	NEDERLAND	3 468.1	474.4	13.7
NL1	NOORD-NEDERLAND	369.8	52.9	14.3
NL2	OOST-NEDERLAND	734.5	80.9	11.0
NL3	WEST-NEDERLAND	1 621.2	247.3	15.3
NL4	ZUID-NEDERLAND	742.6	93.2	12.6
A	ÖSTERREICH (AUSTRIA)	1 668.4	252.9	15.2
AT1	OSTÖSTERREICH	698.3	141.2	20.2
AT2	SÜDÖSTERREICH	381.4	55.8	15.0
AT3	WESTÖSTERREICH	617.9	65.0	10.5
P	PORTUGAL	2 246.6	373.7	16.6
FIN	SUOMI (FINLAND)	1 279.0	270.2	21.1
FI1	MANNER-SUOMI	1 273.8	269.9	21.2
FI13	ITÄ-SUOMI	163.6	26.2	17.2
FI14	VÄLI-SUOMI	173.5	33.9	19.5
FI15	POHJOIS-SUOMI	152.4	29.8	19.6
FI16	UUSIMAA	358.3	88.4	24.7
FI17	ETELÄ-SUOMI	426.0	89.6	21.0
FI2	AHVENANMAA/ÅLAND	5.2	0.3	5.6

(Figure F6A)

		TOTAL POPULATION (1 000)	ISCED 5 AND 6 (1 000)	ISCED 5 AND 6 (%)
S	SVERIGE	2 417.5	336.8	13.9
SE01	STOCKHOLM	472.0	69.0	14.6
SE02	ÖSTRA MELLANSVERIGE	430.6	70.4	16.3
SE04	SYDSVERIGE	345.6	50.0	14.7
SE05	NORRA MELLANSVERIGE	221.4	22.0	10.3
SE07	MELLERSTA NORRLAND	106.1	11.7	11.1
SE08	ÖVRE NORRLAND	151.7	29.7	19.6
SE09	SMÅLAND MED ÖARNA	212.4	22.7	10.7
SE0A	VÄSTSVERIGE	477.7	58.8	12.3
UK	UNITED KINGDOM	10 137.8	2024.1	12.5
UKC	NORTH EAST	733.4	84.7	11.6
UKD	NORTH WEST (including MERSEYSIDE)	1 975.0	208.4	10.6
UKE	YORKSHIRE and THE HUMBER	1 431.2	190.0	12.6
UKF	EAST MIDLANDS	1 105.8	121.7	10.5
UKG	WEST MIDLANDS	1 615.5	157.8	9.7
UKH	EASTERN	1 235.3	100.2	8.1
UKI	LONDON	1 870.4	297.0	15.9
UKJ	SOUTH EAST	1 990.5	200.2	10.0
UKK	SOUTH WEST	1 266.7	123.1	9.7
UKL	WALES	810.0	96.0	11.9
UKM	SCOTLAND	1 402.8	239.7	17.1
UKN	NORTHERN IRELAND	478.4	53.2	11.1
IS	ISLAND	88.4	9.7	10.9
LI	LIECHTENSTEIN	5.4	0.5	9.1
NO	NORGE	1 131.6	190.9	16.9
BG	BÄLGARUA	1 569.0	261.3	16.7
CZ	ČESKA REPUBLIKA	1 55.4	10.4	6.7
EE	EESTI	2 204.8	253.7	11.5
CY	KYPROS	355.4	53.6	15.1
LV	LATVIJA	2 272.5	307.1	13.5
LT	LITUVA	555.2	91.2	16.4
HU	MAGYARORSZÁG	860.2	121.9	14.2
MT	MALTA	87.6	6.3	7.2
PL	POLSKA	9 992.9	1 579.6	15.8
RO	ROMANIA	4 578.4	452.6	9.9
SI	SLOVENIJA	1 286.7	135.9	10.6
SK	SLOVENSÁ REPUBLIKA	447.5	83.8	18.7
AL	ALBANIE (National source)	767.4	40.1	5.2
MK	FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA	420.5	36.9	8.8

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure[s].

NUMBER AND RATIO OF THE PROPORTION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION STUDENTS (ISCED 5 AND 6) TO THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION, BY NUTS 1 AND NUTS 2 REGIONS, 1999/2000

(Figure F6B)

		ISCED 5 & 6 (1 000)	ISCED 5 & 6 / Population ISCED 5 & 6	Total population (1 000)	Population (%)	Rate (%)
B	BELGIQUE-BELGIË	355.7	100	10 239.1	100	1.0
BE1	RÉG. BRUXELLES-CAP -BRUSSELS HFDST. GEWEST	84.7	23.8	969.3	9.4	2.6
BE2	VLAAMS GEWEST	161.2	45.3	5 940.3	58.0	0.8
BE3	RÉGION WALLONNE	109.8	30.9	3 329.5	32.6	0.9
DK	DANMARK	180.2	100	5 339.0	100	1.0
D	DEUTSCHLAND	2 054.8	100	82 163.5	100	1.0
DE1	BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	234.6	11.4	10 475.9	12.0	0.9
DE2	BAYERN	253.0	12.3	12 155.0	14.9	0.8
DE3	BERLIN	140.3	7.1	3 396.7	4.1	1.7
DE4	BRANDENBURG	36.2	1.8	2 601.2	3.2	0.6
DE5	BREMEN	27.6	1.3	663.1	0.8	1.7
DE6	HAMBURG	70.4	3.4	1 704.7	2.1	1.7
DE7	HESSEN	150.2	7.7	6 052.0	7.4	1.1
DE8	MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	28.5	1.4	1 789.3	2.2	0.6
DE9	NIEDERSACHSEN	171.2	8.3	7 890.8	9.6	0.9
DEA	NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	582.8	28.4	17 996.8	21.0	1.3
DEB	RHEINLAND-PFALZ	97.2	4.7	4 030.8	4.9	1.0
DEC	SAARLAND	24.4	1.2	1 071.5	1.3	0.9
DED	SACHSEN	81.4	4.4	4 458.7	5.4	0.8
DEE	SACHSEN-ANHALT	41.9	2.0	2 048.7	2.2	0.8
DEF	SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	49.6	2.4	2 777.3	3.4	0.7
DEG	THURINGEN	40.6	2.0	2 449.1	3.0	0.7

KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE — 2002

(FIGURE F6B)

		ISCED 5 & 6 (1 000)	ISCED 5 & 6 / Population ISCED 5 & 6	Total population (1 000)	Population (%)	Rate (%)
EL	ELLADA	385.9	100	10 521.7	100	1.0
GR1	VOREIA ELLADA	127.0	32.9	3 407.5	32.4	1.0
GR2	KENTRIKI ELLADA	50.6	13.1	2 646.6	25.2	0.9
GR3	ATTIKI	186.7	49.1	3 449.5	32.8	1.5
GR4	NISIA AIGAIU, KRITI	18.6	4.8	1 018.0	9.7	0.5
E	ESPAÑA	1 829.8	92.3	39 733.8	100	0.9
ES1	NOROESTE	162.0	10.0	4 267.1	10.8	0.9
ES2	NORESTE	182.1	10.0	4 030.4	10.1	1.0
ES3	COMUNIDAD DE MADRID	291.2	15.9	5 111.8	12.9	1.2
ES4	CENTRO (E)	193.4	10.8	5 250.8	13.2	0.8
ES5	ESTE	431.0	23.6	10 927.3	27.5	0.9
ES6	SUR	348.2	19.0	8 463.5	21.3	0.9
ES7	CANARIAS	59.8	3.3	1 662.2	4.2	0.6
F	FRANCE	2 045.2	100	58 728.1	100	1.0
FR1	ILE DE FRANCE	529.2	25.9	11 088.2	18.9	1.4
FR2	BASSIN PARISIEN	254.9	12.5	10 529.6	17.9	0.7
FR3	NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	143.6	7.0	4 009.2	8.8	1.0
FR4	EST	184.1	8.0	5 151.5	8.8	0.9
FR5	OUEST	241.8	11.8	7 728.4	13.2	0.9
FR6	SUD-OUEST	209.6	10.2	6 155.4	10.5	1.0
FR7	CENTRE-EST	244.9	12.0	8 997.2	11.9	1.0
FR8	MEDITERRANEE	227.3	11.1	7 072.6	12.0	0.9
FR9	DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	29.8	1.5	1 636.2	2.8	0.5
IRL	IRELAND	160.6	100	3 776.6	100	1.0
IE01	BORDER, MIDLANDS and WESTERN	27.7	17.3	995.3	26.4	0.7
IE02	SOUTHERN and EASTERN	132.9	82.7	2 780.3	73.6	1.1
I	ITALIA	1 770.8	100	57 479.9	100	1.0
IT1	NORD OVEST	131.7	7.4	6 033.7	10.5	0.7
IT2	LOMBARDIA	240.0	13.6	8 065.4	15.7	0.9
IT3	NORD EST	167.3	9.5	6 633.1	11.5	0.8
IT4	EMEIA-ROMAGNA	183.9	9.3	3 981.1	6.9	1.3
IT5	CENTRO (I)	228.1	12.9	5 832.9	10.1	1.3
IT6	LAZIO	236.4	13.4	5 264.1	9.1	1.5
IT7	ABRUZZI-MOLISE	51.3	2.9	1 607.0	2.8	1.0
IT8	CAMPANIA	205.2	11.6	5 781.0	10.0	1.2
IT9	SUD	140.3	7.9	6 741.9	11.7	0.7
ITA	SICILIA	151.8	8.6	6 067.8	8.8	1.0
ITB	SARDEGNA	53.9	3.0	1 651.9	2.9	1.1
L	LUXEMBOURG	2.4	100	435.7	100	1.0
NL	NEDERLAND	474.4	100	15 804.0	100	1.0
NL1	NOORD-NEDERLAND	52.9	11.2	1 657.0	10.4	1.1
NL2	OOST-NEDERLAND	80.9	17.1	3 314.0	20.8	0.8
NL3	WEST-NEDERLAND	247.3	52.1	7 395.8	46.6	1.1
NL4	ZUID-NEDERLAND	93.2	19.7	3 497.2	22.0	0.9
A	ÖSTERREICH (AUSTRIA)	252.9	100	8 882.8	100	1.0
AT1	ÖSTÖSTERREICH	141.2	55.8	3 413.5	42.2	1.3
AT2	SÜDÖSTERREICH	55.9	22.1	1 767.7	21.9	1.0
AT3	WESTÖSTERREICH	85.0	25.7	2 901.6	26.9	0.7
P	PORTUGAL	373.7	100	18 262.9	100	1.0
FIN	SUOMI (FINLAND)	270.2	100	5 171.3	100	1.0
FI1	MANNER-SUOMI	209.9	89.0	5 145.6	99.5	1.0
FI3	ITÄ-SUOMI	28.2	10.4	686.2	13.3	0.8
FI4	VÄLI-SUOMI	32.9	12.5	702.5	13.6	0.9
FI15	POHJOIS-SUOMI	25.8	11.0	596.7	10.8	1.0
FI16	UUSIMAA	88.4	32.7	1 379.7	26.7	1.2
FI17	ETELÄ-SUOMI	89.8	33.2	1 620.6	36.2	0.9
FI2	AHVENANMAA/ÅLAND	0.3	0.1	25.7	0.5	0.2

(FIGURE F6B)

		ISCED 5 & 6 (1 000)	ISCED 5 & 6 Population ISCED 5 & 6	Total population (1 000)	Population (%)	Rate (%)
S	SVERIGE	2024.1	92.4	59617.5	85.6	1.0
SE01	STOCKHOLM	56.8	17.5	1762.2	19.0	0.9
SE02	ÖSTRA MELLANSVERIGE	84.7	4.2	2507.9	4.3	1.0
SE04	SYDSVERIGE	208.4	10.3	6895.2	11.6	0.9
SE06	NORRA MELLANSVERIGE	180.0	8.9	9059.4	8.5	1.0
SE07	MELLERSTA NORRLAND	121.7	6.0	4201.2	7.0	0.9
SE08	ÖVRE NORRLAND	157.5	7.6	5348.4	9.0	0.9
SE09	SMÅLAND MED ÖARNA	108.2	5.3	5430.0	9.1	0.8
SE0A	VÄSTVERIGE	397.0	14.7	7298.5	12.2	1.2
UK	UNITED KINGDOM	200.2	8.9	8095.9	13.6	0.7
UKC	NORTH EAST	123.3	6.1	4947.8	8.3	0.7
UKD	NORTH WEST (INCLUDING MERSEYSIDE)	96.6	4.8	2844.7	4.9	1.0
UKE	YORKSHIRE and THE HUMBER	239.7	11.8	5114.6	8.6	1.4
UKF	EAST MIDLANDS	53.2	2.6	1691.8	2.8	0.8
UKG	WEST MIDLANDS	2.4	100	435.7	100	1.0
UKH	EASTERN	474.4	100	15864.6	100	1.0
UKI	LONDON	52.6	11.2	1657.0	10.4	1.1
UKJ	SOUTH EAST	80.9	17.1	3314.0	20.9	0.8
UKK	SOUTH WEST	247.3	52.1	7366.8	46.6	1.1
UKL	WALES	83.2	19.7	3497.2	22.0	0.0
UKM	SCOTLAND	252.9	100	8082.8	100	1.0
UKN	NORTHERN IRELAND	141.2	55.8	3413.5	42.2	1.3
IS	ISLAND	9.7	100	279.0	100	1.0
LJ	LIECHTENSTEIN	0.5	100	32.4	100	1.0
NO	NORGE	190.9	100	4478.5	100	1.0
BG	BÄLGARIJA	281.3	100	8190.9	100	1.0
CZ	ČESKÁ REPUBLIKA	10.4	100	666.8	100	1.0
EE	EESTI	253.7	100	10278.1	100	1.0
CY	KYPROS	53.6	100	1371.8	100	1.0
LV	LATVIJA	307.1	100	10043.2	100	1.0
LT	LIETUVA	91.2	100	2379.9	100	1.0
HU	MAGYARORSZÁG	121.9	100	3698.5	100	1.0
MT	MALTA	6.3	100	380.2	100	1.0
PL	POLSKA	1578.6	100	38653.6	100	1.0
RO	ROMÂNIA	452.6	100	22455.5	100	1.0
SI	SLOVENIJA	135.0	100	5295.7	100	1.0
SK	SLOVENSKÁ REPUBLIKA	83.8	100	1887.6	100	1.0
AL	ALBANIE (National source)	85.1	100	3937.4	100	1.0
MK	FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA	36.9	100	2621.6	100	1.0

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

**DISTRIBUTION BY AGE OF FULL-TIME STUDENTS (ISCED 5-6) (MEDIAN AGE + CENTILE 15 AND CENTILE 85),
1999/2000**

(FIGURE F8)

(1 000)

	centile 15	median	centile 85
AL	19.1	21	23.3
MK	18.4	21.5	25.2

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: ISCED level 6 excluded

KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE – 2002

PARTICIPATION RATES IN TERTIARY EDUCATION (ISCED 5 AND 6), BY AGE AND BY SEX, 1999/2000

(Figure F9)

MEN

(% 000)

Age (years)	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
16	1.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)	0.1	0.1	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
17	20.7	0.5	0.0	0.6	(-)	(-)	0.2	1.8	(-)	(-)	3.3	0.0	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
18	345.4	18.3	0.1	2.7	53.6	58.9	83.8	9.5	11.3	(-)	14.3	1.3	9.7	0.2	0.1	81.7
19	562.1	24.9	0.9	14.9	49.4	82.6	133.3	12.0	74.4	(-)	23.1	4.1	16.5	4.4	5.2	110.0
20	639.1	26.2	3.0	47.1	42.1	96.2	143.1	10.8	81.3	(-)	27.2	7.3	19.7	8.2	3.8	117.2
21	823.0	23.3	5.6	74.2	32.5	151.0	129.2	6.6	90.6	(-)	29.6	8.7	20.1	11.8	12.6	85.2
22	554.6	18.9	7.2	95.8	6.2	90.7	113.7	5.6	78.4	(-)	28.5	8.9	16.0	13.1	14.0	50.1
23	490.1	12.9	8.3	94.4	7.0	91.0	82.4	3.4	75.0	(-)	25.0	9.9	14.6	12.9	14.2	38.3
24	411.9	0.4	9.2	93.3	4.5	89.6	57.9	2.5	69.7	(-)	19.4	9.7	11.8	11.5	12.9	31.2
25	374.3	6.0	6.5	91.1	3.9	53.1	40.0	1.8	60.8	(-)	14.3	39.0	9.4	6.9	10.7	20.8
26	259.2	4.1	7.2	82.0	2.4	35.1	24.1	1.4	48.6	(-)	9.6	x	7.0	6.7	8.6	24.5
27	216.5	3.4	6.0	75.0	1.5	26.4	18.5	1.2	36.0	(-)	7.0	x	5.2	5.7	7.1	23.1
28	179.8	2.8	4.5	65.8	1.8	20.5	13.6	1.0	28.6	(-)	6.4	x	4.2	4.6	5.6	21.9
29	143.7	2.3	3.3	54.0	1.2	15.9	11.0	0.8	16.4	(-)	4.3	x	3.3	3.9	4.9	20.3
30-34	526.2	13.6	9.2	168.2	1.6	51.1	66.0	7.7	41.6	(-)	13.4	20.0	10.2	14.3	17.2	61.9
35-39	246.7	2.0	3.9	61.7	0.1	25.5	x	x	43.3	(-)	0.2	7.9	5.4	8.3	9.0	71.5
>=40	101.1	0.4	4.2	38.6	0.0	13.7	x	x	(-)	(-)	1.6	7.9	5.8	10.5	3.1	15.4
Unknown	70.9	0.3	(-)	14.8	(-)	10.4	(-)	(-)	43.1	(-)	(-)	2.0	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)

Age (years)	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
16	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
17	(-)	(-)	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	(-)	x	(-)	0.0	0.0	(-)	(-)
18	0.0	(-)	0.1	6.9	8.2	2.3	0.3	2.8	5.3	7.4	0.0	2.3	19.4	0.6	6.5	1.0	1.0
19	0.0	(-)	2.1	12.4	16.5	3.0	0.5	4.0	8.0	15.0	0.3	62.6	32.9	4.7	9.5	1.5	3.0
20	0.3	(-)	5.8	13.3	18.9	2.8	0.8	4.0	7.0	10.7	0.5	92.4	31.3	5.3	9.9	2.9	2.8
21	0.4	(-)	7.0	14.6	18.4	2.7	0.7	3.3	6.4	10.8	0.5	93.7	30.5	5.0	9.9	3.1	2.2
22	0.4	(-)	8.3	14.3	16.6	2.4	0.6	3.0	4.8	16.8	0.4	87.9	26.7	4.2	9.1	2.5	1.9
23	0.4	(-)	8.3	12.3	13.4	1.8	0.5	2.3	3.7	13.6	0.2	79.6	21.2	3.5	6.4	2.0	1.6
24	0.4	(-)	7.6	8.6	9.6	1.4	0.3	2.0	2.6	10.5	0.2	66.6	14.6	2.5	3.8	1.8	1.2
25	0.3	(-)	6.4	7.5	6.9	1.1	0.7	1.5	1.9	8.4	0.1	35.9	11.2	1.9	2.6	0.0	0.8
26	0.3	(-)	5.3	5.2	4.6	2.6	x	1.3	1.6	3.8	0.1	22.9	7.0	1.3	1.8	0.3	0.6
27	0.2	(-)	4.1	3.5	3.1	x	x	1.2	1.2	3.8	0.1	15.6	6.3	1.0	1.4	0.2	0.3
28	0.1	(-)	3.1	2.7	2.2	x	x	1.0	1.0	3.8	0.1	11.4	4.3	0.8	0.9	0.1	0.3
29	0.1	(-)	2.5	2.2	1.5	x	x	0.7	0.9	3.8	0.1	8.7	3.5	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.2
30-34	0.3	(-)	7.9	3.3	7.8	1.3	x	2.5	2.1	17.3	0.5	47.8	5.2	2.3	1.9	0.1	0.5
35-39	0.2	(-)	4.2	1.7	(-)	0.8	x	1.2	0.9	(-)	(-)	x	6.0	1.4	1.3	0.1	0.3
>=40	0.1	(-)	3.3	0.4	0.0	x	x	0.4	0.2	0.0	(-)	x	(-)	0.1	0.0	0.0	(-)
Unknown	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	49.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	14.0

