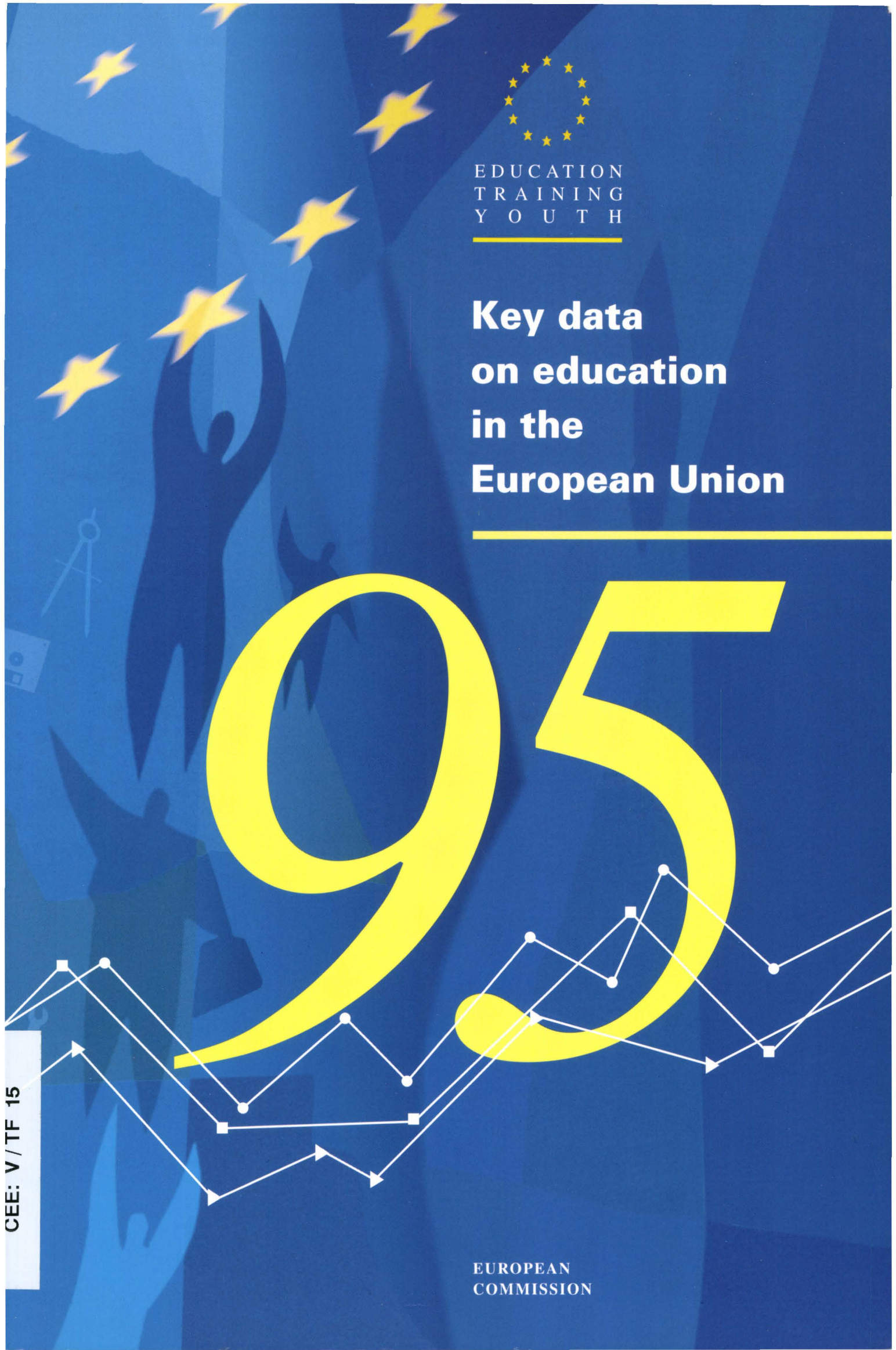
EDUCATION
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YOUTH

Key data on education in the European Union

EUROPEAN
COMMISSION

Cataloguing data can be found at the end of this publication.

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,1996

ISBN 92-827-5591-6

Printed in Belgium

PREFACE

The year 1996 has been designated the European Year of Lifelong Learning. This decision reveals the importance of this subject for the future of the European Union.

As this century draws to a close, Europe is faced with a number of profound upheavals. The internationalization of the economy, the emergence of the information society and the acceleration of scientific progress are all major shocks whose impact has an effect on all its citizens.

What is at stake today is the ability of Europe to control these changes, that is to say, to seize the opportunities which they offer and to reduce the risks which they present, leaving no-one by the wayside.

It is by relying on intelligence and by freeing it that, thanks to technical progress and education, Europe has been able to achieve a degree of economic development and social progress that no continent and no power has ever known previously. It is by drawing on this same source that it can hope to face the future.

Education and training are central to this process of adaptation as they are already at the centre of the actions to prevent unemployment and exclusion. Everyone is aware of the fact that at all levels of responsibility ways and means must still be sought to develop and improve the educational effort for all age groups and in all situations.

The European Year of Lifelong Learning must make its contribution to this by promoting discussion throughout the Union and making possible a sharing and dissemination of varying national practices. Its very diversity is an opportunity for Europe, more especially when it goes along with fruitful exchanges to serve as the basis for the circulation of experience and ideas.

The European Commission's White Paper on teaching and learning has already tried to make a fundamental contribution to this debate by outlining the prospect of a development towards a learning society in which equality of opportunity among its citizens is guaranteed.

This second edition of *Key data on education in the European Union* should also provide food for thought and dialogue. With the information and statistics which it contains, it provides an overall picture of the education scene in Europe and makes it possible to measure the strengths and weaknesses in the Union.

Teachers are given a special place here. A complete dossier is devoted to an analysis of the characteristics of the teaching profession, in terms of training, conditions of service and remuneration. This should give a fuller and more precise picture of this indispensable profession.

This document, which includes the three new Member States which joined the Union in 1995, is the product of close cooperation between the European Unit of Eurydice, the education information network in the European Union, and the Statistical Office of the European Communities. It aims to achieve clarity and readability and combines quantitative data with qualitative elements to provide the most detailed image possible of the situation.

I should like to thank the teams which have produced it and which have, with the quality of their work, made it a reference document.

EDITH CRESSON

EUROPEAN COMMISSIONER

MARCH 1996

INTRODUCTION

This second edition of the report *Key data on education on the European Union* is not only a continuation and an updating but also an expansion of the information contained in the first publication in 1994. The most original feature of that document has been retained: the combination of statistical data and complementary qualitative information providing the illumination necessary for understanding the diversity of the organization and functioning of the education systems.

As in the previous edition, the report is in two parts. Basic data about the different levels of education are presented in the chapters in the first section. Information on the education systems of the three new Member States — Austria, Finland and Sweden — is included. The second thematic part is devoted on this occasion to an analysis of the teaching profession.

In view of the contribution which analysis of trends can make to understanding the development of education in Europe, time series have been added. These deal solely with some indicators for which data were available in relation to several decades and for which it was considered relevant to provide a historical presentation of the information — for instance, the increase in attendance at educational institutions at nursery and higher education level over the past 30 years, or the changes which have marked the initial teacher training systems throughout this century.

The aim of these presentations is to enable the investment made by Member States in relation to education to be assessed by placing the information in a more dynamic perspective of change. In our view, these chronological statistics also make it possible to examine current trends in their historical context.

This document has been designed to inform a very wide public about the wealth and diversity of functioning of the education systems in the European Union. In order to make it accessible to as many people as possible and to facilitate consultation of it, the report contains a number of diagrammatic representations in the form of histograms, maps and graphs. The basic plan of the document involves alternating comparative diagrams and comment highlighting the essential points which emerge from the illustrations.

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* *

The variety of patterns of organization of the education systems and the lack of homogeneity in certain data are both factors contributing to a need for caution in making comparisons and interpreting. The Commission would like to draw readers' attention to certain points which call for particular care in reading the report.

- Information is generally structured by level of education in accordance with the Unesco international standard classification for education (ISCED). Where this does not match the actual structures in Member States' education systems, the reader is alerted and the degree of comparability is explained.

- The statistics relate to the academic year 1992/93 (except where otherwise indicated), whereas the descriptive information relates to the year 1994/95. For this reason, the necessary relationships between statistics and structures are always explained in the comments.

- So as to ensure maximum homogeneity in the data presented, those national and regional Community statistics available at Eurostat and regarded as sufficiently reliable have been used. Consequently, as far as possible, only statistics from the joint Unesco/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) questionnaires collected annually and data from the labour force survey carried out by Eurostat have been used in the analysis. However, to enrich certain of the indicators presented, some additional data have been collected specifically, more particularly for the compilation of the dossier on teachers which appears as Part II of the document. In this case, the data collection was carried out directly through Eurostat and the Eurydice network by means of a questionnaire drawn up for the purpose, in which the information sought was defined as precisely as possible.

- In the interest of quality of presentation, all the figures and sources used are set out in the annexes. On the other hand, the explanatory notes and explanations needed for a proper understanding of the information are placed immediately below the diagrams.

*
* *

In entrusting the coordination and editing of this periodical to the European Unit of Eurydice, the European Commission (DG XXII, Education, Training and Youth) wished to promote exchanges and ensure the production of reliable information on the education systems so as to contribute to strengthening mutual understanding within the European Union.

This report has been produced following close cooperation between Eurostat, which provided the statistical data, and the Eurydice network as regards the descriptive and qualitative information. We should like to thank in particular the national units in the Eurydice network and the Eurostat coordinators in the Member State statistical offices. In spite of the difficulty of the task, they have all made an effective contribution to this collective effort. We are also pleased to note the cooperation and the increasingly close relationships which are being established between the two networks.

Expertise and assistance have been provided towards the preparation of Part I by the team from the Department of Experimental Psychology of the University of Liège in Belgium, and by the Department of Social Sciences of the University of Twente in the Netherlands. The thematic dossier on teachers was compiled entirely on the basis of information provided by the national units in the Eurydice network. It was edited by the European Unit of Eurydice which carries full responsiblity for the analysis.

CONTENTS

PART I

GENERAL DATA

A

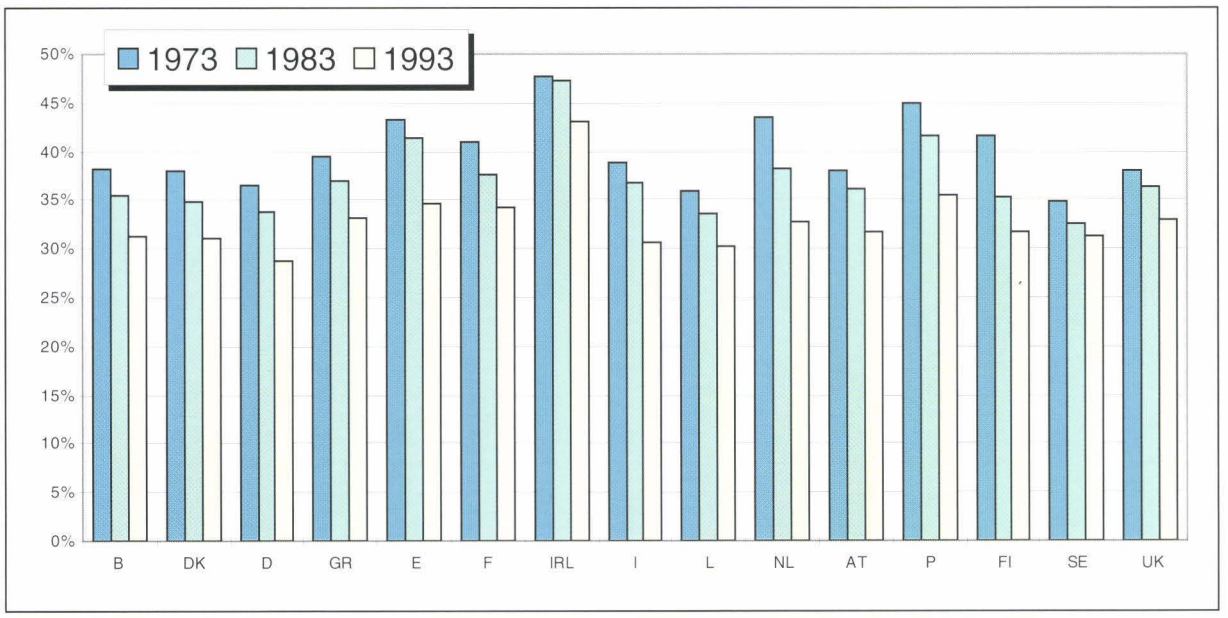
CONTEXT

THE PROPORTION OF UNDER-25-YEAR-OLDS IN THE EUROPEAN POPULATION IS FALLING

In 1993, there were slightly more than 117 million young people under 25 years old living in the 15 countries of the European Union, representing 32% of the total population of the Union.

The proportion of under-25s was highest in Ireland, at 43%, which is nearly one-and-a-half times the proportion in Germany, where the percentage of young people under 25 was the lowest of the countries in question. As Graph A1 illustrates, the percentages have been going down in all 15 Member States since 1973. In several countries where the percentage of under-25-year-olds was relatively high in 1973 (Spain, the Netherlands, Portugal and Finland), their proportion has decreased most rapidly over the past two decades.

GRAPH A1: PERCENTAGE OF UNDER-25-YEAR-OLDS, 1973, 1983 AND 1993

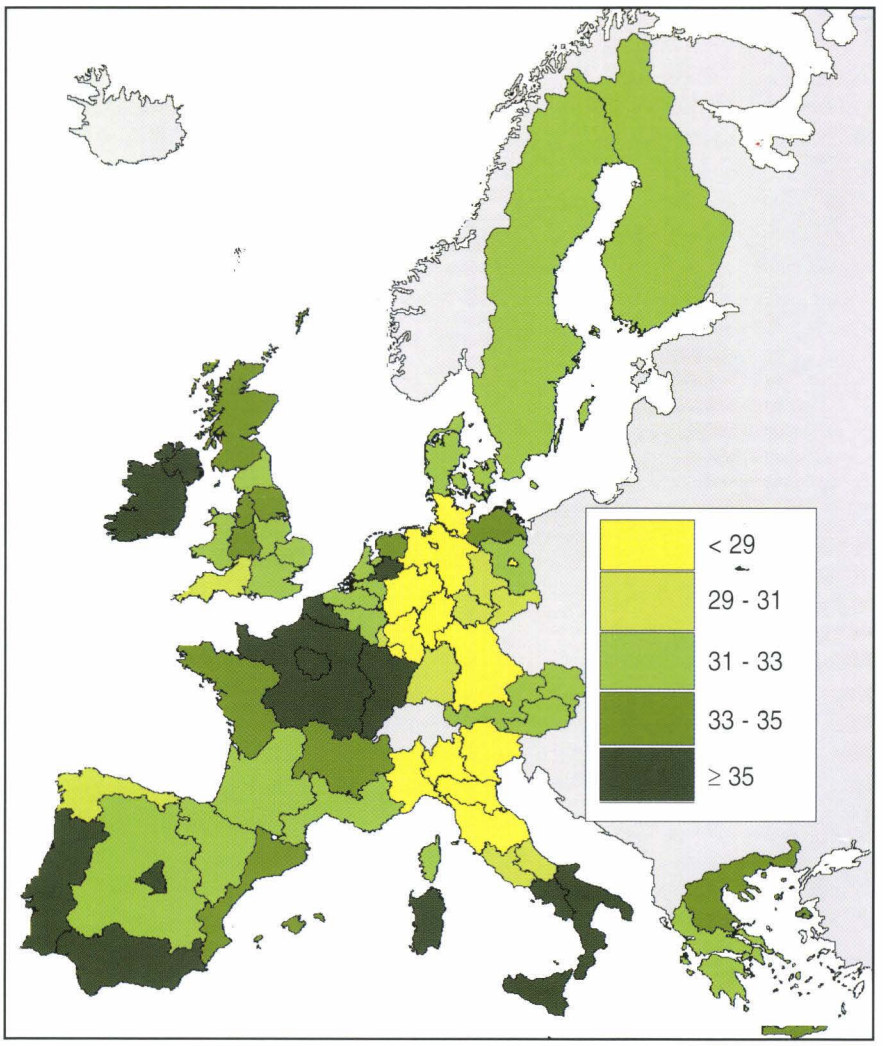


Source: Eurostat.

Germany and **Portugal**: The percentage for 1973 is an estimate.
Germany: The percentage for 1993 includes the new *Länder*.

Regional differences in the percentages of young people in the total population are shown in Map A1. Relatively more young people are found in the south of Spain, in the northern half of France, in Ireland, in the southern regions of Italy, in the eastern Netherlands, in Portugal (the Azores and Madeira, not on map) and in Northern Ireland (United Kingdom).
On the other hand, the percentages of under-25s are relatively small in the north of Italy and in most of the new *Länder* in Germany.

MAP A1: PERCENTAGES OF UNDER-25-YEAR-OLDS BY NUTS 1 REGIONS, 1993



Source: Eurostat.

France and **Netherlands**: The data available are for 1992.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The nomenclature of territorial units for statistics (NUTS) is used in the European Union to provide a single and coherent breakdown of regional statistics. The NUTS 1 breakdown used here is that at regional level (i.e. the largest regional units in the system).

VARYING POPULATION DENSITIES

The average population density in the European Union is 114 inhabitants per square kilometre, but there are considerable differences between Member States.

The lowest densities are found in Sweden and Finland, with 19 and 15 inhabitants per square kilometre respectively. Population densities are also relatively low in Greece, Spain and Ireland. Belgium and above all the Netherlands are the most densely populated Member States.

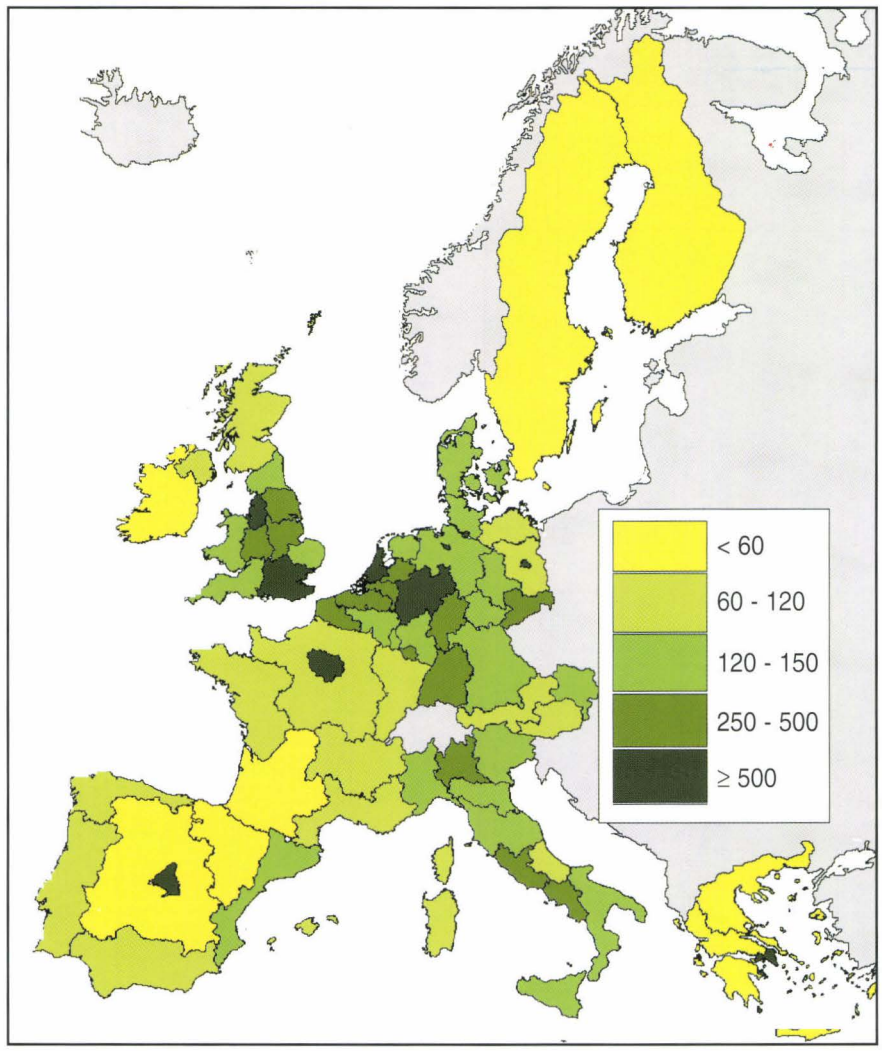
TABLE A1: POPULATION DENSITY PER SQUARE KILOMETRE BY COUNTRY, 1992

B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
329.2	120.2	225.8	78.2	77.4	105.5	51.5	188.7	151.8	370	94.4	107.2	14.9	19.3	239.9

Source: Eurostat.

Within countries, considerable differences may be observed between regions. In most countries, there are very densely populated urban areas. The regions with a lower population density compared to their country's national average are the new German *Länder* of Brandenburg and Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, central Spain (excluding Madrid), the Italian island of Sardinia, the northern Netherlands and, in the United Kingdom, Scotland.

MAP A2: POPULATION DENSITY BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992



Source: Eurostat.

SOME 72 MILLION PUPILS AND STUDENTS

During the academic year 1992/93, there were 72 million pupils and students in the European Union, representing about 20% of the total population.

TABLE A2: PUPILS AND STUDENTS (THOUSAND), 1992/93

B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
2 058	938	13 628	1 892	8 704	11 997	1 020	9 467	51	3 540	1 373	2 105	1 030	1 425	12 931

Source: Eurostat.

Of these 72 million pupils and students, approximately 45 million are of compulsory school age.

TABLE A3: PUPILS IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION (THOUSAND), 1992/93

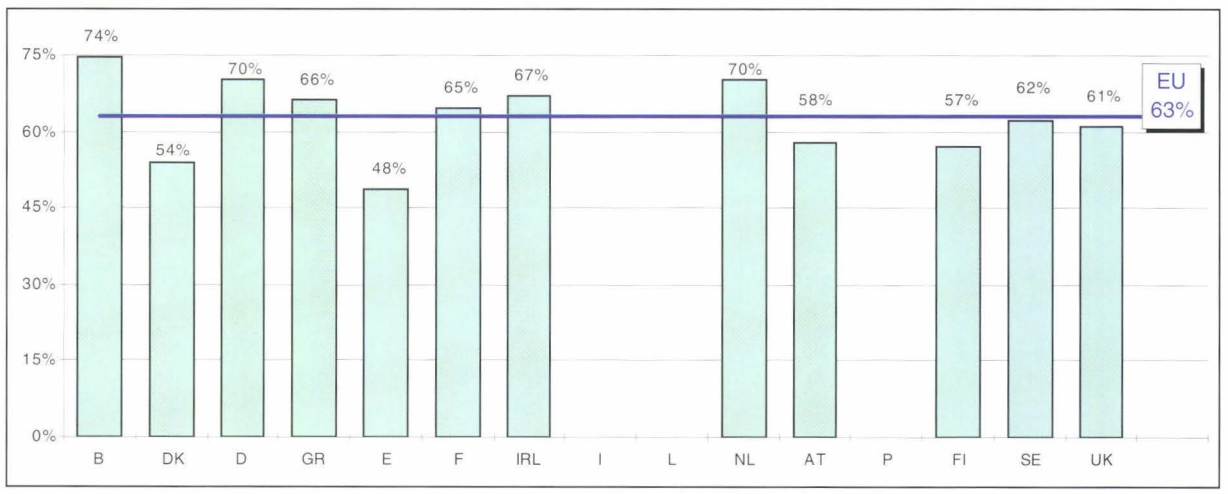
B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
1 532	506	9 577	1 256	4 221	7 741	597			2 479	794		588	885	7 888

Source: Eurostat.

Italy, Luxembourg and **Portugal**: No data available by age.
Finland: The data are for 1991/92.

Graph A2 below shows the relationship between the numbers of pupils of compulsory school age and the total numbers of pupils and students in each of the Member States.

GRAPH A2: PUPILS OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS AND STUDENTS, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Spain: The data relate to the pre-reform system.
Italy, Luxembourg and **Portugal**: No data available by age.
Finland: The data are for 1991/92.

The percentages vary, depending on the duration of compulsory education. The highest rates are found in Belgium (74%), Germany (70%) and the Netherlands (70%). The lowest rate is found in Spain (48%). In the other Member States, the percentage varies from 59 to 66%.

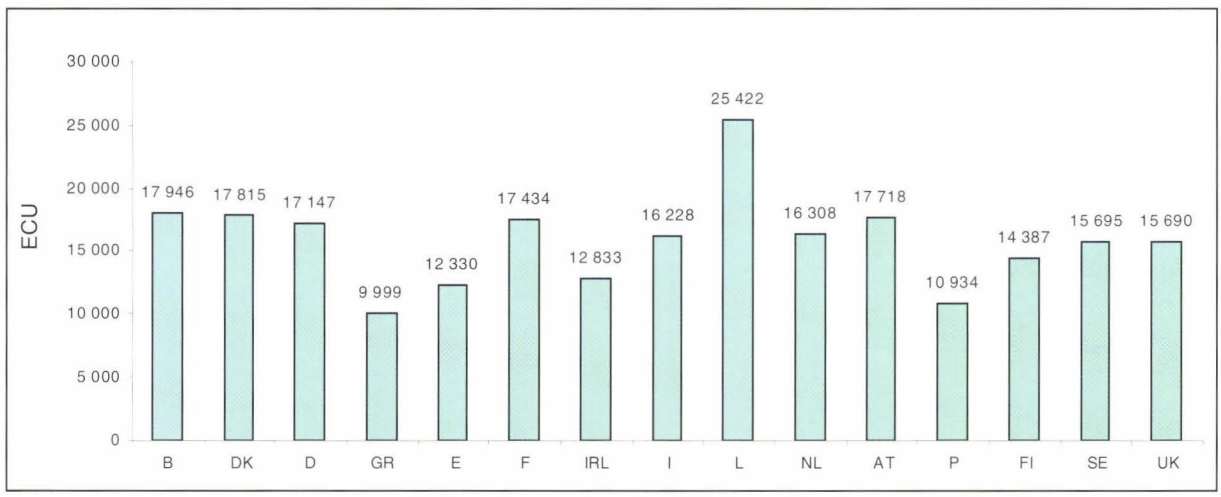
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The Unesco International Standard Classification for Education (ISCED) level 1 corresponds to primary education and levels 2 and 3 to secondary education. The number of pupils of compulsory school age is arrived at by adding the numbers of children of compulsory school age attending schools at ISCED levels 1, 2 and/or 3, depending on the country. Pupils in special education are included in these statistics. Those in pre-school education, ISCED level 0, are excluded.

CONSIDERABLE DIFFERENCES IN PER CAPITA GDP

The range in per capita gross domestic product (GDP) across the Member States is considerable. The per capita GDP is relatively low in Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal. In Luxembourg, it is considerably higher than in the other Member States.

GRAPH A3: PER CAPITA GDP, AT CURRENT PRICES AND PURCHASING POWER STANDARDS (PPS), 1993



Source: Eurostat, 1995.