WOMEN

Age (years)	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
16	1.2	0.1	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)	0.1	0.1	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
17	34.4	0.6	0.0	6.2	(-)	(-)	9.5	2.0	(-)	(-)	5.1	0.0	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
18	467.4	26.7	0.1	22.6	57.4	85.2	117.7	12.7	14.7	(-)	18.3	4.5	12.9	0.2	0.2	94.2
19	758.4	33.0	1.0	68.5	51.7	134.6	172.6	14.4	102.1	(-)	29.0	9.2	21.6	6.4	7.7	129.5
20	823.0	32.8	3.8	90.7	43.4	128.1	174.9	13.1	109.5	(-)	32.8	10.2	25.4	12.1	13.4	130.0
21	760.7	26.4	7.6	96.5	30.7	126.0	152.9	10.1	110.1	(-)	32.6	10.0	26.0	14.4	15.5	91.4
22	620.3	18.9	10.1	93.2	8.0	115.1	127.3	5.9	105.8	(-)	28.0	8.8	23.5	15.6	17.0	55.1
23	526.3	11.5	11.7	88.0	6.4	96.7	87.3	3.3	90.0	(-)	21.5	9.7	18.9	13.8	16.0	40.6
24	419.6	7.1	12.5	76.5	4.3	70.4	60.2	2.3	87.2	(-)	15.4	9.2	15.4	11.1	14.2	33.8
25	359.5	4.7	10.8	66.9	3.5	51.7	41.0	1.7	73.5	(-)	10.3	32.4	12.2	9.1	11.8	29.9
26	243.2	3.6	8.5	56.6	2.0	31.1	28.8	1.5	52.6	(-)	7.0	x	9.1	6.3	9.5	27.7
27	194.6	2.7	6.8	47.6	1.4	23.2	20.4	1.3	38.9	(-)	5.3	x	6.8	5.4	6.3	26.5
28	157.0	2.2	5.0	41.3	1.4	17.3	15.0	1.1	27.8	(-)	3.9	x	5.4	4.6	7.1	24.8
29	126.8	1.7	3.6	35.2	0.7	13.7	11.4	0.8	19.4	(-)	3.3	x	4.2	4.1	5.9	22.7
30-34	477.6	10.5	11.1	110.6	0.3	41.0	73.3	8.1	42.7	(-)	10.5	13.9	13.1	15.6	23.8	100.0
35-39	259.2	1.5	6.6	47.8	0.0	19.9	x	x	43.1	(-)	7.7	6.0	7.0	10.7	18.8	90.1
>=40	116.8	0.4	8.3	30.8	(-)	11.2	x	x	(-)	(-)	1.5	7.2	7.6	15.7	7.9	26.3
Unknown	85.1	0.1	(-)	10.6	(-)	10.7	(-)	(-)	57.2	(-)	(-)	6.5	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)

Age (years)	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
16	(-)	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	(-)	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
17	(-)	(-)	(-)	1.5	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0	(-)	x	(-)	0.0	0.0	(-)	(-)
18	(-)	(-)	0.2	10.6	8.3	3.4	1.3	4.4	8.1	8.6	0.0	4.2	25.4	0.9	6.0	2.2	1.4
19	0.0	(-)	3.1	18.8	16.9	4.1	1.4	6.3	11.3	17.4	0.6	115.4	38.0	6.6	9.8	2.9	3.9
20	0.3	(-)	9.4	21.3	19.6	4.1	1.0	6.0	11.7	21.5	0.6	123.8	37.2	7.2	10.6	5.5	3.6
21	0.5	(-)	10.7	20.0	18.4	3.7	0.9	6.3	9.2	21.6	0.6	118.6	34.9	6.8	10.7	4.3	3.1
22	0.6	(-)	10.2	18.4	15.9	3.0	0.3	4.6	6.4	19.8	0.5	107.0	28.9	6.0	9.0	2.7	2.4
23	0.6	(-)	8.6	14.3	12.8	2.4	0.2	3.8	5.4	16.1	0.3	86.3	21.1	5.0	6.2	2.2	1.7
24	0.6	(-)	8.7	11.4	9.1	1.7	0.1	3.0	4.1	12.2	0.1	57.2	14.3	3.1	3.5	1.5	1.2
25	0.4	(-)	7.4	8.2	6.5	1.5	0.5	2.5	3.2	9.2	0.1	34.9	9.4	2.0	2.2	0.7	0.8
26	0.4	(-)	5.7	5.6	4.4	3.0	x	2.2	2.5	4.2	0.1	23.2	6.3	1.4	1.6	0.2	0.9
27	0.3	(-)	4.6	4.0	3.0	x	x	2.0	2.1	4.2	0.0	17.7	4.5	1.0	1.2	0.2	0.4
28	0.2	(-)	3.8	3.1	2.2	x	x	1.7	1.7	4.2	0.0	16.2	3.8	0.8	1.0	0.1	0.3
29	0.2	(-)	3.2	2.6	1.7	x	x	1.6	1.4	4.2	0.0	12.9	2.9	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.2
30-34	0.6	(-)	10.7	4.9	7.7	2.3	x	5.8	2.8	22.2	0.4	83.3	4.6	2.4	2.0	0.1	0.5
35-39	0.4	(-)	7.8	2.8	0.0	1.5	x	2.9	1.7	0.0	(-)	x	3.4	1.7	1.6	0.0	0.3
>=40	0.4	(-)	7.7	0.3	0.0	x	x	1.3	0.3	(-)	(-)	x	(-)	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.1
Unknown	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	79.6	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	16.2

MEN AND WOMEN																	
Age (years)	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
16	2.1	0.1	(-)	0.1	(-)	(-)	0.1	0.2	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.7	
17	55.1	1.2	0.0	6.9	(-)	(-)	15.6	3.6	(-)	(-)	8.3	0.1	2.7	0.1	0.0	16.6	
18	812.8	40.0	0.2	35.2	110.9	144.1	201.9	22.2	20.0	(-)	32.8	6.7	22.6	0.4	0.3	175.9	
19	1320.5	57.7	1.9	85.3	101.1	197.2	305.9	26.4	176.4	(-)	52.1	13.3	36.2	10.8	13.0	246.1	
20	1462.1	50.0	0.8	140.8	85.4	224.3	318.0	23.9	180.8	(-)	59.9	17.6	45.0	20.3	23.1	247.1	
21	1374.1	49.7	13.2	170.7	63.2	227.5	282.1	18.7	190.8	(-)	82.4	18.7	40.3	20.2	28.1	176.8	
22	1187.9	37.8	17.3	180.1	17.2	211.8	241.0	15.5	184.2	(-)	65.5	19.4	41.5	28.6	31.0	110.2	
23	1016.4	24.4	20.0	182.4	13.4	189.7	169.7	6.7	173.9	(-)	46.0	19.6	33.4	26.6	30.2	79.8	
24	831.4	15.5	21.7	169.8	0.9	140.0	118.2	4.7	157.0	(-)	34.8	18.9	27.2	22.6	27.1	65.0	
25	732.8	10.7	19.3	158.0	7.4	104.7	81.0	3.5	133.4	(-)	24.6	17.3	21.6	18.0	22.6	56.7	
26	502.4	7.7	15.7	137.5	-4.4	66.2	52.9	2.9	99.2	(-)	16.6	x	16.1	13.0	18.1	52.2	
27	411.1	6.2	12.6	122.6	3.2	49.6	38.9	2.4	74.9	(-)	12.3	x	12.0	11.1	15.5	49.6	
28	336.9	4.9	9.5	109.2	3.2	37.8	28.5	2.3	54.6	(-)	9.3	x	9.7	9.3	13.0	46.7	
29	270.5	4.1	6.9	89.3	1.9	29.7	22.4	1.6	37.7	(-)	7.6	x	7.4	8.0	10.8	43.1	
30-34	1003.8	24.1	20.3	278.8	1.8	82.1	139.3	16.8	84.3	(-)	23.6	39.9	23.3	29.9	41.1	194.0	
35-39	505.9	3.5	10.4	109.5	0.1	45.4	x	x	86.5	(-)	15.9	13.9	12.4	19.0	27.8	161.5	
>>40	217.9	0.7	12.4	69.4	0.0	24.9	x	x	(-)	(-)	3.1	10.1	13.4	26.2	11.0	41.6	
Unknown	157.8	0.3	(-)	25.2	(-)	21.1	(-)	(-)	100.3	2.4	(-)	8.4	(-)	0.0	(-)	(-)	

Age (years)	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
16	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.1	0.0	(-)	0.0	(-)	0.0	0.0	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
17	(-)	(-)	(-)	2.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.0	(-)	x	(-)	0.0	0.0	(-)	(-)
18	0.0	(-)	0.2	17.5	16.5	0.7	1.6	7.2	13.4	16.0	0.0	6.5	44.8	1.4	12.5	3.2	2.4
19	0.0	(-)	7.2	31.2	33.3	7.2	1.9	10.4	19.3	32.4	0.9	178.0	70.9	11.3	19.4	4.3	6.9
20	0.6	(-)	15.2	34.6	38.5	6.9	1.9	10.0	19.3	40.1	1.1	216.3	68.5	12.5	20.6	8.3	6.4
21	1.0	(-)	18.4	34.6	36.8	6.4	1.8	8.9	15.6	40.6	1.1	212.4	65.4	11.8	20.6	7.4	8.3
22	1.1	(-)	18.8	32.6	32.5	6.4	0.9	7.7	11.3	36.8	0.9	194.9	55.6	10.3	16.6	8.1	4.3
23	1.1	(-)	17.9	26.6	25.0	4.1	0.6	6.1	9.1	29.7	0.5	175.9	42.4	8.6	12.6	4.3	3.2
24	1.0	(-)	16.3	21.0	18.7	3.0	0.4	6.0	6.7	22.7	0.3	113.8	29.0	8.7	7.3	3.6	2.4
25	0.6	(-)	13.8	15.7	13.4	2.8	1.2	4.0	5.1	17.8	0.2	70.8	20.6	3.9	4.7	1.3	1.7
26	0.6	(-)	11.0	10.8	9.1	6.2	x	3.5	4.1	8.0	0.1	46.1	13.3	2.7	3.5	0.5	1.1
27	0.5	(-)	8.7	7.5	6.0	x	x	3.1	3.4	8.0	0.1	33.2	9.8	2.0	2.6	0.3	0.7
28	0.3	(-)	7.0	5.8	4.4	x	x	2.6	2.8	8.0	0.1	27.6	8.0	1.6	1.9	0.2	0.6
29	0.3	(-)	5.6	4.8	3.2	x	x	2.3	2.3	8.0	0.1	21.6	6.3	1.3	1.5	0.1	0.4
30-34	0.6	(-)	16.6	8.3	16.3	3.7	x	8.3	4.9	39.5	0.9	141.2	8.8	4.7	3.9	0.2	0.9
35-39	0.5	(-)	12.0	4.5	0	2.3	x	4.1	2.6	0.0	(-)	x	8.4	3.1	2.8	0.1	0.5
>>40	0.5	(-)	11.0	0.7	(-)	x	x	1.7	0.5	x	(-)	x	(-)	0.2	0.1	0.0	(-)
Unknown	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	129.7	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	30.2

Source: Eurostat. UOE: population statistics.

Additional notes: See Figure(a)

TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS IN 'SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTING' AND 'ENGINEERING, MANUFACTURING AND CONSTRUCTION' AS A PROPORTION OF ALL TERTIARY LEVEL STUDENTS, 1999/2000

(Figure F.10)

(1 000)

MEN AND WOMEN												
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	
Total Science and Technology	2642.1	74.6	38.3	587.2	(-)	525.1	(-)	45.3	433.2	0.4	80.0	
Science	1170.0	32.7	19.3	261.8	(-)	229.8	(-)	27.1	135.2	0.2	28.8	
Life sciences	265.0	8.8	4.2	48.0	(-)	37.1	(-)	x	63.2	(-)	5.6	
Physical sciences	307.8	4.9	2.6	86.3	(-)	65.9	(-)	x	25.7	(-)	8.4	
Mathematics and statistics	137.0	2.0	4.8	39.0	(-)	22.7	(-)	x	26.3	(-)	1.7	
Computing	411.1	17.0	6.6	86.3	(-)	104.0	(-)	x	20.0	0.1	12.9	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	1471.8	61.8	19.0	325.7	(-)	295.3	(-)	18.2	297.9	0.2	52.2	
Engineering and engineering trades	952.3	28.0	11.5	185.8	(-)	197.4	(-)	x	209.9	0.1	32.2	
Manufacturing and processing	70.6	3.2	1.1	14.8	(-)	11.8	(-)	x	8.9	(-)	2.4	
Architecture and building	428.3	10.7	6.5	125.1	(-)	86.0	(-)	x	79.1	0.1	17.8	
	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	
Total Science and Technology	73.9	102.2	97.9	106.0	477.4	1.7	(-)	26.9	64.5	74.5	11.4	
Science	33.5	25.2	20.6	39.7	268.9	1.1	(-)	14.0	12.1	33.7	4.0	
Life sciences	9.0	4.8	4.1	7.4	92.8	0.3	(-)	1.7	1.7	4.4	0.7	
Physical sciences	6.9	0.1	7.7	7.1	82.2	0.2	(-)	1.6	4.0	5.8	1.0	
Mathematics and statistics	3.4	5.3	3.9	8.0	20.7	0.0	(-)	0.3	1.7	2.1	0.4	
Computing	12.1	17.0	12.6	17.1	103.2	0.6	(-)	10.5	4.2	21.5	1.9	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	40.4	67.0	69.2	66.3	178.4	0.6	(-)	13.0	52.4	40.8	7.4	
Engineering and engineering trades	20.3	37.0	55.3	54.8	119.9	0.3	(-)	9.8	41.7	22.1	4.1	
Manufacturing and processing	3.4	5.3	4.6	1.9	13.5	0.1	(-)	0.2	4.8	5.1	0.9	
Architecture and building	16.7	24.7	8.1	9.6	45.0	0.1	(-)	3.0	5.9	13.7	2.4	
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
Total Science and Technology	1.8	15.1	33.4	65.7	0.7	264.8	124.2	19.7	38.1	3.3	12.0	
Science	1.2	5.8	9.1	11.3	0.3	71.7	25.3	4.2	9.9	0.7	4.2	
Life sciences	(-)	0.6	0.7	1.6	(-)	20.8	12.2	0.8	1.4	0.4	0.5	
Physical sciences	0.2	1.5	1.8	3.4	0.2	17.4	(-)	1.0	2.2	0.9	1.7	
Mathematics and statistics	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	(-)	14.8	13.1	0.3	1.2	0.0	0.6	
Computing	0.8	2.9	3.2	5.6	0.2	18.7	(-)	2.1	5.1	0.3	1.1	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	0.7	9.3	27.3	54.4	0.4	213.1	89.0	10.5	28.2	2.6	7.8	
Engineering and engineering trades	0.5	6.5	15.9	42.2	0.3	140.5	66.0	10.0	18.2	1.4	4.7	
Manufacturing and processing	(-)	1.0	3.2	3.9	(-)	23.9	29.7	1.9	3.6	0.3	1.6	
Architecture and building	0.2	1.8	8.1	8.4	0.2	39.7	3.3	0.5	6.4	0.9	1.5	

WOMEN

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL
Total Science and Technology	778.6	17.4	11.8	144.5	()	163.8	()	18.6	148.7	()	13.0
Science	490.6	9.7	6.5	114.4	()	88.7	()	12.4	68.3	()	6.7
Life sciences	172.2	4.5	2.4	27.3	()	23.3	()	x	39.0	()	2.8
Physical sciences	118.7	1.8	1.0	28.1	()	32.6	()	x	9.6	()	1.8
Mathematics and statistics	62.9	0.7	1.5	16.3	()	11.6	()	x	15.9	()	0.5
Computing	82.8	2.7	1.2	12.7	()	23.2	()	x	3.7	()	1.6
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	325.0	7.7	5.3	60.1	()	75.1	()	3.2	78.4	()	6.3
Engineering and engineering trades	143.7	3.3	2.6	14.3	()	40.5	()	x	34.9	()	1.7
Manufacturing and processing	28.4	0.4	0.7	5.0	()	4.5	()	x	5.2	()	1.4
Architecture and building	150.1	4.0	1.7	40.8	()	30.0	()	x	30.3	()	3.2

	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
Total Science and Technology	18.5	34.1	24.1	36.7	150.3	0.6	()	7.8	26.8	18.0	3.5
Science	11.0	14.4	13.8	17.9	118.8	0.5	()	4.6	6.8	7.5	1.5
Life sciences	5.7	3.2	2.9	4.7	56.3	0.2	()	0.9	1.0	2.6	0.5
Physical sciences	2.5	4.5	3.4	3.1	31.3	0.1	()	0.5	2.6	1.9	0.4
Mathematics and statistics	0.8	3.0	1.4	3.4	7.5	0.0	()	0.1	0.9	0.9	0.2
Computing	2.0	3.6	3.9	6.6	23.6	0.2	()	3.0	2.1	2.1	0.4
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	7.5	19.7	12.3	18.8	31.8	0.1	()	3.2	20.2	10.6	2.0
Engineering and engineering trades	1.9	8.1	7.7	14.1	14.5	0.0	()	2.1	15.4	4.2	0.9
Manufacturing and processing	0.9	2.9	2.0	0.7	4.8	0.0	()	0.1	2.4	3.0	0.9
Architecture and building	4.6	8.7	2.3	4.0	12.3	0.0	()	1.0	2.4	3.3	0.6

	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Total Science and Technology	0.6	5.1	11.2	14.3	0.2	81.1	40.5	9.2	10.6	1.1	4.8
Science	0.5	2.7	2.6	3.4	0.1	38.9	15.7	1.3	3.2	0.5	2.4
Life sciences	()	0.6	0.5	0.9	()	15.4	9.0	0.6	1.0	0.3	0.4
Physical sciences	0.1	0.8	0.7	1.4	0.1	10.0	()	0.4	0.9	0.0	1.0
Mathematics and statistics	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.3	()	9.8	6.7	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.5
Computing	0.2	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.0	3.7	()	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.4
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	0.1	2.5	8.5	10.6	0.1	44.3	25.1	3.9	7.4	0.6	2.2
Engineering and engineering trades	0.0	1.5	3.1	5.9	0.0	22.2	17.1	1.3	3.9	0.3	0.8
Manufacturing and processing	0.0	0.5	2.4	2.2	()	10.9	6.8	1.4	1.5	0.1	0.8
Architecture and building	0.1	0.5	3.0	2.7	0.1	11.2	1.8	1.2	2.0	0.2	0.6

MEN

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL
Total Science and Technology	1685.1	57.1	26.5	442.8	()	367.3	()	20.7	286.3	()	67.7
Science	719.6	22.9	12.8	177.1	()	141.1	()	14.7	69.9	()	21.8
Life sciences	112.8	4.2	1.8	20.7	()	13.8	()	x	24.1	()	2.8
Physical sciences	188.1	3.1	1.7	58.2	()	33.4	()	x	16.0	()	6.5
Mathematics and statistics	74.9	1.3	3.3	22.7	()	11.1	()	x	10.4	()	1.2
Computing	326.2	14.3	6.4	75.6	()	82.8	()	x	16.3	()	11.3
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	1145.6	34.2	13.7	265.6	()	220.2	()	15.0	219.5	()	45.9
Engineering and engineering trades	600.5	24.7	8.9	171.5	()	156.9	()	x	175.0	()	30.5
Manufacturing and processing	42.4	2.8	0.3	9.8	()	7.3	()	x	3.7	()	1.0
Architecture and building	278.1	6.7	3.8	84.3	()	56.0	()	x	40.8	()	14.4

	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
Total Science and Technology	55.4	68.1	73.7	69.3	327.0	1.1	()	19.2	37.8	56.5	7.9
Science	32.3	20.0	16.8	21.8	180.2	0.7	()	8.4	5.6	26.3	2.5
Life sciences	3.3	1.6	1.2	2.7	36.6	0.1	()	0.7	0.7	1.8	0.2
Physical sciences	6.4	3.6	4.2	4.0	50.9	0.1	()	1.0	2.0	3.9	0.6
Mathematics and statistics	2.5	2.3	2.5	4.6	13.1	0.0	()	0.2	0.8	1.2	0.2
Computing	10.2	13.4	8.7	10.5	79.6	0.5	()	7.5	2.1	18.4	1.5
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	32.9	47.3	56.9	47.5	146.9	0.4	()	9.7	32.2	20.2	5.4
Engineering and engineering trades	18.4	28.9	47.8	40.7	105.4	0.3	()	7.6	26.3	17.8	3.3
Manufacturing and processing	2.6	2.4	2.5	1.2	8.7	0.0	()	0.1	2.4	2.0	0.4
Architecture and building	12.0	16.0	9.9	5.8	32.7	0.1	()	2.0	3.5	10.4	1.8

	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Total Science and Technology	1.3	9.9	22.2	31.5	0.5	201.7	83.5	14.5	27.5	2.3	7.4
Science	0.7	3.1	3.5	7.9	0.2	32.8	9.6	2.9	6.7	0.3	1.8
Life sciences	()	0.3	0.2	0.7	()	5.4	3.2	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.1
Physical sciences	0.1	0.7	0.9	2.0	0.1	7.5	()	0.6	1.2	0.0	0.7
Mathematics and statistics	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	()	4.9	6.4	0.2	0.7	()	0.3
Computing	0.5	2.0	2.1	4.8	0.1	15.0	()	2.0	4.4	0.2	0.7
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	0.6	6.8	18.7	43.8	0.3	168.9	73.9	11.8	20.8	2.0	5.6
Engineering and engineering trades	0.5	5.0	12.8	36.2	0.2	127.3	45.9	8.7	14.3	1.1	3.9
Manufacturing and processing	0.0	0.5	0.8	1.7	()	13.1	23.0	0.5	2.1	0.2	0.8
Architecture and building	0.1	1.3	5.1	5.6	0.1	28.5	2.0	2.4	4.5	0.7	0.8

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure 3(a)

Albania and FYR of Macedonia: Excludes advanced research programmes (ISCED level 6).

NUMBER OF GIRLS AND BOYS (ISCED 5 AND 6) ENROLLED IN DIFFERENT FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING, 1999/2000

(FIGURES F 11)

(1 000)

TOTAL ALL FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	4797.3	169.9	81.5	1066.1	()	860.8	()	73.7	787.3	()	244.0	149.1	162.5	125.1	144.0	932.3	
Women	5354.5	186.0	107.7	958.7	()	958.2	()	86.9	982.7	()	243.6	140.6	211.2	145.1	202.0	1091.9	
Total	10161.8	355.9	189.2	2024.8	()	1829.0	()	160.6	1770.0	2.4	487.6	289.7	373.7	270.2	346.9	2024.1	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	3.7	()	79.4	111.7	129.3	22.3	4.5	33.4	40.8	138.0	2.9	670.5	215.0	36.6	67.4	16.1	16.6
Women	6.0	()	111.6	149.7	124.4	31.3	5.9	37.9	73.1	167.7	3.4	908.8	234.6	47.0	58.5	24.0	20.3
Total	9.7	()	190.9	261.3	253.7	53.6	10.4	71.2	121.9	305.7	6.3	1579.6	452.6	83.8	125.9	40.1	36.9
EDUCATION																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	211.9	12.4	6.5	48.9	()	36.2	()	1.4	19.8	()	17.2	10.5	10.8	2.9	10.1	38.3	
Women	604.4	27.8	14.3	110.5	()	134.0	()	5.1	78.9	()	46.7	21.8	42.9	11.9	30.4	95.9	
Total	816.3	40.1	20.8	159.4	()	151.0	()	6.6	96.7	0.5	63.9	32.1	53.7	14.8	43.5	133.8	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.2	()	7.9	6.4	8.3	0.7	0.1	2.8	3.8	13.4	0.5	51.4	2.4	1.8	6.5	3.6	1.0
Women	1.3	()	25.5	21.4	22.2	4.1	1.3	15.0	15.6	37.2	1.0	148.4	2.0	7.2	16.9	11.1	2.7
Total	1.6	()	33.1	27.8	30.4	4.8	1.4	17.8	19.4	50.8	1.5	199.8	5.4	9.0	23.4	14.7	3.7
HUMANITIES AND ARTS																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	472.8	15.8	11.7	124.7	()	73.9	()	9.2	67.0	()	16.0	10.5	8.8	11.4	15.4	108.5	
Women	906.5	23.2	21.4	215.1	()	121.1	()	18.1	214.0	()	22.2	23.8	20.1	26.0	29.2	172.3	
Total	1379.3	39.0	33.1	339.8	()	194.9	()	27.3	281.1	0.3	38.1	34.3	28.9	37.4	44.6	280.8	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.5	()	3.9	7.3	8.5	1.7	0.2	1.4	2.7	10.0	0.3	43.0	17.0	1.6	3.8	1.0	1.3
Women	1.0	()	8.4	16.1	12.3	4.6	0.7	5.6	7.4	17.3	0.4	101.3	32.1	4.2	4.5	2.3	3.4
Total	1.5	()	10.3	23.4	20.8	6.3	0.9	7.0	10.1	27.3	0.6	144.2	49.1	5.8	8.4	3.3	4.7
SOCIAL SCIENCES, BUSINESS AND LAW																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	1497.7	56.8	23.3	310.8	()	286.4	()	13.4	313.9	()	106.4	57.9	53.8	24.2	35.3	215.8	
Women	1708.7	62.6	21.0	242.4	()	367.5	()	18.3	398.0	()	89.5	57.8	78.4	36.6	53.0	259.4	
Total	3206.4	119.2	44.3	553.3	()	674.0	()	32.7	712.9	1.1	196.0	115.8	133.0	62.7	88.3	475.2	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	1.4	()	24.3	40.3	26.2	8.8	1.5	15.6	12.9	46.0	1.1	359.9	76.3	13.3	14.9	7.5	3.0
Women	1.8	()	28.0	64.9	33.6	13.1	2.1	27.2	24.6	66.7	1.1	421.6	113.5	21.9	19.8	6.7	6.0
Total	3.3	()	52.3	105.2	59.8	21.9	3.7	42.8	37.5	114.8	2.2	681.5	189.7	35.2	34.7	14.2	9.0
SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTING																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	719.5	22.9	12.8	177.1	()	141.1	()	14.7	66.9	()	21.8	22.5	20.8	16.8	21.8	160.2	
Women	450.6	9.7	6.5	84.4	()	88.7	()	12.4	88.3	()	6.7	11.0	14.4	11.8	17.9	118.8	
Total	1170.1	32.7	19.3	261.6	()	229.8	()	27.1	155.2	0.2	28.6	33.5	35.2	28.6	39.7	279.9	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.7	()	9.4	5.6	25.3	2.5	0.7	3.1	3.5	7.9	0.2	32.8	9.6	2.9	6.7	0.3	1.8
Women	0.6	()	4.6	6.6	7.5	1.5	0.5	2.7	2.6	3.4	0.1	38.9	15.7	1.3	3.2	0.5	2.4
Total	1.1	()	14.0	12.1	32.7	4.0	1.2	5.8	6.1	11.3	0.3	71.7	25.3	4.2	9.9	0.7	4.2
ENGINEERING, MANUFACTURING AND CONSTRUCTION																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	1145.6	34.2	13.7	265.6	()	220.2	()	15.0	219.5	()	45.8	32.9	47.3	56.8	47.5	146.9	
Women	326.0	7.7	5.3	60.1	()	75.1	()	3.2	78.4	()	6.3	7.5	19.7	12.3	16.8	31.6	
Total	1471.6	41.9	19.0	325.7	()	295.3	()	18.2	297.9	0.2	52.2	40.4	67.0	69.2	66.3	178.4	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.4	()	9.7	32.2	30.2	5.4	0.6	6.8	18.7	43.5	0.3	168.9	73.9	11.6	20.8	2.0	5.5
Women	0.1	()	3.2	20.2	10.6	2.0	0.1	2.5	8.5	10.8	0.1	44.3	25.1	3.9	7.4	0.6	2.2
Total	0.6	()	13.0	52.4	40.8	7.4	0.7	9.3	27.3	54.4	0.4	213.1	99.0	15.5	28.2	2.6	7.8
AGRICULTURE AND VETERINARY																	
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	107.4	4.5	1.7	16.7	()	33.2	()	1.2	21.9	()	5.7	2.8	5.2	3.5	1.5	9.9	
Women	91.7	3.5	1.9	13.9	()	26.8	()	0.8	15.8	()	4.1	3.1	6.3	3.0	1.7	11.1	
Total	199.1	8.0	3.6	30.6	()	60.0	()	1.9	37.7	()	9.8	5.6	11.5	6.4	3.2	21.0	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.1	()	1.1	3.3	5.4	0.7	0.0	0.9	1.9	6.5	0.0	15.9	10.5	1.3	3.8	0.7	1.7
Women	0.0	()	1.0	2.4	4.7	0.6	0.0	0.7	3.4	5.5	0.0	19.1	7.4	1.4	2.1	0.3	1.2
Total	0.1	()	2.1	5.7	10.1	1.3	0.0	1.7	5.3	12.0	0.0	35.0	17.9	2.6	6.0	1.0	2.8

HEALTH AND WELFARE

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	300.9	20.2	9.0	97.9	()	41.1	()	3.1	74.4	()	20.6	10.0	7.4	6.3	10.8	59.9	
Women	943.2	46.1	26.4	236.3	()	116.1	()	9.2	117.7	()	60.0	14.1	20.9	21.9	46.3	206.2	
Total	1304.1	66.3	45.4	334.2	()	157.3	()	12.3	192.2	()	80.6	24.1	28.2	28.3	57.1	266.2	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.3	()	5.9	5.7	8.3	0.7	0.2	0.8	2.0	6.5	0.5	11.1	32.4	1.3	4.1	0.9	1.1
Women	1.1	()	24.5	11.0	23.3	4.0	0.6	3.1	8.2	18.2	0.8	24.8	20.8	4.5	10.4	2.3	2.4
Total	1.4	()	30.5	16.7	31.6	4.8	0.8	3.8	10.2	24.6	1.3	35.9	33.0	6.1	14.5	3.2	3.5

SERVICES

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	60.8	3.1	2.7	21.6	()	26.5	()	2.2	6.2	()	6.0	2.2	7.7	3.2	2.3	()	
Women	101.4	3.3	1.0	25.1	()	36.6	()	3.2	7.1	()	6.7	1.0	7.5	7.5	3.3	()	
Total	162.2	6.4	3.7	46.7	()	63.1	()	5.4	13.3	()	11.7	3.4	15.2	10.7	5.6	()	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.0	()	4.9	10.6	4.7	1.7	1.1	1.9	3.3	4.2	0.0	38.0	7.0	3.1	6.8	0.2	1.2
Women	0.1	()	2.5	7.0	3.5	1.4	0.7	1.1	2.7	6.4	0.0	30.6	7.5	2.4	4.1	0.2	1.0
Total	0.2	()	7.3	17.6	8.2	3.2	1.8	3.0	6.0	10.7	0.0	68.6	14.5	5.4	10.9	0.5	2.2

NOT KNOWN OR UNSPECIFIED

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	197.7	0.1	0.0	3.7	()	2.1	()	14.9	0.6	()	4.4	0.2	()	0.0	0.2	172.9	
Women	221.2	0.1	0.0	1.0	()	1.7	()	17.6	2.5	()	2.6	0.3	()	0.0	0.5	194.9	
Total	418.9	0.2	0.0	3.7	()	3.9	()	32.1	3.1	()	6.9	0.5	()	0.0	0.7	367.8	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	()	()	12.5	0.2	11.5	()	0.1	()	()	()	()	49.8	6.0	()	()	()	()
Women	()	()	15.8	0.2	6.9	()	0.0	()	()	()	()	79.8	10.9	()	()	()	()
Total	()	()	28.3	0.3	18.4	()	0.1	()	()	()	()	129.7	16.9	()	()	()	()

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania and FYR of Macedonia: Excludes advanced research programmes (ISCED level 6).

NUMBER OF GRADUATES PER FIELD OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING (ISCED 5 AND 6), 2000

(FIGURES F14, F15 AND F16)

(1 000)

TOTAL ALL FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	960.7	30.1	13.8	150.0	()	111.0	223.0	18.9	83.7	()	36.4	13.1	20.4	15.2	17.7	227.3	
Women	1 182.8	38.1	18.4	192.1	()	149.2	277.1	23.1	106.6	()	43.0	11.9	36.0	22.8	24.7	276.8	
Total	2 143.5	68.2	33.2	342.1	()	260.2	500.1	42.0	190.3	()	79.4	25.0	56.5	38.1	42.4	504.1	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.6	()	12.0	16.0	17.1	2.4	0.9	5.9	9.4	26.8	1.0	123.6	32.3	4.9	10.2	1.6	1.5
Women	1.1	()	18.0	30.1	21.3	4.7	1.7	8.7	15.8	33.1	1.0	226.4	35.7	6.6	12.5	3.2	2.3
Total	1.8	()	29.9	46.7	38.4	7.0	2.6	15.3	25.2	59.9	2.0	350.0	67.9	11.5	22.7	4.7	3.9

EDUCATION

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	49.1	3.0	1.1	6.8	()	6.7	9.2	0.5	1.9	()	3.0	1.0	1.7	0.4	1.6	32.9	
Women	149.0	7.5	2.5	21.4	()	24.3	20.0	2.0	7.8	()	9.5	3.4	6.8	1.9	5.8	33.2	
Total	198.1	10.5	3.6	27.3	()	31.0	29.1	2.6	9.7	()	12.5	4.4	10.6	2.3	7.4	46.1	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.0	()	1.3	0.6	1.0	0.1	0.0	1.0	0.7	4.1	0.2	11.0	0.8	0.2	1.1	0.4	0.1
Women	0.4	()	4.7	3.9	2.9	0.6	0.4	2.9	3.2	10.4	0.4	41.1	0.4	1.1	3.3	1.5	0.4
Total	0.4	()	5.9	4.6	3.9	0.6	0.4	3.9	3.9	14.4	0.6	52.1	1.2	1.3	4.4	1.9	0.5

HUMANITIES AND ARTS

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	43.2	2.7	1.2	10.5	()	8.7	18.5	2.4	5.8	()	2.3	0.8	1.5	1.0	0.9	26.9	
Women	178.1	4.7	2.8	21.3	()	14.3	52.4	4.2	23.3	()	3.4	1.0	3.1	2.0	1.5	43.3	
Total	261.3	7.5	4.0	31.8	()	22.9	70.9	6.6	29.0	()	5.7	1.8	4.7	3.9	2.4	70.2	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.1	()	0.8	1.0	1.1	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.5	1.3	0.1	5.6	2.8	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.1
Women	0.2	()	1.3	2.6	1.7	0.6	0.1	0.9	1.8	2.8	0.1	10.8	5.6	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5
Total	0.2	()	2.1	3.6	2.8	0.7	0.2	1.1	2.4	4.2	0.2	24.4	8.3	0.7	1.4	0.5	0.6

SOCIAL SCIENCES, BUSINESS AND LAW

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	264.8	9.5	4.5	35.4	()	35.0	69.5	5.5	31.4	()	14.2	3.4	7.6	2.9	3.7	62.3	
Women	379.3	11.3	3.7	26.9	()	56.2	117.7	7.6	30.1	()	13.3	3.5	14.0	5.9	5.1	76.2	
Total	644.1	20.8	8.3	62.3	()	91.2	187.2	13.0	61.4	()	27.4	6.9	21.6	8.8	8.8	138.4	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.2	()	3.8	7.1	5.1	1.0	0.4	2.1	2.5	10.8	0.3	4.0	11.6	1.7	2.7	0.6	0.3
Women	0.3	()	3.9	15.4	7.5	2.2	0.7	4.2	5.0	12.9	0.3	6.6	16.6	3.1	3.8	0.7	0.5
Total	0.6	()	7.7	22.5	12.5	3.1	1.1	6.3	7.4	23.6	0.6	10.7	28.2	4.8	6.3	1.3	0.8

SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTING

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	169.6	3.5	1.0	19.1	()	15.2	44.2	4.5	7.1	()	3.1	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.2	44.7	
Women	105.6	1.5	0.9	8.8	()	11.3	31.8	4.5	8.7	()	1.2	0.7	1.5	1.2	2.0	31.7	
Total	265.2	5.0	2.4	27.9	()	26.5	76.1	9.1	15.8	()	4.2	1.9	3.2	2.6	4.1	76.4	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.1	()	1.7	0.6	3.1	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.1	4.1	1.5	0.2	1.0	0.0	0.1
Women	0.1	()	0.8	1.2	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.0	7.5	2.8	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.2
Total	0.2	()	2.5	1.8	4.2	0.4	0.2	1.0	1.2	1.4	0.1	11.7	4.2	0.4	1.4	0.1	0.3

ENGINEERING, MANUFACTURING AND CONSTRUCTION

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	239.7	6.2	2.5	43.6	()	29.3	61.3	4.5	21.3	()	7.2	4.8	4.7	7.0	6.6	40.3	
Women	60.8	1.7	1.1	8.5	()	9.2	14.1	0.9	9.2	()	1.0	0.8	2.5	1.7	2.2	8.9	
Total	300.5	7.9	3.6	52.2	()	38.5	75.4	5.4	29.7	()	8.3	5.6	7.1	8.7	8.8	49.2	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.1	()	1.8	3.8	3.7	0.6	0.1	1.2	3.5	4.6	0.1	20.9	9.6	1.8	2.3	0.2	0.6
Women	0.0	()	0.5	2.5	1.4	0.3	0.0	0.2	1.8	1.2	0.0	6.7	3.2	0.5	1.0	0.1	0.3
Total	0.1	()	2.4	6.3	5.2	0.9	0.2	1.4	5.3	5.8	0.1	27.6	12.9	2.3	3.3	0.2	0.9

AGRICULTURE AND VETERINARY

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	20.1	0.0	0.4	5.0	()	3.6	1.4	0.3	2.3	()	1.2	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3	3.0	
Women	15.0	0.5	0.3	2.3	()	3.0	1.6	0.2	1.6	()	0.7	0.3	0.8	0.4	0.4	3.0	
Total	35.0	1.3	0.7	7.3	()	6.6	3.0	0.6	3.9	()	2.0	0.9	1.4	0.8	0.7	6.0	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.0	()	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	1.2	0.0	2.7	1.4	0.1	0.8	0.0	0.1
Women	()	()	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.0	3.6	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.1
Total	0.0	()	0.4	0.9	1.4	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.9	2.1	0.0	6.2	2.3	0.3	0.9	0.1	0.2

HEALTH AND WELFARE

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	81.5	3.8	1.6	23.9	()	7.0	9.6	0.6	13.6	()	4.4	0.8	1.7	1.2	1.9	13.4	
Women	233.2	10.1	8.0	56.0	()	23.4	28.8	2.8	16.7	()	12.7	1.6	6.1	7.4	7.2	50.6	
Total	316.8	13.9	9.6	79.9	()	30.4	38.4	3.4	32.2	()	17.1	2.4	7.8	8.6	9.0	64.0	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	0.0	()	1.2	1.1	1.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	1.3	0.1	1.9	2.1	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.1
Women	0.2	()	5.4	2.8	5.3	0.5	0.2	0.7	2.3	3.0	0.2	4.0	3.1	1.0	2.6	0.4	0.3
Total	0.2	()	6.6	4.0	6.7	0.6	0.3	0.8	2.8	4.3	0.3	5.9	5.2	1.2	3.1	0.5	0.4

SERVICES

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	25.0	0.6	0.6	6.2	()	5.4	6.7	0.6	0.2	()	1.0	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.4	()	
Women	30.1	0.7	0.2	6.4	()	7.5	9.2	0.8	0.3	()	1.0	0.6	1.3	1.6	0.6	()	
Total	55.4	1.4	1.0	12.6	()	12.8	17.9	1.3	0.5	()	2.2	1.0	2.2	2.5	1.0	()	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	()	()	0.6	1.8	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.7	2.6	0.0	5.7	1.3	0.4	1.3	0.0	0.1
Women	()	()	0.5	1.2	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.6	1.4	0.0	5.9	1.4	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.1
Total	()	()	1.1	3.0	1.7	0.5	0.2	0.6	1.3	3.9	0.1	11.5	2.7	0.6	1.9	0.1	0.2

NOT KNOWN OR UNSPECIFIED

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
Men	24.5	0.0	0.0	0.4	()	0.1	0.5	0.0	()	()	()	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	23.7	
Women	31.4	0.0	0.0	0.6	()	0.1	0.6	0.1	()	()	()	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	30.0	
Total	56.2	0.0	0.0	0.9	()	0.1	1.2	0.1	()	()	()	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	53.8	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
Men	()	()	0.8	0.0	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	28.1	1.2	()	()	()	()
Women	()	()	0.7	0.0	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	55.1	1.7	()	()	()	()
Total	()	()	1.3	0.0	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	83.3	3.0	()	()	()	()

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure(a)

CHAPTER G: TEACHERS

TEACHERS AND TOTAL ACTIVE POPULATION: PRIMARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS (ISCED 1, 2 AND 3),
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000

(FIGURE G7)

[1 000]

	Teachers (full-time and part-time)	Teachers (full-time only)	Number of pupils in primary and secondary education	Total active population		Teachers (full-time and part-time)	Teachers (full-time only)	Number of pupils in primary and secondary education	Total active population
EU	4 501.4	3909.8	60 902.6	172819.0	IS	5.4	5.1	63.4	159.7
					LI	()	()	()	()
B	192.7	172.0	1 831.3	4410.5	NO	86.7	72.0	791.5	2352.7
DK	82.5	73.7	810.3	2843.5	BG	82.1	82.1	1 053.8	3428.4
D	817.6	677.9	11 963.1	39447.2	CZ	109.2	88.6	1 602.7	5124.1
EL	123.8	116.5	1 384.1	4437.4	EE	20.6	19.1	240.3	696.4
E	459.8	435.3	5 939.6	16803.9	CY	8.7	8.8	127.6	293.7
F	709.1	673.5	9 013.3	26057.3	LV	33.8	27.9	401.4	1129.0
IRL	47.7	44.4	787.9	1746.6	LT	51.0	40.6	639.3	1806.7
I	680.1	680.1	7 240.7	23475.1	HU	148.6	139.8	1 502.8	4674.0
L	5.0	4.8	57.4	185.2	MT	5.4	()	70.3	()
NL	227.6	177.6	2 057.8	8070.7	PL	814.3	622.5	7 315.4	17347.6
A	101.5	93.9	1 138.5	3884.3	RO	237.4	225.1	3 414.7	11713.6
P	152.7	()	1 642.2	5094.8	SI	23.3	22.1	305.1	960.0
FIN	82.0	80.0	878.5	2664.0	SK	72.5	66.9	981.1	2573.5
S	129.4	117.7	1 729.5	4363.9	AL	34.8	34.8	646.9	()
UK	710.0	582.4	12 930.4	29345.3	MK	19.7	18.6	348.6	811.8

Source: Eurostat, UOE and Labour force survey (2000).