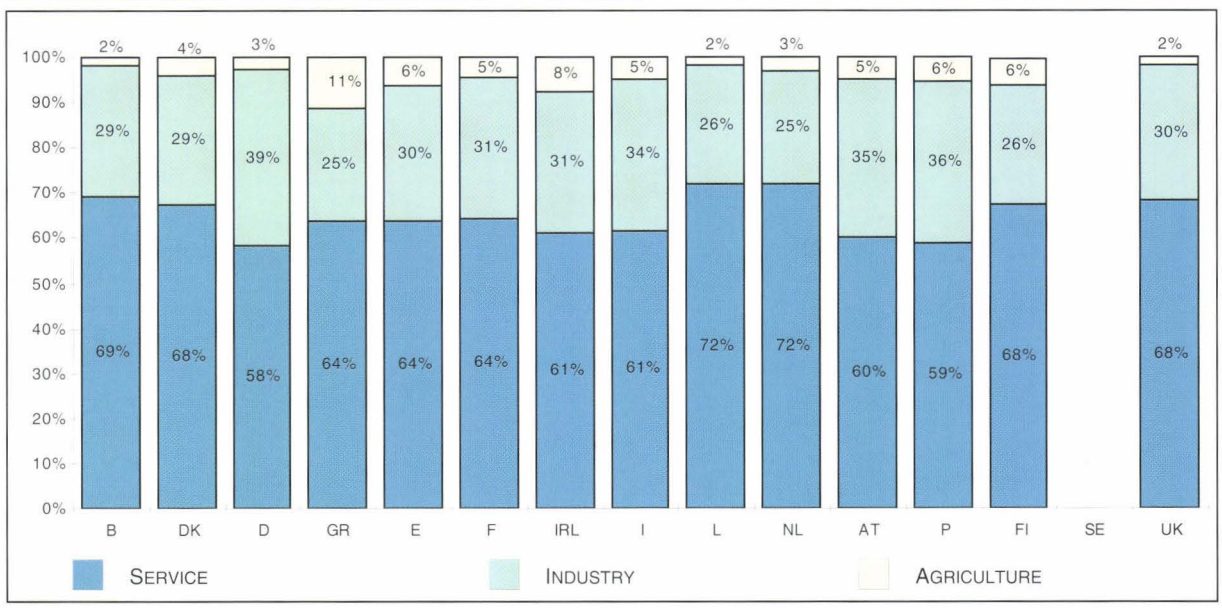
EXPLANATORY NOTE

For purposes of international comparison, a country's GDP is expressed in a common currency (ecu), but the official exchange rates do not necessarily reflect the purchasing power of each national currency in its own economic area. Therefore 'purchasing power standards' (PPS) are calculated by applying a conversion rate which reflects the price ratios between countries for a set of comparable and representative goods and services.

MOST PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 25 AND 35 ARE EMPLOYED IN THE SERVICE SECTOR

In all the Member States, the majority of people aged 25 to 35 work in the service sector. In Germany and Portugal, the percentage of people working in the service sector is relatively lower. Only a small minority of people aged between 25 and 35 work in agriculture, although there are differences between countries in this respect. In the United Kingdom, only 1.6% of all people between 25 and 35 work in agriculture, but in Greece the corresponding proportion is 11.1%. The industrial sector occupies a central position in all Member States. About one third of those aged from 25 to 35 work in industry.

GRAPH A4: ECONOMIC ACTIVITY OF PEOPLE AGED 25 TO 35
PERCENTAGES WORKING IN THE SERVICE SECTOR, INDUSTRY AND AGRICULTURE, 1993



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Austria: Data provided by the national statistical office.
Sweden: Data available relate to people aged from 25 to 44 (service (73%), industry (26%) and agriculture (1%)) and are therefore not shown in the graph.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

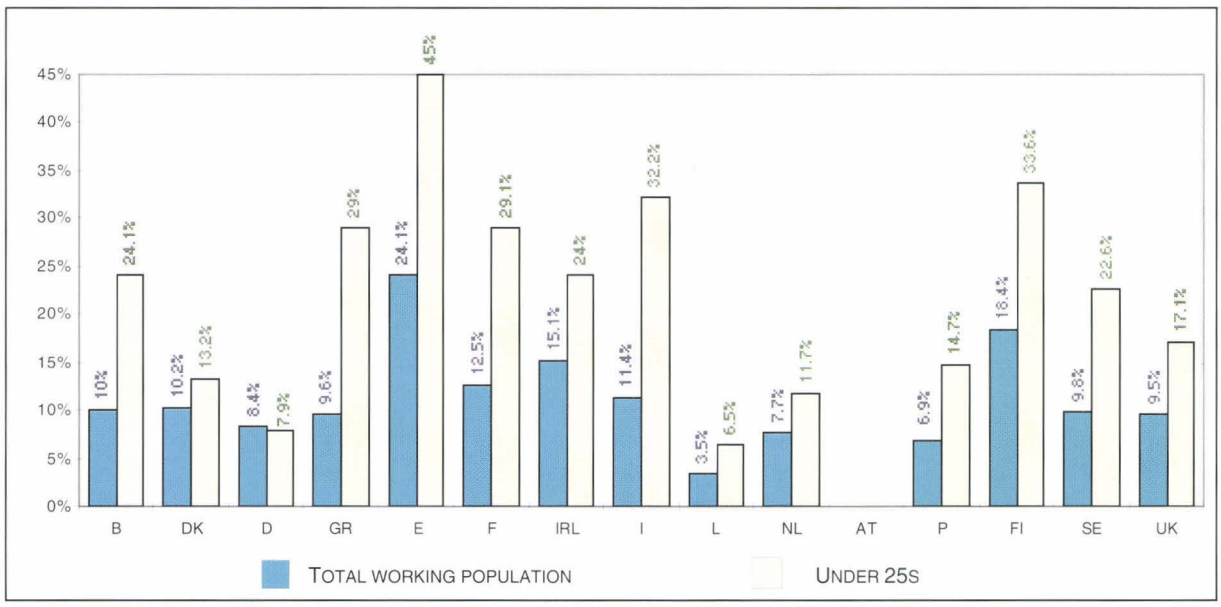
The Eurostat labour force survey provides statistical information with regard to employment and unemployment in the European Union. The data are obtained from large-scale sample surveys, which are carried out annually by the statistical offices of the Member States. The methods of data collection are devised to obtain statistical information which is optimally comparable both between countries and across years.

The service sector includes all economic activities which are neither agricultural nor industrial. It includes among other things, trade, transport, catering, banking, insurance, public administration, health care and education.

MORE THAN ONE FIFTH OF YOUNG PEOPLE ARE UNEMPLOYED

Unemployment rates vary widely across Member States. This is true in relation to both those in the 15 to 25 age group and the working population as a whole. The highest unemployment rates, for both young people and adults, are found in Spain, where they are nearly seven times the rates for Luxembourg. In every Member State except Germany, unemployment rates are higher for young people than for adults.

GRAPH A5: UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%) FOR UNDER 25S AND FOR THE TOTAL WORKING POPULATION, 1994



Source: Eurostat, 1995.

Greece: Data provided by the national statistical office.
Austria: Data not available.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

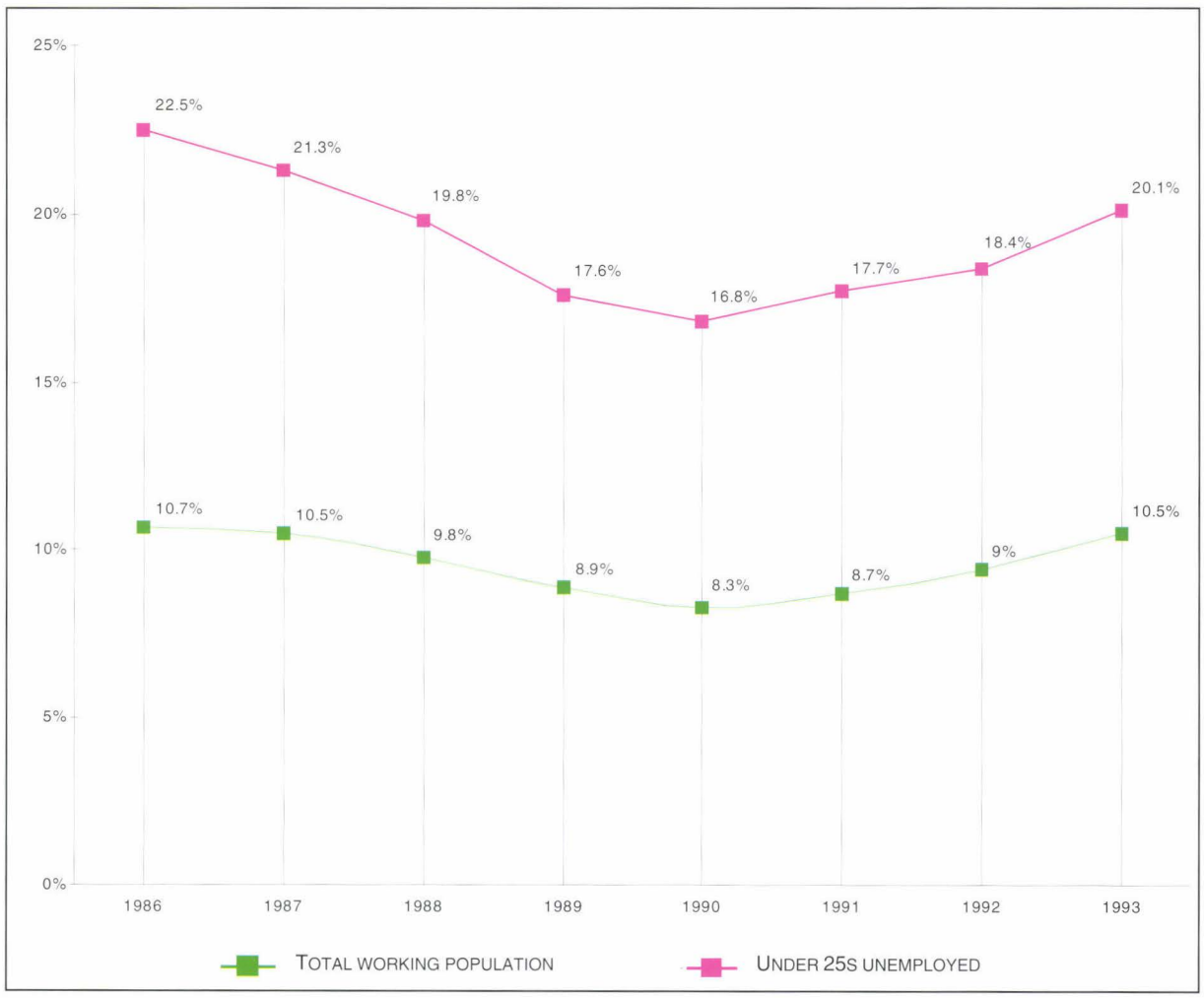
Unemployment is calculated according to the guidelines of the International Labour Office (ILO). Persons at least 15 years old are considered unemployed if they are without work, available to start work within the next two weeks and have actively sought employment at some time during the previous four weeks. The unemployment rate is the number of persons unemployed as a percentage of the working population. The working population is the total of the employed and unemployed.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES INCREASING IN RECENT YEARS

Fluctuations over time in overall unemployment and youth unemployment in the European Union are illustrated in Graph A6. The unemployment rates relate to the 12 Member States of the European Union in 1987. On average, the two curves indicate that unemployment fell during the latter half of the 1980s and reached its lowest point in 1990, but it then rose in the following years. It appears that the young benefited proportionately more from the upturn of employment which started between 1987 and 1990. But it is also the case that young people were particularly affected by the return of unemployment after 1990. In fact, the overall unemployment rate has increased by 2.7 points while youth unemployment has increased by 3.4 points since 1990 (*Social Europe*, No 3, 1994, Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities).

However, these average unemployment rates given for the Union as a whole cover very different situations in the individual Member States.

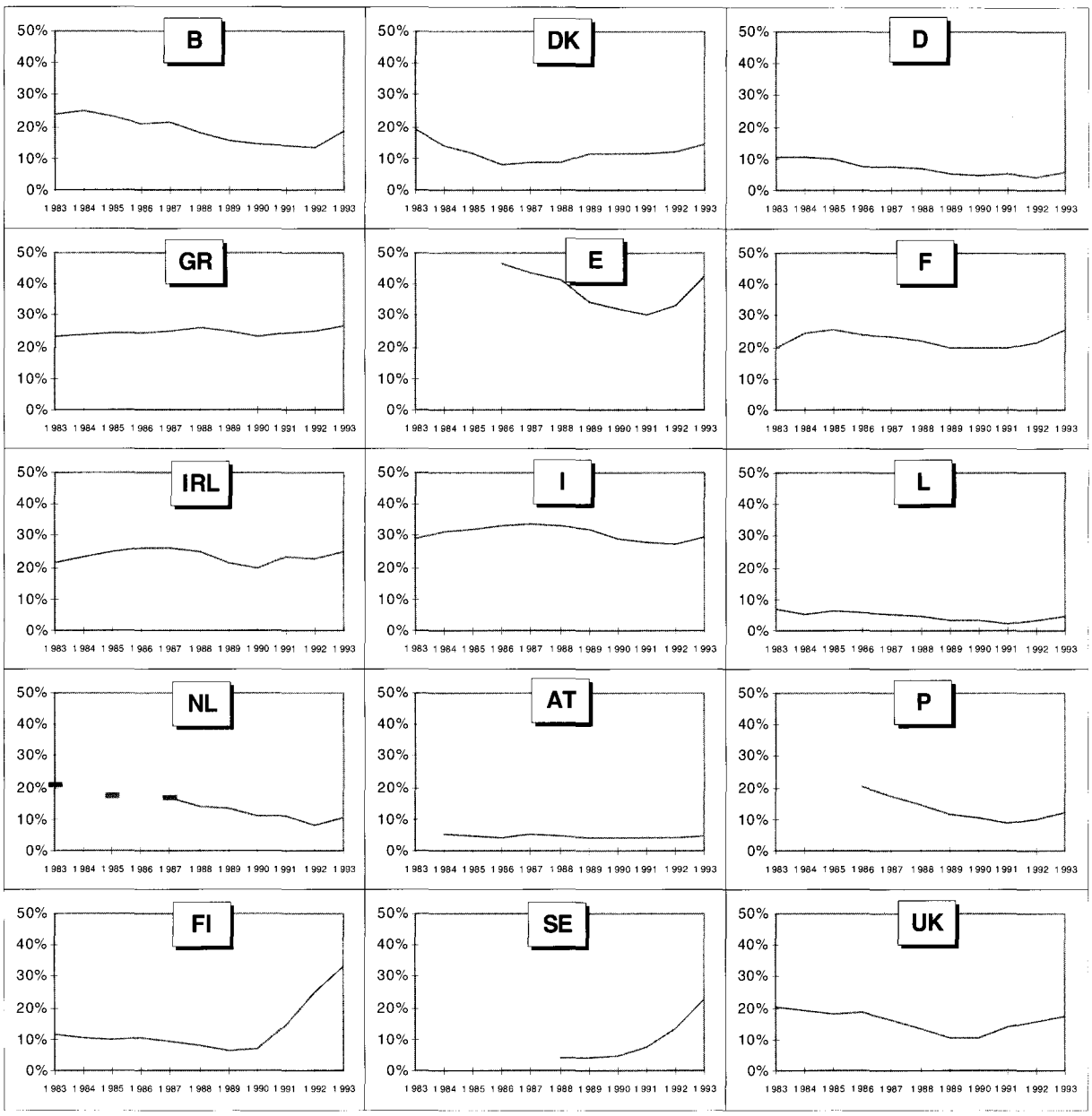
GRAPH A6: UNEMPLOYMENT RATES OF YOUNG PEOPLE BETWEEN 15 AND 25 YEARS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION AND OVERALL UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, 1983-93



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Graph A7 illustrates the movement in the rates of unemployment of young people between 1983 and 1993 in each of the present 15 Member States and shows that the changes are very different from one country to another. Some have a curve similar to that of the European mean. They had a decrease towards 1990 and a subsequent rise in unemployment. This is found in Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom. Finland and Sweden, which had a relatively low rate of unemployment until 1990, have seen a considerable increase since then. Only Germany, Luxembourg and Austria have had relatively stable rates of unemployment, at less than 10%, over the decade. Youth unemployment has not declined markedly in any Member State since 1990.

GRAPH A7: YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY COUNTRY, 1983-93



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Austria, Finland and **Sweden**: Data provided by the national statistical offices.

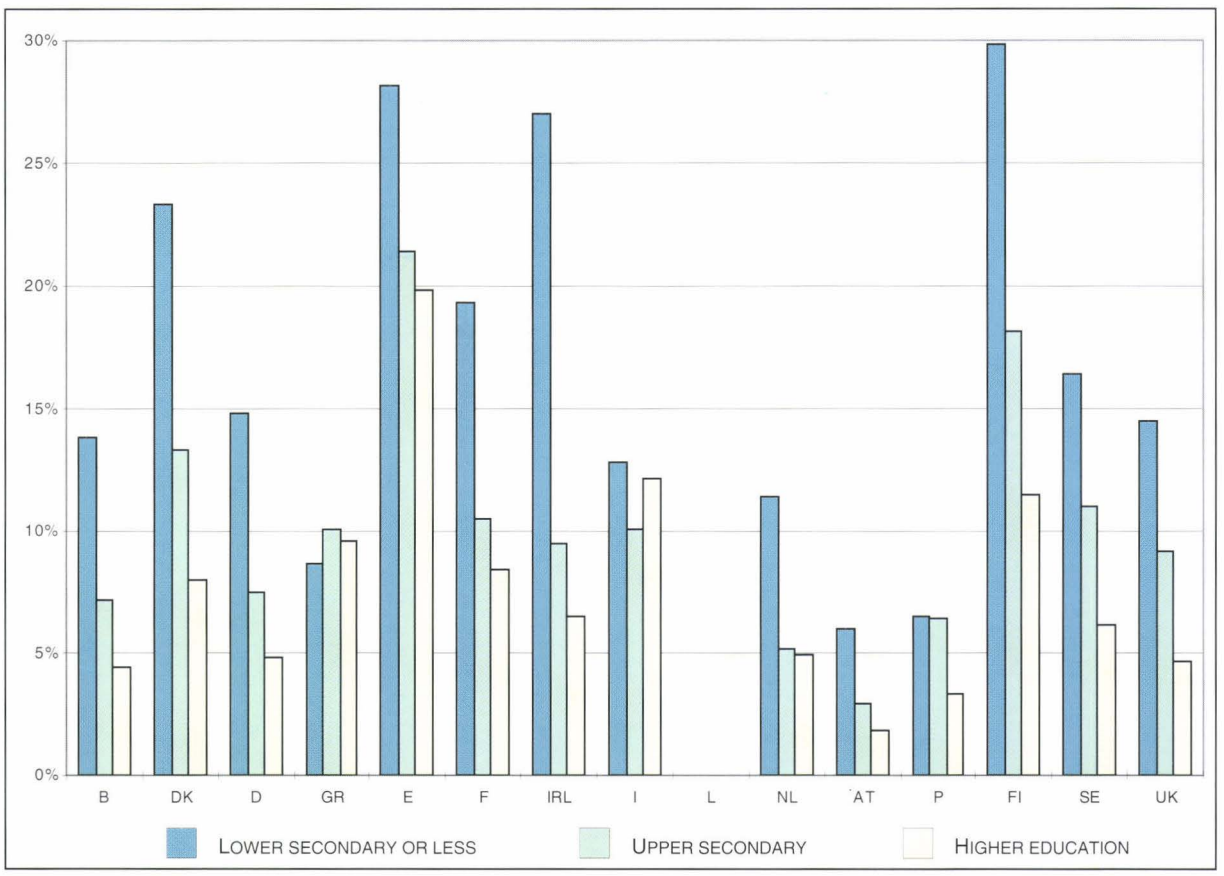
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The unemployment rates have been harmonized for the 12 Member States in 1983. Differences are only likely to occur concerning the data for the three new Member States. In 1992 however, there was a change in the definition of unemployment which can cause a slight break in the time series.

FEWER UNEMPLOYED AMONGST THOSE WITH MORE ADVANCED QUALIFICATIONS

Graph A8 shows the relationship between unemployment and level of education among young people between 25 and 35 years old. In general, unemployment rates are high for people with only lower secondary education and significantly lower for those who have attained a higher education qualification. Graph A8 shows that for two Member States, however, this general statement is not (entirely) correct. In Greece, the unemployment rates are relatively low for those who have not gone beyond lower secondary education and in Italy the unemployment rates are lowest for those with an upper secondary qualification.

GRAPH A8: UNEMPLOYMENT AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION
UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%) FOR PEOPLE AGED 25 TO 35 BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1993



Source: Eurostat, Labour force survey.

Luxembourg: Data not available.
Sweden: Data provided by the national statistical office.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The Eurostat labour force survey provides statistical information with regard to employment and unemployment in the European Union. The data are obtained from large scale sample surveys, which are carried out annually by the statistical offices of the Member States. The methods of data collection are devised to obtain statistical information which is optimally comparable both between countries and across years.

Lower secondary education corresponds to ISCED 2 under the Unesco International Standard Classification for Education, upper secondary education to ISCED 3 and higher education to ISCED 5 (higher non-university education), 6 (first university degree or equivalent) and 7 (second-stage — post-graduate — university degree or equivalent).

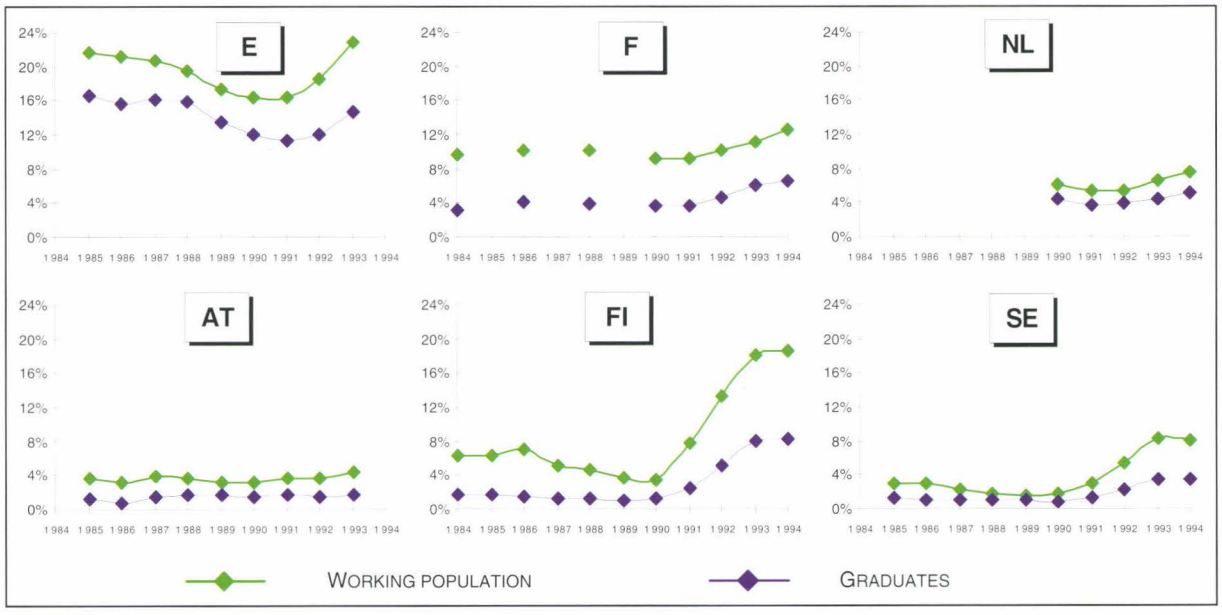
MOVEMENT IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AMONG HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES IN SIX MEMBER STATES

Graph A9 shows the fluctuations in the unemployment rates for higher education graduates in six Member States in the period 1984-94 compared with the movement in the unemployment rates for the total working population over the same period. The level of qualification varies from one country to another and may be from university or non-university higher education (ISCED 5 at least).

The graph shows that the unemployment rates for higher education graduates have remained lower than those for the working population as a whole in the countries in question but that the fluctuations vary from country to country. In two Member States (the Netherlands and Austria), there has been little variation in the overall rates of unemployment; the movement in the rates of unemployment for graduates follows quite closely the curve of the rate for the working population as a whole. In Sweden, where the total unemployment rate has almost trebled in 10 years, the unemployment rate for higher education graduates has also trebled, but holding a qualification still gives the same relative protection from unemployment. In Spain, which has the highest level of unemployment, higher education graduates are still a little more protected today, relatively speaking, than 10 years ago.

In France, on the other hand, and even more so in Finland where there has been a considerable increase in unemployment, a higher education qualification gives less protection than 10 years ago. In 1984, the overall unemployment rate was three times that for higher education graduates, whereas in 1994 it was only twice that. In Finland in 1984, higher education graduates were almost four times better protected from unemployment while by 1994 the overall unemployment rate was approximately twice as high as that for higher education graduates.

GRAPH A9: MOVEMENT IN GRADUATE AND OVERALL UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN SIX MEMBER STATES



Source: see Annex.

Spain: Higher education refers to ISCED 6 only.
France, Austria and **Finland**: Higher education refers to ISCED 5, 6 and 7.
Netherlands and **Sweden**: Higher education refers to ISCED 6 and 7 only.

The information in Graph A9 has been obtained directly from the national statistical offices of the Member States and differences between countries with respect to the levels of unemployment may be due in part to differences of detail in national definitions.

B

STRUCTURES AND SCHOOLS

A WIDE VARIETY OF SCHOOL STRUCTURES

Graph B1 on the following pages illustrates the similarities and differences in the structures of the education systems in the European Union. The schema relates to schools only. In many countries young children attend pre-school institutions which are not considered to be schools, because the responsibility for them does not rest with the Ministry of Education. Such pre-school institutions are therefore not included in Graph B1. An overview of all types of pre-school institutions in the Member States is presented in Chapter C. Special education is also excluded.

In most of the Member States, children enter the school system at the age of 3 or 4, but some may have their first experience of school as early as age 2 in France and the United Kingdom (except in Scotland) and age two-and-a-half in Belgium. Children are not admitted to the school system until age 6 in Germany, except in some schools which take them in at age 5. In Denmark, Austria and Finland, they are admitted at age 6 and in Sweden at age 7.

Compulsory education starts at age 6 in nine of the Member States, but begins earlier in some of them. In Luxembourg and in Northern Ireland (UK), it starts at age 4 and in the Netherlands and in Great Britain at age 5. In the Scandinavian Member States (Denmark, Finland and Sweden), education is compulsory only from age 7. The start of compulsory education generally coincides with the point of entry to primary school, except in Ireland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

In most Member States, the pattern of education is identical for all children until the end of lower secondary school, at around age 14 or 15. A common core curriculum is followed until age 16 in Denmark, Spain after the reform, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In Germany and Austria, pupils are faced with selection regarding their direction of study at the beginning of lower secondary education at age 10 and in Luxembourg at age 12.

In most countries, the end of compulsory education coincides with the transition from lower to upper secondary education. In France, the Netherlands and Austria, however, the first stage of secondary education ends one year before the end of compulsory education. In Belgium and in the United Kingdom (except Scotland), it ends two years before the end of compulsory education.