Additional notes: See Figures 1.

Albania: Population: National source.

Fyr of Macedonia: Active population: data from National sources. Includes ISCED 4 teachers.

RATION OF PUPILS TO TEACHING STAFF IN PRIMARY (ISCED 1), IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY (ISCED 1, 2 AND 3),
LOWER SECONDARY (ISCED 2) AND UPPER SECONDARY (ISCED 3) EDUCATION, 1993/94 - 1999/2000

(FIGURE G8)

(%)

	ISCED 1, 2 AND 3																
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
1993/94	()	10.1	10.0	16.0	14.4	17.0	15.6	19.5	9.0	()	16.8	9.1	()	()	12.6	()	
1994/95	()	()	10.2	16.5	14.2	16.4	15.5	19.0	10.1	()	12.9	9.8	()	14.0	12.8	()	
1995/96	()	()	10.5	16.6	13.2	16.2	15.3	18.6	10.2	16.2	19.4	9.9	()	15.3	13.2	()	
1996/97	()	11.2	10.5	16.6	13.0	15.1	15.2	18.2	10.0	15.8	18.8	10.1	()	14.7	13.7	()	
1997/98	()	()	10.9	16.8	12.3	14.3	12.5	19.7	10.6	11.4	12.2	10.5	()	15.2	14.3	()	
1998/99	()	()	10.2	16.7	11.8	13.9	14.9	17.8	10.7	11.1	8.5	11.2	()	15.0	13.8	()	
1999/2000	()	12.1	9.8	16.1	11.8	13.1	14.6	17.7	10.5	11.9	17.0	()	()	15.0	13.4	()	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
1996/97	13.5	()	()	12.5	()	13.3	()	11.8	10.7	10.9	()	()	14.5	14.8	15.1	17.6	()
1997/98	14.3	()	8.3	13.0	()	13.9	()	13.6	12.5	10.8	()	16.6	14.6	14.6	15.1	()	18.4
1998/99	13.4	()	10.9	14.1	15.7	13.4	15.3	13.6	13.1	10.7	13.4	()	14.2	13.7	15.1	()	16.1
1999/2000	11.7	()	10.7	13.2	15.1	12.5	14.9	14.3	12.8	10.6	12.9	13.8	14.4	13.4	14.5	18.2	17.7
	ISCED 1																
	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
1993/94	()	15.0	11.0	20.4	16.5	19.2	19.6	24.3	10.2	()	16.7	11.9	()	()	12.5	()	
1994/95	()	()	11.1	20.7	16.1	17.8	19.5	23.4	11.0	()	14.8	12.6	()	x	12.8	()	
1995/96	()	()	11.3	20.9	15.0	18.0	19.5	22.8	11.2	15.1	20.0	12.7	()	x	12.7	()	
1996/97	()	14.8	10.6	21.2	13.9	17.0	19.6	22.2	11.2	15.4	19.6	12.7	()	17.8	13.2	()	
1997/98	()	()	10.4	21.6	13.6	16.0	18.4	25.9	10.9	13.2	13.6	12.7	()	17.7	13.4	()	
1998/99	()	()	9.4	21.0	13.5	15.4	19.6	21.6	11.3	12.5	16.6	14.5	()	17.4	13.2	()	
1999/2000	()	15.0	10.1	19.8	13.4	14.9	19.8	21.5	11.0	15.9	16.5	()	()	16.9	12.8	()	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
1996/97	12.0	()	()	16.7	()	16.4	()	16.1	12.1	12.9	()	()	19.6	14.3	19.7	22.8	()
1997/98	14.1	()	x	12.6	()	15.7	()	18.6	16.6	11.0	()	15.2	19.3	15.4	19.3	()	22.4
1998/99	13.3	()	x	17.9	20.5	16.0	18.4	18.2	16.7	10.9	19.8	()	16.7	14.2	19.6	()	22.1
1999/2000	12.7	()	x	16.8	19.7	14.9	18.1	18.0	16.7	10.9	19.1	12.7	x	13.4	18.3	22.6	21.5

ISCED 2

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRE	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
1993/94	()	x	9.0	13.6	14.1	16.2	13.7	x	8.0	()	16.9	8.3	()	()	10.9	()	
1994/95	()	()	9.4	13.8	13.5	17.5	13.8	x	10.0	()	10.8	9.0	()	13.8	11.4	()	
1995/96	()	()	9.3	15.0	12.5	17.8	13.4	x	10.1	11.8	18.5	9.2	()	15.0	12.2	()	
1996/97	()	x	10.2	16.2	12.2	16.4	13.2	x	10.0	10.8	25.0	9.2	()	10.3	12.1	()	
1997/98	()	()	11.1	16.3	11.4	x	10.3	x	9.9	10.0	14.7	9.3	()	11.0	13.2	()	
1998/99	()	()	9.1	16.4	10.5	x	12.9	x	10.3	9.9	x	9.8	()	10.6	13.3	()	
1999/2000	()	x	10.1	15.7	10.8	13.7	14.7	x	10.4	9.2	x	()	()	10.7	12.8	()	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
1996/97	x	()	()	10.8	()	10.2	()	10.1	10.0	9.7	()	()	11.0	14.4	13.1	14.9	()
1997/98	x	()	9.9	11.3	()	11.9	()	12.0	8.7	11.1	()	()	11.8	14.7	13.1	()	16.7
1998/99	x	()	11.4	13.4	13.3	12.1	x	12.0	9.1	10.9	8.7	()	12.2	14.1	13.5	()	10.4
1999/2000	x	()	11.1	12.1	14.7	11.2	x	12.7	10.0	10.9	9.0	11.5	15.0	13.8	13.5	15.8	15.9

ISCED 3

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRE	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
1993/94	()	8.0	9.7	12.0	11.8	14.8	x	16.1	8.9	()	16.5	7.8	()	()	14.6	()	
1994/95	()	()	9.9	13.0	12.3	14.8	x	16.0	9.8	()	x	8.2	()	14.5	14.7	()	
1995/96	()	()	10.7	13.1	11.7	14.2	x	15.9	9.0	x	x	8.5	()	16.0	15.2	()	
1996/97	()	x	10.7	13.1	12.5	13.1	x	15.6	9.4	x	x	8.8	()	15.7	16.0	()	
1997/98	()	()	11.6	12.1	11.6	13.2	x	15.9	10.8	x	24.6	9.7	()	16.4	17.0	()	
1998/99	()	()	13.0	12.4	10.7	12.0	12.7	15.9	10.2	x	17.7	10.0	()	16.6	15.6	()	
1999/2000	()	9.7	9.1	12.5	10.5	9.7	10.4	15.9	10.2	x	x	()	()	17.0	15.2	()	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
1996/97	15.3	()	()	10.9	()	10.1	()	9.4	x	10.7	()	()	14.6	15.6	14.0	14.0	()
1997/98	15.0	()	8.1	11.3	()	10.9	()	11.1	25.0	10.5	()	20.3	14.2	13.8	14.3	()	16.4
1998/99	13.5	()	9.7	11.6	11.0	10.6	13.0	11.9	29.3	10.3	()	()	13.0	12.8	13.8	()	16.3
1999/2000	9.7	()	9.8	11.6	11.5	10.1	12.7	13.3	21.9	9.9	16.8	16.9	12.9	13.1	12.8	15.8	16.2

Source: Eurostat.

NB: Only those years for which data are available are shown in this table.

Additional notes: See figure(s).

NUMBER OF PUPILS TO TEACHING STAFF IN PRIMARY (ISCED 1), IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY (ISCED 1, 2 AND 3), LOWER SECONDARY (ISCED 2) AND UPPER SECONDARY (ISCED 3) EDUCATION, 1993/94 - 1999/2000

(Figure G8)

	TEACHING STAFF							PUPILS						
	ISCED 123	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 4	ISCED 123	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 4		
B	83/94	166 509	x ISCED 1	77 335	x ISCED 3	110 963	1 679 818	x ISCED 1	1 158 191	x ISCED 3	943 033			
	94/95	()		()	()	()	()		()	()	()			
	95/96	()		()	()	()	()		()	()	()			
	96/97	188 170	x ISCED 1	79 049	x ISCED 3	109 120	2 113 903		1 171 785	x ISCED 3	942 118			
	97/98	()		()	()	()	()		()	()	()			
	98/99	()		()	()	()	()		()	()	()			
	99/00	171 877	x ISCED 1	77 465	x ISCED 3	94 512	2 064 677		1 165 242	x ISCED 3	919 425	x ISCED 3		
DK	93/94	77 400		29 600	24 800	23 000	772 368		326 919	222 831	222 915			
	94/95	75 600		29 700	23 000	22 900	773 557		328 875	216 906	227 776			
	95/96	73 800		29 700	22 500	21 900	775 499		336 690	208 564	230 245			
	96/97	73 875		32 675	19 900	21 300	774 219		348 475	201 054	226 676			
	97/98	71 982		34 594	18 788	18 600	784 669		360 693	208 003	215 693			
	98/99	72 455		35 217	19 039	18 916	740 646		330 907	173 711	236 129			
	99/00	82 543		37 956	20 437	24 180	810 346		364 197	205 983	219 166			
D	93/94	651 511		172 344	314 775	164 392	40 438 870		3 524 219	4 914 773	1 969 876			
	94/95	644 135		174 182	316 114	163 839	40 692 182		3 608 188	4 990 654	2 035 323			
	95/96	648 495		176 579	316 984	164 932	40 785 396		3 684 165	5 095 696	2 034 545			
	96/97	649 838		176 549	316 105	167 184	40 922 000		3 740 630	5 128 026	2 053 344			
	97/98	649 409		173 207	321 501	161 510	40 829 433		3 746 163	5 287 278	1 935 982			
	98/99	649 402		173 207	321 501	161 516	40 821 988		3 648 191	5 289 150	1 983 367			
	99/00	693 553		184 433	354 334	164 799	41 150 009		3 685 699	5 560 245	1 933 966			
EL	93/94	109 545		43 789	31 208	34 549	1 674 995		723 701	438 980	412 314			
	94/95	109 547		44 168	31 774	33 605	1 543 121		710 774	426 622	401 525			
	95/96	113 228		45 126	33 440	34 656	1 488 724		675 267	418 012	405 445			
	96/97	112 138		46 788	33 642	32 301	1 457 281		652 040	402 085	402 235			
	97/98	116 207		47 852	34 198	34 347	1 434 596		648 608	389 361	397 587			
	98/99	119 129		47 684	35 168	36 259	1 406 361		645 534	374 310	388 517			
	99/00	116 511		46 154	33 600	34 607	1 374 576		645 313	362 462	368 921			
E	93/94	414 762		123 559	161 834	184 372	7 058 241		2 471 084	1 851 666	2 733 489			
	94/95	418 691		132 656	161 707	184 377	6 862 915		2 384 910	1 775 424	2 722 581			
	95/96	410 365		155 546	165 736	189 044	6 657 873		2 799 960	1 772 614	2 685 104			
	96/97	424 027		159 350	168 675	196 000	6 404 143		2 702 553	1 126 581	2 575 003			
	97/98	427 604		164 724	x ISCED 3	262 910	x ISCED 3	6 105 583	2 693 676	x ISCED 3	3 471 905	x ISCED 3		
	98/99	424 329		167 010	x ISCED 3	257 319	x ISCED 3	5 860 719	2 679 906	x ISCED 3	3 310 811	x ISCED 3		
	99/00	435 254		170 050	146 141	119 065	x ISCED 3	5 667 608	2 639 985	2 006 313	1 151 500	x ISCED 3		

x: ISCED n = data is merged with data of the column ISCED n

	TEACHING STAFF						PUPILS					
	ISCED 123	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 4	ISCED 123	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 4
F	93/94	645 602		206 602	437 000	x ISCED 2	10 079 974		4 036 956	5 983 018	x ISCED 2	
	94/95	650 150		207 801	442 349	x ISCED 2	10 056 382		4 050 047	5 996 335	x ISCED 2	
	95/96	654 948		210 407	447 541	x ISCED 2	10 035 653		4 031 426	5 984 226	x ISCED 2	
	96/97	656 981		204 027	452 954	x ISCED 2	9 988 929		4 024 704	5 984 225	x ISCED 2	
	97/98	795 158		216 018	579 139	x ISCED 2	9 855 891		3 978 453	5 976 438	x ISCED 2	
	98/99	865 850		200 968	256 884	207 980	9 899 722		3 944 227	3 306 573	2 648 922	
	99/00	873 450		188 970	227 400	247 030	9 851 722		3 944 227	3 340 261	2 567 234	
IRL	93/94	38 665		16 144	x ISCED 3	23 521	x ISCED 3	771 801		391 866	x ISCED 3	379 800
	94/95	40 127		16 254	x ISCED 3	23 872	x ISCED 3	764 052		380 983	x ISCED 3	383 069
	95/96	40 315		16 250	x ISCED 3	24 062	x ISCED 3	749 209		387 069	x ISCED 3	381 520
	96/97	40 737		16 151	x ISCED 3	24 586	x ISCED 3	741 295		358 830	x ISCED 3	382 436
	97/98	41 558		17 950	x ISCED 3	23 605	x ISCED 3	818 139		485 186	x ISCED 3	376 410
	98/99	44 726		21 105	x ISCED 3	23 621	x ISCED 3	802 255		456 564	x ISCED 3	374 906
	99/00	44 394		20 940	x ISCED 3	23 454	x ISCED 3	787 357		449 836	x ISCED 3	371 826
I	93/94	863 111		281 191	249 604	332 316	7 801 744		2 863 279	1 896 882	2 941 783	
	94/95	737 706		256 552	185 304	279 795	7 458 180		2 815 831	1 950 370	2 642 179	
	95/96	737 706		251 827	189 164	285 098	7 524 534		2 816 120	1 901 208	2 807 180	
	96/97	737 706		250 453	185 312	291 657	7 412 985		2 810 158	1 851 819	2 751 018	
	97/98	890 468		258 508	182 099	249 900	7 208 527		2 818 050	1 802 856	2 687 618	
	98/99	875 826		253 738	177 341	244 748	7 205 109		2 875 852	1 822 568	2 526 591	
	99/00	880 124		258 827	174 630	245 667	7 164 641		2 826 350	1 813 716	2 514 582	
L	93/94						48 034		25 409	11 448	11 186	
	94/95						52 689		27 082	13 382	12 245	
	95/96	4 220		1 864	2 376	x ISCED 2	65 326		27 844	14 448	13 034	
	96/97	4 517		1 844	2 673	x ISCED 2	55 919		26 437	13 320	14 162	
	97/98	4 836		2 197	2 640	x ISCED 2	65 336		28 894	26 452	x ISCED 2	
	98/99	5 046		2 342	2 704	x ISCED 2	58 183		29 302	26 881	x ISCED 2	
	99/00	4 836		1 900	2 936	x ISCED 2	67 311		30 257	27 004	x ISCED 2	
NL	93/94	86 450		82 430	43 020	28 926	1 899 265		1 073 110	726 105	477 071	
	94/95	148 600	x ISCED 1	80 200	68 400	x ISCED 2	1 911 925		1 189 112	722 813	479 924	
	95/96	149 800	x ISCED 1	82 000	67 800	x ISCED 2	2 904 949	x ISCED 1	1 840 936	1 264 014	x ISCED 2	
	96/97	153 800	x ISCED 1	84 800	69 200	19 800	2 895 988	x ISCED 1	1 864 738	1 231 250	x ISCED 2	
	97/98	161 850	x ISCED 1	82 400	69 200	20 250	1 976 318		1 264 247	722 068	480 536	
	98/99	174 890	x ISCED 1	99 631	75 290	x ISCED 2	2 888 895	x ISCED 1	1 887 868	1 330 697	x ISCED 2	
	99/00	177 628	x ISCED 1	100 044	77 590	x ISCED 2	3 011 996	x ISCED 1	1 881 480	1 330 446	x ISCED 2	
A	93/94	114 795		32 059	45 974	36 722	1 048 348		381 628	381 930	284 787	
	94/95	107 565		29 822	42 779	35 164	1 058 582		381 363	366 700	289 519	
	95/96	107 060		29 863	41 893	35 329	1 064 984		379 005	384 025	301 964	
	96/97	106 880		30 150	41 137	35 073	1 070 554		381 827	380 067	308 660	
	97/98	96 287		30 380	40 589	27 310	1 029 125		385 209	378 678	265 141	
	98/99	93 938		27 391	39 301	27 246	1 048 026		386 894	378 304	273 807	
	99/00											
FIN	94/95	65 584		x ISCED 2	42 625	22 939	919 206		387 306	587 598	381 808	
	95/96	60 492		x ISCED 2	39 245	21 247	925 883		384 569	586 852	389 931	
	96/97	63 821		21 318	20 010	22 295	937 285		380 932	205 263	361 000	
	97/98	60 355		21 470	18 801	20 084	917 546		381 078	206 670	329 598	
	98/99	59 825		21 967	19 198	18 483	893 010		382 746	203 589	308 695	
	99/00	60 034		23 017	18 585	18 359	899 093		388 063	198 025	313 005	
	99/00											
S	93/94	105 402		48 522	29 083	26 797	1 325 853		617 126	315 879	302 448	
	94/95	104 670		48 489	28 126	27 048	1 293 349		635 627	319 357	308 385	
	95/96	104 830		51 713	28 207	26 910	1 387 425		656 535	319 757	409 133	
	96/97	104 406		51 333	28 095	26 981	1 430 220		662 774	315 347	432 099	
	97/98	108 932		55 114	24 416	29 402	1 562 707		740 621	323 448	486 638	
	98/99	113 046		57 047	25 167	30 845	1 574 253		757 046	333 723	482 584	
	99/00	117 680		60 264	26 771	30 635	1 578 399		770 637	343 010	464 762	
IS	98/97	4 316		3 280	x ISCED 1	1 026	58 111		42 486	x ISCED 1	15 695	
	97/98	4 232		3 021	x ISCED 1	1 211	60 670		42 462	x ISCED 1	18 208	
	96/99	4 425		3 200	x ISCED 1	1 220	59 066		42 549	x ISCED 1	16 517	
	99/00	5 085		3 389	x ISCED 1	1 689	59 541		43 148	x ISCED 1	16 393	
NO	97/98	82 700		x ISCED 2	58 521	26 179	768 760		401 652	586 764	211 398	
	98/99	72 188		x ISCED 2	49 687	22 471	785 820		411 879	587 285	218 564	
	99/00	72 037		x ISCED 2	49 968	22 049	768 162		401 652	586 764	211 418	

x: ISCED n = data is merged with data of the column ISCED n.