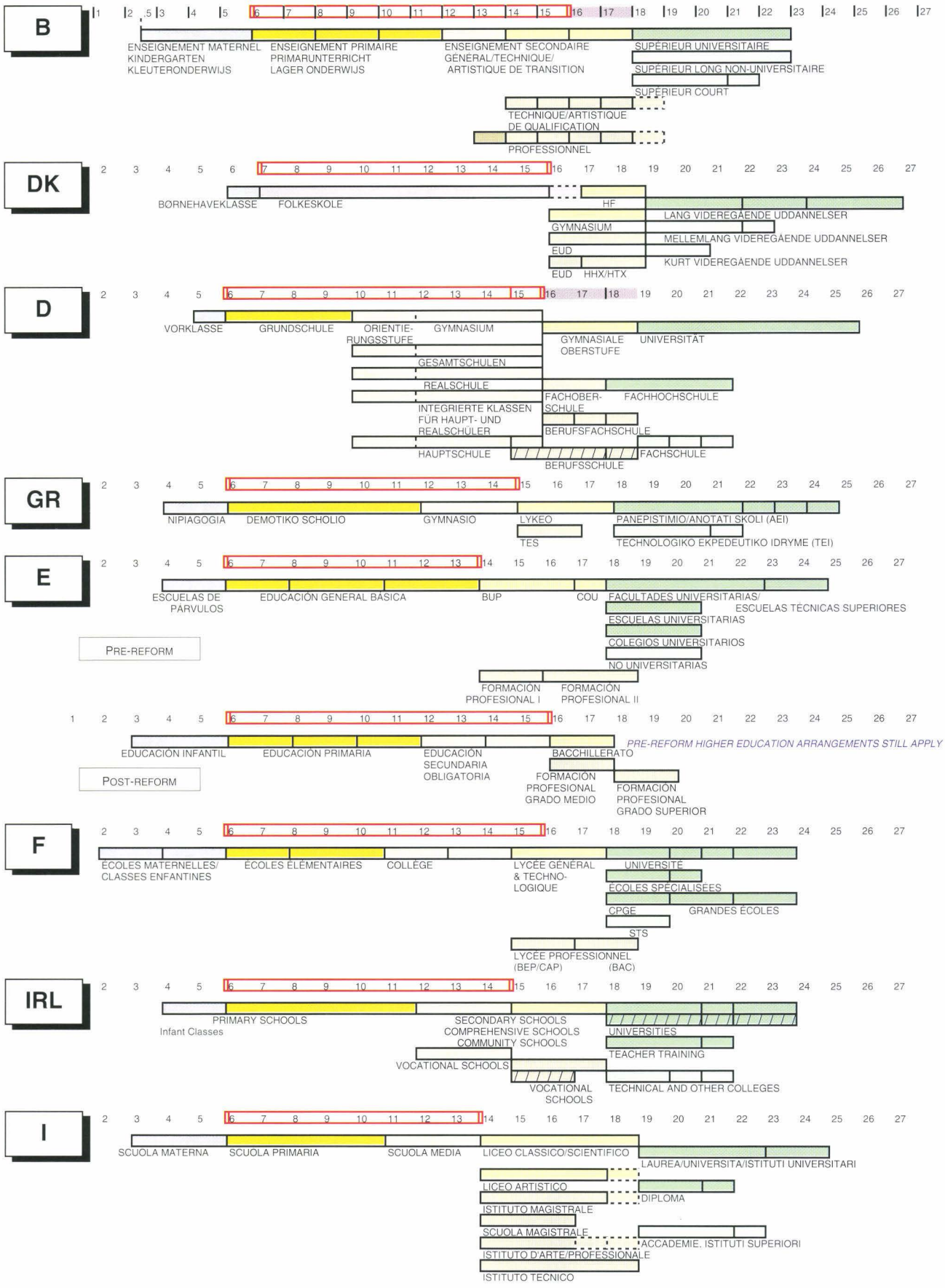
In Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands, compulsory education continues on a part-time basis after age 16, in Belgium and the Netherlands for two years and in Germany for three years. In these countries, the end of compulsory education coincides more closely with the end of upper secondary education.

Full-time compulsory education lasts until age 16 in most Member States, but in Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria and Portugal it finishes at age 15 and in Italy at 14. In most countries, full-time compulsory education lasts 9 or 10 years, but in Italy it lasts only 8 years, whereas in Luxembourg and Great Britain it lasts 11 years and in the Netherlands and Northern Ireland (UK) as much as 12 years. In the Netherlands, full-time compulsory education starts at age 5 and lasts until age 16, but all pupils must complete at least 12 years of full-time education.

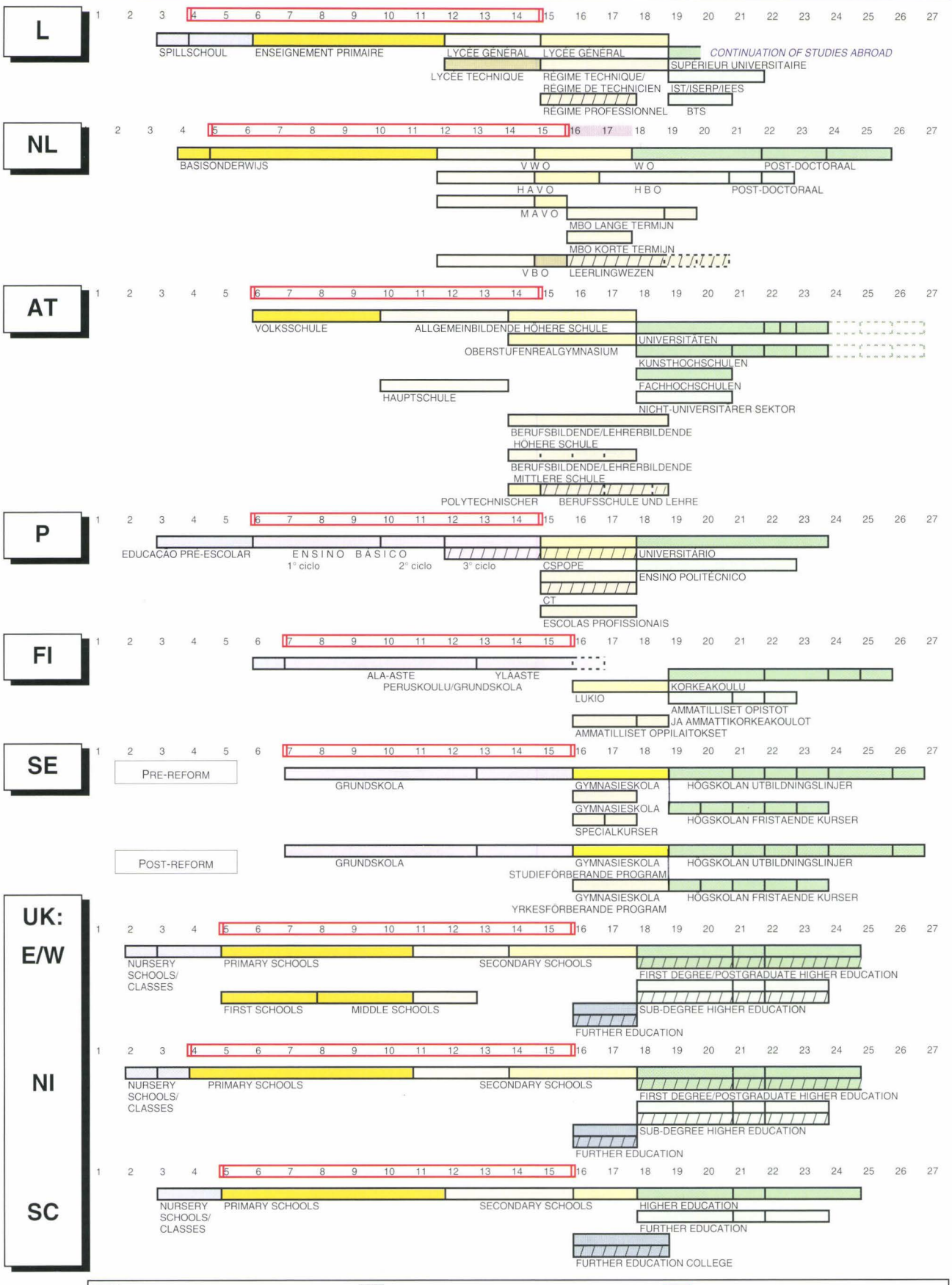
Entry to higher education is usually possible from age 18, except in Denmark, Italy, Luxembourg, Finland and Sweden, where it is later. The age of entry varies in Germany, the Netherlands and Austria.

The Spanish education system is in a state of transition. In October 1990, the Organic Act on the General Management of the Education System (LOGSE) was passed, aiming to reform the entire education system from pre-school to non-university higher education level. The implementation of this Act, initially intended to be brought in over a 10-year period, is currently being undertaken at different rates depending on the various Commmunities. The system of upper secondary education in Sweden has been reformed recently; since 1994, both general and vocational courses last three years.

GRAPH B1: DESCRIPTION OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.



Source: Eurydice.

STATE SCHOOLS PREDOMINATE

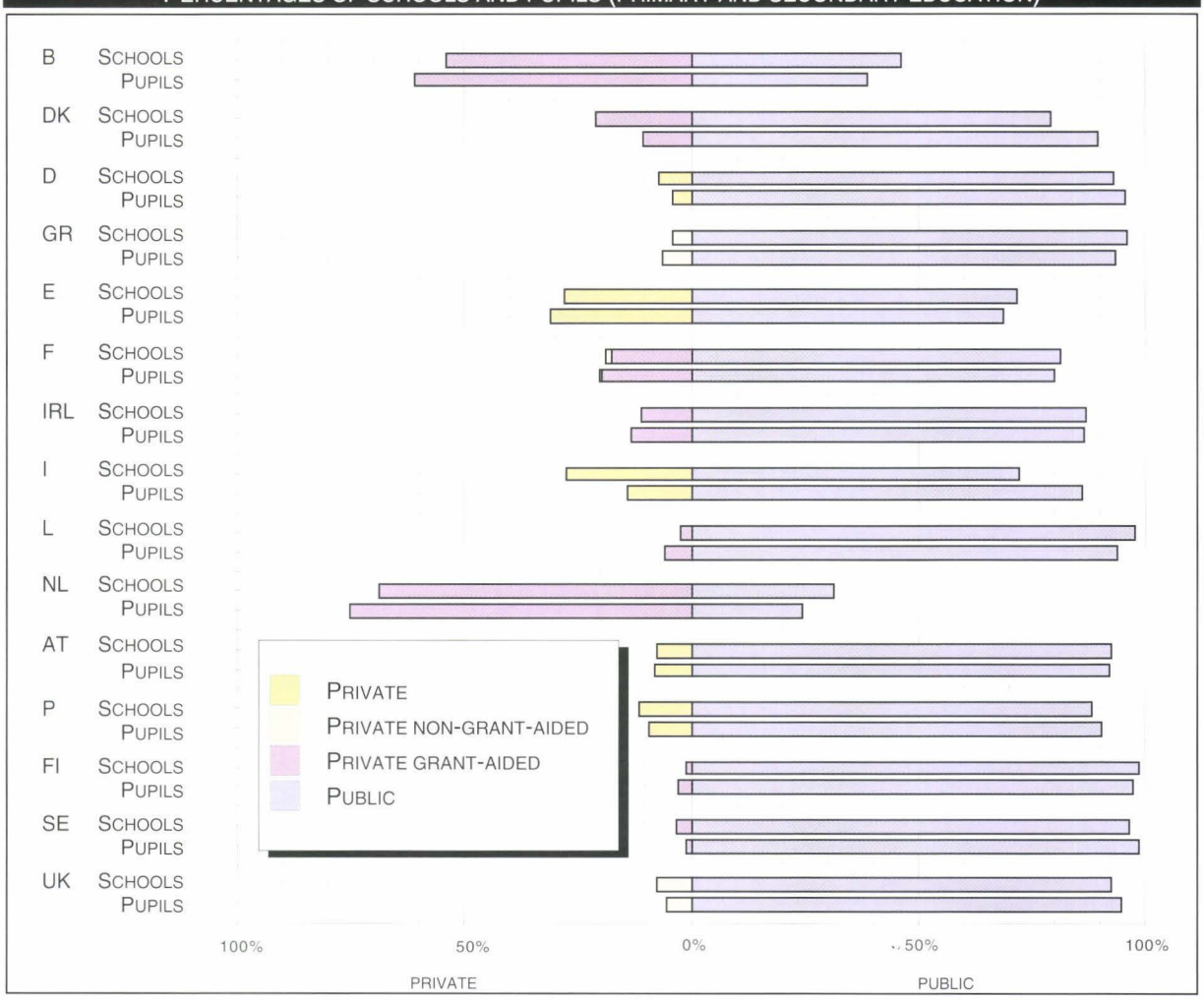
Schools may be divided into three categories:

(i) **state schools**, provided and financed directly by public authorities;
(ii) **private grant-aided schools**, or schools dependent on public funding, managed by private bodies or individuals, but receiving more than 50% of their finance from the public sector;
(iii) **private non-grant-aided schools**, or independent schools, receiving less than 50% of their finance from the public sector.

As far as possible, this classification has been used.

Graph B2 shows by Member State the percentages of public and private schools in primary and secondary education and the percentages of pupils attending public and private schools.

GRAPH B2: PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION, 1992/93
PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOLS AND PUPILS (PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION)



Source: Eurostat.

Netherlands and **Finland**: The percentages of schools and pupils also include pre-primary education, as nursery schools are not separate establishments.
Germany, Spain, Italy, Austria and **Portugal**: No breakdown is available between grant-aided and non-grant-aided private institutions.
Ireland: The percentages of private non-grant-aided schools and pupils are very low (0.01%).
Finland: Upper secondary vocational schools are not included.
United Kingdom: The percentages of private grant-aided schools and pupils are very low (0.11 and 0.05% respectively). Further education colleges are not included.
United Kingdom (E/W, NI): All maintained schools are included under public sector.

In most Member States, over 70% of schools come directly under the public sector. Two countries deviate from this pattern: Belgium, where the numbers of public and private grant-aided schools are about equal, and the Netherlands, where private grant-aided schools form the great majority and equal funding of public and private schools is a constitutional right.

In Denmark, Spain, France, Italy and Portugal, the percentage of private schools is still relatively large (between 10 and 30%), while it is less than 10% in Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Non-grant-aided schools are very rare in all countries for which separate data are available.

In Belgium, Greece, Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Finland, the percentages of pupils attending private schools are relatively high, while the opposite is true for Denmark, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

AVERAGE SIZE OF SCHOOLS INCREASES WITH THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION

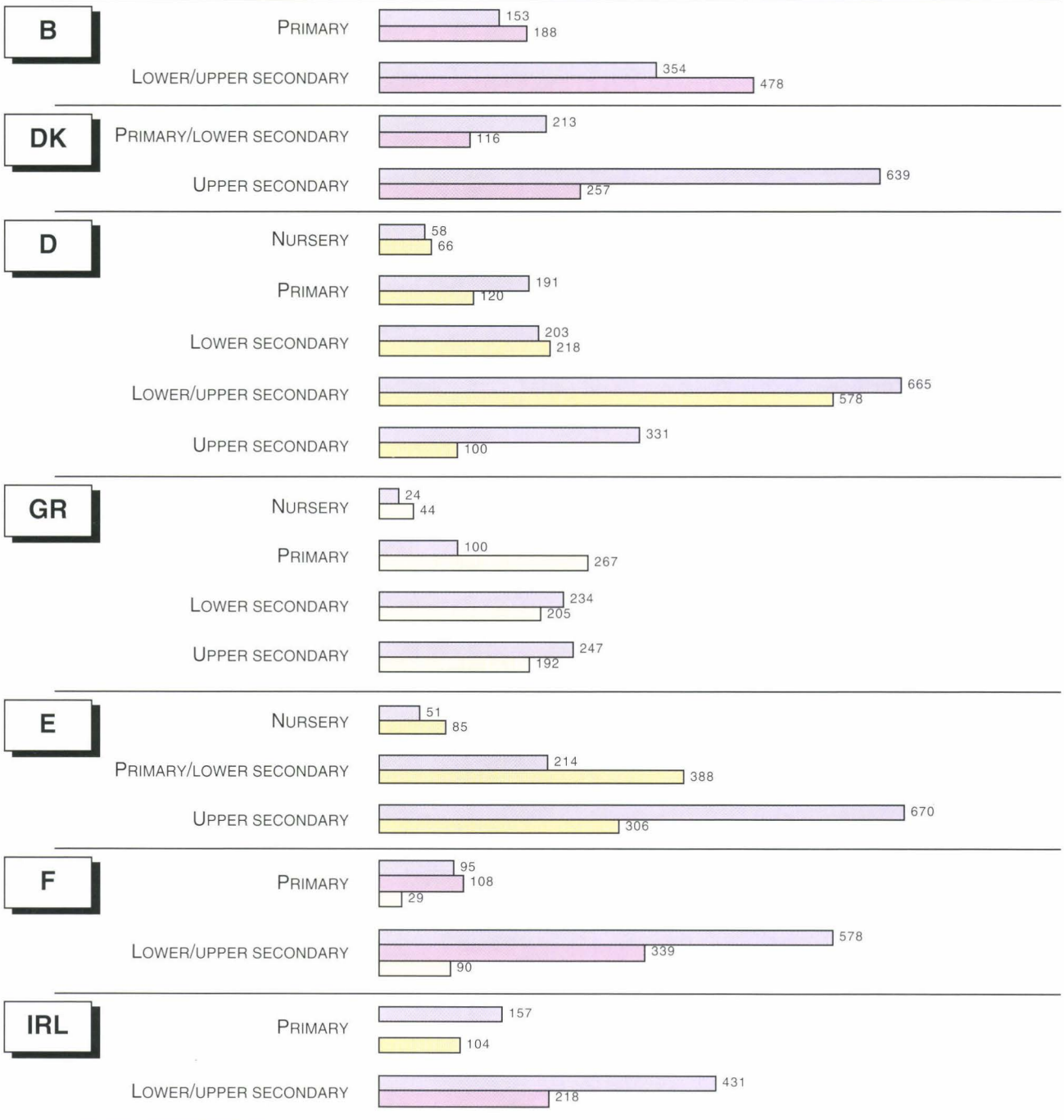
Graph B3 shows the average sizes of schools in each of the Member States of the European Union, in terms of the average number of pupils per school, public and private, at each level of education. It should be noted that in most countries there are schools which provide education at more than one level. The classification of educational levels does not always coincide exactly with the classification of educational institutions.

In all Member States, primary schools are larger than nursery schools, and secondary schools are usually larger than primary schools.

In Belgium, the Netherlands and Finland, grant-aided private schools are larger than public schools at each level of education, while the opposite is true in Italy and Sweden.

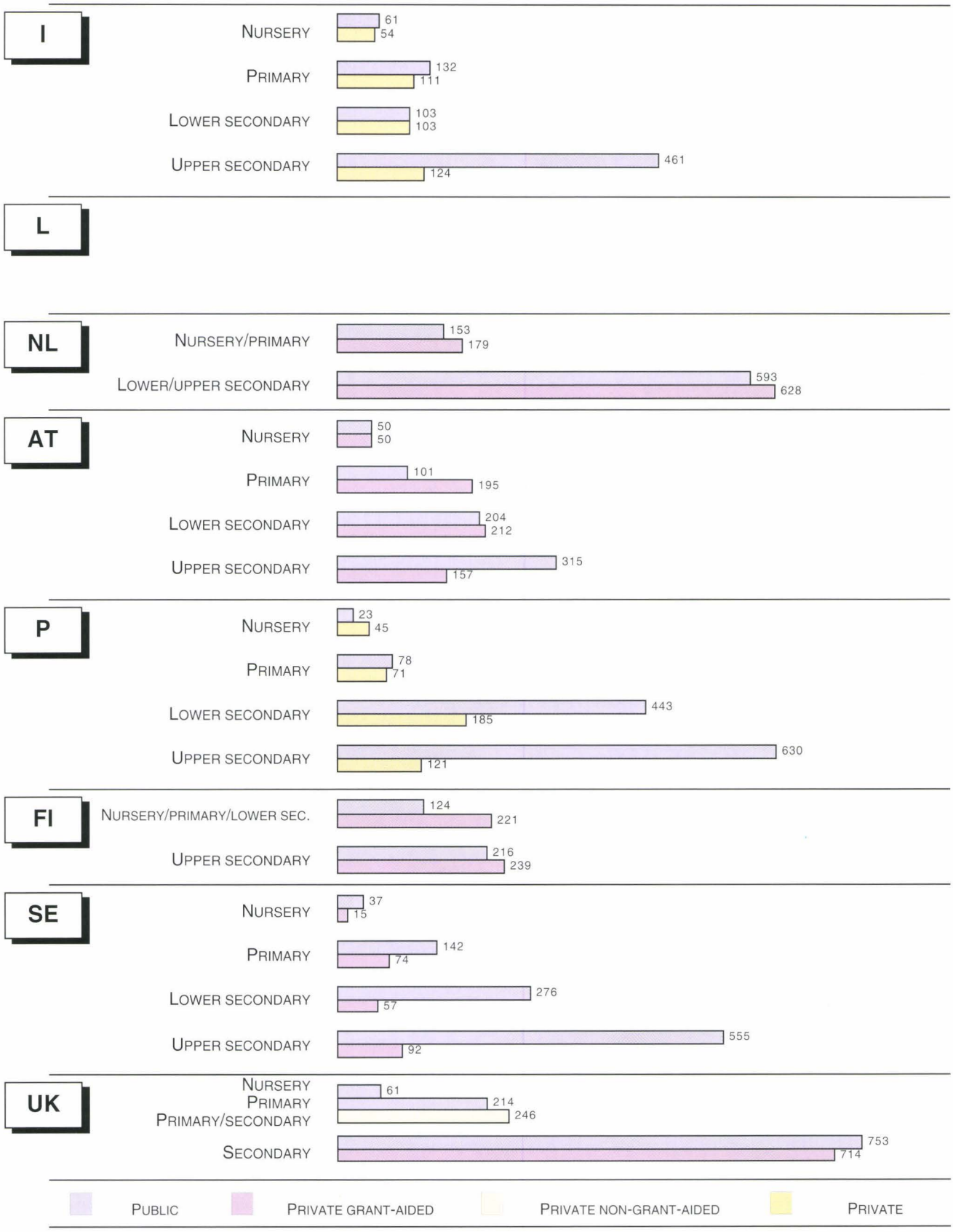
For the other countries, the patterns differ at each level of education. In France, the non-grant-aided private schools are particularly small.

GRAPH B3: AVERAGE NUMBERS OF PUPILS PER SCHOOL, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium and **France**: Many primary schools also include pre-primary classes. The figures relate only to the pupils in primary classes. The national statistics provide information about total numbers of pupils in pre-primary education but no breakdown between pupils in separate pre-primary institutions and pupils in pre-primary classes within primary schools.
Spain: The numbers of pupils per school may be slightly overestimated. The numbers of pupils include those with special educational needs, but the numbers of schools do not include special schools. Some schools provide primary and lower secondary education.
France: The numbers of pupils per school may be slightly underestimated. The numbers of pupils do not include those with special educational needs, but the numbers of schools include special schools.



Source: Eurostat.

Luxembourg: Data not available.

— PROVISION OF RESOURCES — LEVELS OF DECISION-MAKING —

Table B1 shows the level at which decisions are made with regard to the provision of resources to schools for staff salaries, capital expenditure and other revenue expenditure in primary and lower secondary education. Staff salaries relate to both teaching and non-teaching staff of schools. Revenue expenditure includes expenditure on goods and services which are consumed within the current year and which are of a recurrent nature, whereas capital expenditure relates to expenditure on assets that last longer than one year, e.g. new equipment or renovation of school buildings. The table describes the **formal** situation in each country, from which there may be deviations in practice.

Five levels of decision-making are distinguished: schools alone; schools together with local authorities; local authorities alone; local authorities together with centralized higher authorities (regional and/or central); and central authorities alone.

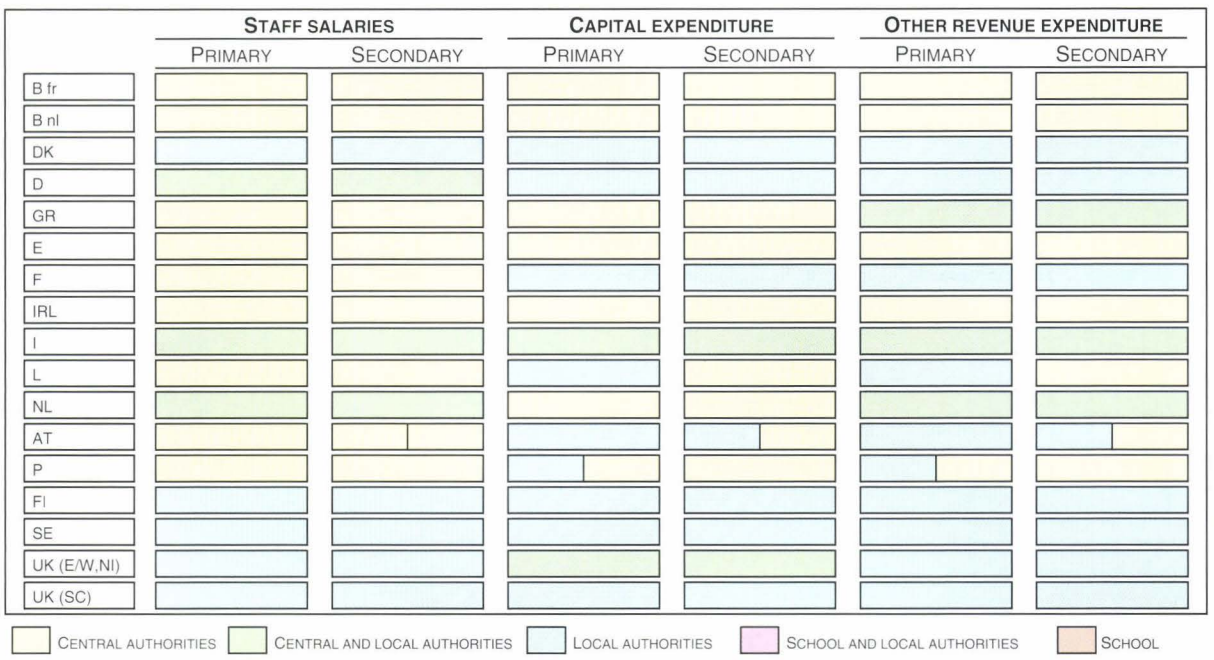
Decisions regarding the provision of financial resources to schools are made by local and/or central authorities. The schools themselves do not take any decisions as regards the provision of resources.

With regard to the provision of resources for staff salaries, the decisions are made by the central authorities in most countries, except in Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom where the decisions are taken by the local authorities. In Germany (North Rhine-Westphalia and Bavaria) and Italy, the decisions regarding teachers' salaries are taken by central authorities but the local authorities are involved in the decision-making with respect to the salaries of non-teaching staff.

Local authorities are more involved in the decision-making process with regard to the provision of resources for capital expenditure and other revenue expenditure. The decisions are taken by higher authorities, however, in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal (except for the first stage of "basic" education).

Decision-making as regards the provision of financial resources appears to be the most decentralized in Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Scotland, and the most centralized in Belgium, Greece, Spain and Ireland, while Italy, Luxembourg and Austria occupy an intermediate position.

TABLE B1: LEVEL OF DECISION-MAKING — PROVISION OF RESOURCES
PRIMARY AND LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The data relate exclusively to North Rhine-Westphalia and Bavaria.
Netherlands: This table illustrates the overall situation but does not reflect the complexity of the system.
Austria: The first cell in the column relating to secondary education refers to the general secondary schools (*Hauptschulen*), while the second cell refers to the academic secondary schools (*Allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen*).
Portugal: The first cell in the column relating to primary education refers to the first stage of primary education.

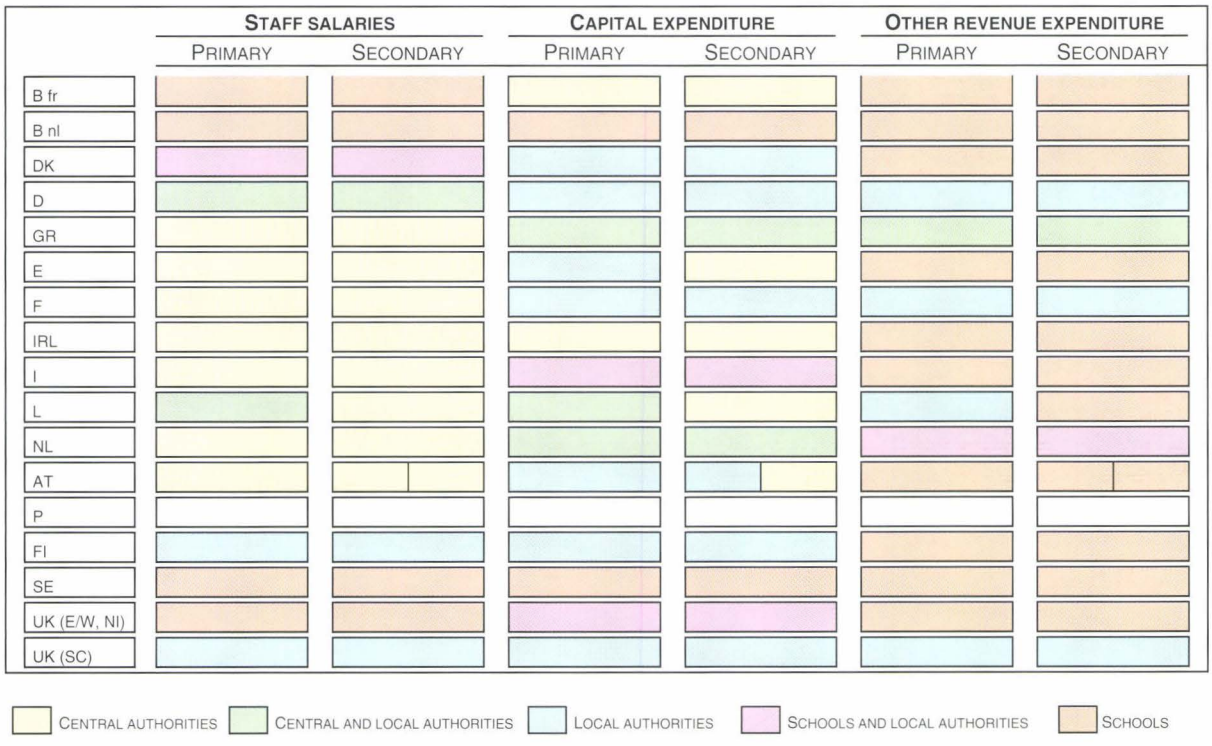
USE OF RESOURCES — SCHOOLS HAVE GREATER RESPONSIBILITY FOR DECISION-MAKING

Table B2 shows the levels of decision-making with regard to the actual use of resources. These decisions are quite often made by the schools themselves. The decisions with regard to the use of funding for other revenue expenditure are taken at school level in most of the Member States.

With respect to capital expenditure, local authorities are often involved in the decision-making process.

Decisions regarding the use of resources for staff salaries revolve around questions such as whether to recruit a mathematics teacher rather than an English teacher. In Belgium, Sweden and the United Kingdom (except Scotland), such decisions are made by the schools themselves, but in Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy and Austria they are made by the central authorities. In Germany, the decisions with regard to non-teaching staff are taken by local authorities, but teachers are allocated to the public sector schools by the Ministry of Education of each *Land*. In Luxembourg, the decisions are made by the central authorities for secondary education and by the central and local authorities jointly for primary education. In Finland and Scotland, the decisions are made by the local authorities. In Scotland, devolved school management is gradually being established, whereby schools control up to 80% of the education expenditure. In 1994/95, however, much less than half of all schools were doing so.

TABLE B2: LEVEL OF DECISION-MAKING — USE OF RESOURCES PRIMARY AND LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION ,1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The data relate exclusively to North Rhine-Westphalia and Bavaria.
Netherlands: This table illustrates the overall situation but does not reflect the complexity of the system.
Austria: The first cell in the column relating to secondary education refers to the general secondary schools (*Hauptschulen*), while the second cell refers to the academic secondary schools (*Allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen*).
Portugal: No data available.
United Kingdom: Grant-maintained schools have school control over use of capital expenditure.

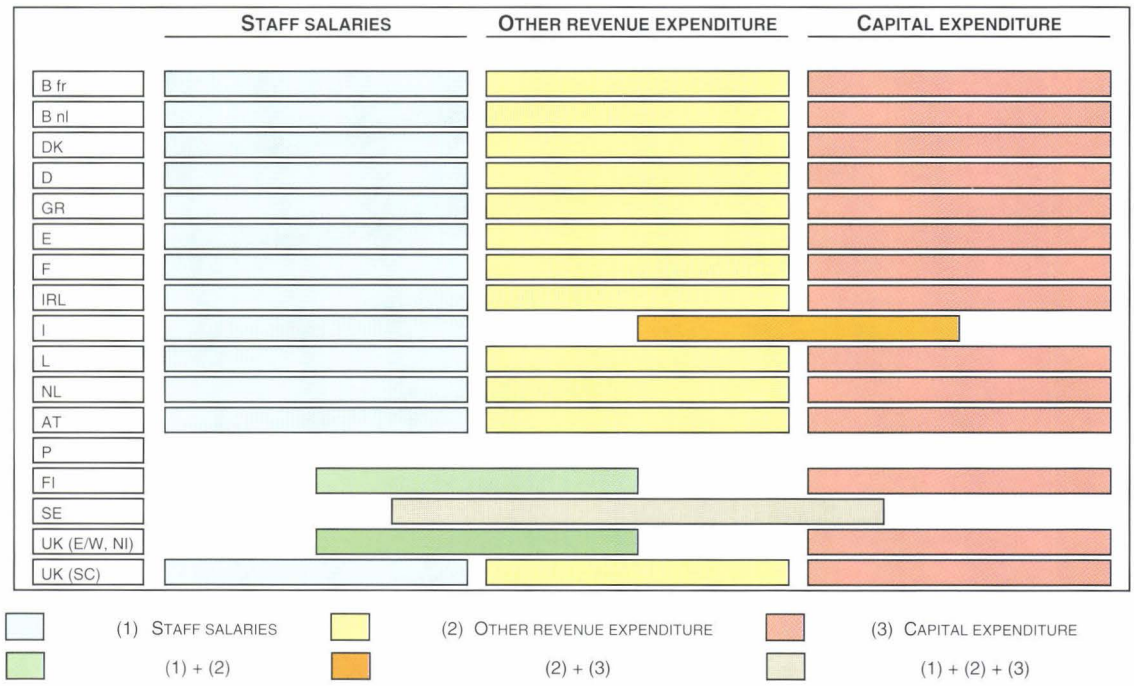
USE OF RESOURCES — COMBINATION OF BUDGETS

Another important aspect of the actual use of financial resources is the extent to which school budgets for staff salaries, capital expenditure and other revenue expenditure are combined. In general, schools depend heavily on government funding. The resources they receive from the government are usually designated for specific purposes. In most countries, schools receive separate budgets for specific purposes (e.g. staff salaries, other revenue expenditure and capital expenditure). In practice it is often the case that one budget turns out be tight in relation to the proposed expenditure while another is more than is needed. In such cases, an optimal use of the available resources might require transferring resources from one budget to another, but schools are not always allowed to do this.

Table B3 shows to what extent school budgets can be combined. Two or more budgets are considered to be combined if the resources from one budget can be transferred to the other and vice versa.

In Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria and Scotland, no budgets can be combined. In Denmark, the budgets for staff salaries and other revenue expenditure are sometimes combined, but most often this is not the case. With respect to Germany, it should be mentioned that no budgets are allocated to the schools at all. It is therefore not possible to transfer resources from one budget to another. This situation is shown here as equivalent to one in which no budgets can be combined. In Italy, the budgets for capital expenditure and other revenue expenditure are combined into one single budget, while in Finland and the United Kingdom (except Scotland) the budgets for staff salaries and other revenue expenditure are usually combined. In Finland, however, the local authorities decide which budgets (if any) can be combined, so that the situation differs between municipalities. In Sweden, all three budgets are merged into one single budget.

TABLE B3: COMBINATION OF SCHOOL BUDGETS
PRIMARY AND LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The data relate exclusively to North Rhine-Westphalia and Bavaria.
Netherlands: This table illustrates the overall situation but does not reflect the complexity of the system.
Portugal: Data not available.

It should be noted that the bulk of expenditure on education is related to staff salaries. A combination of budgets which includes the budget for staff salaries is therefore more likely to have important consequences for the financial autonomy of schools than a combination of the budgets for capital expenditure and other revenue expenditure. On the other hand, it should also be acknowledged that schools often have little autonomy in determining their teachers' salary scales. In most countries, teachers' salaries are largely determined by government regulations or agreements between the central government and the teachers' unions. Only in Sweden and the United Kingdom are schools allowed some autonomy in determining their teachers' salaries.

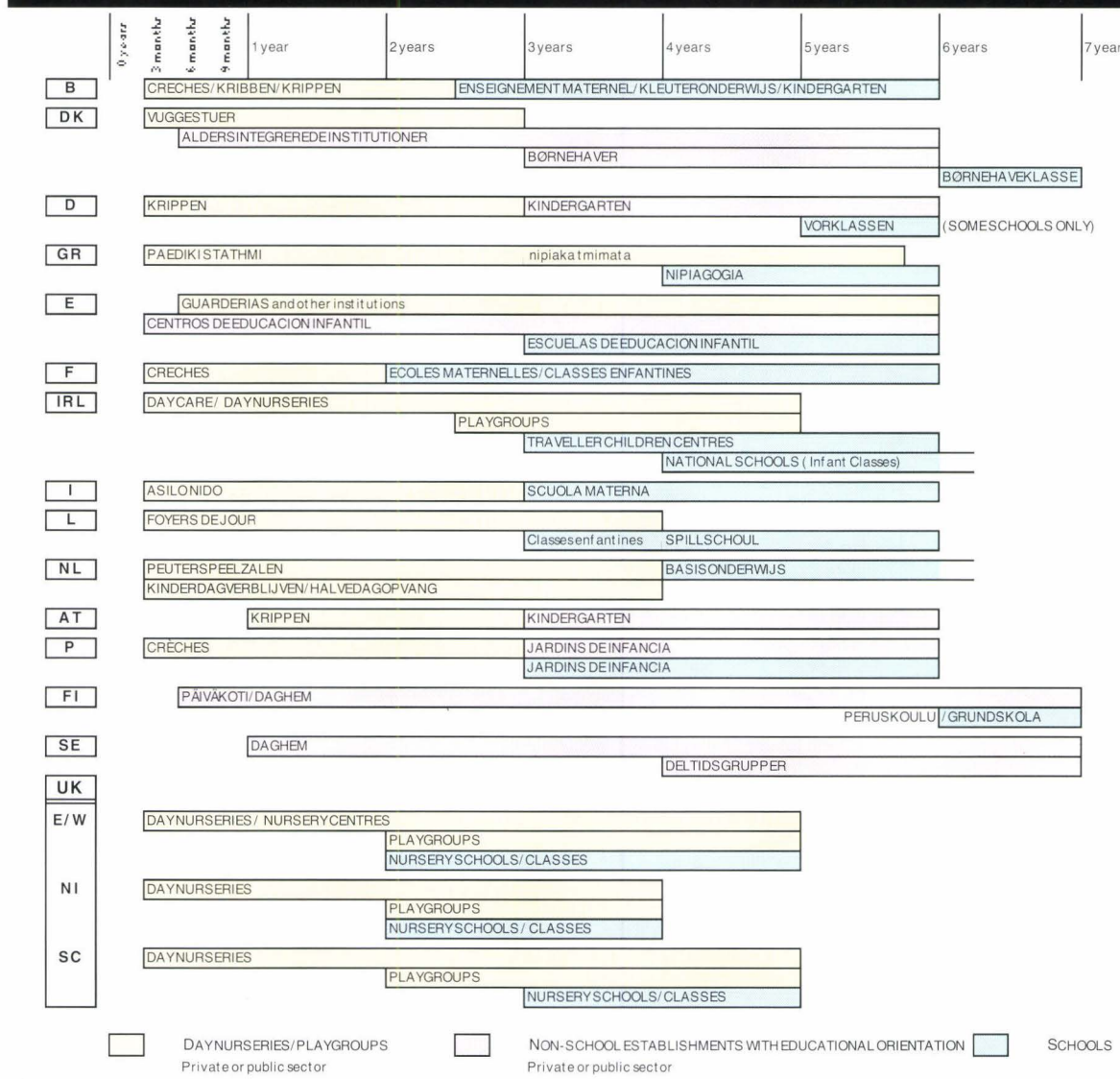
C

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

DIVERSITY OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION: A WIDE RANGE OF PROVISION

There is a wide range of establishments which children in Europe may attend before entering primary school. The reader will find full details of them, including their names in the original languages, in the schema below. The criteria adopted for the purposes of classification are the qualifications of the staff recruited to take charge of the children. In establishments coming under the school systems, staff responsible for children's education always have specialized qualifications in education. However, in the other non-school establishments — generally playgroups or day nurseries — the staff are not necessarily qualified in education. There are however, exceptions, like the *Kindergärten* in Germany and Austria, the *børnehaver* in Denmark, the *jardins de infância* in Portugal and the *päiväkoti* and the *daghem* in Finland and Sweden. In these six cases, the non-school establishments must employ personnel qualified in education; assistants may also be included.

GRAPH C1: SCHEMA OF PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION, 1994/95



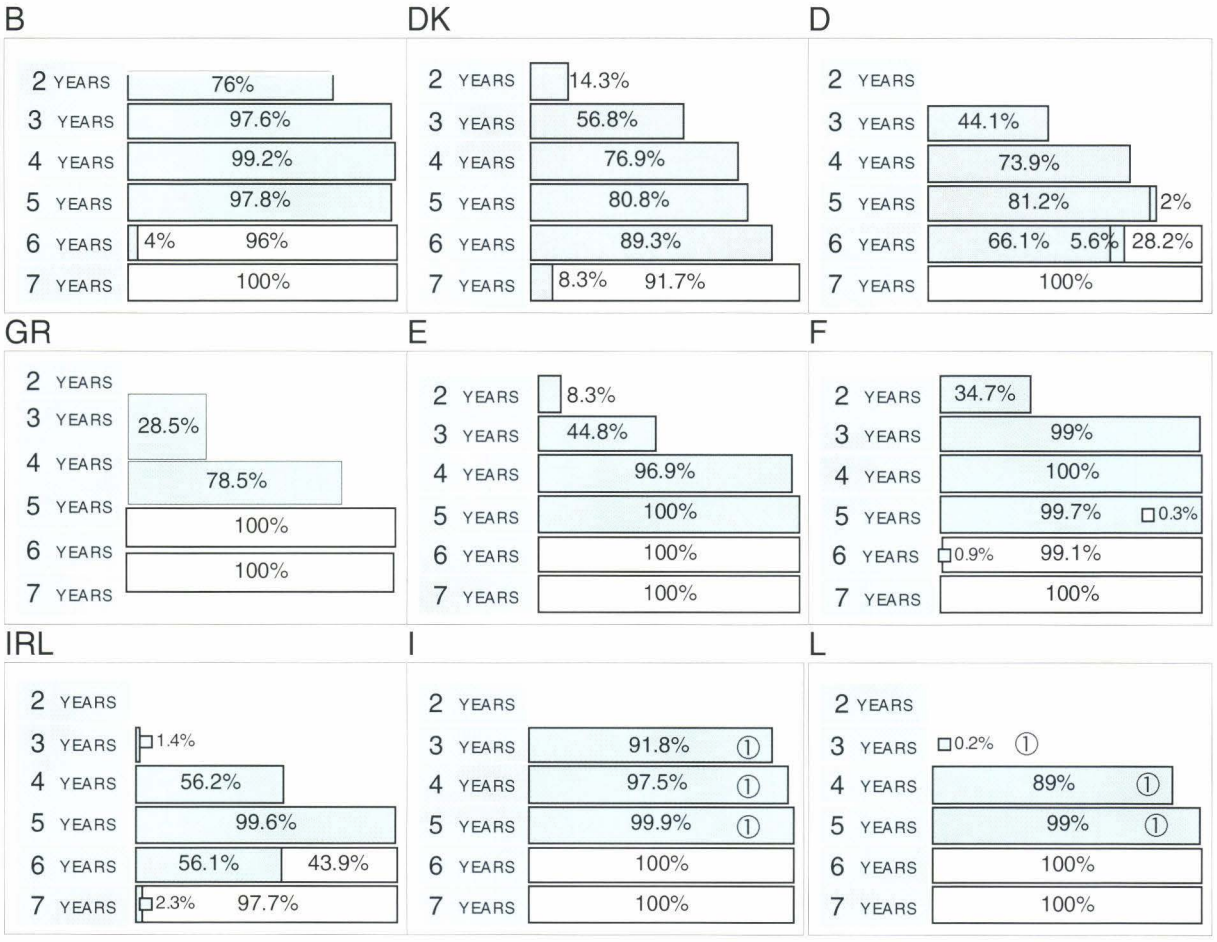
Source: Eurydice.

In three countries — Belgium, France and Italy — nursery schools constitute the only form of provision for children from the age of 3 years. A range of education-oriented provision is available in the other countries. It is not possible to attend school before the age of 5 in Germany, or even before the age of 6 in Denmark, in the majority of German *Länder*, and in Austria and Finland. In Sweden, this is only possible from the age of 7.

THE PREDOMINANCE OF SCHOOLS

Graph C2 shows for each country the percentages of 2- to 7-year-old children attending some form of school (nursery or primary) or education-oriented non-school establishment.

GRAPH C2. RATES OF PRE-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY AGE, 1992/93



① *estimate*

Source: see Annex.

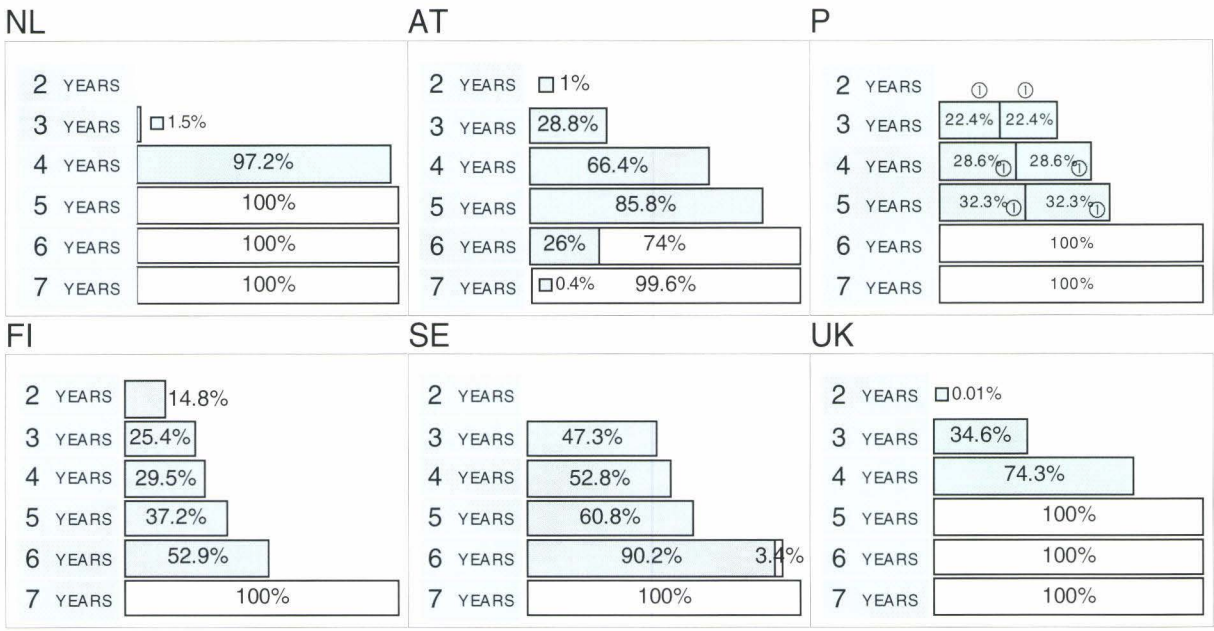
Germany: The statistics on children attending *Vorklassen* and *Schulkindergärten* (nursery classes for children who have reached compulsory school age) are merged (2% of 5-year-olds and 5.6% of 6-year-olds).
Greece: Figures for attendance include children between 3 and 4½ years in one group, then those from 4½ to 5½ years. These are only for the *Nipiagogia*.
Italy: The population figures are based solely on the number of births in the year, not on the relevant age cohorts of children. This may result in a slight over-estimate of the numbers of children concerned. Statistics are available only for the public sector. The overall rate of pre-school attendance has therefore been estimated on the basis of the overall distribution of pupils between public and private sector education.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The statistics given in the following part of the chapter relate only to education-oriented establishments.

The rate of pre-school attendance for a given age is the ratio of the numbers of children enrolled in the establishments concerned to the total age cohort.

Even where the rate of attendance at education-oriented establishments is low, the school is the dominant form of provision for children over 3 years of age in the majority of the Member States, except in Denmark, Germany, Austria, Finland and Sweden. In Portugal, there are almost as many children in schools as in non-school centres. In Belgium, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, about 90% of 4-year-olds attend schools.



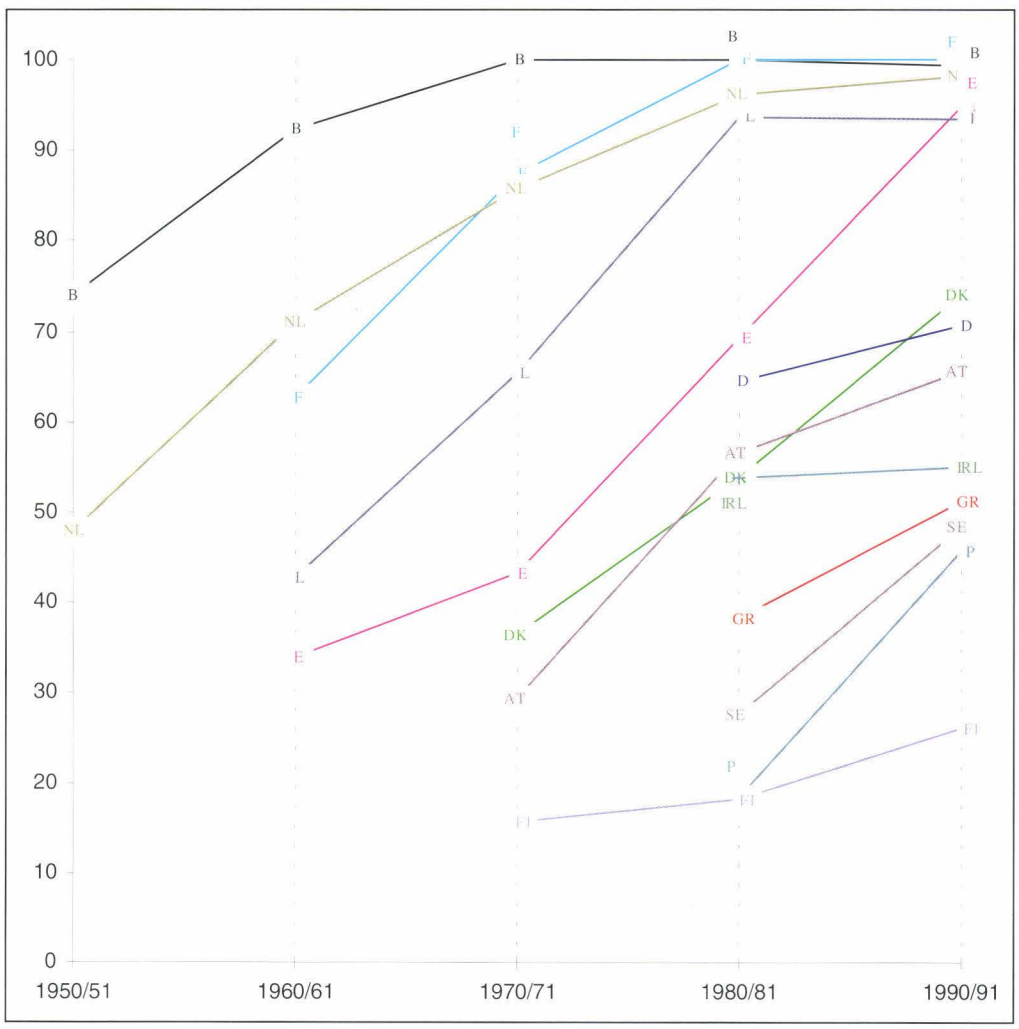
Source: see Annex.

Netherlands: The pre-school year mentioned is the first year of *Basisonderwijs*.
Portugal: The distribution of children between schools and education-oriented non-school establishments has been estimated on the basis of the overall statistics.
Finland: The available data relate only to the situation on the Finnish mainland.
United Kingdom: The graph presents the figures for the UK as a whole, without differentiation. Regional disparities are therefore concealed. Northern Ireland differs significantly, with compulsory education and entry to primary school starting at the age of 4 years.

CONTINUING RISE IN PRE-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

At present, attendance at pre-school establishments by 4-year-olds is widespread in all the Member States of the European Union, with some rare exceptions. A time series was constructed to illustrate the movement in the rates of attendance at pre-school establishments by 4-year-olds since 1950.

GRAPH C3: MOVEMENT IN THE RATES OF PRE-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF 4-YEAR-OLDS, 1950-90



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium: The data for 1950/51, 1960/61 and 1970/71 are available only in respect of all children attending school (*école maternelle*). Rates of enrolment were therefore calculated for children aged 3, 4 and 5 years for these three years.
Denmark: The earliest data are from 1973/74.
Germany: The data refer to the old *Länder*.
Italy and **United Kingdom**: No data available.
Luxembourg: The percentages presented here represent the attendance of children aged 4 and 5 years.
Finland: The earliest data are from 1975/76.

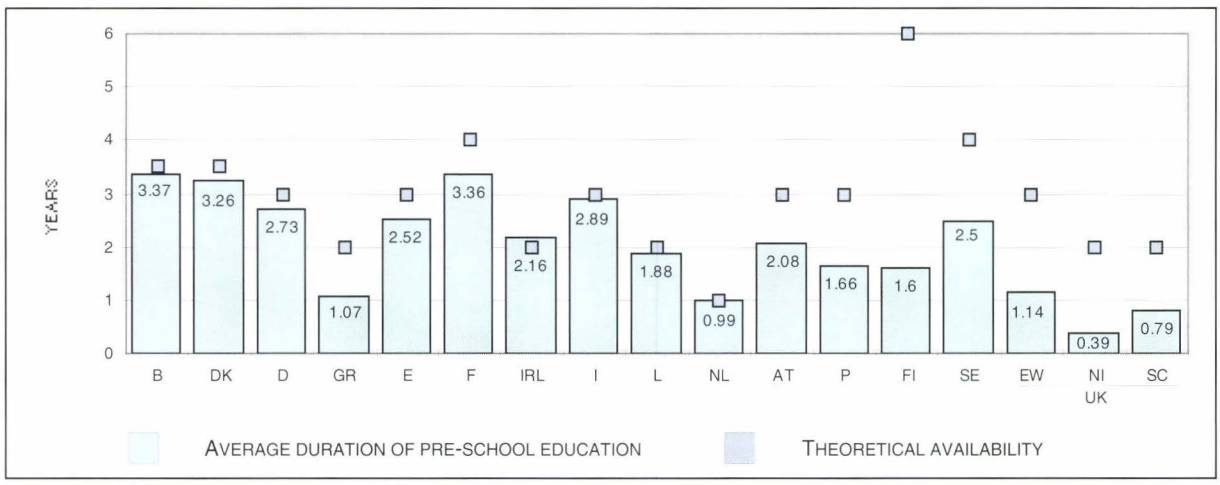
The movement is clear: increasing numbers of 4-year-olds are attending pre-school establishments in all the countries for which data are available. It is to be noted that in Belgium the attendance rate was already very high by the 1960s and that in France and the Netherlands there have been high rates of attendance from the beginning of the 1970s. In Finland, on the other hand, the attendance rates are low, although moving generally upwards.

BETWEEN ONE AND THREE YEARS OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION, DEPENDING ON THE MEMBER STATE

Depending on the Member State, the average period of attendance at an education-oriented establishment before the start of compulsory primary education can be from one year to more than three years.

Those Member States with the shortest average duration of pre-school education (only one year) are also those whose compulsory primary education starts earliest — the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, at age 5 years (in Northern Ireland, at age 4 years). Four other Member States have an average of less than two years of pre-school education. In two instances — Greece and Luxembourg — this is due to the fact that their educational structures only admit children from 4 years of age. In Portugal and Finland, where availability is theoretically sufficient to offer children three or six years of pre-school education, the short average duration is explained by the low attendance rates. The remaining Member States have an average duration of about three years of pre-school attendance. This is generally the same as the theoretical provision, except in France, where the establishments take children from 2 years of age.

GRAPH C4: AVERAGE DURATION OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION, 1992/93



Source: see Annex.

Ireland: The calculation of the average duration of pre-school attendance includes some 6- and 7-year-olds, of compulsory school age, who are in the "infant classes".
Luxembourg: Since 1993, the theoretical duration available is three years.
Netherlands: The first optional year of the *Basisonderwijs* is considered a pre-school year.