		TEACHING STAFF					PUPILS						
		ISCED 123	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 4	ISCED 123	ISCED 0	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 4
BG	95/97	97 940		25 800	34 845	32 443		1 157 625		431 790	375 133	352 702	
	97/98	87 000		24 223	32 940	29 840		1 132 948		425 501	371 015	336 432	
	98/99	78 964		22 983	27 438	26 545		1 109 658		411 718	367 444	330 498	
	99/00	82 058		23 344	30 390	26 324		1 087 000		392 466	366 975	327 157	
CZ	95/99	99 987		31 959	35 099	32 889		1 595 744		654 511	536 126	379 108	
	99/00	104 970		32 711	35 472	36 787		1 595 311		644 862	521 725	422 724	
EE	95/97	16 027		6 897	5 750	5 420		239 621		126 796	98 256	94 569	
	97/98	16 075		6 152	4 848	5 075		241 075		127 817	97 720	95 536	
	98/99	17 456		7 759	4 942	5 117		239 960		124 999	99 709	94 258	
	99/00	19 075		8 255	5 462	5 358		238 319		123 410	90 960	93 949	
CY	95/99	8 331		3 496	x ISCED 3	4 635		127 298		64 248	x ISCED 3	63 050	
	99/00	8 556		3 540	x ISCED 3	5 036		127 629		63 952	x ISCED 3	63 677	
LV	94/97	13 168		9 048	15 799	8 294		388 648		186 653	199 840	78 155	
	97/98	28 889		7 876	13 481	7 632		381 775		186 690	161 451	83 474	
	98/99	29 635		7 768	13 609	7 490		383 587		141 405	163 176	89 006	
	99/00	27 835		7 603	12 873	7 487		388 131		134 911	164 326	88 894	
LT	95/97	75 469		18 649	37 020	x ISCED 2		503 588		222 724	370 884	119 612	
	97/98	46 775		13 417	30 314	9 044		612 010		222 278	263 633	128 079	
	98/99	47 606		13 127	30 075	4 434		622 145		219 681	272 770	129 714	
	99/00	49 625		13 093	32 188	4 267		634 327		218 181	320 685	95 461	
HU	95/97	137 701		39 026	51 915	48 620		1 506 185		502 440	502 149	501 990	
	97/98	138 120		45 630	45 485	46 000		1 500 656		503 389	503 983	492 709	
	98/99	139 308		46 212	46 571	46 725		1 487 883		505 202	508 626	479 058	
	99/00	139 823		45 751	46 254	47 818		1 480 449		500 645	505 407	474 197	
MT	98/99	5 384		1 779	3 352			71 860		34 914	29 028	7 918	
	99/00	5 436		1 790	3 219	427		70 342		34 261	29 901	7 180	
PL	97/98	446 453		322 477		-1	123 976		7 421 346		4 902 691	-1	2 518 655
	98/99												
	99/00	522 528		312 425	55 732	156 370		7 217 726		3 962 030	615 625	2 639 871	
RO	96/97	247 536		71 829	103 597	72 112		3 601 076		1 405 308	1 140 923	1 054 645	
	97/98	245 006		71 076	102 439	71 489		3 572 966		1 373 079	1 166 687	1 013 142	
	98/99	245 899		68 644	104 359	72 896		3 502 532		1 284 507	1 272 423	945 602	
	99/00	237 416		x ISCED 2	166 332	71 084		3 414 748		1 189 058	2 496 139	916 610	
SI	95/97	21 548		6 918	7 387	7 241		317 941		98 869	106 165	112 867	
	97/98	21 204		6 208	7 019	7 977		309 273		96 819	103 247	110 207	
	98/99	22 200		6 428	7 221	8 551		303 757		91 495	101 948	110 214	
	99/00	22 109		6 463	7 267	8 379		296 555		86 797	100 316	109 402	
SK	95/97	67 152		16 891	26 845	23 445		1 012 424		331 802	351 790	328 632	
	97/98	65 751		16 798	27 416	21 537		992 543		324 311	359 516	308 716	
	98/99	65 366		16 180	27 058	21 627		987 234		318 601	372 320	286 413	
	99/00	66 949		16 691	30 201	19 887		971 939		309 399	409 023	253 517	
AL	95/97	37 041		13 362	17 564	6 118		650 307		303 632	257 099	89 576	
	99/00	34 601		12 551	16 504	5 746		634 672		283 249	240 716	80 705	
MK	97/98	16 665		5 677	7 709	5 279		346 745		131 623	128 350	86 529	
	98/99	19 256		5 685	7 914	5 477		346 299		129 633	129 626	89 040	
	99/00	19 734		5 901	6 130	5 700		346 567		126 606	129 674	92 287	

x: ISCED n = data is merged with data of the column ISCED n

Source: Eurostat

NB: Only those countries and years for which data are available are shown in this table.
Columns ISCED 0 and ISCED 4 are only presented to mention when these data are merged with another category.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

NUMBER OF TEACHERS WORKING PART-TIME, PRIMARY (ISCED 1) AND SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) LEVELS, 1999/2000

(FIGURES G9 AND G14)

(1 000)

ISCED 1, 2 and 3							ISCED 1						
Full-time			Part-time			Full-time			Part-time				
Men	Women	Total		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	
1276.6	2136.5	3513.0	EU	226.2	708.8	943.0	276.2	1632.2	1356.3	EU	38.2	303.7	341.9
49.6	80.3	135.8	B	10.7	46.2	56.9	12.8	49.6	62.4	B	2.5	22.0	25.2
27.8	37.9	65.7	DK	8.2	7.9	16.8	12.0	21.3	33.3	DK	1.6	3.0	4.7
244.4	222.9	467.3	D	72.3	278.0	350.3	31.7	74.4	106.2	D	13.1	119.8	133.0
()	()	114.7	EL	(-)	(-)	9.1	()	()	48.1	EL	(-)	(-)	(-)
171.5	239.2	410.7	E	21.2	27.9	49.1	51.9	134.0	165.5	E	2.6	6.6	9.2
270.1	482.9	753.0	F	22.3	84.0	86.3	66.0	245.9	311.9	F	1.4	23.0	24.9
12.5	26.1	38.6	IRL	2.6	3.4	6.3	0.5	14.4	17.9	IRL	0.0	0.1	0.1
162.3	517.8	680.1	I	0.0	0.0	0.3	13.5	245.3	258.9	I	6.0	0.0	6.0
1.8	1.0	2.8	L	0.0	0.2	0.2	()	()	()	L	()	()	()
84.1	37.5	121.6	NL	25.5	100.5	126.0	23.9	30.1	54.0	NL	8.5	69.5	77.9
31.3	55.1	86.4	A	2.9	12.2	15.1	3.2	22.7	25.9	A	0.2	2.8	3.0
()	()	()	P	()	()	()	()	()	()	P	()	()	()
18.2	30.7	58.9	FIN	1.4	2.0	4.1	6.5	16.3	22.8	FIN	0.1	0.4	0.5
33.1	66.2	99.3	S	8.2	22.0	30.1	10.6	41.1	51.7	S	2.1	11.3	13.4
189.1	327.9	517.0	UK	48.9	144.1	193.0	40.9	157.1	198.1	UK	5.9	44.1	50.1
1.3	2.6	3.9	IS	0.4	1.1	1.3	0.7	2.1	2.8	IS	0.2	0.9	1.1
()	()	()	LI	()	()	()	()	()	()	LI	()	()	()
34.9	32.4	67.4	NO	6.4	22.9	29.3	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	NO	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)
18.5	65.8	82.1	BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	2.1	21.2	23.3	BG	(-)	(-)	(-)
30.7	50.9	89.6	CZ	()	()	()	6.0	19.1	25.1	CZ	()	()	()
2.7	14.9	17.6	EE	0.8	2.1	2.3	1.0	0.8	7.9	EE	0.2	0.5	0.7
2.5	6.0	7.5	CY	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	2.4	3.0	CY	0.0	0.1	0.1
3.2	19.0	22.2	LV	2.0	9.7	11.7	0.1	6.0	6.1	LV	0.2	2.7	2.9
6.0	37.7	43.7	LT	1.8	4.9	6.3	0.2	12.5	12.7	LT	0.1	0.5	0.6
29.1	103.0	131.1	HU	7.5	10.1	17.6	6.4	38.3	44.7	HU	0.7	1.4	2.1
1.7	3.1	4.8	MT	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.2	1.4	1.7	MT	0.1	0.0	0.2
()	()	430.9	PL	()	()	183.4	()	()	274.7	PL	()	()	75.5
61.5	161.3	212.8	RO	6.9	17.8	24.7	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	RO	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)
4.6	16.4	20.9	SI	0.8	1.5	2.3	0.2	6.2	6.4	SI	0.01	0.1	0.1
13.7	51.5	65.1	SK	3.5	9.9	7.4	1.2	15.4	16.6	SK	0.40	0.5	0.9
13.3	21.5	34.8	AL	(-)	(-)	(-)	3.1	9.5	12.6	AL	(-)	(-)	(-)
7.5	9.6	17.4	MK	1.0	1.3	2.3	2.0	3.9	5.9	MK	0.01	0.01	0.02
ISCED 2							ISCED 3						
Full-time			Part-time			Full-time			Part-time				
Men	Women	Total		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	
415.6	677.3	1092.9	EU	60.9	181.4	246.4	585.1	538.0	1148.9	EU	126.1	223.7	354.7
x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	B	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	36.7	36.7	73.4	B	8.1	23.6	31.7
6.4	11.5	17.9	DK	0.9	1.6	2.5	9.3	6.2	14.5	DK	6.6	3.0	9.6
134.2	120.9	255.1	D	34.1	117.9	152.0	78.4	27.6	106.0	D	24.9	40.3	65.2
()	()	32.7	EL	()	()	4.2	()	()	33.9	EL	()	()	4.0
65.5	70.8	136.2	E	9.1	30.8	39.6	54.5	54.5	109.0	E	9.6	10.5	20.1
77.7	132.5	210.1	F	8.5	21.6	30.0	126.5	104.5	230.9	F	12.5	18.9	31.4
x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	IRL	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	9.0	11.7	20.7	IRL	2.6	3.3	5.9
47.5	127.2	174.6	I	0.0	0.0	0.0	101.3	145.4	246.7	I	0.0	0.0	0.0
1.8	1.0	2.8	L	0.0	0.2	0.2	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	L	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)	x (ISCED 2)
x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	NL	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	40.2	7.4	47.6	NL	17.0	31.1	48.1
14.5	21.6	36.0	A	1.0	9.6	6.5	13.7	10.0	24.5	A	1.7	3.8	5.6
()	()	()	P	()	()	()	()	()	()	P	()	()	()
5.3	12.8	18.1	FIN	0.3	0.7	1.0	7.5	9.6	17.1	FIN	1.1	1.5	2.6
9.1	10.3	22.4	S	2.1	5.1	7.2	13.4	11.8	25.2	S	3.9	5.6	9.5
53.7	65.8	119.5	UK	3.0	18.0	22.0	94.5	104.9	199.4	UK	38.0	62.0	120.0
x (ISCED 1)	x (ISCED 1)	x (ISCED 1)	IS	x (ISCED 1)	x (ISCED 1)	x (ISCED 1)	0.6	0.5	1.1	IS	0.2	0.2	0.4
()	()	()	LI	()	()	()	()	()	()	LI	()	()	()
13.7	25.7	39.4	NO	3.1	18.1	21.2	11.2	6.8	18.0	NO	3.3	4.8	8.2
6.5	23.8	30.4	BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	7.7	20.6	28.3	BG	(-)	(-)	(-)
7.9	22.9	30.9	CZ	()	()	()	16.7	16.8	33.6	CZ	()	()	()
0.7	4.3	4.9	EE	0.3	0.8	1.1	1.0	3.8	4.8	EE	0.3	0.8	1.1
x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	CY	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	x (ISCED 3)	1.9	2.6	4.5	CY	0.1	0.1	0.2
1.7	8.9	10.6	LV	0.8	4.0	4.8	1.4	4.1	5.5	LV	1.0	3.0	4.0
4.8	23.3	28.1	LT	1.2	3.8	5.0	1.0	1.9	2.9	LT	0.3	0.6	1.0
6.7	38.5	45.2	HU	0.7	1.5	2.2	16.0	25.2	41.2	HU	6.1	7.2	13.3
1.3	1.5	2.8	MT	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3	MT	0.1	0.0	0.1
()	()	28.4	PL	()	()	66.7	()	()	127.8	PL	()	()	57.2
37.4	132.0	169.4	RO	3.5	13.5	17.0	24.1	38.3	63.4	RO	3.4	4.3	7.7
1.6	5.4	7.0	SI	0.1	0.3	0.4	2.7	4.8	7.5	SI	0.7	1.1	1.7
6.7	23.1	29.8	SK	1.1	0.9	2.0	5.8	13.0	18.7	SK	2.0	2.5	4.5
7.7	8.8	16.5	AL	(-)	(-)	(-)	2.8	3.2	5.7	AL	(-)	(-)	(-)
3.9	3.4	7.3	MK	0.4	0.5	0.9	2.0	2.3	4.3	MK	0.6	0.8	1.4

x: ISCED n = data is merged with data of the column ISCED n.

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figures 5.

Albania: Population: National source.

Fyr of Macedonia: Includes ISCED 4 teachers.

**DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1),
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000**

(Figure G10)

(1 000)

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
<30	210.7	18.8	()	12.8	()	21.4	43.3	2.9	9.4	0.5	23.5	4.6	8.4	3.0	7.9	54.0	
30 - 39	396.3	27.7	()	34.0	()	49.2	95.2	5.3	62.0	0.4	29.3	8.9	15.8	7.5	10.3	50.6	
40 - 49	505.5	22.2	()	88.2	()	57.3	123.1	6.5	90.0	0.5	51.5	11.0	25.2	6.8	19.7	82.6	
>= 50	457.8	18.9	()	104.1	()	46.7	75.1	4.0	70.7	0.5	27.6	4.4	11.8	5.8	27.2	61.0	
Age unknown	25.8	-	()	0.0	()	-	-	-	25.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
<30	0.6	()	()	3.4	6.2	()	()	1.4	()	()	0.64	()	()	0.8	4.3	()	0.6
30 - 39	1.1	()	()	9.5	10.4	()	()	3.0	()	()	0.22	()	()	2.6	4.0	()	1.8
40 - 49	1.2	()	()	6.9	9.6	()	()	2.0	()	()	0.31	()	()	1.6	4.8	()	1.5
>= 50	0.9	()	()	3.5	12.0	()	()	2.0	()	()	0.62	()	()	1.5	4.8	()	2.0
Age unknown	-	()	()	-	-	()	3.1	-	13.3	46.8	-	350.2	()	0.0	-	()	0.0

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

**DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3),
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1999/2000**

(Figure G11)

(1 000)

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
<30	230.8	13.0	4.2	20.3	()	34.3	61.0	2.6	0.2	0.4	7.3	0.5	20.1	2.9	7.3	56.6	
30 - 39	551.0	22.9	7.7	76.5	()	103.4	128.0	8.2	42.2	0.8	17.3	21.3	32.9	9.9	11.8	70.0	
40 - 49	914.4	38.0	14.9	221.6	()	91.1	150.0	8.2	159.6	1.0	37.2	30.3	21.4	12.3	15.4	112.4	
>= 50	872.3	31.2	17.7	259.8	()	56.5	165.5	7.4	156.4	0.9	33.9	14.4	10.2	13.6	26.8	75.9	
Age unknown	63.9	0.0	0.0	0.2	()	0.0	0	0.0	63.9	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
<30	0.1	()	11.0	7.5	8.0	()	()	3.3	()	()	1.2	()	63.9	2.0	8.2	()	1.4
30 - 39	0.4	()	17.9	16.0	19.5	()	()	6.0	()	()	0.8	()	47.3	6.2	12.8	()	4.1
40 - 49	0.5	()	25.1	21.4	20.4	()	()	7.4	()	()	0.8	()	67.6	5.3	19.4	()	4.1
>= 50	0.6	()	29.4	13.1	22.9	()	()	8.0	()	()	0.8	()	58.6	3.2	14.6	()	4.3
Age unknown	0.0	()	3.2	0.0	0.0	()	4.7	0.0	()	101.8	0	264.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	()	0.0

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN AGE GROUPS CLOSE TO RETIREMENT AGE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 1999/2000

(Figure G13A)

ISCED 1

	A1	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	A11
	Total age	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	>= 65
B	87 581	x: A7	22 188		x: A9	18 457	423
DK	37 956	()	()	()	()	()	()
D	210 200	28 630	55 572	49 644	42 902	11 480	44
EL	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
E	174 638	57 317	x: A6	41 385	x: A8	5 313	x: A10
F	336 600	58 918	64 219	62 962	11 322	848	12
IRL	18 632	3 375	3 110	1 969	1 152	694	203
I	256 827	39 946	50 953	41 661	19 434	8 450	1 154
L	1 949	194	307	297	236	6	0
NL	121 919	27 307	24 160	18 019	8 167	1 374	14
A	25 890	5 873	5 116	2 020	1 227	270	x: A10
P	61 258	13 188	12 053	7 208	2 950	1 643	0
FIN	23 295	3 541	3 233	3 179	2 445	170	2
S	65 109	7 468	12 342	13 319	9 888	3 882	123
UK	248 148	31 146	51 471	44 013	15 085	1 667	0
IS	3 869	802	606	401	274	157	73
LI	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
NO	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
BG	23 344	3 911	2 970	2 313	1 096	146	0
CZ	38 108	9 565	x: A6	10 334	x: A9	1 983	x: A10
EE	8 616	()	()	()	()	()	()
CY	3 069	()	()	()	()	()	()
LV	8 935	1 430	1 072	804	538	357	268
LT	13 265	()	()	()	()	()	()
HU	46 777	()	()	()	()	()	()
MT	1 780	137	175	310	263	46	0
PL	350 195	()	()	()	()	()	()
RO	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
SI	5 515	948	678	928	504	35	3
SK	17 602	2 523	2 266	2 063	1 982	362	169
AL	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
MK	5 901	753	732	1 089	762	121	0

x: A n = data is merged with data of the column A n

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN AGE GROUPS CLOSE TO RETIREMENT AGE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, 1999/2000

(FIGURE G13B)

ISCED 2 AND 3

	A1	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	A11
	Total age	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	> = 65
B	109 153	x: A7	37 091	x: A9	28 051	2 271	x: A10
DK	44 587	()	()	()	()	()	()
D	578 378	75 482	148 130	132 893	108 312	30 423	197
EL	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
E	285 179	91 065	x: A6	48 845	x: A8	7 659	x: A10
F	502 510	63 198	88 792	105 933	54 940	4 579	74
IRL	26 402	3 754	4 424	3 750	2 354	1 082	200
I	421 297	68 636	90 929	103 407	39 499	11 675	1 778
L	3 031	411	554	509	328	49	1
NL	95 671	16 679	20 320	19 703	11 967	2 182	36
A	72 864	10 693	13 374	8 510	5 285	621	0
P	84 869	12 415	8 005	5 497	2 855	1 846	0
FIN	38 776	5 767	6 576	7 209	5 095	1 269	11
S	64 333	7 609	6 808	12 662	10 991	4 497	264
UK	315 043	46 516	65 832	54 600	18 508	2 825	0
IS	1 405	210	289	238	149	114	80
LI	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
NO	88 892	11 056	14 084	14 086	10 210	4 539	571
BG	38 714	10 989	10 403	8 135	4 194	738	0
CZ	70 758	20 411	x: A6	19 258	x: A9	3 832	x: A10
EE	11 938	()	()	()	()	()	()
CY	4 881	()	()	()	()	()	()
LV	24 819	3 876	3 588	2 782	2 100	1 777	1 381
LT	33 169	()	()	()	()	()	()
HU	101 781	()	()	()	()	()	()
MT	3 648	348	502	480	285	38	0
PL	264 092	()	()	()	()	()	()
RO	237 416	29 604	38 044	35 808	16 967	5 048	742
SI	16 786	3 028	2 285	1 936	982	246	66
SK	54 904	10 094	9 284	8 870	4 029	1 006	585
AL	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
MK	13 833	1 979	2 104	2 517	1 275	508	5

x: A n = data is merged with data of the column A n

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Fyr of Macedonia: Data for ISCED 2 and 3 includes ISCED 4 teachers

MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF TEACHERS (ISCED 1, 2, 3) AN PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01

(FIGURES G15, G16 AND G17)

(NATIONAL CURRENCIES)