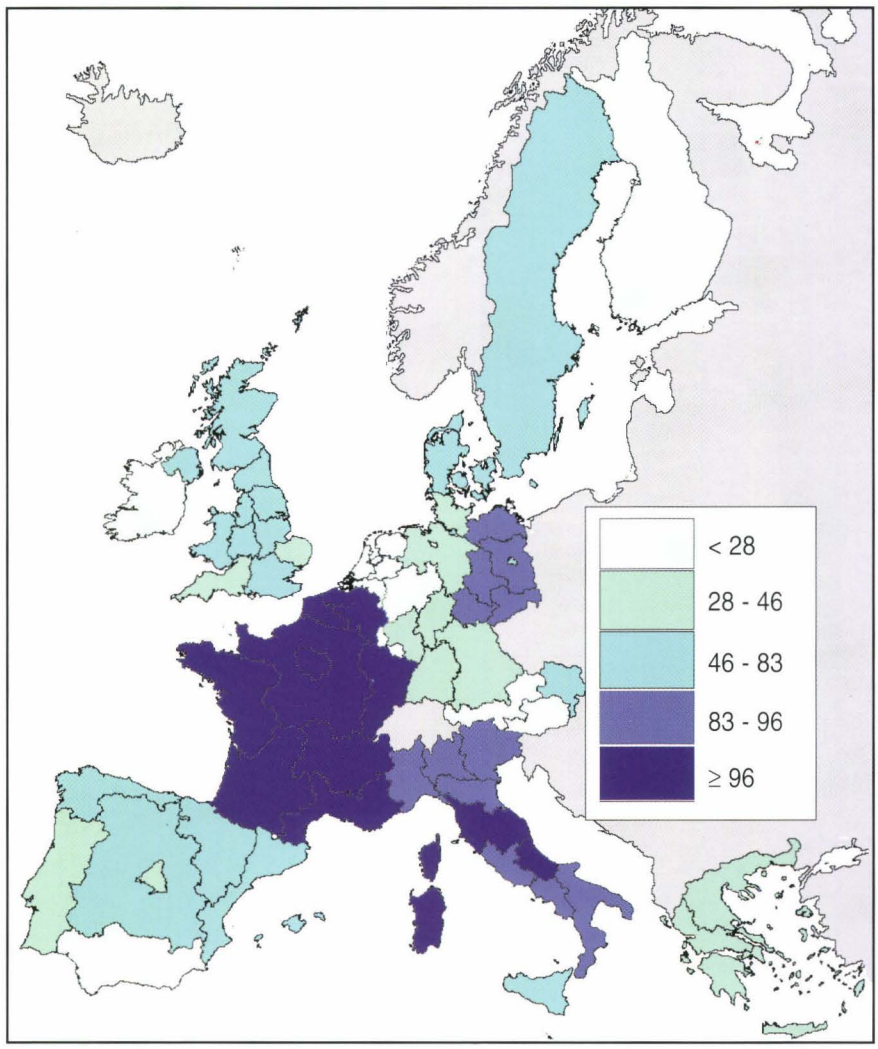
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The average duration of pre-school education is obtained by adding the rates of pre-school attendance for the various ages. For example, in Belgium, 38% of 2-year-olds + 97.6% of 3-year-olds + 99.2% of 4-year-olds + 97.8 % of 5-year-olds + 4.0% of 6-year-olds giving 336.6, or 3.37 years.

REGIONAL VARIATIONS AS REGARDS THE YOUNGEST AGE GROUP

Belgium, France and Italy are the bastions of nursery schooling for 3-year-olds, with high rates of attendance everywhere. Considerable regional variations are found in some Member States in which the national rate is under 50% — in Germany, Spain and Austria. In Germany, the high rate of pre-school attendance in the new *Länder* is particularly striking.

MAP C1: PRE-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATES AT 3 YEARS OF AGE, BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93



Source: see Annex.

Greece: The statistics group together children between 3 and 4 ½ years old. The population figures by region have had to be estimated. The only information available is the number of children by region and by age band (0-4 and 5-9 years). The method used to estimate numbers by region was as follows: the number of 3-year-olds + half the number of 4-year-olds (155 950) was multiplied by the ratio of 0- to 4-year-olds in a region to 0- to 4-year-olds in Greece.
Ireland: Data refer to private primary schools only.
Italy: Figures are available only in relation to the public sector. Estimated rates have been arrived at on the basis of the breakdown of public and private sector schools by region.
Finland: The available data relate only to the situation on the Finnish mainland.
United Kingdom: The statistics available include 3- and 4-year-olds together in all regions.

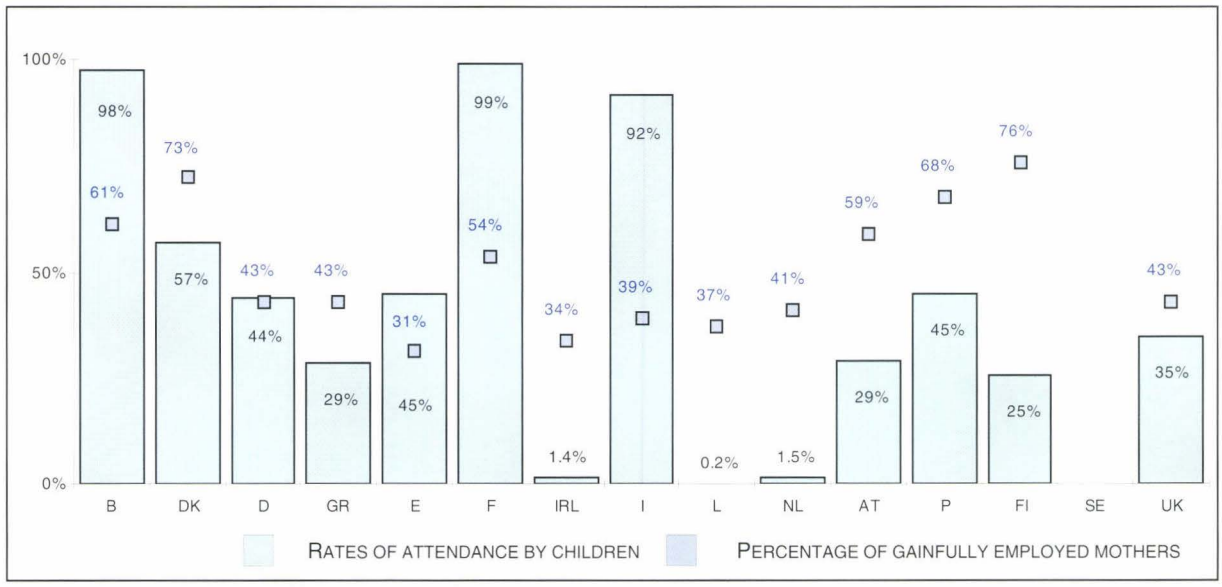
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The quantile method has been used in the construction of this map. Each category contains the same number of regions.

GAINFULLY EMPLOYED MOTHERS AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY YOUNG CHILDREN

It has for long been considered that the increase in the demand for pre-school provision was related to the child-care needs of mothers who go out to work. Nowadays, the importance of pre-school education is recognized by everyone and an examination of the current situation indicates that the phenomenon is more complex. In Graph C5, the percentage attendance of 3-year-olds at pre-school establishments is compared with the percentage of gainfully employed mothers of 3-year-olds.

GRAPH C5: PERCENTAGE OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED MOTHERS OF 3-YEAR-OLDS AND ATTENDANCE OF 3-YEAR-OLDS AT EDUCATION-ORIENTED PRE-SCHOOL ESTABLISHMENTS, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat labour force survey, 1993; see Annex.

Greece: The percentage attendance at pre-school establishments includes children aged 3 to 41/2 years.
Ireland: Data refer to private primary schools only.
Austria and **Finland**: The data are taken from national studies and were provided by the statistical offices given in the Annex. They are not taken into account in calculating the European average.
Sweden: Data not available.

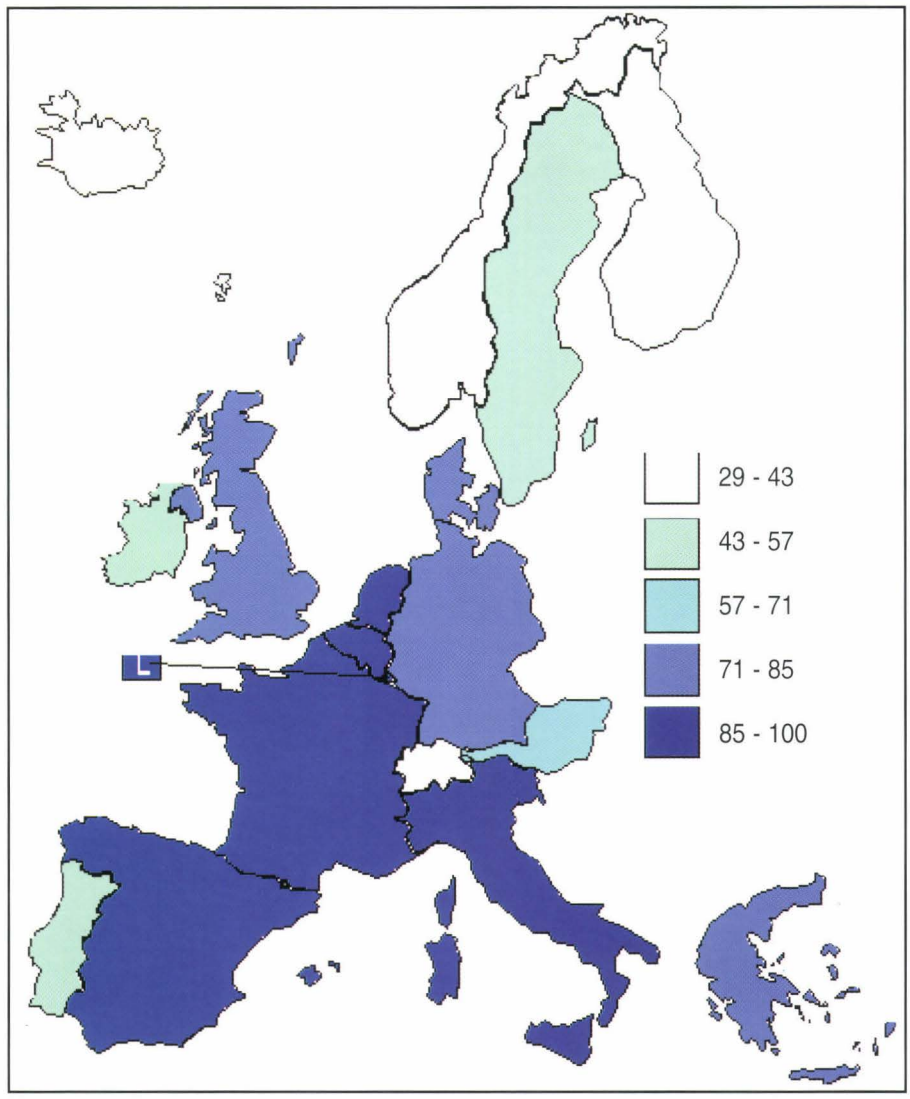
This graph shows clearly that, in the three countries in which educational provision is available everywhere (Belgium, France and Italy), the percentage of 3-year-olds attending education-oriented pre-school establishments is considerably higher than the percentage of mothers with a 3-year-old child and a job. The situation is similar in Spain, but to a lesser degree. On the other hand, in the majority of Member States the percentage of mothers of 3-year-olds working outside the home is greater than that of 3-year-olds attending education-oriented pre-school establishments. In these countries, the numbers of places in education-oriented provision are limited, and for this reason a network of crèches or child-care centres for 3-year-olds is found alongside the pre-school establishments.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The data concerning 3-year-olds with mothers who go out to work are drawn from the Eurostat labour force survey, 1993. The rates of pre-school attendance concern 3-year-olds attending all types of school and non-school, education-oriented establishments.

FOUR-YEAR-OLDS: A TREND TOWARDS CONVERGENCE

MAP C2: ATTENDANCE RATES (%) AT 4 YEARS OF AGE, 1992/93



Source: see Annex.

A clear increase can be seen in the rates of nursery school attendance between the ages of 3 and 4 years.

Attendance rates are low in Finland and barely exceed 50% in Ireland, Portugal and Sweden. They reach over 70% in Denmark, Germany, Greece and the United Kingdom. In the other Member States, however, practically all 4-year-olds attend a school or an education-oriented non-school establishment. Such attendance is even compulsory in Luxembourg and Northern Ireland.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

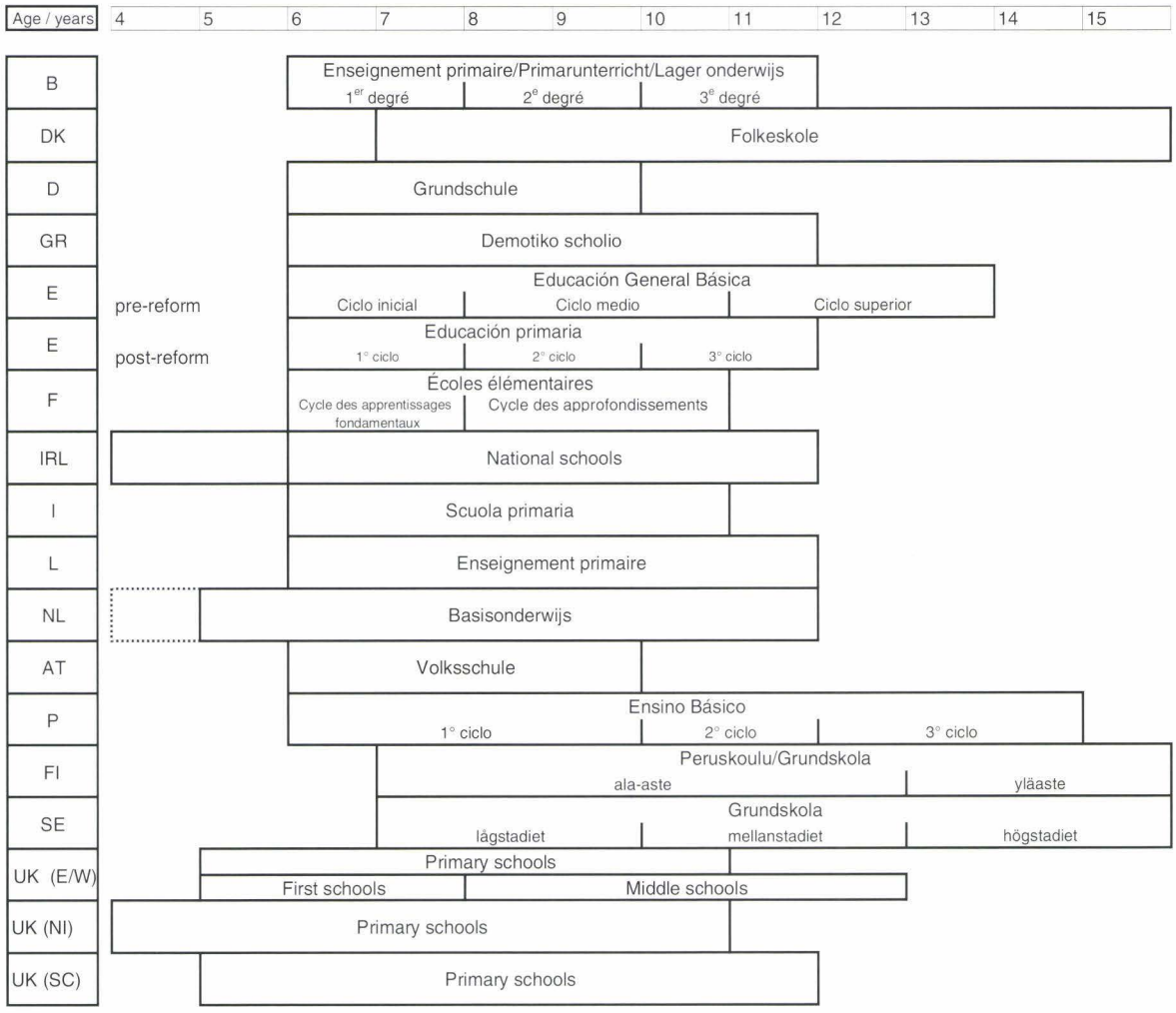
Categories of equal magnitude were created in the construction of this map. The total magnitude is the difference between the highest percentage and the lowest percentage. This difference is then divided by the number of categories required.

D

PRIMARY EDUCATION

FROM FOUR TO NINE YEARS OF COMPULSORY PRIMARY OR "BASIC" EDUCATION

GRAPH D1: SCHEMA OF COMPULSORY PRIMARY OR BASIC EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

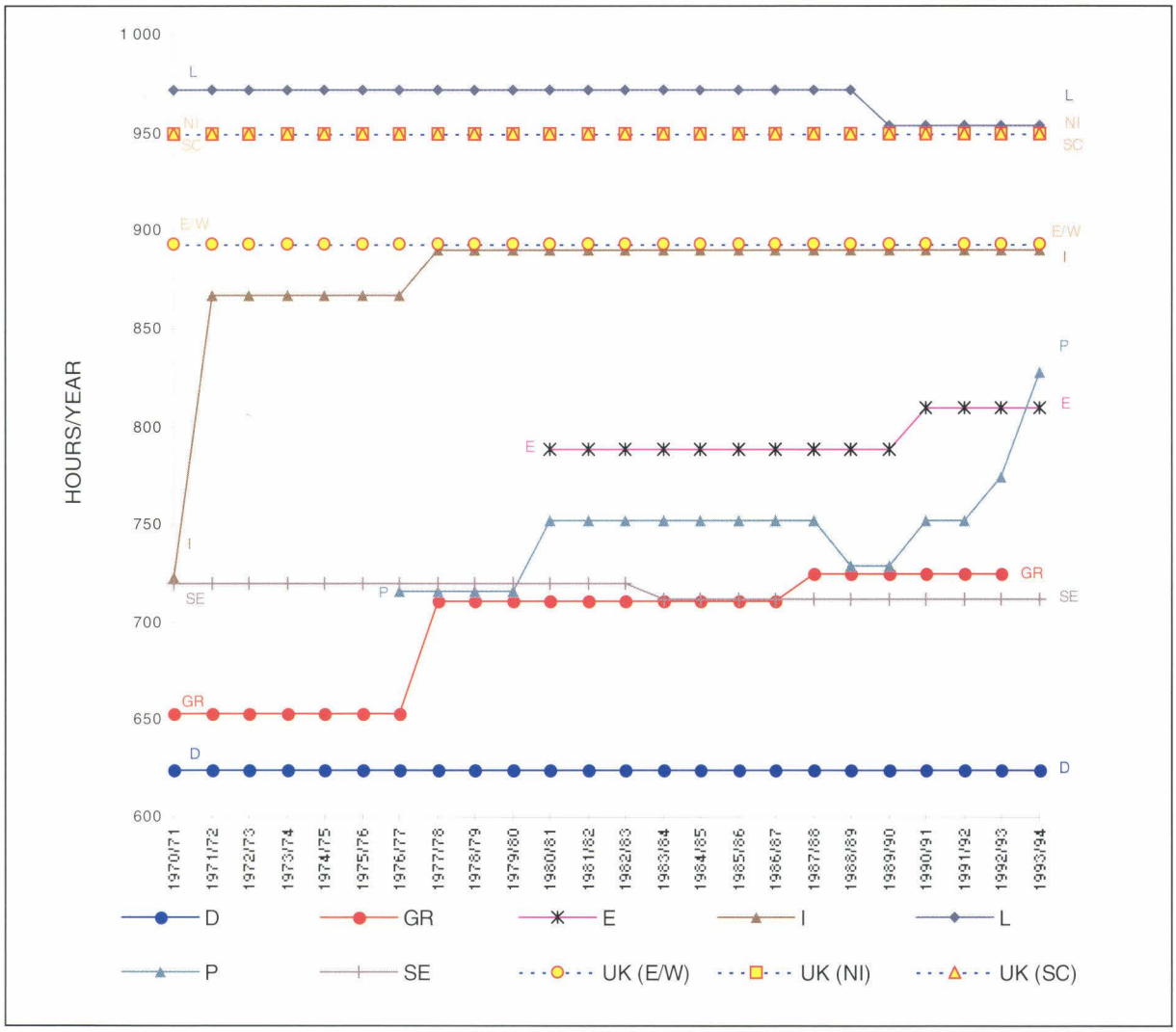
Netherlands: *Basisonderwijs* lasts eight years whether the child starts at age 4 or 5. Compulsory education starts at age 5.

In 11 Member States, primary education is a distinct stage. It lasts six years in the majority of them (Belgium, Greece, Spain post-reform, Ireland, Luxembourg, England and Wales) and ranges from four years in Germany and Austria to seven years in the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland and Scotland) and eight in the Netherlands. In the remaining Member States (Denmark, Portugal, Finland and Sweden), compulsory education from the age of 6 or 7 years to 15 or 16 years is organized in one single structure and is not divided into primary and lower secondary phases, although it is divided into stages in Portugal, Finland and Sweden. Primary education is also divided into stages in Belgium, Spain post-reform and France.

LITTLE CHANGE IN ANNUAL TEACHING HOURS SINCE 1970

A time series has been constructed showing the number of teaching hours a year since 1970, in order to study what changes there have been in the workload of pupils over the past quarter of a century.

GRAPH D2: CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS PER YEAR (AROUND AGE 9), 1970-94



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria and **Finland**: No data available.
Sweden: From 1970/71 to 1982/83, based on approximate numbers of school days. From 1983/84 to 1993/94, based on minimum numbers of school days.

In the majority of the countries for which data are available, there is almost no change. In Germany and the United Kingdom, the number of teaching hours in the year has remained stable since 1970. In Greece and Portugal, on the other hand, a slight rise can be noted over the course of the years. The most marked change is in Italy, with an increase of almost 200 hours in about 20 years, the greatest increase being observed between 1971 and 1972.

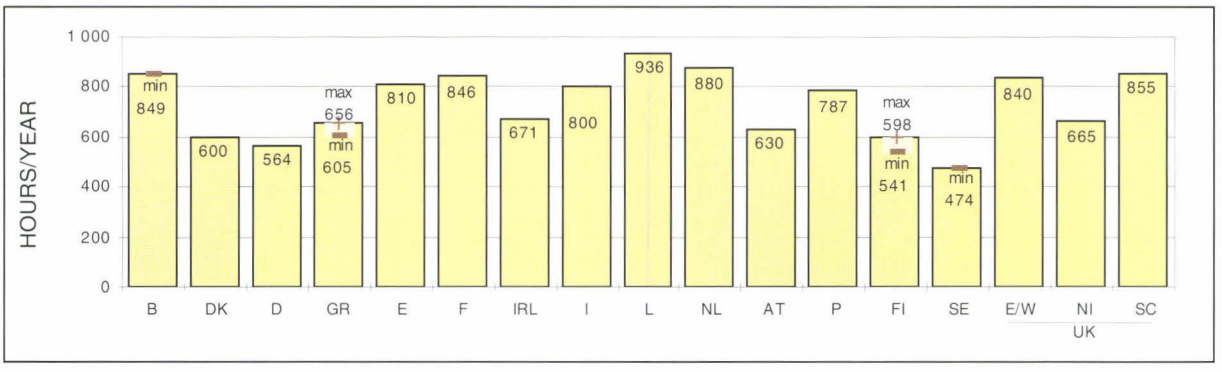
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The annual teaching load is calculated by taking as a starting point either the number of hours per week, or the number of class periods multiplied by the duration of a class period to obtain the weekly load. This result is then divided by the number of days per week and multiplied by the number of teaching days per year. All types of break (recreational or other) have been excluded from the calculation.

WIDE VARIATIONS BETWEEN MEMBER STATES IN TERMS OF ANNUAL CLASS HOURS

In most Member States, pupils attend school five days a week. They attend six days a week in Luxembourg and in some regions of Germany and Italy. The number of hours spent in class in any one day also varies depending on the day of the week and the Member State. Given the wide variations in the organization of time in schools, the **total annual hours of teaching** has been calculated to serve as an indicator. Considerable differences — up to 100% — may be observed in the annual hours of teaching across the Member States. More than half of the EU Member States have adopted a lighter timetable for young children starting school, which explains why the variations are most marked at the beginning of compulsory education and rather less so later on.

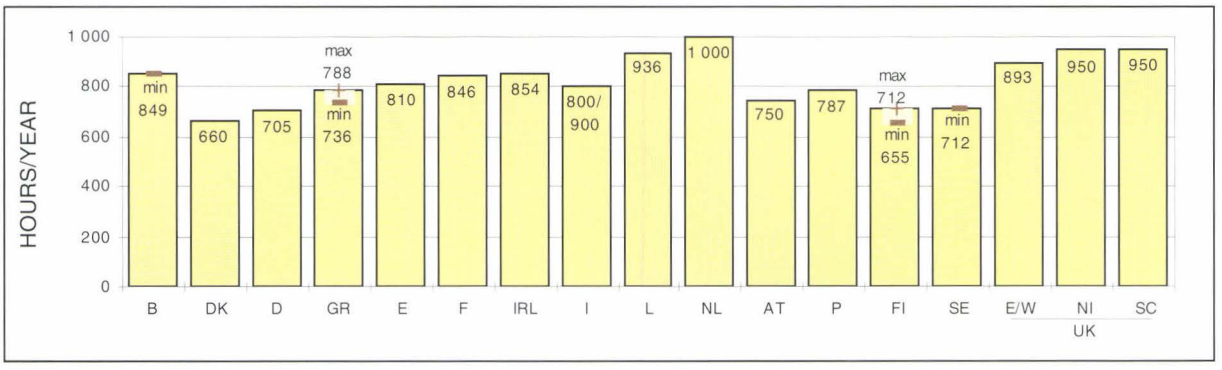
GRAPH D3: TOTAL ANNUAL HOURS OF TEACHING AT START OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (AROUND AGE 6), 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Denmark, Finland and **Sweden**: The data presented in Graph D3 relate to the first year of compulsory education (pupils around 7 years old).

GRAPH D4: TOTAL ANNUAL HOURS OF TEACHING DURING THE COURSE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (AROUND AGE 9), 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land.*
Italy: The annual load increases to 900 hours when pupils take a foreign language course.
United Kingdom (E/W): Figures cover only the hours during which pupils are formally taught, including the teaching of religious education but excluding registration, breaks or the statutory daily act of collective worship.

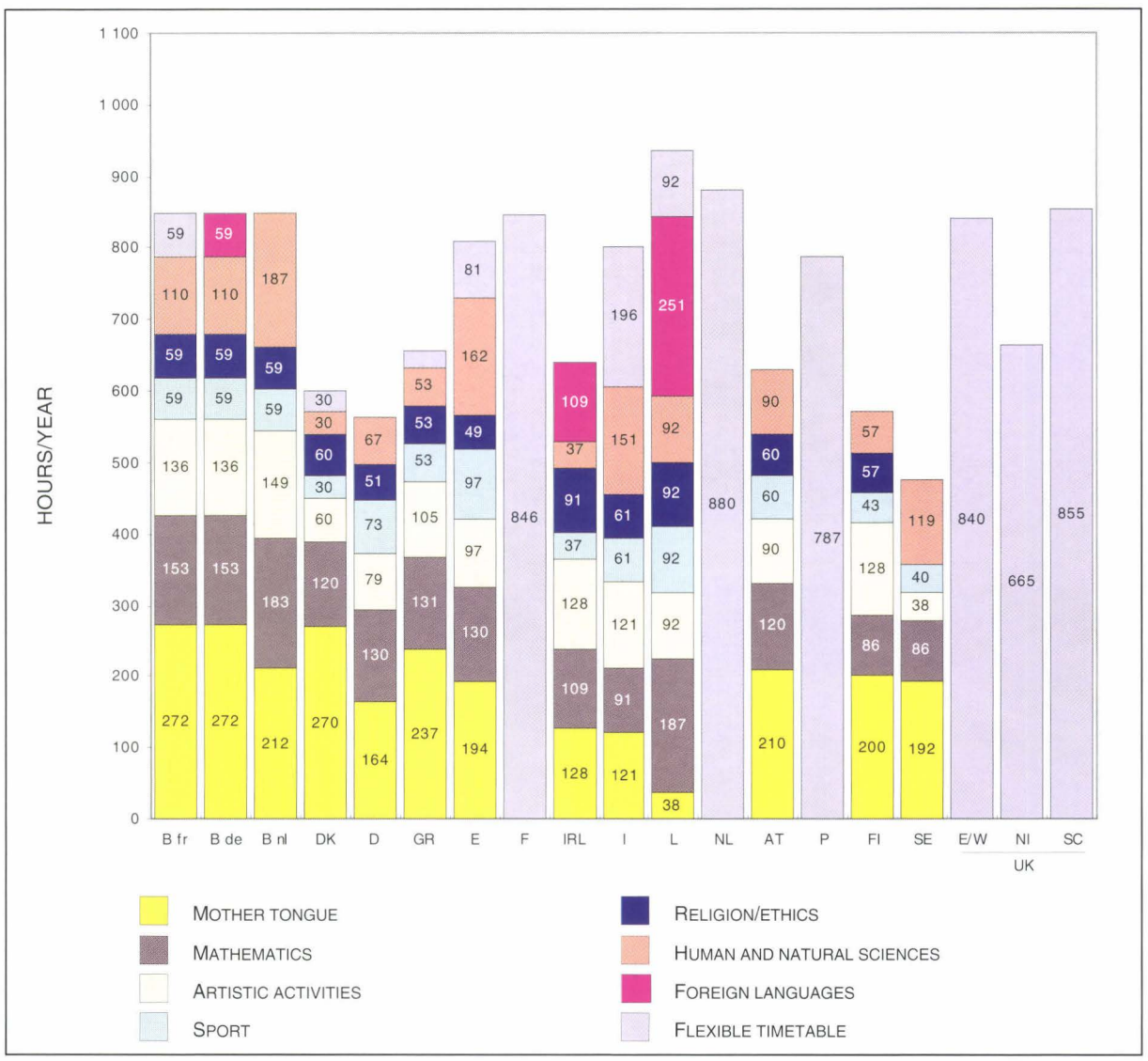
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The annual hours of teaching are calculated from the number of hours per week, or the number of periods, multiplied by the length of a period to obtain the weekly load. This total is divided by the number of days in the week then multiplied by the number of school days in the year. All types of break (recreational or other) have been excluded from the calculations.