	Primary		Lower secondary		Upper secondary		GDP
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	
B hr	882 801	1 416 383	858 693	1 528 427	1 098 728	1 934 709	977 838
B de	784 475	1 281 154	759 384	1 380 019	994 626	1 747 914	877 836
B nl	916 528	1 408 670	916 528	1 664 691	1 137 153	1 972 790	877 836
DK	233 611	378 610	233 611	270 610	310 004	371 828	242 810
D	62 050	82 247	73 944	91 482	75 597	101 378	48 191
EL	4 770 500	8 586 900	4 770 500	8 586 900	4 770 500	8 586 900	3 910 628
E	3 084 328	4 480 948	3 867 120	5 408 800	3 867 120	5 408 800	2 537 387
F	99 414	226 071	99 414	226 071	109 277	234 262	153 823
IRL	16 578	32 223	16 578	32 223	16 578	32 223	21 517
I	33 638 289	48 716 123	36 417 317	53 903 400	36 417 317	56 483 900	30 035 203
L	1 246 404	2 782 512	1 853 816	3 678 576	1 853 816	3 678 576	1 870 158
NL	54 717	78 978	56 778	88 767	57 322	115 603	55 511
A	305 032	645 510	305 032	645 510	305 428	795 095	347 585
P	3 392 200	7 635 600	3 392 200	7 635 600	3 392 200	7 635 600	2 303 538
FIN	138 008	190 800	151 632	213 378	158 912	227 582	150 723
S	185 440	294 020	157 540	309 880	203 740	328 180	236 550
UK (E/W/N)	17 457	28 275	17 457	28 275	17 457	28 275	16 900
UK (SC)	14 877	22 743	14 877	22 743	14 877	22 743	16 900
IS	1 439 755	2 327 299	1 439 755	2 327 299	2 087 888	2 637 500	2 394 810
LI	67 432	106 720	63 043	124 927	98 478	138 858	()
NO	232 300	278 600	246 700	303 380	261 400	338 900	317 050

(FIGURES G15, G16 AND G17)

(NATIONAL CURRENCIES)

	Primary		Lower secondary		Upper secondary		GDP
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	
BG	()	()	()	()	()	()	3 270
CZ	106 173	203 352	109 099	200 562	134 736	248 315	190 770
EE	49 308	52 800	49 356	52 800	49 356	52 800	62 960
CY	9 744	21 324	9 744	21 324	9 744	21 324	8 200
LV	554	879	554	879	554	879	1 630
LT	7 119	14 553	7 119	14 553	7 119	14 553	12 860
HU	559 000	1 014 000	559 000	1 014 000	661 700	1 118 300	1 311 630
MT	4 967	6 802	4 967	6 802	4 967	6 802	3 010
PL	13 764	24 300	13 764	24 300	13 764	24 300	18 690
RO	21 317 400	31 777 200	22 522 500	38 610 050	22 522 500	38 610 000	35 672 300
SI	1 569 383	3 040 566	1 569 383	3 040 566	1 569 383	3 040 566	2 027 620
SK	89 400	131 640	89 400	131 640	98 760	131 640	168 290

Source: Eurostat and Eurydice

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

**NUMBER OF WOMEN AND SCHOOL MANAGEMENT STAFF
IN PRIMARY (ISCED 1) AND SECONDARY (ISCED 2 AND 3) EDUCATION, 1997/98 - 1999/2000**

(FIGURE G21)

		TOTAL						WOMEN					
		ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 1 + 2	ISCED 2 + 3	ISCED 1 - 3	ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3	ISCED 1 + 2	ISCED 2 + 3	ISCED 1 - 3
B	99/2000	2 190	x	x	()	2 138	4 328	()	x	x	()	490	1 170
F	99/2000	9 500	18 910	17 960	28 410	36 870	46 370	7 600	10 211	10 489	17 811	20 700	28 300
IRL	97/98	()	x	x	()	788	()	()	x	x	()	231	()
	98/99	2 377	x	x	()	791	4 168	1 643	x	x	()	229	1 872
	99/2000	3 340	x	x	()	793	4 123	1 637	x	x	()	256	1 863
I	98/99	5 678	4 467	3 002	10 145	7 469	13 147	()	()	()	()	()	()
	99/2000	5 595	6 620	4 374	12 496	11 294	16 660	()	()	()	()	()	()
NL	98/99	8 371	()	()	()	4 078	12 449	1 171	()	()	()	546	1 718
A	97/98	3 350	1 172	668	4 522	1 840	5 792	1 729	178	105	1 007	203	2 208
	98/99	3 344	1 179	362	308	()	5 193	1 761	160	41	143	()	2 115
FIN	97/98	462	760	826	1 242	1 560	2 068	130	252	260	382	512	642
	98/99	511	752	832	1 263	1 564	2 095	137	254	268	391	522	650
	99/2000	608	770	754	1 378	1 524	2 032	174	245	229	419	474	648
S	97/98	2 063	2 002	1693	4 065	3 686	5 758	1 418	970	663	2 388	1 633	3 051
	98/99	2 546	2 420	1936	4 966	4 356	6 902	1 772	1 224	798	2 996	2 020	3 792
	99/2000	3 036	2 509	1982	5 545	4 491	7 527	2 180	1 263	826	3 473	2 109	4 299
UK	97/98	18.9				4.1	23	10.9				1.1	12
	98/99	18.5				4.1	22.6	10.9				1.2	12.1
	99/2000	18.6				4	22.6	11.1				1.2	12.3
IS	97/98	x	x	68	320	()	388	x	x	11	130	()	146
	98/99	x	x	66	236	()	305	x	x	12	96	()	152
	99/2000	x	x	88	267	()	422	x	x	23	103	()	166
NO	97/98	x	x	2 451	5 450	()	7 901	x	x	749	2 210	()	2 964
	98/99	x	x	2 706	5 655	()	8 361	x	x	857	2 431	()	3 288
	99/2000	x	x	2 843	5 733	()	8 576	x	x	928	2 543	()	3 471
BG	98/99	459	28	682	2 101	453	3 723	()	()	()	()	()	()
	99/2000	476	168	919	1 947	445	3 955	309	110	670	1 286	289	2 543
CZ	97/98	1 646	13	3 418	1 659	3 431	9 551	1 470	5	1 203	1 475	1 208	5 645
EE	97/98	()	()	()	()	()	1 530	()	()	()	()	()	1 085
	98/99	()	()	()	()	()	1 718	()	()	()	()	()	1 158
	99/2000	()	()	()	()	()	1 588	()	()	()	()	()	1 109
CY	98/99	783	x	x	()	789	1 532	354	x	x	()	302	656
	99/2000	784	x	x	()	805	1 589	411	x	x	()	322	733
MT	98/99	290	x	x	()	217	607	145	x	x	()	87	232
	99/2000	285	301	124	566	425	690	145	110	67	255	177	322
PL	97/98	322 477	()	123 976	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
	98/99	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
	99/2000	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
SI	97/98	x	x	440	775	()	1 215	x	x	206	426	()	631
	98/99	376	423	449	798	871	1 247	208	293	212	441	445	653
	99/2000	369	434	437	803	871	1 240	212	252	214	464	466	678
SK	97/98			1 897	0	321				792		177	
	98/99			1 990	0	353				824		184	
	99/2000			1 977	0	366				805		189	
MK	2000	x	x	165	408	()	571	x	x	43	126	()	169

Source: Eurostat, UOE

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Explanatory note

Only those countries and years for which data are available are shown in this table.

MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF SCHOOL HEADS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1), AND PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01

(FIGURE G22)

(NATIONAL CURRENCIES)

	Schools		Small schools		Large schools		Per capita GDP
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	
B fr	1 397 425	1 674 405					977 839
B de	1 056 545	1 695 730					977 839
B nl	1 171 261	1 711 279					977 839
DK			324 426		362 713		242 810
D			82 718	81 482	80 000	101 378	48 191
EL	5 260 500	9 076 900					3 918 625
E			2 278 774	4 576 052	4 066 394	5 303 672	2 537 387
F	113 900	278 100					153 823
IRL	21 562	47 732					21 517
I	37 415 000	62 687 000					39 035 203
L	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	1 670 158
NL			54 717	86 787	73 891	115 600	55 511
A			378 294	682 094	430 332	741 132	347 585
P			4 361 000	8 335 600	5 061 000	9 035 600	2 303 538
FIN	160 160	223 554					150 723
S	234 000	313 000					236 550
UK (E/WNI)	34 500	78 288					15 900
UK (SC)	28 848	38 862					15 900
IS	2 113 399	4 106 432					2 394 810
LJ	70 385	109 687					(-)
NO			325 300		389 000		317 050
BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	3 270
CZ							190 770
EE							62 360
CY	22 896	25 404					8 200
LV			1 746	2 081	2 643	3 158	1 830
LT			10 080	18 963	13 923	26 712	12 880
HU			1 000 369	1 453 699	1 088 119	1 541 449	1 311 930
MT	6 005	7 500					4 010
PL	23 244	28 632					18 690
RO	38 357 875	42 889 220					35 672 300
SI	2 628 125	3 642 300					2 027 620
SK	108 600	168 840					168 280

Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes: See Figure(s).

MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF SCHOOL HEADS
IN LOWER GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), AND PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01

(FIGURE G23)

(NATIONAL CURRENCIES)

	Schools		Small schools		Large schools		Per capita GDP
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	
B fr	1 686 214	2 045 987					977 839
B de	1 116 139	1 850 817					977 839
B nl	1 221 746	1 972 782					977 839
DK			324 426		362 713		242 810
D			90 000	101 378	80 545	114 550	48 191
EL	5 280 520	9 076 900					3 918 625
E			4 698 822	6 186 292	4 854 346	6 812 184	2 537 387
F	113 800	278 100					153 823
IRL	21 562	52 770					21 517
I	37 415 000	62 687 000					39 035 203
L	2 064 420	3 582 838					1 670 158
NL			54 717	101 438	89 541	125 544	55 511
A			378 294	682 094	430 332	741 132	347 585
P			4 361 000	8 335 600	5 061 000	9 035 600	2 303 538
FIN	209 144	293 050					150 723
S	234 000	313 000					236 550
UK (E/WNI)	34 500	78 288					15 900
UK (SC)	33 567	53 438					15 900
IS	2 113 399	4 106 432					2 394 810
LJ	87 015	127 095					(-)
NO			325 300		389 000		317 050
BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	3 270
CZ							190 770
EE							62 360
CY	25 404	26 184					8 200
LV			1 746	2 081	2 643	3 158	1 830
LT			10 080	18 963	13 923	26 712	12 880
HU			1 000 369	1 453 699	1 088 119	1 541 449	1 311 930
MT	6 080	7 500					4 010
PL	23 244	28 632					18 690
RO	31 166 875	52 123 500					35 672 300
SI	2 628 125	3 642 300					2 027 620
SK	108 600	168 840					168 280

Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

**MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES OF SCHOOL HEADS IN UPPER GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3),
AND PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01**

(Figure G24)

(NATIONAL CURRENCIES)

	Schools		Small schools		Large schools		Per capita GDP
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	
B fr	1 899 267	2 310 994					977 839
B de	1 369 983	2 218 761					977 839
B nl	1 221 746	2 348 894					977 839
DK			398 025		412 425		242 810
D			103 228	119 239	150 332	127 093	46 191
EL	5 260 500	9 076 900					3 918 625
E			4 698 822	6 186 292	4 694 346	6 812 184	2 537 387
F	113 900	276 100					153 823
IRL	21 582	52 770					21 517
I	37 415 000	62 607 000					29 035 203
L	2 964 420	3 582 936					1 870 158
NL			89 541	125 544	107 983	151 904	55 511
A			491 176	873 313	537 138	925 519	347 585
P			4 361 000	8 335 600	5 061 000	8 035 600	2 303 538
FIN	243 464	337 080					190 723
S	234 000	313 000					236 580
UK (E/W/N)	34 500	78 288					15 900
UK (SC)	30 587	53 439					15 900
IS	3 506 329	5 050 979					2 304 810
LI	102 450	140 830					()
NO			382 000		427 500		317 060
BG	()	()	()	()	()	()	3 270
CZ							190 770
EE							62 300
CY	25 404	26 184					8 200
LV			1 746	2 081	2 643	3 159	1 830
LT			10 090	18 963	15 923	26 712	12 880
HU			1 113 516	1 645 839	1 201 266	1 733 989	1 311 930
MT	6 085	7 500					4 010
PL	23 244	28 632					18 690
RO	31 165 875	52 123 500					35 672 300
SI	2 628 125	3 842 300					2 027 620
SK	117 900	169 840					160 280

Source: Eurostat and Eurydice.

CHAPTER H: FOREIGN LANGUAGES

**DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1)
ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNED, 1999/2000**

(Figure H5)

(1 000)

	EU	B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
0 languages	7 094.5	193.4	0.0	272.7	254.4	()	350.9	509.7	2 136.3	428.3	1 647.0	0.0
1 language	6 934.3	140.1	6.0	135.9	119.8	()	289.5	1 994.8	1 748.3	16.0	1 212.4	8.0
2 languages and more	189.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	()	5.2	18.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	24.5
	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
0 languages	801.5	95.7	()	126.7	268.1	()	19.4	()	0.0	303.1	379.6	13.9
1 language	403.7	283.8	()	207.5	371.6	()	7.2	()	419.6	84.3	254.7	95.1
2 languages and more	0.0	6.6	()	53.9	81.0	()	4.7	()	0.0	5.4	0.6	14.5
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
0 languages	30.2	74.2	145.9	()	0.0	()	418.1	66.8	196.1		248.4	123.2
1 language	33.6	58.7	68.1	()	34.3	()	756.1	21.1	102.8		34.8	3.4
2 languages and more	0.0	2.0	0.2	()	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	2.5		0.0	0.0

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data refer to students in public institutions only.

FYR of Macedonia: Only students from IV Grade (regular schools) learn foreign languages.

**NUMBER OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (ISCED 1) LEARNING ENGLISH, FRENCH OR GERMAN
1999/2000**

(Figures H7 and H8)

(1 000)

	EU	B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
English	7 093.7	29.5	0.0	0.0	115.8	477.6	294.0	1 960.1	1 389.3	(-)	1 435.0	0.6
French	565.7	(-)	5.1	136.9	0.0	117.4	3.8	41.7	(-)	8.2	193.2	25.7
German	413.1	2.5	0.9	0.0	0.0	(-)	1.7	3.9	273.9	3.4	30.4	30.8
Enrolled pupils	16 998.8	333.5	6.0	408.9	384.2	2 803.4	645.5	2 522.9	3 884.6	444.3	2 436.3	32.5
	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
English	400.7	289.0	(-)	246.4	452.7	(-)	10.3	(-)	419.8	54.7	148.0	72.0
French	0.0	4.2	(-)	8.1	22.5	(-)	0.0	(-)	0.0	4.4	2.9	1.0
German	0.0	(-)	(-)	20.8	35.6	(-)	0.0	(-)	0.0	7.9	114.9	13.3
Enrolled pupils	1 202.2	386.1	(-)	388.1	720.8	(-)	31.3	(-)	419.8	392.9	644.6	123.4
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
English	33.6	59.2	53.9	347.4	34.3	1 480.2	325.5	27.4	55.8		24.6	2.3
French	0.0	0.4	2.6	9.0	0.0	60.6	384.2	0.1	0.5		10.2	0.8
German	0.0	2.3	11.8	357.0	0.0	765.2	31.9	5.8	31.3		0.0	0.3
Enrolled pupils	63.7	134.9	218.2	626.9	34.3	3 898.6	1 174.2	89.9	301.3		293.2	126.6

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data refer to students in public institutions only.

FYR of Macedonia: Only students from IV Grade (regular schools) learn foreign languages.

**AVERAGE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNED PER PUPIL
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000**

(FIGURE H9)

(1 000)

	EU	B fr	B nl	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
Pupils learning languages	30 337.2	312.6	480.0	6.9	675.1	8 050.4	1 095.1	3 812.5	7 479.7	324.8	4 454.7	58.0
Enrolled pupils	21 584.3	225.7	244.5	3.5	306.3	6 583.4	689.5	2 794.3	4 630.3	330.3	3 766.3	22.1
	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
Pupils learning languages	1 677.5	575.8	(-)	800.2	642.1	(-)	47.0	(-)	262.4	678.0	712.2	210.4
Pupils enrolled	860.9	483.3	(-)	324.3	357.7	(-)	25.0	(-)	249.4	510.3	600.9	99.3
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
Pupils learning languages	117.3	367.8	654.8	528.1	66.8	2 388.7	3 142.4	173.9	564.6		275.8	274.9
Enrolled pupils	58.7	226.5	374.7	848.1	32.7	1 463.3	1 630.7	133.7	452.4		348.2	222.0

ISCED 2

	EU	B fr	B nl	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
Pupils learning languages	20 637.9	97.3	188.8	2.3	342.3	6 682.2	724.7	2 899.6	4 867.7	191.0	2 040.8	39.1
Enrolled pupils	15 123.0	108.4	134.7	1.7	207.0	5 952.2	377.9	1 997.9	3 165.7	183.9	1 813.7	15.9
	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
Pupils learning languages	1 387.5	398.6	(-)	438.8	547.6	(-)	24.6	(-)	262.4	409.0	552.2	124.0
Enrolled pupils	678.3	378.2	(-)	193.6	314.1	(-)	11.7	(-)	156.3	364.7	520.9	61.8
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
Pupils learning languages	65.2	251.4	542.6	(-)	60.9	752.7	2 501.9	108.9	464.9		190.4	157.3
Enrolled pupils	32.6	164.1	315.4	503.9	27.3	600.4	1 267.2	101.3	398.0		260.7	129.7

ISCED 3

	EU	B fr	B nl	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
Pupils learning languages	9 697.1	215.3	284.0	4.6	232.8	1 368.2	361.4	913.1	2 812.0	133.8	2 413.9	18.9
Enrolled pupils	6 460.1	117.3	109.8	1.8	99.3	1 011.2	292.0	796.4	1 464.6	146.4	1 954.5	6.2
	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
Pupils learning languages	310.1	175.2	(-)	363.4	94.5	(-)	22.9	(-)	(-)	269.0	160.0	86.4
Enrolled pupils	182.6	105.1	(-)	130.6	43.6	(-)	13.8	(-)	91.1	145.6	80.0	27.5
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
Pupils learning languages	52.2	116.4	112.2	528.1	5.9	1 636.0	640.5	85.0	109.7		85.5	117.6
Enrolled pupils	28.1	62.4	59.3	444.2	5.4	862.9	343.5	32.4	54.4		86.5	92.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data refer to students in public institutions only.

FYR of Macedonia: In ISCED 3, students from the vocational stream are included in general education.