COMPULSORY SUBJECTS: A COMMON BASE BUT DIFFERENCES IN EMPHASIS

In some Member States, the curricula and official directives give teachers or schools freedom to determine how much time they allocate to different subjects. This is the case in France, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom in particular. In other Member States, in which the curricula prescribe the timetabling of the various subjects, it is possible to compare the amount of time devoted to each subject.

GRAPH D5: ANNUAL HOURS OF TEACHING OF EACH SUBJECT AT THE START OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (AROUND AGE 6), 1994/95



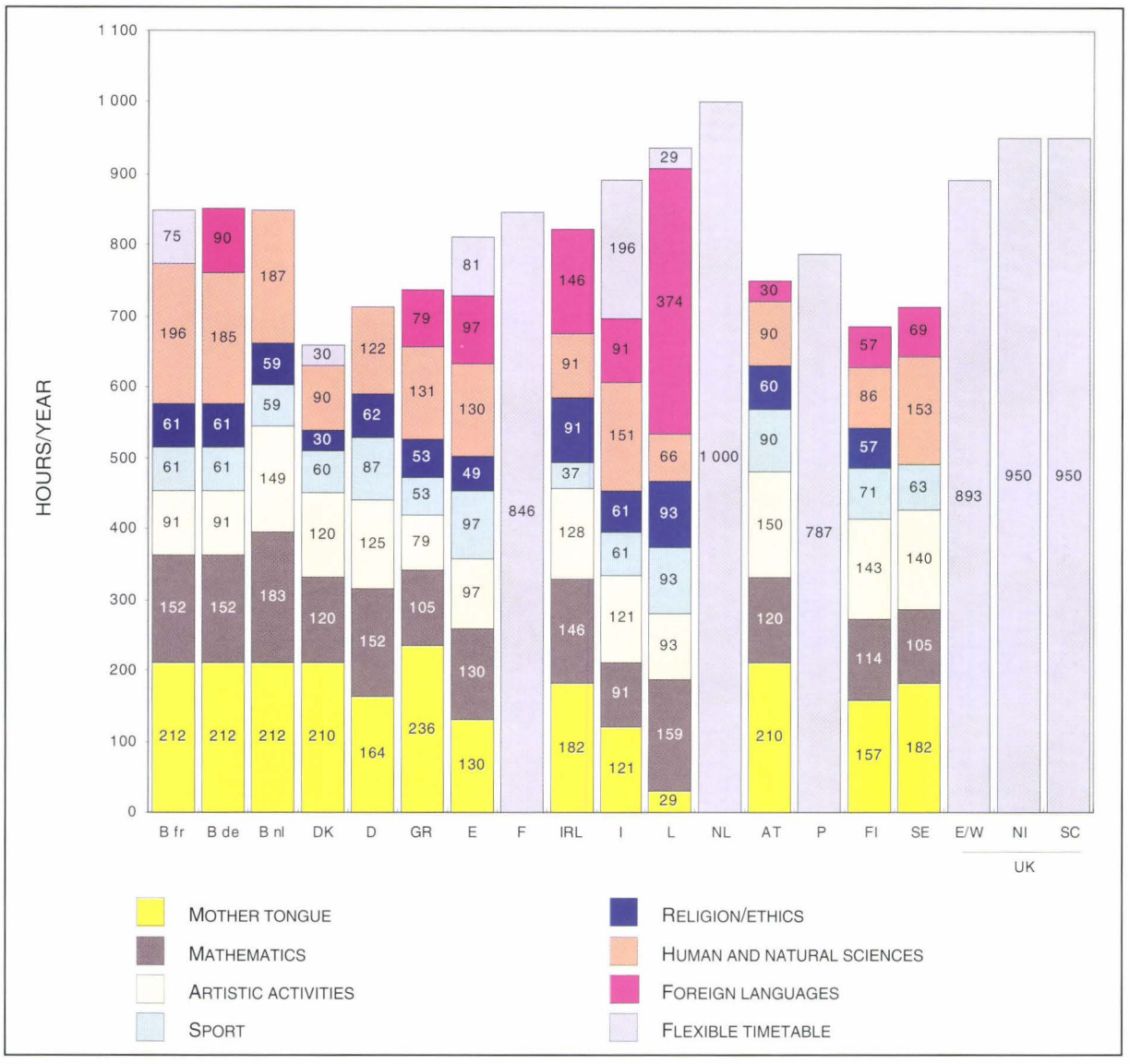
Source: Eurydice.

Finland: Figures are approximations as there are differences between schools. Calculations are based on a 20-hour week.

In primary education, major disparities are observed in the time allocated to the teaching of the mother tongue at both 6 and 9 years of age.

There are also substantial differences in the amount of time devoted to the teaching of mathematics, artistic activities, manual activities, sciences and sport. Luxembourg is striking for the amount of time devoted to the teaching of German as a foreign language.

GRAPH D6: ANNUAL HOURS OF TEACHING OF EACH SUBJECT DURING THE COURSE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (AROUND AGE 9), 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land*. Nine-year-olds have the opportunity to learn a foreign language as a separate subject in only two *Länder*. In the other *Länder*, language learning is integrated with other subjects.
France: Subjects are divided into three categories; there is flexibility of timetabling within these fixed categories.
Italy: This is the minimum; the final allocation of time is decided by the teachers.
Finland: Figures are approximations as there are differences between schools. Calculations are based on a 24-hour week.

At around age 9, pupils start to learn a foreign language in nine of the Member States.

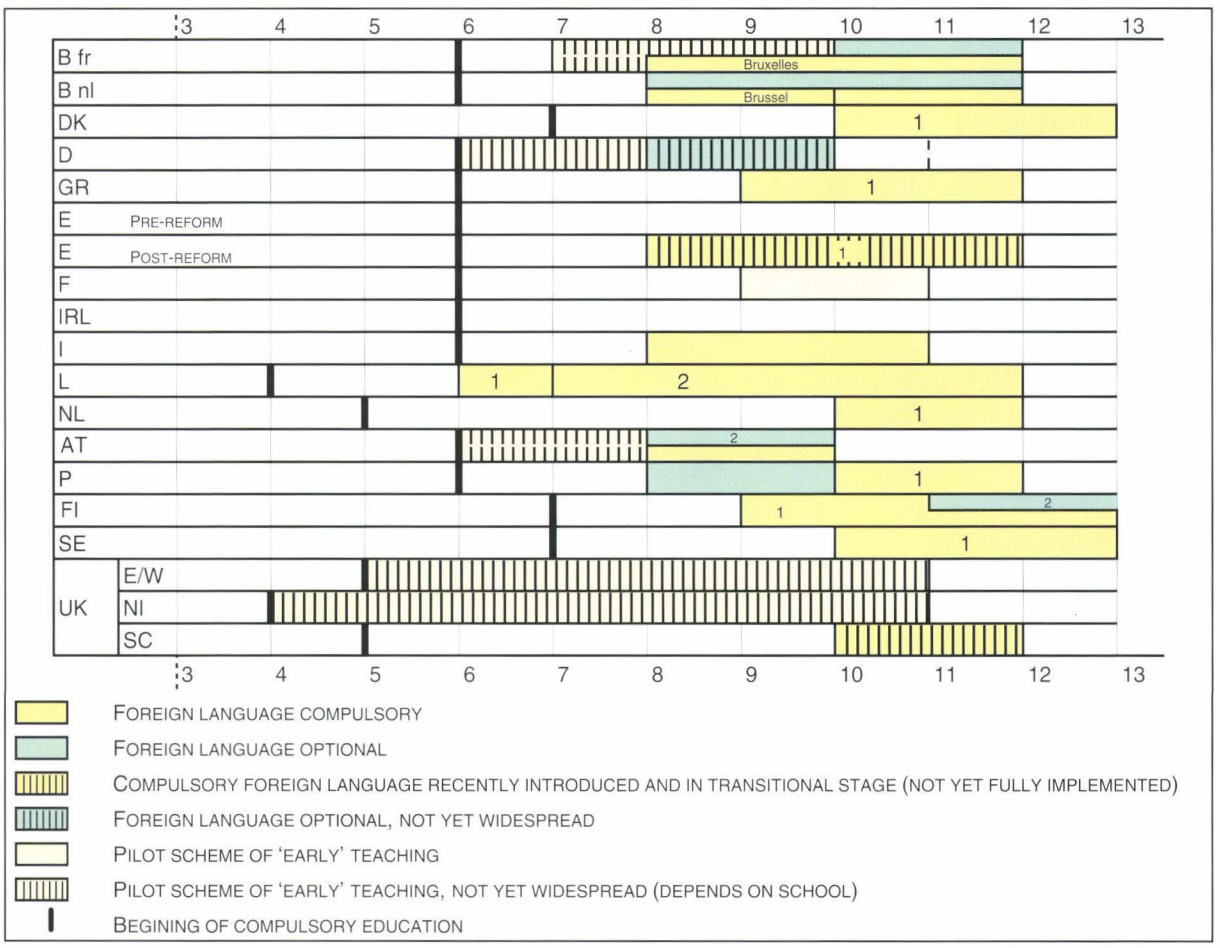
EXPLANATORY NOTE

These graphs have been constructed by multiplying the proportions of time allocated to the various subjects, as provided for in the official curricula, by the annual numbers of class hours.

LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A VARIETY OF OPPORTUNITIES

A real start is made on foreign language teaching at primary level in all Member States of the Union, with the exception of Ireland. Between the ages of 8 and 10 (except in Luxembourg, at age 6), nearly all pupils in Europe have begun the study of a foreign language, usually English. This is compulsory for most pupils (in Denmark, Greece, Spain post-reform, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden and the Brussels-Capital Region in Belgium). For the others, foreign languages are either optional (the Flemish Community in Belgium, Germany, Portugal and Scotland) or their teaching is still to a greater or lesser extent at a pilot stage (the French Community in Belgium, Germany and France). In England and Wales and Northern Ireland, foreign languages are offered to pupils where this is possible.

GRAPH D7: TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DURING PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Finland: The graph presents general practice, when languages are usually started. Both compulsory and optional languages can also be started earlier or later, depending on the school.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

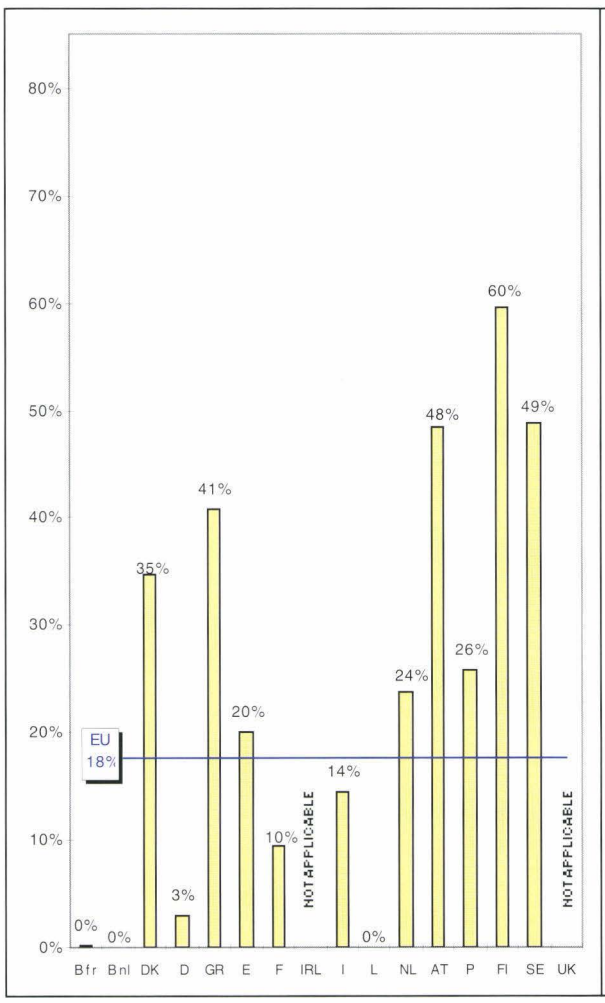
This graph presents only languages regarded as modern and foreign. Consequently, Irish and Letzebuergesch and regional languages are excluded, although provision may be made for them in certain Member States.

The numbers 1 and 2 refer to the first and second foreign languages.

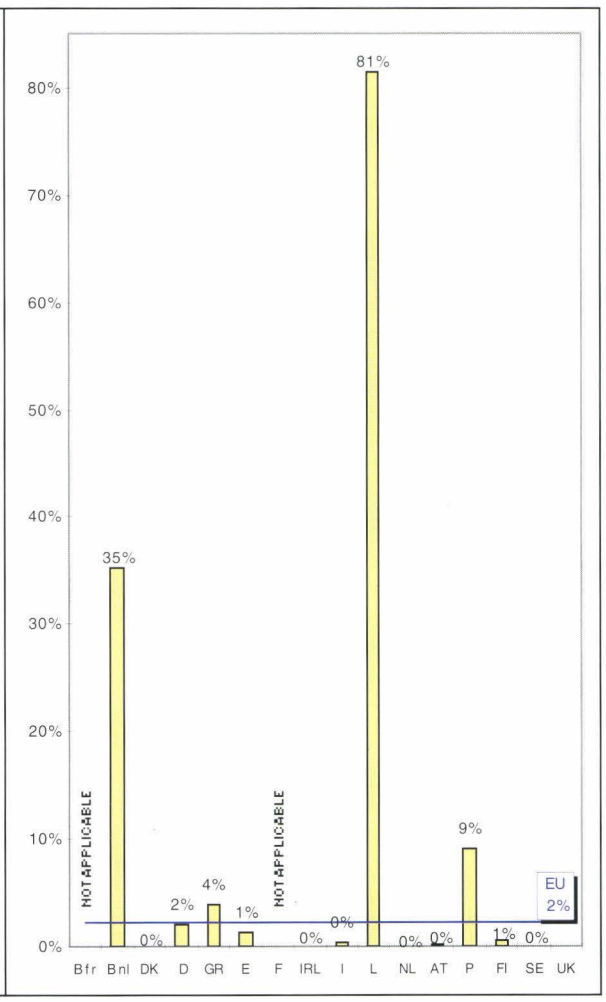
ENGLISH: THE MOST TAUGHT LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The most taught foreign language in primary schools is English.
The quantitative data in the following graphs confirm previous observations concerning the availability of foreign language teaching in primary education. The proportions of pupils learning foreign languages at this level remain very low (18% English, 2% French). The percentages shown here are calculated on the basis of the total primary school populations.

GRAPH D8: PERCENTAGES OF PRIMARY PUPILS LEARNING ENGLISH, 1992/93



GRAPH D9: PERCENTAGES OF PRIMARY PUPILS LEARNING FRENCH, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

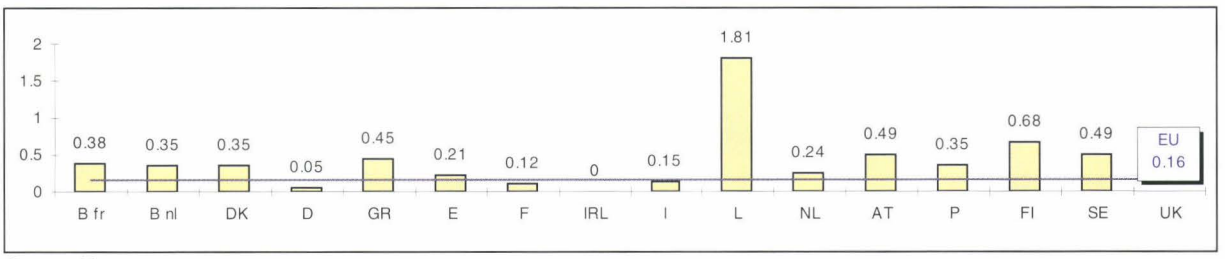
Belgium (B fr) and **United Kingdom**: Data not available.
Luxembourg: Data provided by the Ministry of Education.

Among primary pupils learning English, the highest percentages are found in Finland (60%), Sweden (49%), Austria (48%), Greece (41%) and Denmark (35%). In three other Member States (Spain, the Netherlands and Portugal), the percentages of pupils learning English are above the European average, but to a lesser extent. This situation is probably due, in the case of Spain and Portugal, to the introduction of new provisions concerning languages under their far-reaching education reforms.

French is the second most widely taught language at primary level. However, the percentages in the Member States concerned do not exceed 10%, except in the Flemish Community in Belgium and Luxembourg, where all primary pupils learn French from the second year of the primary school.

The average number of foreign languages learned per pupil confirms once again that the teaching of these languages is still limited (often at a pilot stage) at primary level. During 1992/93, pupils in primary education learned, on average, 0.16 modern languages.

GRAPH D10: AVERAGE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES PER PRIMARY PUPIL, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.
Luxembourg: All primary pupils learn German.
United Kingdom: Data not available.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

This graph shows the average number of foreign languages studied by each pupil at any given time, as opposed to languages studied throughout primary education.

PUPIL EVALUATION METHODS VARY ACCORDING TO THE INDIVIDUAL MEMBER STATE

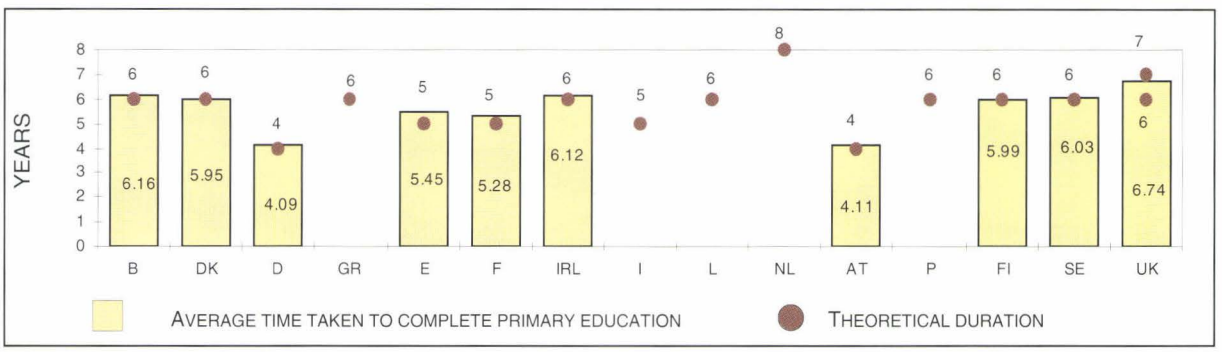
In all Member States of the European Union, continuous assessment of pupils' progress during the course of primary education is carried out at local level by the class teacher or the teaching team.
Some Member States also employ additional methods of external assessment, organized at national level, at certain key stages of education. This is the case in the United Kingdom, in each part of which attainment targets have been established and are assessed at the end of each of the key stages (at ages 7 and 11 in England and Wales, 8 and 11 in Northern Ireland, and 8 and 12 in Scotland). In France, there is a national assessment test in reading, writing and mathematics, for monitoring purposes, at the beginning of the consolidation stage (age 8). It is used to detect any weaknesses pupils may have and to enable them to be remedied. In Sweden, there are optional standardized assessment tests which pupils may take at the end of the fifth year (age 12) of the *grundskola*.
In Ireland, the annual report sent to parents is based in part on the pupil's results in standardized national tests.
Schools use standardized national tests for guidance purposes during the transition from primary to secondary school in the Netherlands. A national examination is set at age 11 to select pupils for certain secondary schools (grammar schools in Northern Ireland and *lycées* in Luxembourg).

IN SOME COUNTRIES A CERTIFICATE IS AWARDED AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY STAGE

In most Member States, there is no form of certification for pupils on completion of primary education, at about the age of 12, except in Belgium, Greece and Italy. In Belgium (apart from the German-speaking community), pupils can obtain a certificate on the basis of work done during the year, but they usually sit an examination set by the teacher, while in some schools they may sit a cantonal examination organized by the inspectorate. In Greece, a certificate is awarded on the basis of the pupil's work throughout the year. In Italy, pupils receive a certificate (*licenza elementare*).

A PATH SOMETIMES STREWN WITH OBSTACLES

GRAPH D11: AVERAGE DURATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat/Eurydice.

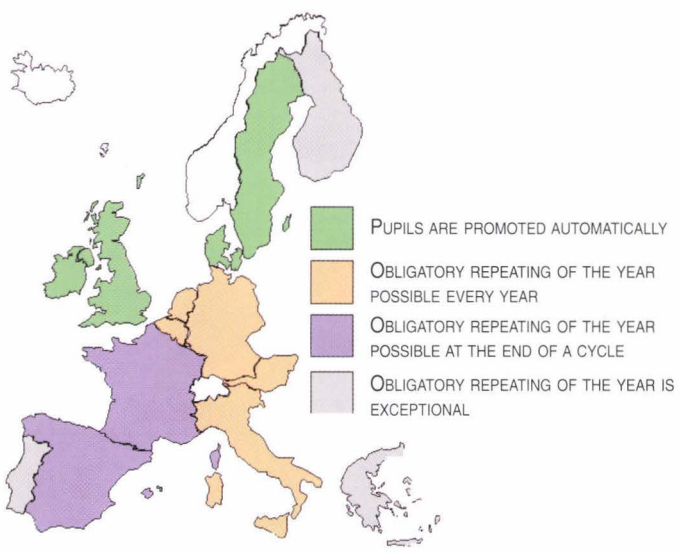
Belgium: These are only estimates.
Denmark, Portugal, Finland and **Sweden**: The theoretical duration corresponds to the six first years of 'basic education'.
Germany: Excluding Brandenburg.
Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and **Portugal**: Data not available.
Netherlands: *Basisonderwijs* lasts eight years whether the pupil starts at age 4 or age 5.
United Kingdom: The theoretical duration of primary education differs between England and Wales (six years), and Scotland and Northern Ireland (seven years). These differences are not given. The data concern the United Kingdom as a whole.

In some Member States, actual duration exceeds theoretical duration, indicating that, overall, pupils need more time to complete the curriculum and meet its requirements. This is particularly true in Spain and France.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The average duration of education at primary level is obtained by adding the primary school enrolment rates by ages. The statistics do not include pupils in special education (outside mainstream schools) in Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Ireland, the United Kingdom; the rates may therefore be underestimated.

MAP D1: PROMOTION TO THE NEXT CLASS IN THE COURSE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Promotion from one class to the next is automatic throughout primary education and is effected without examinations in some Member States (Denmark, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom). In the other Member States, pupils experiencing difficulty can be required to repeat the year. Repeating is the practice in Belgium, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria and the Netherlands.
Repeating at the end of one of the two or three year stages is possible in Spain and France. In Greece, Finland and Portugal (during the first stage of 'basic education'), repeating is still possible, but exceptional.

DECISIONS ON CURRICULA AND SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Responsibility for drawing up curricula is exercised at different levels. The highest level, the Ministerial, defines guidelines, principles or criteria as the basis for curricula. The second level of decision-making is that of the actual development of the curriculum. The attribution of responsibilities for the preparation of various aspects of the curriculum varies considerably from country to country. In Greece, the national authorities carry the greatest part of it. Those in charge determine the subjects, the period of time each subject is to be taught and the content, and even go as far as to edit textbooks. In England and Wales, there are no regulations on methods but guidelines are provided by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). In the Netherlands, the law and decrees of the Minister for Education and Science only define the list of compulsory subjects and the essential aims.

In countries where official guidelines concentrate primarily on defining the objectives to be achieved (Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom), it is the schools and teachers who are responsible for defining the means for achieving these objectives: the organization of course content, teaching materials, including the choice of textbooks, and teaching methods.

Some countries focus their guidelines more on how courses are taught. They specify teaching methods and timetabling, and they suggest what teaching materials are to be used. This is the case in Greece and to a lesser degree in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg and Austria, where greater flexibility is allowed in relation to practical implementation and choice of textbooks.

Between these two extremes, there are countries like Spain, France, Italy and Portugal. Ireland makes recommendations on both aims and means without, however, defining the minimum objectives.

TABLE D1: LEVELS OF DECISION-TAKING, DEFINITION OF MINIMAL ATTAINMENTS AND CHOICE OF METHODS AND TEXTBOOKS, 1994/95

	MINIMUM COMPETENCES	METHODS	TEXTBOOKS
MINISTRY	Spain, France, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom		Greece
MINISTRY AND LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY	Netherlands	Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal	Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria
LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY	Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland	Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom	Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, Netherlands, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom

Source: Eurydice.

Germany: Textbooks are chosen by schools from lists recommended by the Ministries.

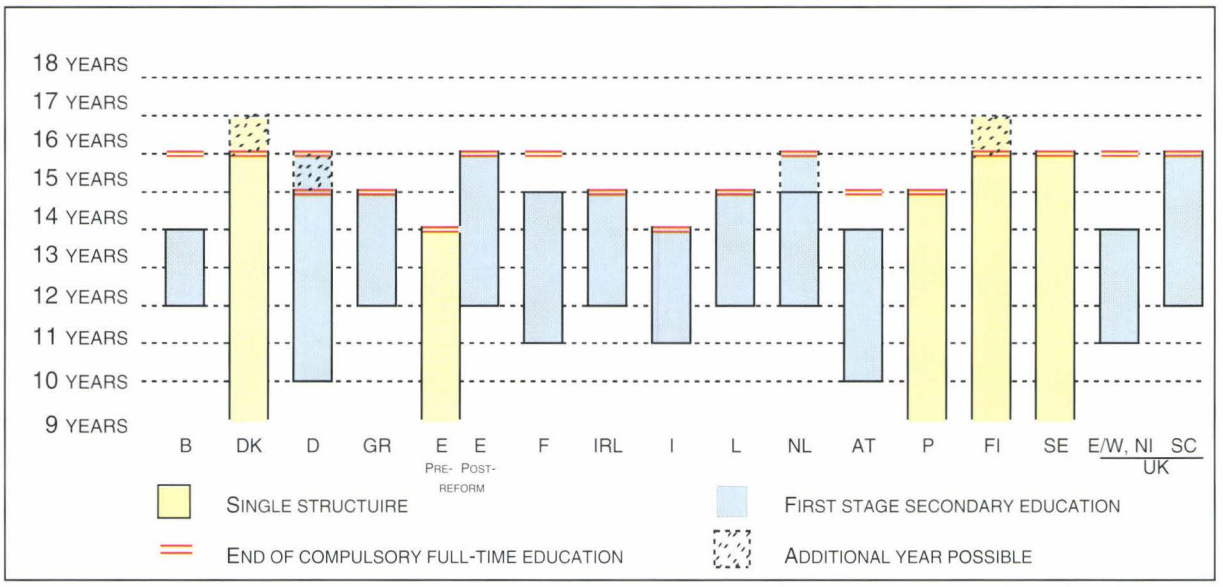
E

SECONDARY EDUCATION

DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL PATHWAYS IN THE MEMBER STATES: FROM A SINGLE COURSE TO SPECIALIZED BRANCHES

The organization of secondary education differs from one Member State to another, but usually includes a first and a second stage of varying lengths. The end of the first stage, or the end of 'basic education' under the single structure system, often coincides with the upper age limit of full-time compulsory education.

GRAPH E1: AGES AT WHICH COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION AND THE FIRST CYCLE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION ARE COMPLETED, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The duration of full-time compulsory education is nine years in 12 *Länder* and 10 years in four. It therefore ends at age 15 or age 16.

The start of secondary education varies from one Member State to another. It is generally set at age 11 or 12, and begins earliest in Germany and Austria, from age 10.

In most Member States, the first stage is either three or four years long, except in Germany, where it is five or six years, and in Belgium where it is only two years.

In Denmark, Spain (pre-reform), Portugal, Finland and Sweden, there is no lower secondary education as such, 'basic education' being organized in one single structure over nine years. The information included on these countries in this chapter relates to the last three years of this single structure.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

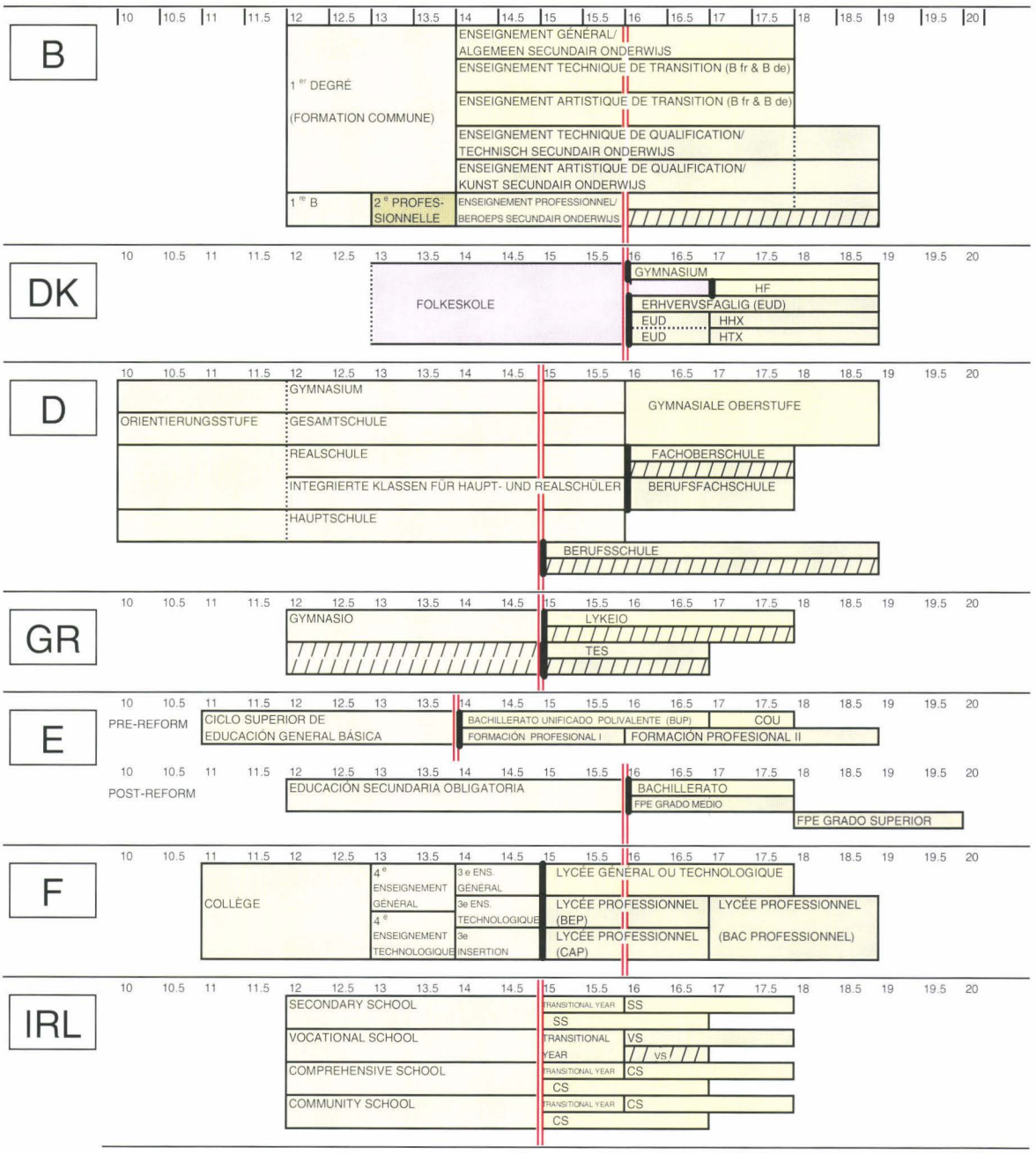
The International Standard Classification for Education (ISCED), developed by Unesco, is used by countries and international agencies as a means of compiling internationally comparable statistics on education.

In accordance with this classification, the last three years of 'basic education' in Spain (pre-reform) and the Folkeskole *(Denmark), of the* Ensino básico *in Portugal, of the* Peruskoulu/Grundskola *(Finland), and of the* Grundskola *(Sweden) are considered to be of the same level as the first stage of secondary education (ISCED 2).*

Graph E2 sets out the organization of these structures by Member State. Different branches or types of courses and their position in this stage of education are indicated.

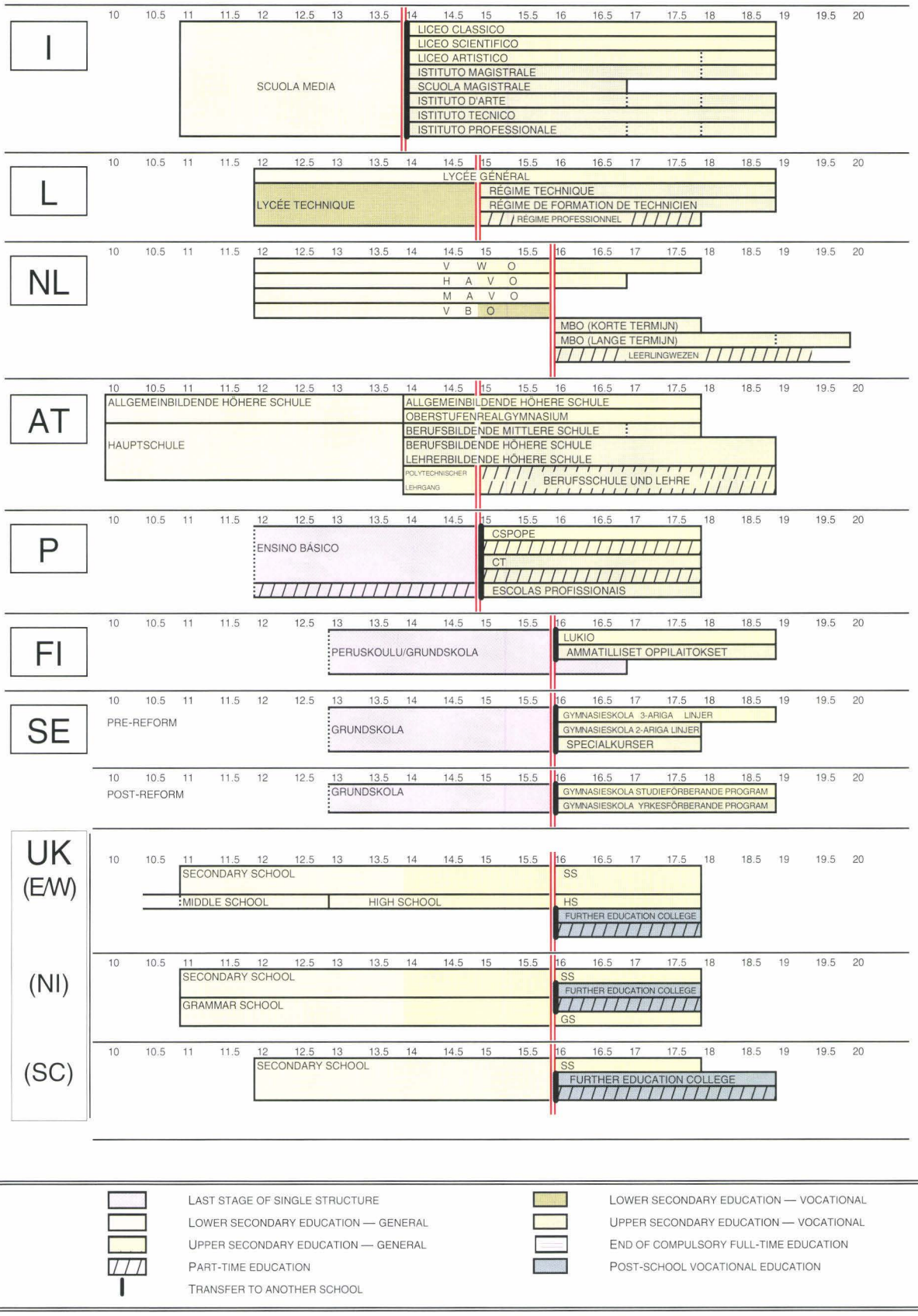
A majority of Member States have 'integrated' structures in lower secondary education, with all pupils following a general curriculum at the same level. Only a few Member States (Belgium and Luxembourg) have different types of courses at this stage. In Germany, after the *Orientierungsstufe,* and in Austria, lower secondary general education leads to different certificates according to the type of school.

GRAPH E2: ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION STRUCTURES IN THE EUROPEAN UNION, 1994/95



Germany: The duration of full-time compulsory education is nine years in 12 *Länder* and 10 years in four *Länder*. It therefore ends at age 15 or 16. In certain *Länder*, the *Orientierungsstufe* (observation stage) is provided separately and in a specific type of school. Depending on the *Land*, *integrierte Klassen für Haupt- und Realschüler* are provided in a different type of school. Vocational training after full-time compulsory education (9 or 10 years) is provided in the *Berufsschule* (part-time vocational school) and in firms (*duales System*).

Different types of courses are provided in all Member States in upper secondary education. Although they are all known by different names, it is possible to distinguish two major categories: general, providing education leading to entry to higher education, and vocational, providing qualifications in preparation for working life.



Source: Eurydice.

A QUARTER OF ALL PUPILS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION ARE IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

During the academic year 1992/93, 18.8 million pupils were enrolled in upper secondary education in the European Union. The school population at this level represents 26% of all pupils in schools in the European Union.

TABLE E1: PUPILS IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), IN THOUSANDS AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL SCHOOL POPULATION, 1992/93

B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
499	229	2 898	437	2 833	2 507	174	2 821	11	763	395	471	244	310	4 174
24%	24%	21%	24%	33%	21%	22%	30%	22%	22%	29%	22%	24%	22%	32%

Source: Eurostat.

Belgium: This is an estimate.

The relative proportion of pupils in upper secondary education varies from 21 to 33%. These variations reflect different types of organization, including the age at the end of compulsory education and the duration of upper secondary education (from two years in Ireland to five years for certain branches in Spain, Italy and Austria).

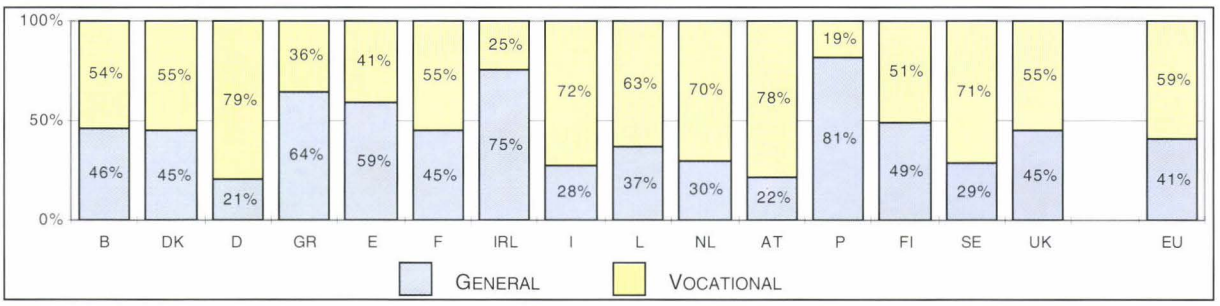
EXPLANATORY NOTE

In the comparative section of the table, the total numbers of pupils do not include those in pre-school institutions.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PREDOMINATES AT UPPER SECONDARY LEVEL

Graph E3 depicts, for each Member State, the distribution of upper secondary pupils between general and vocational education.

GRAPH E3: PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium: This is an estimate.

Luxembourg: Data provided by the Ministry of Education.

United Kingdom (E/W and **NI)**: There is no separate upper secondary vocational education. This represents post-compulsory vocational education.

In the European Union as a whole, there are more pupils in vocational than in general upper secondary education. This is the case in 11 Member States.

This trend is particularly marked in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden. Conversely, there are more pupils in general education in Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

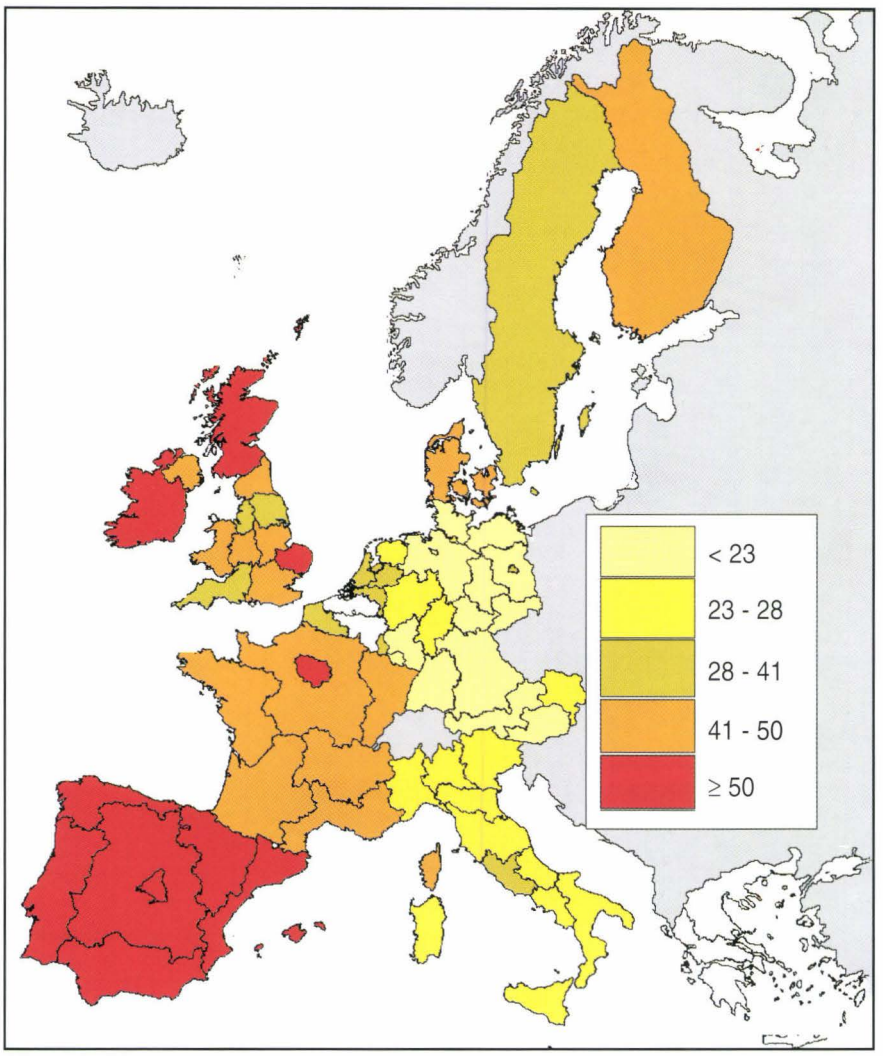
Upper secondary education corresponds to ISCED level 3.

In Graph E3, the distribution of pupils between the two types of education is based on the total numbers of pupils in education. From the data available, it is not possible to take into account students undertaking vocational training within businesses.

PREDOMINANCE OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN CERTAIN MEMBER STATES AND CERTAIN REGIONS

Map E1 depicts the proportion of upper secondary pupils in general education in each of the NUTS 1 regions.

MAP E1: PROPORTIONS OF PUPILS IN GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium and **Greece**: Data not available.
United Kingdom (E/W and **NI)**: There is no separate upper secondary vocational education. This represents post-compulsory vocational education.

Overall, there is little variation between regions within any one Member State. Contrasts appear mainly between Member States.
In France, only the Nord-Pas-de-Calais region has under 40% of pupils in the general branch of upper secondary education.
In Italy, Emilia-Romagna has the highest proportion of pupils in vocational education.
In Finland, the Åland islands differ from the mainland, having a smaller proportion of pupils in the general branch.
In the United Kingdom, Scotland has a large proportion of pupils in general education.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

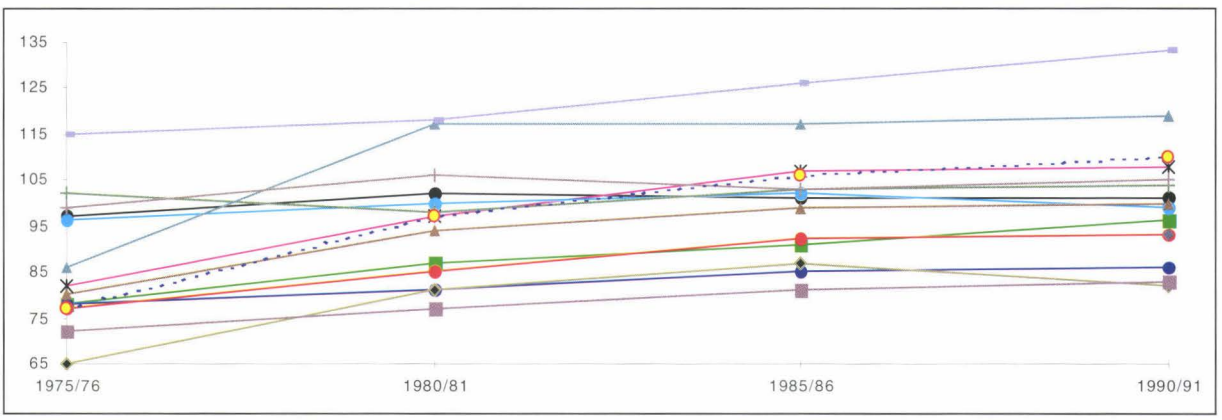
The quantile method has been used in the construction of this map. Each category contains the same number of regions.

CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In order to measure movement in the rate of female participation in upper secondary education, a time series has been established showing the number of girls per 100 boys at five-year intervals since 1975.

In Graph E4, the superimposition of the curves for the majority of the Member States shows clearly that they all follow a common trend over the period covered. Only Finland differs from the other countries, with a higher participation of girls from the beginning of the series. In the other countries, the number of girls per 100 boys is just below or approximately equal to 100. A slight increase, however, is noticeable over the last 15 years.

GRAPH E4: CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1975-90

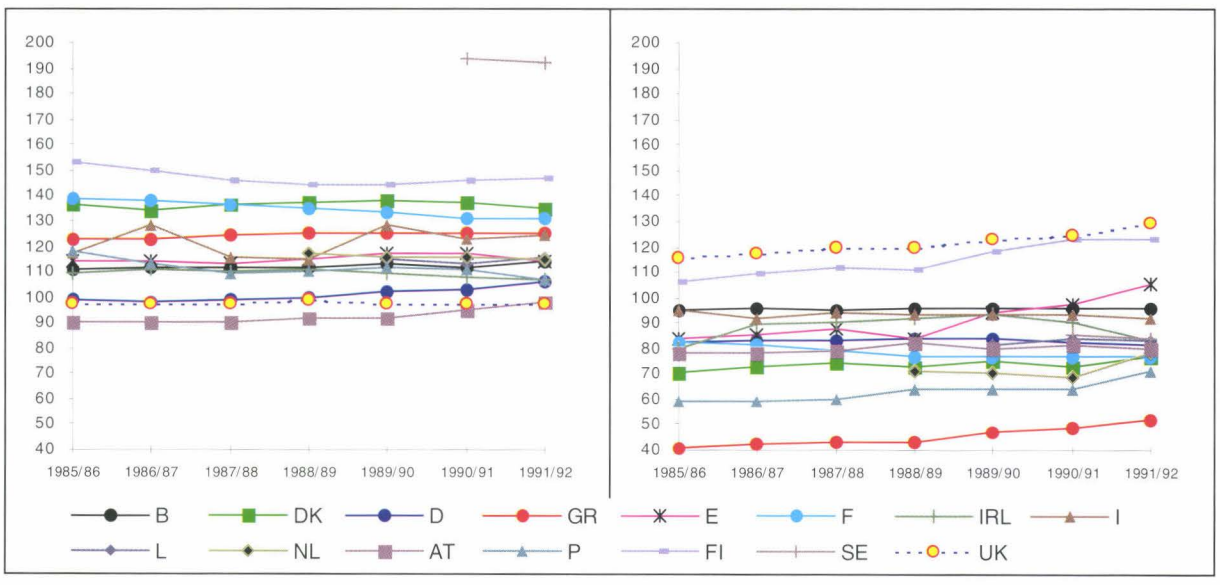


Source: Eurostat.

Graphs E5 and E6 illustrate the changes in the numbers of girls per 100 boys in each stream of upper secondary education. Data are available on the breakdown between general and vocational education since 1985.

GRAPH E5: CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1985-91

GRAPH E6: CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1985-91



Source: Eurostat.

Germany: The data refer to the Federal Republic of Germany before 3 October 1990.
United Kingdom (E/W and **NI)**: There is no separate upper secondary vocational education. This represents post-compulsory vocational education.

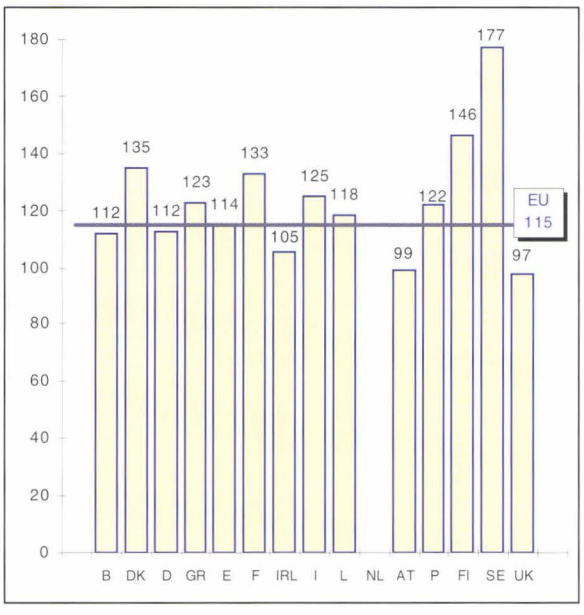
In upper secondary general education, the number of girls per 100 boys has been fairly stable since 1985 (Graph E5). Girls outnumber boys. Finland already had the highest girl:boy ratio 10 years ago. The rate of participation of girls is also very high in Denmark and in France. In Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom, the proportion of girls to boys is fairly equal.

Movement in the participation rates of girls in vocational education (Graph E6) shows greater variation. In certain countries (Finland and the United Kingdom), girls outnumber boys and their numbers have been increasing steadily since 1985. In the other countries, this proportion is reversed. Greece is distinguished by an exceptionally low participation rate of girls, even though it is showing a slight increase.

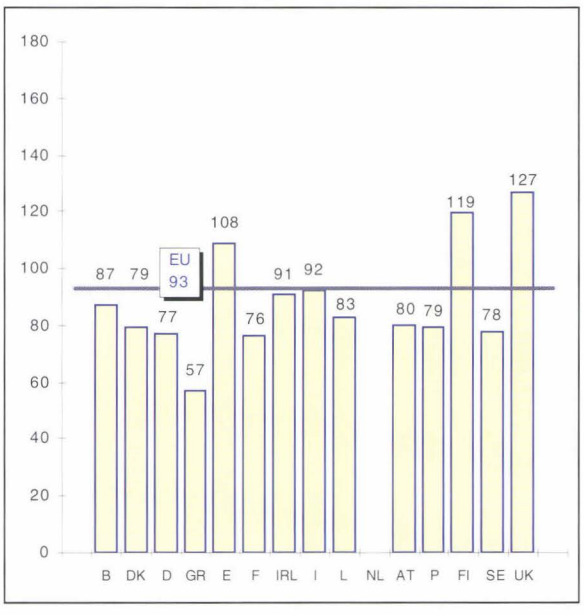
MORE GIRLS THAN BOYS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION

At the present time, in all Member States except Austria and the United Kingdom, there are more girls than boys in general education. On the other hand, boys tend to outnumber girls in vocational education.

GRAPH E7: NUMBER OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION, 1992/93



GRAPH E8: NUMBER OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium: Estimates.
Luxembourg: Data provided by the Ministry of Education.
Netherlands: Data not available.
United Kingdom (E/W and **NI)**: There is no separate upper secondary vocational education. This represents post-compulsory vocational education.

The greatest proportion of girls in upper secondary general education — almost double that of boys — is found in Sweden. In Austria and the United Kingdom, there are almost equal proportions of boys and girls at upper secondary level in general education. There are more girls than boys in vocational courses in the United Kingdom while in Austria they are in the minority in this branch. In Spain and in Finland, fewer boys than girls remain at school after the end of compulsory education, the proportions of girls being higher in both general and vocational education.

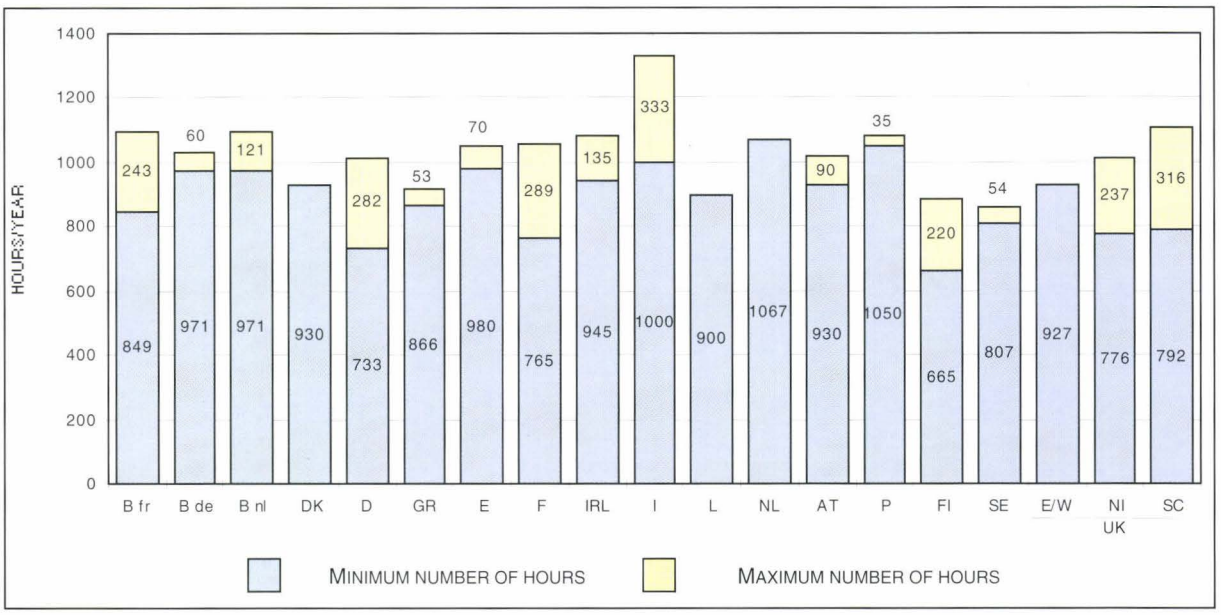
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The number of girls per 100 boys is arrived at by dividing the total number of girls by the total number of boys and multiplying the result by 100.