**NUMBER OF PUPILS IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3)
LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES. DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF LANGUAGES LEARNED, 1999/2000**

(FIGURE H10)

(1 000)

		ISCED 2 AND 3											
		EU		B fr	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
1 language	G	7079.4		123.2	1.1	10.3	()	241.4	1757.0	1940.0	245.4	2289.7	0.4
	V	1739.3		50.9	0.5	37.1	()	85.7	59.0	617.1	0.0	679.9	1.5
2 languages	G	5272.0		80.7	1.5	252.6	()	425.3	1037.4	2521.3	36.7	411.0	8.9
	V	622.5		20.0	0.3	7.1	()	0.3	0.0	57.2	0.0	674.2	3.1
3 languages	G	421.4		9.4	0.9	33.4	()	0.0	0.0	169.1	1.1	45.4	11.7
	V	40.1		2.0	0.1	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	31.3	3.4
4 languages and more	G	27.5		0.0	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3
	V	0.1		0.0	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pupils in ISCED 2 and 3	G	12881.3		225.7	3.6	386.3	()	666.5	2794.3	4630.3	330.3	2734.0	22.1
	V	3074.6		216.9	0.9	119.9	()	101.4	61.9	701.1	0.0	1564.8	10.0
		NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
1 language	G	()	384.0	()	5.2	92.8	()	3.6	()	249.4	319.8	457.0	27.5
	V	()	169.6	()	()	20.3	()	1.4	()	122.3	43.7	234.5	4.5
2 languages	G	()	80.9	()	169.2	246.5	()	15.3	()	()	160.2	127.6	35.7
	V	()	35.8	()	()	4.4	()	0.6	()	()	47.1	78.1	13.3
3 languages	G	()	9.7	()	123.7	17.1	()	4.1	()	()	4.0	0.0	30.1
	V	()	3.1	()	()	0.2	()	0.6	()	()	0.7	0.0	0.3
4 languages and more	G	()	0.2	()	24.8	1.2	()	0.3	()	()	0.0	0.0	3.1
	V	()	0.1	()	()	0.1	()	0.0	()	()	0.0	0.0	()
Pupils in ISCED 2 and 3	G	()	483.3	()	324.3	357.7	()	25.6	()	249.4	510.3	600.9	99.3
	V	()	243.1	()	()	33.7	()	6.6	()	122.3	165.5	340.5	18.1
		CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL		MK
1 language	G	()	92.7	89.3	()	18.1	190.4	1624.0	99.7	328.0		261.4	165.0
	V	()	0.0	5.5	()	()	()	567.2	47.5	128.8		14.3	()
2 languages	G	()	122.1	274.7	()	17.9	0.0	()	29.3	117.0		14.5	54.8
	V	()	0.0	28.7	()	()	()	()	26.2	57.0		1.9	()
3 languages	G	()	10.1	4.8	()	0.0	0.0	()	2.4	0.9		0.0	0.1
	V	()	0.0	0.5	()	()	()	()	1.3	0.0		0.0	()
4 languages and more	G	()	0.2	()	()	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0
	V	()	0.0	()	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0		0.0	()
Pupils in ISCED 2 and 3	G	58.7	220.5	374.7	()	42.3	380.7	1830.7	130.7	452.4		349.2	222.0
	V	4.4	40.0	46.4	()	2.4	()	573.1	84.5	192.9		16.2	()

ISCED 2

		ISCED 2											
		EU		B fr	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
1 language	G	4938.0		96.8	1.1	15.3	()	23.4	1094.5	1715.5	133.4	1432.9	0.3
	V	9.4		8.4	0.0	()	()	()	0.0	()	0.0	()	()
2 languages	G	3590.1		0.2	0.6	177.4	()	353.3	903.4	1389.0	26.3	362.1	7.9
	V	0.0		0.0	0.0	()	()	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	()	()
3 languages	G	149.6		0.0	0.0	10.2	()	0.0	0.0	61.3	0.3	()	7.7
	V	0.0		0.0	0.0	()	()	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	()	()
4 languages and more	G	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	()	()
	V	0.0		0.0	0.0	()	()	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	()	()
Pupils in ISCED 2	G	6718.9		108.4	1.7	207.0	()	377.5	1997.9	3165.7	183.9	1775.0	15.9
	V	49.8		46.8	0.0	()	()	()	0.0	()	0.0	()	()
		NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
1 language	G	()	345.3	()	4.9	90.4	()	0.1	()	158.3	300.1	457.0	17.3
	V	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	2.2	0.0	()
2 languages	G	()	25.8	()	127.2	213.9	()	10.3	()	()	56.6	47.5	27.8
	V	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0	()
3 languages	G	()	0.2	()	60.1	9.5	()	1.3	()	()	1.7	0.0	15.9
	V	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0	()
4 languages and more	G	()	0.0	()	0.0	0.0	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0	0.9
	V	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0	()
Pupils in ISCED 2	G	()	375.2	()	180.6	314.1	()	11.7	()	158.3	364.7	520.9	61.8
	V	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	2.4	0.0	()
		CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL		MK
1 language	G	()	75.5	80.6	()	17.3	190.4	1282.1	99.58	328.0		190.4	98.9
	V	()	0.0	1.3	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.1		()	()
2 languages	G	32.6	80.2	227.0	()	16.3	0.0	()	x	63.5		0.0	28.2
	V	()	0.0	0.5	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0		()	()
3 languages	G	()	2.8	2.3	()	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0
	V	()	0.0	()	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0		()	()
4 languages and more	G	()	0.0	()	()	0.0	0.0	()	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0
	V	()	0.0	()	()	()	()	()	0.0	0.0		()	()
Pupils in ISCED 2	G	32.6	154.1	315.4	()	36.9	280.7	1287.2	101.3	386.0		280.7	129.7
	V	()	0.8	7.5	()	1.6	()	()	0.0	0.1		()	()

ISCED 3

		EU	Bfr	Bde	OK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
1 language	G	2141.5	28.3	0.0	0.0	(1)	218.0	662.8	224.5	111.0	898.8	0.0
	V	1730.9	42.1	0.5	37.1	(1)	95.7	59.0	817.1	0.0	679.9	1.5
2 languages	G	1681.9	80.5	0.9	75.2	(1)	72.1	134.0	1132.3	8.4	48.9	1.0
	V	822.5	20.0	0.3	7.1	(1)	0.3	0.0	57.2	0.0	574.2	3.1
3 languages	G	271.9	9.4	0.8	23.2	(1)	0.0	0.0	107.8	0.7	45.4	4.0
	V	40.1	2.0	0.1	0.0	(1)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	31.2	3.4
4 languages and more	G	27.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	(1)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3
	V	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	(1)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pupils in ISCED 3	G	4152.4	117.3	1.8	99.3	(1)	292.0	796.4	1484.8	148.4	959.0	6.2
	V	3524.8	167.2	0.9	119.9	(1)	101.4	81.9	701.1	0.0	1584.8	10.9

		NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
1 language	G	(1)	38.7	(1)	0.2	2.4	(1)	3.6	(1)	51.1	19.7	0.0	10.2
	V	(1)	169.6	(1)	(1)	28.3	(1)	5.4	(1)	122.3	41.5	234.5	4.5
2 languages	G	(1)	54.0	(1)	42.0	32.6	(1)	5.0	(1)	(1)	123.5	80.0	7.9
	V	(1)	55.8	(1)	(1)	4.4	(1)	0.6	(1)	(1)	47.0	78.1	13.3
3 languages	G	(1)	9.5	(1)	83.8	7.3	(1)	2.8	(1)	(1)	2.3	0.0	17.2
	V	(1)	3.1	(1)	(1)	0.2	(1)	0.6	(1)	(1)	0.7	0.0	0.3
4 languages and more	G	(1)	0.2	(1)	24.8	1.2	(1)	0.3	(1)	(1)	0.0	0.0	2.2
	V	(1)	0.1	(1)	(1)	0.1	(1)	0.0	(1)	(1)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pupils in ISCED 3	G	(1)	106.1	(1)	130.6	43.6	(1)	13.8	(1)	91.1	145.6	80.0	37.5
	V	(1)	243.1	(1)	(1)	33.7	(1)	6.8	(1)	122.3	183.4	340.5	18.1

		CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
1 language	G	0.0	15.3	0.0	(1)	0.8	(1)	341.9	1.1	0.0	71.0	86.1
	V	4.4	0.0	4.2	(1)	(1)	(1)	567.2	47.5	128.7	14.3	x
2 languages	G	26.1	30.9	47.8	(1)	1.6	(1)	x	28.3	53.5	14.5	25.0
	V	0.0	0.0	28.2	(1)	(1)	(1)	x	28.2	57.0	1.9	x
3 languages	G	(1)	7.3	2.5	(1)	0.0	(1)	x	2.4	0.9	0.0	0.1
	V	(1)	0.0	0.5	(1)	(1)	(1)	x	1.2	0.0	0.0	x
4 languages and more	G	(1)	0.2	x	(1)	0.0	(1)	x	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	V	(1)	0.0	x	(1)	(1)	(1)	x	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pupils in ISCED 3	G	26.1	62.4	59.3	(1)	5.4	(1)	343.5	32.4	54.4	88.5	92.3
	V	4.4	39.2	38.9	(1)	1.8	(1)	673.1	84.5	192.8	16.2	x

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data refer to students in public institutions only.

FYR of Macedonia: In ISCED 3, students from the vocational stream are included in general education.

NUMBER OF PUPILS LEARNING ENGLISH, FRENCH, GERMAN OR SPANISH
IN GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2 AND 3), 1999/2000

(Figures H12, H13, H14 and H15)

(1 000)

ISCED 2 AND 3

	EU	Bfr	Bde	Bnl	OK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
English	18 882.1	140.1	175.7	2.4	306.3	6 141.1	632.2	2 729.5	4 450.1	(1)	2 956.7	14.1
French	5 006.4	(1)	240.5	2.8	41.5	1 540.5	394.5	1 030.8	(1)	230.7	1 251.9	20.9
German	2 047.1	9.8	62.2	0.7	203.9	(1)	58.4	46.1	1 038.9	77.1	204.3	20.7
Spanish	1 989.1	6.6	2.3	0.0	21.0	129.8	0.0	(1)	1 710.8	14.8	30.8	1.5
Enrolled pupils	20 904.8	232.1	244.5	3.6	306.3	6 063.4	669.5	2 794.3	4 630.3	330.3	3 760.3	22.1

	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
English	1 813.3	474.5	(1)	320.5	357.6	(1)	21.0	(1)	158.3	316.8	382.9	85.8
French	54.2	62.0	(1)	44.9	61.4	(1)	2.6	(1)	28.3	85.6	22.4	2.7
German	74.6	(1)	(1)	101.1	148.3	(1)	5.9	(1)	74.4	108.9	294.7	26.3
Spanish	(1)	7.5	(1)	6.0	50.2	(1)	0.8	(1)	0.0	10.5	4.2	0.2
Enrolled pupils	182.6	483.3	(1)	324.3	357.7	(1)	28.6	(1)	158.3	510.3	680.0	99.3

	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
English	58.7	198.7	273.9	255.8	30.8	1 176.4	1 310.4	117.0	253.4	182.5	169.8
French	58.7	4.0	28.6	26.9	13.4	159.8	1 442.5	3.7	15.0	76.2	79.9
German	0.0	74.2	127.7	209.0	2.4	774.2	185.5	49.3	0.6	1.4	14.0
Spanish	0.0	0.4	0.2	3.9	0.7	4.7	7.9	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Enrolled pupils	58.7	226.6	374.7	444.2	32.7	1463.3	1630.7	137.7	452.4	349.2	222.0

ISCED 2

	EU	Bfr	Bde	Bnl	OK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
English	13 058.2	39.5	66.0	0.6	207.0	5 222.0	373.8	1 970.2	2 996.2	(1)	1 307.7	8.4
French	3 494.7	(1)	130.8	1.4	10.5	1 227.7	304.5	885.8	(1)	135.0	683.3	15.4
German	1 053.7	1.9	0.0	0.3	124.8	(1)	46.4	38.3	962.0	47.5	48.4	15.3
Spanish	1 072.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	49.6	0.0	(1)	975.6	7.3	1.7	0.1
Enrolled pupils	14 444.7	114.3	134.7	1.7	207.0	5 952.2	377.5	1 997.9	3 165.7	183.9	1 813.7	15.9

	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
English	(1)	372.1	(1)	180.7	314.1	(1)	11.7	(1)	158.3	183.8	302.9	52.7
French	(1)	15.6	(1)	15.2	69.9	(1)	0.3	(1)	28.3	52.5	10.4	1.1
German	(1)	(1)	(1)	42.9	124.6	(1)	1.0	(1)	74.4	83.2	234.4	18.4
Spanish	(1)	0.1	(1)	(1)	28.6	(1)	0.0	(1)	0.0	2.1	1.5	0.0
Enrolled pupils	(1)	378.2	(1)	193.6	314.1	(1)	11.7	(1)	158.3	364.7	520.9	67.8

	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK
English	32.8	143.3	231.1	(1)	27.3	411.9	1 026.6	85.4	201.1	132.1	99.6
French	32.8	1.4	21.7	(1)	12.8	23.1	1 150.6	0.7	9.3	56.0	47.8
German	0.0	39.5	105.6	(1)	2.3	237.3	146.3	22.1	187.6	0.0	0.5
Spanish	0.0	0.2	0.1	(1)	0.6	0.1	6.2	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0
Enrolled pupils	32.8	164.1	319.4	(1)	27.3	600.4	1 267.2	101.3	398.0	260.7	129.7

ISCED 3

	EU	B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L
English	5 613.0	100.6	109.7	1.8	09.3	919.1	298.4	750.3	1 465.0	(-)	1 649.0	5.8
French	1 511.7	(-)	109.8	1.4	31.0	312.8	60.0	144.9	(-)	16.7	578.9	5.5
German	893.4	8.0	62.2	0.4	79.0	(-)	13.1	8.8	476.9	39.2	156.9	6.4
Spanish	807.2	6.6	2.3	0.0	21.0	79.0	0.0	(-)	735.2	7.4	29.1	1.5
Enrolled pupils	6 490.1	117.8	109.8	1.8	09.3	1 011.2	292.0	798.4	1 464.5	146.4	1 954.5	6.2
	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE
English	1 81.3	102.4	(-)	129.8	43.5	(-)	9.3	(-)	(-)	116.9	80.0	33.1
French	54.2	46.5	(-)	20.6	11.5	(-)	2.3	(-)	(-)	32.1	12.1	1.7
German	74.6	(-)	(-)	58.2	23.7	(-)	4.9	(-)	(-)	53.8	60.3	16.9
Spanish	0.0	7.4	(-)	6.0	11.6	(-)	0.6	(-)	(-)	8.4	2.7	0.2
Enrolled pupils	182.6	105.1	(-)	130.6	43.6	(-)	13.8	(-)	(-)	145.6	80.0	37.3
	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK		AL	MK
English	26.1	65.4	42.8	265.8	3.5	764.5	283.9	31.6	62.3		60.3	71.1
French	26.1	2.5	4.9	26.9	0.6	136.7	291.9	3.1	6.7		20.3	32.1
German	0.0	34.7	22.2	209.0	0.1	536.9	36.2	27.3	43.8		1.4	8.5
Spanish	0.0	0.3	0.1	3.3	0.1	4.6	1.7	0.3	1.3		0.0	0.0
Enrolled pupils	26.1	62.4	59.3	444.2	5.4	862.8	343.5	32.4	54.4		88.5	92.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Additional notes: See Figure(s)

Albania: Data refer to students in public institutions only.

FYR of Macedonia: In ISCED 3, students from the vocational stream are included in general education.

CHAPTER I: FINANCING OF EDUCATION

(FIGURES 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 AND 111)

	G20: Total education expenditure for all levels of government combined (National currencies)					GDP				
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
B	(-)	(-)	(-)	472 002	523 766	8 161 730	8 396 975	8 771 589	9 111 694	9 501 379
DK	77 436	85 790	88 632	96 145	90 467	1 009 756	1 060 687	1 110 324	1 155 407	1 213 595
D	166 070	172 220	173 220	175 892	179 870	3 523 037	3 595 405	3 660 531	3 773 678	3 951 393
EL	780 658	918 773	1 109 660	1 249 413	1 396 815	27 235 206	29 835 080	33 132 680	36 042 240	38 389 000
E	3 296 735	3 614 487	3 730 523	3 947 180	4 230 068	72 841 700	77 244 900	82 217 900	87 344 700	94 068 400
F	462 754	472 873	485 951	504 393	521 447	7 762 424	7 951 366	8 207 091	8 565 823	8 730 475
IRL	2 280	2 439	2 723	2 972	3 222	41 502	45 725	52 781	60 729	70 116
I	87 006 906	92 378 320	90 768 116	94 535 216	97 059 582	1 787 278 000	1 802 275 000	1 987 165 000	2 077 371 000	2 144 959 000
L	22 699	22 501	25 672	(-)	(-)	535 300	562 526	630 455	684 766	744 232
NL	33 398	34 431	35 191	37 982	39 383	666 035	694 298	735 433	780 541	823 446
A	154 686	157 051	158 229	164 171	170 666	2 370 726	2 449 669	2 511 060	2 613 588	2 706 068
P	869 096	958 293	1 044 792	1 137 822	1 243 311	16 201 007	17 338 710	18 705 552	20 313 440	21 685 497 000
FIN	38 715	40 776	41 122	43 041	44 345	564 666	585 865	635 532	689 523	716 370
S	127 860	133 793	143 829	152 022	155 099	1 713 316	1 756 368	1 823 799	1 905 349	2 004 651
UK	36 219	36 882	37 821	38 390	39 499	719 176	762 214	811 057	859 805	901 269
IS	22 031	25 770	28 385	34 507	(-)	451 372	483 966	524 679	577 406	624 606
LI	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
NO	69 743	71 192	80 890	86 619	90 529	928 745	1 016 589	1 095 170	1 114 826	1 187 457
BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	671 676	680	1 749	17 055	21 577 020	22 776 444
CZ	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	82 629	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
EE	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	5 629	40 897	52 423	64 045	79 638	76 327
CY	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	285	4 007	4 161	4 371	4 695	5 009
LV	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	244	2 349	2 829	3 275	3 589	3 897
LT	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	2 783 188	24 103	31 569	38 340	42 990	42 665
HU	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	531 493	5 614 042	6 893 934	8 540 669	10 087 434	11 303 499
MT	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	68 842	1 146	1 201	1 298	1 362	1 456 100
PL	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	30 756 159	308 104	387 827	472 350	553 560	615 115
RO	2 058	3 671	8 196	12 011	19 368	72 136	108 920	252 026	371 194	539 357
SI	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	2 221 459	2 555 369	2 907 277	3 253 751	3 648 401
SK	(-)	(-)	(-)	32 135 423	35 968 229	546 032	806 094	686 087	750 761 000	815 330 000

KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE — 2002

	Public Expenditure (National currencies)				PPS	Population		
	1996	1997	1998	1999		1999/2000	1999	2000
B	4 414 346	4 508 757	4 618 435	4 778 434	41	10 229 419	10 213 752	10 239 085
DK	634 282	647 362	665 492	679 546	8.98	5 321 799	5 313 577	5 330 020
D	1 602 490	1 805 760	1 841 330	1 888 840	2.08	82 100 263	82 037 011	82 183 475
EL	14 725 662	18 394 571	19 973 171	21 728 027	251	10 538 037	10 521 668	10 554 404
E	33 793 300	34 663 400	36 555 600	38 378 600	136	39 629 105	39 519 207	39 733 002
F	4 411 424	4 511 142	4 612 989	4 740 208	6.95	59 093 000	58 496 613	58 748 743
IRL	18 130	19 764	21 370	24 423	0.79	3 755 739	3 734 901	3 776 577
I	1 011 543 000	1 014 736 000	1 030 137 000	1 048 386 000	1 694	57 646 255	57 612 515	57 679 865
L	255 537	270 715	288 115	310 060	43.21	432 450	429 200	435 700
NL	344 599	354 701	368 511	387 981	2.14	15 812 085	15 760 225	15 863 950
A	1 387 091	1 354 862	1 418 448	1 456 010	14.18	8 092 688	8 082 819	8 102 557
P	7 892 934	8 276 491	8 871 144	9 750 051	139	10 079 540	9 979 460	10 178 230
FIN	351 134	361 258	367 147	373 846	6.45	5 185 474	5 159 646	5 171 302
S	1 147 541	1 152 665	1 158 379	1 200 311	10.50	8 857 874	8 854 322	8 861 426
UK	327 433	332 675	341 168	353 304	0.71	59 507 276	59 391 145	59 620 406
IS	()	()	()	()	89	277 381	275 712	279 048
LI	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
NO	670 052	673 170	684 040	729 151	10.07	4 461 913	4 445 329	4 478 497
BG	()	()	()	()	0.56	8 210 624	8 230 371	8 190 878
CZ	()	()	()	1 054 082	14.41	10 283 960	10 289 621	10 270 069
EE	()	()	()	()	8.82	1 408 706	1 445 580	1 371 835
CY	()	()	()	1 837	0.43	753 150	751 500	754 800
LV	()	()	()	()	0.27	2 409 690	2 428 445	2 379 934
LT	()	()	()	()	1.87	3 609 660	3 700 799	3 698 521
HU	()	()	()	()	105	10 067 507	10 091 789	10 043 224
MT	()	()	()	890 988	425.8	379 360	378 518	380 201
PL	()	()	()	()	1.94	38 660 271	38 666 683	38 653 559
RO	28 687	83 267	90 998	128 488	4.17	22 472 040	22 488 595	22 455 485
SI	()	()	()	()	123	1 983 045	1 978 334	1 987 755
SK	()	()	222 844 000	255 300 000	14.73	5 396 020	5 393 382	5 398 657

Sources:

Total education expenditure for all levels of government combined:
 1995-1998 EU countries and EFTA/EEA countries from Rapid Data Collection
 1995-1997 Candidate Countries from alternative national sources
 1998 Candidate Countries from UOE Questionnaire
 1999 from UOE Questionnaire
 PPS: New Cronos 14 February 2002
 GDP: from New Cronos 12 February 2002

Public Expenditure: European Union countries and EFTA/EEA countries: New Cronos 7 February 2002
 Public Expenditure: Candidate countries from alternative national sources
 France: Public Expenditure and population from alternative national sources
 Population: from New Cronos 28 May 2002

HOW DECISIONS ABOUT THE DISTRIBUTION OF RESOURCES AMONG SCHOOLS
FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION (ISCED 1 AND 2) ARE SHARED, BY RESOURCE CATEGORY, 2000/01

(FIGURE 9B)

	Teaching staff	Non-teaching staff	Operational resources (for teaching)	Other operational resources	Movables	Immovables
B		B + C	B + C	B + C	B + C	B + C
DK						
D						
EL		A + C	A (books) + C			
E	primary	B + C		B + C	B + C	B + C
	secondary					
F	primary					
	secondary					
IRL						
	(VEC)					
I			A + D	C + D	C + D	
L	primary	A + C				A + C
	secondary					
NL						
A	primary, HS, PS					B + C
	AHS				A + D	
P	1st stage					
	2nd and 3rd stages					
FIN						A + C
S						
UK	E/W					
	NI					
	SC					
IS			A (books) + C			
LI	primary					
	secondary					
NO						
BG			A (books) + C			
CZ	2000					
	2001					
EE			A + C			A + C
CY		A + D	A + D	A + D	A + D	
LV						A + C
LT					A (computers) + C	A + C
HU	A + C ???	A + C ???			A + C	A + C
MT						
PL						
RO						
SI	A + C	A + C	A (books) + C		A (computers) + C	A + C
SK			(books)			

A Central government	B Communities (B), Länder (D), Autonomous Communities (E), regional governments (A), etc.	C Local government authorities	D Locally situated branches of central government
-----------------------------	--	---------------------------------------	--

Source: Eurydice.

NB: A box divided into two means that the situation depends on the type of school concerned.

THE EXTENT TO WHICH PUBLIC-SECTOR OR EQUIVALENT SCHOOLS FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION ARE FREE TO RAISE PRIVATE FUNDS
(FIGURE 113)

	LEGISLATION	CUSTOMARY PRACTICE	FUND-RAISING: NUMBER OF DIFFERENT POSSIBLE SOURCES
B fr	Opportunities offered	Frequent	Fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship, (loans in government-dependent private institutions)
B de	No opportunities offered	-	-
B nl	Opportunities offered	Frequent	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, loans
DK	Locally specified opportunities offered	Rare	(National framework): donations, sponsorship
D	Locally specified opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Sponsorship, donations
EL	No opportunities offered	-	-
E	Opportunities offered	Rare	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, financial reserves, donations, sponsorship, advertising
F (p)'	No opportunities offered	-	-
F (s)	Opportunities offered	Rare	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, financial reserves, donations, sponsorship, advertising, loans
IRL	Opportunities offered	Frequent	(Renting of property), service provision, fund-raising campaigns, (financial reserves), donations, sponsorship, (loans)
I	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Service provision, fund-raising campaigns, sale of assets, donations, sponsorship, advertising, loans
L	Few opportunities offered	-	-
NL	No specific legislation	Indeterminate	Indeterminate
A (p, HS)	Locally specified opportunities offered	Frequent	(National framework): renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, financial reserves, donations, sponsorship, advertising
A (AHS)	Opportunities offered	Frequent	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, financial reserves, donations, sponsorship, advertising
P (1st stage)	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Service provision, donations, etc.
P (2nd and 3rd stages)	Opportunities offered	Frequent	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship
FIN	Locally specified opportunities offered	Insignificant	Renting of property, fund-raising campaigns, sponsorship, advertising, donations
S	Locally specified opportunities offered	Indeterminate	(National framework): renting of property, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship, advertising
UK (EW/NI)	No specific legislation	Some frequent, other rare	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, sale of assets, financial reserves, donations, sponsorship, advertising, loans
UK (SC)	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship
IS	No opportunities offered	-	-
LI	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Fund-raising campaigns, donations, advertising
NO	No opportunities offered	-	-
BG	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, sale of assets, donations, sponsorship
CZ	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship, advertising
EE	Opportunities offered	Rare	Donations, fund-raising campaigns
CY	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Fund-raising campaigns
LV	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship, advertising, etc.
LT	Locally specified opportunities offered	Indeterminate	(National framework): renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, sale of assets, donations, sponsorship, advertising
HU	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship, advertising
MT	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, fund-raising campaigns, donations, sponsorship, advertising
PL	Locally specified opportunities offered	Indeterminate	(National framework): renting of property, sponsorship
RO	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, service provision, fund-raising campaigns, sale of assets, donations, sponsorship, advertising
SI	Opportunities offered	Indeterminate	Renting of property, fund-raising campaigns, sponsorship, advertising
SK	Few opportunities offered	-	Donations, sponsorship

Source: Eurydice.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

AUTHORS

EURYDICE EUROPEAN UNIT

Ariette Delhaxhe (co-ordination)

Stéphanie Oberheidt

Nathalie Baïdak

Anne Godenir

Jesús Alquézar

Katja Michaelowa (consultante, Institute of International Economics, Germany) for her contribution to the writing of the Notes to the readers

STATISTICAL OFFICE EUROSTAT

Mary Dunne (co-ordination)

Spyridon Pilos

Karsten Kühl

Pascal Schmidt

Vijay Verma

Francesca Ballini

Michela Natilli

Etienne Albiser

Claudine Greiveldinger

LAYOUT AND PREPARATION OF GRAPHICS

Patrice Breil, Eurydice European Unit

SECRETARIAL SUPPORT

EURYDICE EUROPEAN UNIT

Helga Stammherr

STATISTICAL OFFICE EUROSTAT

Eric Géré

Final edition, Eurydice European Unit

EURYDICE NETWORK

Eurydice European Unit
Avenue Louise 240
B-1050 Brussels
 (<http://www.eurydice.org>)

National Units which have contributed to the preparation of the report

EUROPEAN UNION

BELGIQUE / BELGIË

Unité francophone d'Eurydice
 Ministère de la Communauté française
 Direction générale des Relations internationales
 Bureau 6A/002
 Boulevard Leopold II, 44
 1080 Bruxelles
 Contribution: joint responsibility

Vlaamse Eurydice-Eenheid
 Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap
 Departement Onderwijs
 Afdeling Beleidscóördinatie
 Hendrik Consciencegebouw 5C11
 Koning Albert II - laan 15
 1210 Brussel
 Contribution: joint responsibility

Agentur Eurydice
 Ministerium der Deutschsprachigen Gemeinschaft
 Agentur für Europäische Programme
 Quartum Centre
 Hütte 79 / Bk 28
 4700 Eupen
 Contribution: Leonhard Schiffers

DANMARK

Eurydice's Informationskontor i Danmark
 Institutionsstyrelsen
 Undervisningsministeriet
 Frederiksholms Kanal 25D
 1220 København K
 Contribution: joint responsibility

BUNDESREPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND

Eurydice - Informationsstelle beim
 Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung
 Hannoversche Strasse 28-30
 11055 Berlin
 Contribution: joint responsibility

Eurydice - Informationsstelle der Länder
 im Sekretariat der Kultusministerkonferenz
 Lennéstrasse 6
 53113 Bonn
 Contribution: joint responsibility

ELLADA

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs
 Direction CEE / Section C
 Mitropoleos 15
 10185 Athens
 Contribution: Evi Zigra, Anastasia Liapi, Eleni Mathiopoulos,
 Angela Methodiou, Konstantinos Mytaloulis, Spyros Pardalis

ESPAÑA

Unidad de Eurydice
 Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte
 CIOE – Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa
 c/General Orás 55
 28006 Madrid
 Contribution: Mercedes Muñoz-Repiso, Alberto Alcalá,
 Iñaki García-Romanillos

FRANCE

Unité d'Eurydice
 Ministère de l'Éducation nationale
 Délégation aux Relations internationales et à la Coopération
 Centre de ressources pour l'information internationale
 Rue de Grenelle 110
 75357 Paris
 Contribution: Thierry Damour, Aziza Ouardani

IRELAND

Eurydice Unit
 Department of Education and Science
 International Section
 Marlborough Street
 Dublin 1
 Contribution: joint responsibility

ITALIA

Unità di Eurydice
 Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca
 C/o INDIRE
 Via M. Buonarroti 10
 50122 Firenze
 Contribution: joint responsibility

LUXEMBOURG

Unité d'Eurydice
 Ministère de la Culture, de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la
 Recherche
 Route de Longwy 280
 1940 Luxembourg
 Contribution: Luxembourg Eurydice Unit

NEDERLAND

Eurydice Eenheid Nederland
 Afd. Informatiediensten D073
 Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen
 Postbus 25000 – Europaweg 4
 2700 LZ Zoetermeer
 Contribution: joint responsibility (Ministry of Education, Culture
 and Science)

EUROPEAN UNION (continued)

ÖSTERREICH

Eurydice - Informationsstelle
 Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur –
 Abt. I/6b
 Minoritenplatz 5
 1014 Wien
Contribution: joint responsibility

PORTUGAL

Unidade de Eurydice
 Ministério da Educação
 Departamento de Avaliação, Prospectiva e Planeamento (DAPP)
 Av. 24 de Julho 134
 1350 Lisboa
Contribution: Maria do Rosário Mendes (expert),
 Ana Maria Araújo/Luís Maia

SUOMI / FINLAND

Eurydice Finland
 National Board of Education
 Hakaniemenkatu 2
 00530 Helsinki
Contribution: joint responsibility

SVERIGE

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education and Science
 Drottninggatan 16
 103 33 Stockholm
Contribution: joint responsibility (Ministry of Education and
 Science); Bodil Bergman (co-ordination)

UNITED KINGDOM

Eurydice Unit for England, Wales and Northern Ireland
 National Foundation for Educational Research
 The Mere, Upton Park
 Slough, Berkshire SL1 2DQ
Contribution: joint responsibility

Eurydice Unit Scotland
 Scottish Executive Education Department
 International Relations Branch
 Area 1 – B (CP)
 Victoria Quay
 Edinburgh EH6 6QQ
Contribution: Jeff Maguire

EFTA/EEA COUNTRIES

ÍSLAND

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education, Science and Culture
 Division of Evaluation and Supervision
 Sólholtsgrata 4
 150 Reykjavík
Contribution: joint responsibility

LIECHTENSTEIN

National Unit of Eurydice
 Office for Education
 Austrasse 79
 9490 Vaduz
Contribution: Helga Kranz

NORGE

Eurydice Unit
 Royal Norwegian Ministry of Education,
 Research and Church Affairs
 P.O. Box 8119 Dep.
 Akersgaten 44
 0032 Oslo
Contribution: Annberg Rimeslätten (primary and secondary
 education); Gro Beate Vigje (tertiary education and initial teacher
 training); Kari Jacobsen (pre-school education); Jannicke Sehoel
 (teachers)

CANDIDATE COUNTRIES

BĂLGĂRIJA

Eurydice Unit
 Equivalence & Information Centre
 International Relations Department
 Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
 2A, Knyaz Dandukov Blvd
 1000 Sofia
Contribution: joint responsibility

ČESKÁ REPUBLIKA

Eurydice Unit
 Institute for Information on Education – ÚIV/IEE
 Senovažné nám. 26
 110 06 Praha 06
Contribution: joint responsibility

EESTI

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education
 Tallinn Office
 11 Tonismägi St.
 15192 Tallinn
Contribution: joint responsibility

KYPROS

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education and Culture
 Kimonos and Thoukydidos
 1434 Nicosia
Contribution: Koula Afrodisi

LATVIJA

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education and Science
 Department of European Integration and Co-ordination of
 International Assistance Programmes
 Valnu 2
 1050 Rīga
Contribution: Dace J. o

LIETUVA

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education and Science
 A. Volano 2/7
 2691 Vilnius
Contribution: joint responsibility with ministerial officials and with
 experts of the Education Development Centre

MAGYARORSZÁG

Eurydice Unit
 Ministry of Education
 Szalay u. 10-14
 1054 Budapest
Contribution: joint responsibility

MALTA

Eurydice Unit
 Education Officer (Statistics)
 Department of Planning and Development
 Education Division
 Floriana CMR 02
Contribution: Raymond Camilleri

CANDIDATE COUNTRIES (continued)

POLSKA

Eurydice Unit
Foundation for the Development of the Education System
Socrates Agency
Mokotowska 43
00-551 Warszawa

Contribution: Anna Smoczyńska in co-operation with the experts from the Ministry of National Education and Sport

ROMÂNIA

Eurydice Unit
Socrates National Agency
1 Schitu Măgureanu - 2nd Floor
70626 Bucharest

Contribution: joint responsibility

SLOVENIJA

Eurydice Unit
Ministry of Education, Science and Sport
Office for School Education of the Republic of Slovenia
Trubarjeva 5
1000 Ljubljana

Contribution: Tatjana Plevnik

SLOVENSKÁ REPUBLIKA

Eurydice Unit
Slovak Academic Association for International Cooperation
Socrates National Agency
Staré grunty 52
842 44 Bratislava

Contribution: Marta Ivanova

EUROSTAT CONTACT POINTS

Statistical Office of the European Communities
Bâtiment Jean Monnet
L-2920 Luxembourg

National contact points that have taken part in preparing this report

EUROPEAN UNION

BELGIQUE / BELGIË

Service des Statistiques
Communauté française de Belgique
Boulevard Pacheco 19 - Bte 0
1010 Bruxelles

Contribution: Jean-Claude Roucloux, Nathalie Jauniaux

Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap
Departement Onderwijs
Hendrik Consciencegebouw, tower 5B
Koning Albert II-laan, 15
1210 Brussel

Contribution: Ann Van Driessche, Rik Verstraete

DANMARK

Ministry of Education
National Authority for Institutional Affairs
Frederiksholms Kanal 25
1220 København OE

Contribution: Ken Thomassen

Danmarks Statistics

Sejrogsvej 11
Postboks 2550
2100 København OE

Contribution: Klaus Friberg Jacobsen

BUNDESREPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND

Statistisches Bundesamt
Statistics of Education and Culture
Wittelsbacher Strasse 10
65180 Wiesbaden

Contribution: Christiane Krüger-Hemmer, Pascal Schmidt

ELLADA

Ministry of Education
Director of Planning and Operational
Mitropoleos Street 15
10185 Athens

Contribution: Anthe Tsiantaki

ESPAÑA

Ministerio de Educación y Cultura
Oficina de planificación y estadística
C/Alfonso XII, 3 - 5
28014 Madrid

Contribution: Mr Jesús Ibañez Miña, Eduardo de la Fuente

FRANCE

Ministère de l'Éducation nationale
Boulevard du Lycée 58
92170 Vanves

Contribution: Pierre Fallourd, Alain Goy, Christine Ragoucy

IRELAND

Department of Education
Statistics Section
Irish Life Center, Block 1
Lower Abbey Street
Dublin 1

Contribution: Muiris O'Connor

ITALIA

ISTAT - Istituto Nazionale di Statistica
Via Cesare Balbo, 16
00198 Roma

Contribution: Gemma De Sanctis, Francesca Brail

LUXEMBOURG

Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Formation
Professionnelle
29, rue Aldringen
2926 Luxembourg

Contribution: Jérôme Levy

NEDERLAND

Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek
Prinses Beatrixlaan 426
2270 AZ Voorburg

Contribution: Dick Takkenberg

Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen
Europaweg 4 - P.O. Box 25000
NL-2700 LZ Zoetermeer

Contribution: Jaco Van Rijn

EUROPEAN UNION (continued)

ÖSTERREICH

Osterreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt
Hintere Zollamtstrasse 2b
1030 Wien
Contribution: Wolfgang Pauli, Sabine Martinschitz

PORTUGAL

Ministerio da Educação
DEPGEF
Av. 24 de Julho 134
1350 Lisboa
Contribution: Joaquim Maia Gomes, João Matos

SUOMI / FINLAND

Statistics Finland
Työpajakatu 13
00022 Helsinki
Contribution: Mika Tuononen

SVERIGE

Statistics Sweden
Department of Labour and Education
23 Klostergatan
701 89 Örebro
Contribution: Henrik Engström, Mats Haglund, Eva Bollin, Karin Arvemo-Notstrand

UNITED KINGDOM

Department for Education and Employment
Room 139B, Analytical Services HEES12
Mowden Hall
Staindrop Road
Darlington DL3 9BG
Contribution: John Cantin

EFTA/EEA COUNTRIES

ISLAND

Statistics Iceland
Education Statistics
Skuggasundi 3
150 Reykjavik
Contribution: Ásta Urbacić

LIECHTENSTEIN

Schulamt
Education Statistics
Contribution: Helga Kranz

NORGE

Statistics Norway
2225 Kongsvinger
Norway
Contribution: Geir Nygård

CANDIDATE COUNTRIES

BALGARIJA

National Statistical Office of Bulgaria
2, P. Volov Str.
1527 Sofia
Contribution: Stoyan Baev, Elena Băkalova

LIETUVA

Statistics Lithuania
Gedimino av. 29
2746 Vilnius
Contribution: Gailė Dapšienė, Salvija Chombiene

ROMÂNIA

National Commission for Statistics of Romania
16 Libertatii Blvd.
Bucharest 5
Contribution: Geta Istratie

ČESKÁ REPUBLIKA

Institute for Information on Education –
ÚIVIE
Senovážné nám. 26
Praha 1, 111 21
Contribution: Marie Němečková, Felix
Koschin

MAGYARORSZÁG

Hungarian Central Statistical Office
Keleti Karoly u. 5-7
1024 Budapest
Contribution: Katalin Janak

SLOVENIJA

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia
Vožarski pot 12
1000 Ljubljana
Contribution: Tatjana Škrbec, Breda Ložar

EESTI

Statistical Office of Estonia
Erida 15,
15174 Tallinn
Contribution: Aavo Heinlo

MALTA

National Statistics Office
Education and Culture Statistics
Unit
Valletta
Contribution: Oscar Galea,
Elaine Apap

SLOVENSKÁ REPUBLIKA

Institute of Information Prognosis of Education
Staré grunty 52
842 44 Bratislava
Contribution: Mária Hrabinská

KYPROS

Department of Statistics and Research
13 Andreas Arasouzós Str.
1444 Nicosia
Contribution: Demetra Ioannou-Costa,
Philippos Georgiou

Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic

Dúbravská 3
842 21 Bratislava
Contribution: Alexandra Petrášová

LATVIJA

Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia
1, Lāčpēja Street
1301 Riga
Contribution: Maranda Behmens

POLSKA

Central Statistical Office
Al.Niepodległości 208
00-825 Warszawa
Contribution: Alina Baran, Stanislaw
Radkowski

OTHER COUNTRIES TAKING PART IN THE PHARE PROGRAMME

ALBANIA

Ministry of Education and Science
Rruga e Durrësit
Tirana
Contribution: Besa Peçi

THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia
Dame Gruev - 4
Skopje
Contribution: Lidija Pejkovska

European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education

Teglgaardsparken 100
DK-5500 Middelfart

National contact points that have taken part in preparing this report

EUROPEAN UNION

BELGIQUE / BELGIË

EPESCF
Avenue Max Buset 24
7100 La Louvière
Contribution: Ms. Thérèse Simon

Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap
Departement Onderwijs
Secretariaat-generaal
Hendrik Consciencegebouw, Toren B
Koning Albert II-laan 15, 5de verdieping, lokaal 11
1210 Brussel
Contribution: Mr. Theo Mardulier

DANMARK

Undervisningsministeriet
Frederiksholms Kanal 26
1220 København K
Contribution: Mr. Poul Erik Pagaard

BUNDESREPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND

IPTS 22 – BIS Beratungsstelle für Integration
Schreiberweg 5
24119 Kronshagen
Contribution: Ms. Anette Hausotter

ELLADA

Ministry of Education
Section of Special Needs Education
Veikou 3
117 42 Athens
Contribution: Mr. Konstantinos Karakoidas, Ms. Venetia Lampropoulou

ESPAÑA

Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deportes
Subdirección General de Acción Educativa
Paseo del Prado 28, 1a planta
28014 Madrid
Contribution: Ms. Victoria Alonso Gutiérrez

FRANCE

Centre National d'Études et de
Formation pour l'Enfance Inadaptée
58-60, Avenue des Landes
92150 Suresnes
Contribution: Mr. Pierre-Henri Vinay,
Ms. Nel Saumont

IRELAND

Offices of the Inspectorate
Department of Education
1A South Mall
Cork
Contribution: Mr. Peadar McCann

ITALIA

Ms. Paola Tinagli (provisional)

LUXEMBOURG

Service re-éducatif ambulatoire
64, rue Charles Martel
2134 Luxembourg
Contribution: Ms. Jeanne Zettinger

NEDERLAND

Instituut voor Orthopedagogiek
Rijksuniversiteit Groningen
Grote Rozenstraat 3
NL-9712 TG Groningen
Contribution: Mr. Sip Jan Pijl

ÖSTERREICH

Pädagogisches Institut des Bundes
in Salzburg
Erzabt-Klotz-Strasse 11
5020 Salzburg
Contribution: Ms. Irene Moser

PORTUGAL

Department for Basic Education
Av. 24 de Julho 140, 2.^o
1391 Lisboa
Contribution: Mr. Vitor Morgado

SUOMI / FINLAND

National Board of Education
Hakaniemenkatu 2
00530 Helsinki
Contribution: Ms. Minna Saulo

SVERIGE

Specialpedagogiska institutet
Box 47
611 S - 117 94 Stockholm
Contribution: Ms. Lena Thorsson

UNITED KINGDOM

National Foundation for Educational
Research
The Mere, Upton Park
Slough
Berkshire SL1 2DQ
Contribution: Ms. Felicity Fletcher-
Campbell

EFTA/EEA COUNTRIES

ISLAND

Borgarholtsskóla
Við Mosaveg
112 Reykjavík
Contribution: Ms. Bryndis Sigurjonsdottir

NORGE

Norwegian Board of Education
Box 2924 Tøyen
0608 Oslo
Contribution: Ms. Gry Hammer Neander

CANDIDATE COUNTRIES

EESTI

Contribution: Ms. Kai Kukk

LATVIJA

Contribution: Ms. Anna Dreimane

LIETUVA

Contribution: Ms. Regina Labiniene

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