DIFFERENT TIMETABLES IN DIFFERENT MEMBER STATES, DIFFERENT COURSES AND DIFFERENT YEARS

There are wide variations between the Member States of the European Union in the organization of school time, as illustrated in Graph E9 in relation to lower secondary education.

GRAPH E9: ANNUAL NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land.*

In most Member States, the annual number of class hours varies between a maximum and a minimum. In some Member States, variations result from pupils having subject options, as in Belgium, Spain, France and Sweden. In other Member States, such as Germany, the number of lesson periods increases with the years. In Germany, Ireland, Italy and Finland, there are two different timetables side by side.

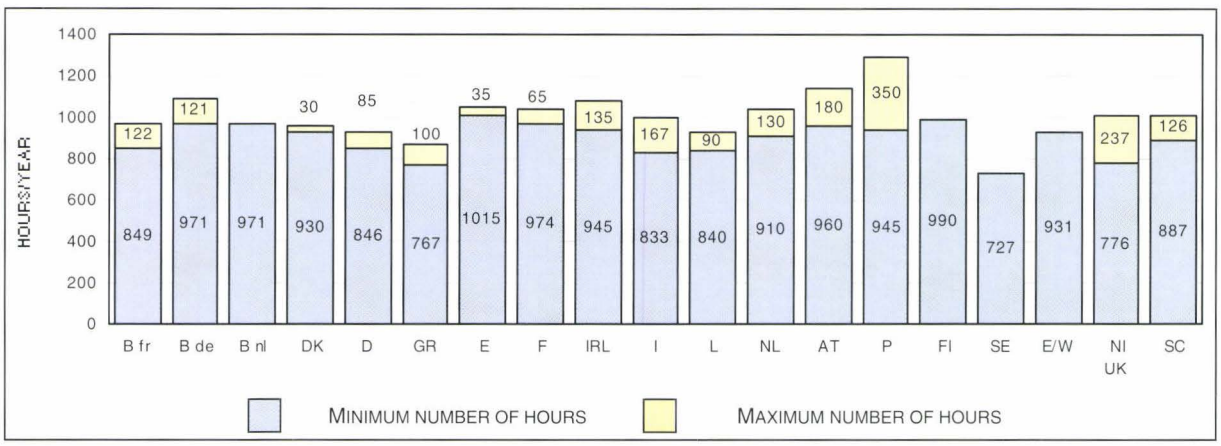
The annual course load is heaviest in Italy, where the minimum timetable exceeds the maximum in five other Member States. Some pupils spend more than 1 300 hours a year in school. On the other hand, Danish, German, French and Finnish pupils go to school for a minimum of about 700 hours a year. The difference between their timetables is thus of the order of almost 100%.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

To obtain information enabling a precise comparison to be made of the time pupils spend in school, the annual number of class hours must be calculated for each Member State. This annual course load, illustrated in Graphs E9, E10 and E11, is calculated by multiplying the number of periods per week by the length of a period, to obtain the weekly load. This number is divided by the number of days per week then multiplied by the number of teaching days in the year.

The number of class hours a year in upper secondary general education varies in all Member States except the Flemish Community of Belgium, Finland, Sweden, and England and Wales. At this level of education, differences may be explained by the numerous options available to pupils (languages, mathematics, sciences, literature, etc.), which result in varying weekly and annual loads.

GRAPH E10: ANNUAL NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS IN UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION, 1994/95

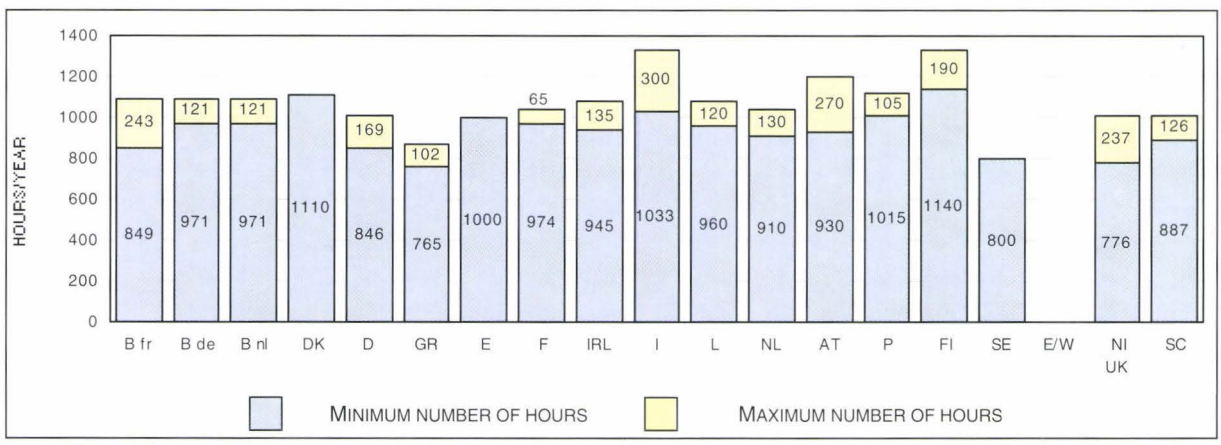


Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land*.

The minimum timetable is found in Sweden (727 hours) and the maximum in Portugal (1 295 hours). The maximum difference is thus more than 500 class hours a year.

GRAPH E11: ANNUAL NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS IN UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land*.
United Kingdom (E/W): There are no recommended hours for post-compulsory vocational education.

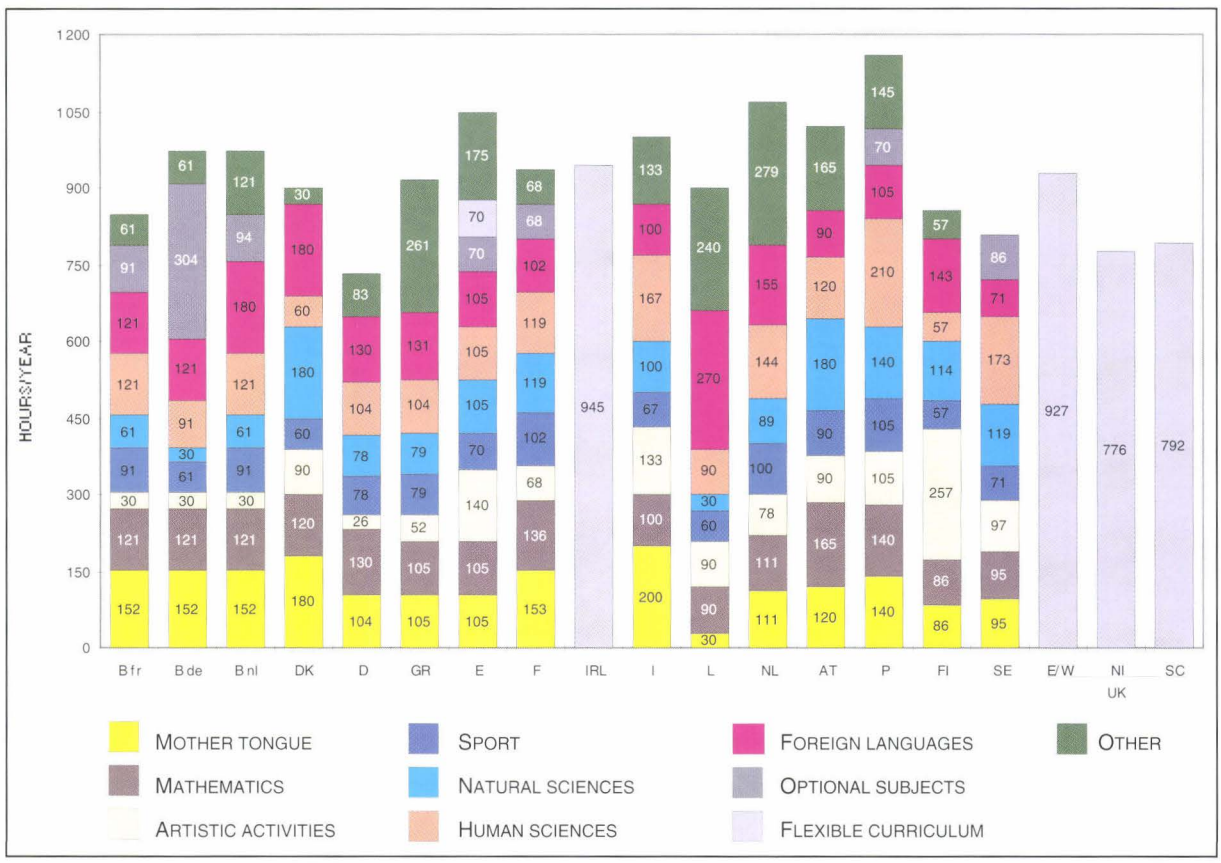
Equally great differences appear between Member States in vocational education as in general education at upper secondary level. Variations between Member States can be almost 100%. In Greece, the minimum number of class hours is 765 a year, while in Italy the maximum can go up to 1 333 hours.

An explanation may be found in the greater specialization and the resulting larger numbers of options available in this type of education. Secondary vocational education includes periods of practical training, which may take various forms (including placement in a company or a workbench job within the school). The timetables set by the Member States do not always specify whether this practical training is included or how it is organized.

THE SAME COMPULSORY SUBJECTS, BUT DIFFERENT TIMETABLE LOADS FROM 13 YEARS OF AGE

Insofar as curricula indicate the number of hours allocated to each subject, the amount of time devoted to various subjects can be compared.
Graphs E12 and E13 show the minimum annual number of hours per subject at ages 13 and 16.

GRAPH E12: MINIMUM ANNUAL NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS BY SUBJECT AT AGE 13 IN GENERAL EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land*.
Ireland and **United Kingdom**: Curricula and guidelines allow individual schools to determine the time allocated to the various subjects. Timetables in these Member States are therefore indicated as flexible.
Finland: Figures are approximations as there are differences between schools. The numbers of hours have been calculated on the basis of a 30-hour week.
Sweden: Most of the pupils (60%) choose a second foreign language as their optional subject.

At age 13, all pupils in the European Union are taught the same compulsory subjects. However, the amount of time allocated to these subjects varies from one Member State to another. The time devoted to mother tongue teaching is set at 30 hours a year in Luxembourg and 200 hours a year in Italy. The minimum amount of time allocated to mathematics is found in Finland (about 86 hours a year) and the maximum is found in Austria (165 hours a year). While Finland devotes 257 hours a year to artistic activities, Germany allocates only 26 hours. As for the sciences, Luxembourg pupils receive 30 hours of teaching a year, while Danish and Austrian pupils have 180. Teaching of the human sciences also varies widely, from a minimum of 57 hours a year in Finland to a maximum of 210 hours in Portugal. Pupils in Luxembourg spend the most time on foreign languages (270 hours a year). At age 13, Belgian, Spanish, French, Irish, Portuguese, Swedish and English pupils are able to choose a variable number of optional subjects.

DIFFERENT COMPULSORY SUBJECTS FOR 16-YEAR-OLDS

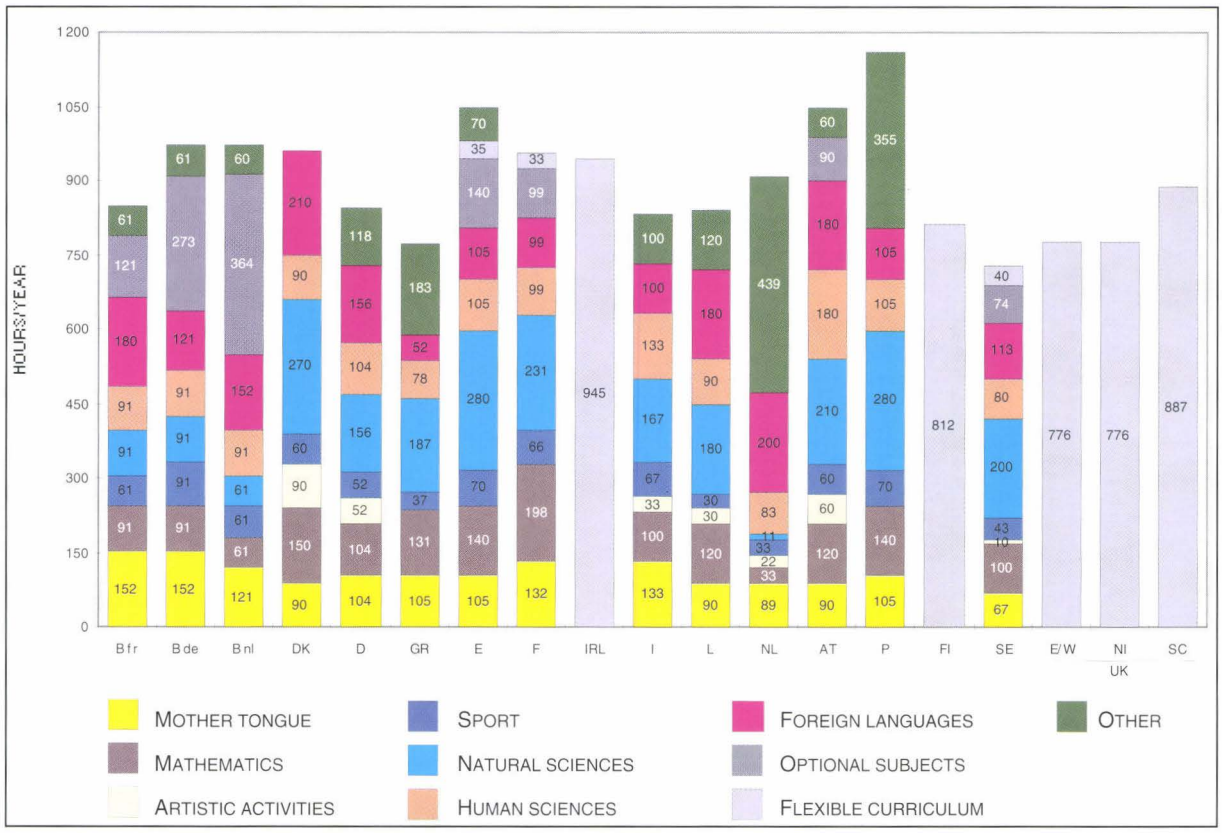
In the case of 16-year-old pupils, it is in the sciences section of general education that the greatest disparities in timetables emerge. At this point in their school careers, pupils do not all have the same compulsory subjects.

In the eight Member States where art and sports are still included in the curriculum, they are allocated less time than in lower secondary, except in Denmark.

In general, somewhat more time is devoted to foreign languages at this age, except in Spain, Italy and Portugal.

Optional courses appear in Austria. In those Member States where such courses have been available since age 13, they take on greater importance, except in Portugal and Sweden.

GRAPH E13: MINIMUM ANNUAL NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS BY SUBJECT AT AGE 16 IN THE SCIENTIFIC SECTION OF GENERAL EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The situation varies according to the *Land*.
Ireland and **United Kingdom**: Curricula and guidelines allow each school to determine the time allocated to the various subjects; timetables in these Member States are therefore indicated as flexible.
Netherlands: Curricula provide for options without specifying the number of hours to be allocated to them.
Finland: The annual number of class hours is calculated by dividing the minimum number of compulsory courses by the duration of upper secondary school (500 days) and then multiplying by 190 (number of school days in the year). This gives an approximate minimum. There are variations between schools.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

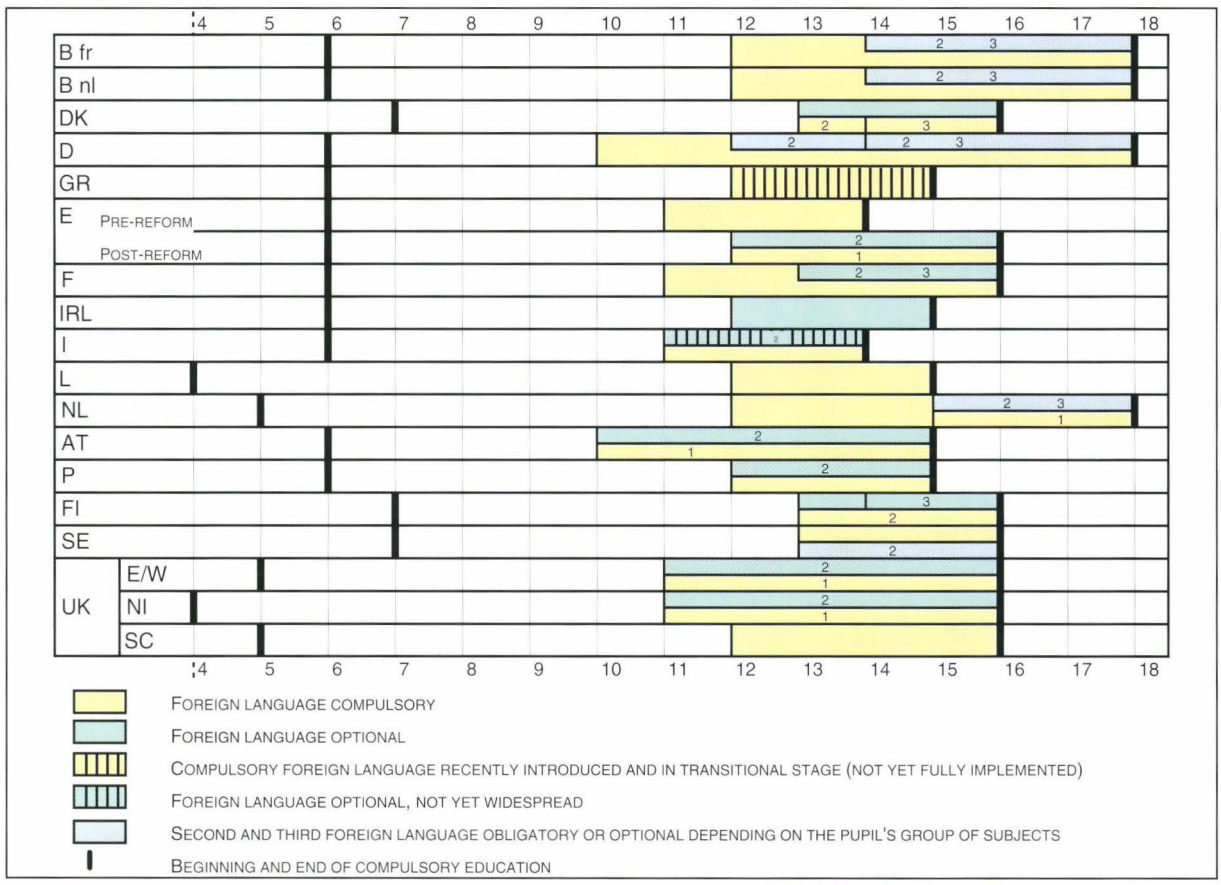
These graphs are constructed by multiplying the proportion of time to be allocated to the various subjects, as indicated in the curricula, by the annual number of class hours.

In the interests of simplicity, some subjects have been grouped together, such as the first, second and third foreign languages. Human sciences include history, geography, economics, philosophy and social sciences. Biology, physics and chemistry are included under natural sciences. Manual, technical training and technology courses, Latin and Greek, and religion and ethics courses are included in the 'other' category.

WIDESPREAD LEARNING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

In secondary education, it is general to learn one or more foreign languages. This has not yet been made compulsory in Ireland. In almost half of the Member States (Belgium, Germany, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Finland), it is possible or even compulsory to learn a third foreign language.

GRAPH E14: TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DURING THE COMPULSORY PERIOD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1994/95



Source: Eurydice.

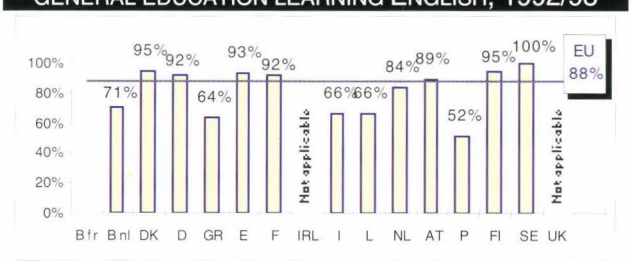
EXPLANATORY NOTE

This graph presents only languages regarded as modern and foreign. Consequently, Irish, Letzebuergesch and regional languages are excluded, although they may be provided for in certain Member States. The numbers 1, 2 and 3 refer to the first, second and third foreign languages.

English remains the most taught first foreign language at secondary level. The other official languages of the European Union appear much less frequently in the curricula. In 1992/93, 88% of pupils in general secondary education in the European Union were learning English. Other foreign languages were less frequently chosen: French 32%, German 19% and Spanish only 9%.

The graph illustrates the extent of teaching of **English** in all Member States. In some (Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, Finland and Sweden), more than 90% of pupils learn English. French ranks first, however, in the Flemish Community of Belgium (98%), Ireland (70%), and Luxembourg (100%).

GRAPH E15: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION LEARNING ENGLISH, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

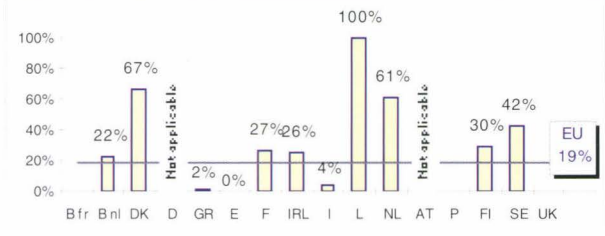
GRAPH E16: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION LEARNING FRENCH, 1992/93

Source: Eurostat.

French is the second most commonly learned language, but is still far behind English. Half of the pupils in the Netherlands were learning French in 1992/93. Percentages were between 22 and 45% in Germany, Greece, Italy and Portugal. The lowest figures for French were in Denmark, Spain, Austria, Finland and Sweden where they varied between 8 and 17%.

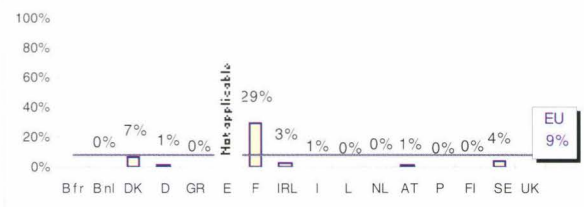
Generally speaking, the third most frequently learned language is **German**, except in Luxembourg, (where it is compulsory for all pupils), Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, where it ranks second. The Flemish Community of Belgium (22%), France (27%) and Ireland (26%) follow. In Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal, German was not yet a commonly learned language in 1992/93.

GRAPH E17: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION LEARNING GERMAN, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

GRAPH E18: PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION LEARNING SPANISH, 1992/93



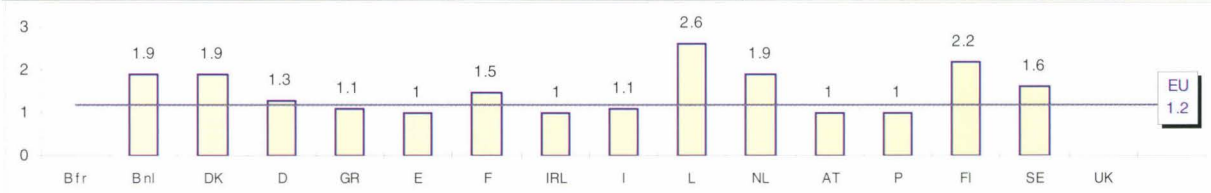
Source: Eurostat.

France has the largest proportion of pupils learning **Spanish** (29%), where it is the second most taught foreign language in terms of numbers of pupils. In the other Member States, the proportion is below 10%.

The average number of foreign languages learned in the course of secondary general education in 1992/93 was 1.2 languages.

This average varies widely from one Member State to another. It is one language in Spain, Ireland, Austria and Portugal and more than one in the other Member States. The highest figures are for Luxembourg (2.6 languages per pupil), Finland (2.2), the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark and the Netherlands (1.9) and Sweden (1.6). The high figure in Luxembourg is a consequence of the compulsory teaching of the official languages of the country.

GRAPH E19: AVERAGE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES PER GENERAL SECONDARY PUPIL, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium (B fr) and **United Kingdom**: Data for 1992/93 not available.
Luxembourg: Data provided by the Ministry of Education.
Netherlands: Part-time secondary education included.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

This graph presents the average number of foreign languages studied by each pupil at a given time, as opposed to languages studied or available throughout secondary education.

CERTIFICATION AT THE END OF GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

Given the individual traditions of each education system in relation to assessment, the conditions for the award of diplomas or certificates at this level of education vary from one Member State to another. There are also differences between Member States as regards the role and importance of these qualifications for purposes of entry to higher education.

Assessment procedures and certification at the end of upper secondary education divide along two main lines — whether examinations are set, and whether the teachers in the school have sole responsibility for these. The following table illustrates the variety of situations.

TABLE E2: CERTIFICATION AT THE END OF UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION, 1994/95

Certification based on external, standardized (public) examinations or externally supervised examinations	Denmark, Germany, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Austria, Finland, United Kingdom
Certification based on internal final examinations	Belgium, Greece
Certification with no final examinations	Spain, Portugal, Sweden

Source: Eurydice

Most Member States have established systems of external assessment at the end of upper secondary general education, but there are five exceptions — Belgium, Greece, Spain, Portugal and Sweden.

TABLE E3: CERTIFICATES AND EXAMINATIONS AT THE END OF UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION, 1994/95

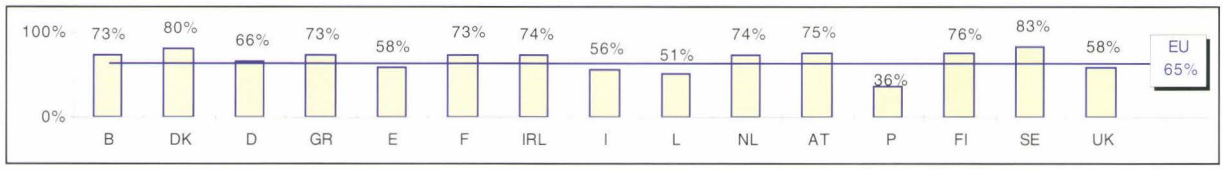
	Name of certificate	Name of standardized external (public) examination
BELGIUM		
FRENCH COMMUNITY	Certificat de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur (CESS)	—
FLEMISH COMMUNITY	Diploma van secundair onderwijs	—
DENMARK	Bevis for Studentereksamen Bevis for Højere Forberedelseseksamen	Studentereksamen Højere Forberedelseseksamen
GERMANY	Zeugnis der allgemeinen Hochschulreife	Abiturprüfung
GREECE	Apolytirio lykeiou/Ptychio lykeiou	—
SPAIN	Título de Bachiller	—
FRANCE	Baccalauréat	Baccalauréat
IRELAND	Leaving Certificate	Leaving certificate examination
ITALY	Diploma di maturità	Maturità
LUXEMBOURG	Diplôme de fin d'études secondaires	Examen de fin d'études secondaires
NETHERLANDS	Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs/ Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs	Eindexamen
AUSTRIA	Reifeprüfungszeugnis	Reifeprüfung
PORTUGAL	Certificado de fim de Estudos Secundarios	—
FINLAND	Ylioppilastutkintotodistus	Ylioppilastutkinto
SWEDEN	Slutbetyg från gymnasieutbildning	—
UNITED KINGDOM ENGLAND, WALES AND NORTHERN IRELAND	General Certificate of Education Advanced level (GCE A Level) and Advanced Supplementary (GCE AS)	GCE A Level examination and GCE AS examination
UNITED KINGDOM SCOTLAND	Scottish Certificate of Education	Higher Grade Certificate of Sixth Year Studies

Source: Eurydice.

NOT EVERYONE OBTAINS AN UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATE

In all branches of upper secondary education, certificates are awarded every year to those pupils who successfully complete this level of education. The number of such certificates awarded in the 13 Member States of the European Union for which data are available, is estimated at about 3.6 million. Graph E20 shows the percentages of 20-year-olds who, in 1993, hold a certificate of upper secondary education. The data currently available do not include information on the ages of those qualifying in a given year, nor on whether it is their first or second qualification.

GRAPH E20: PERCENTAGES OF 20-YEAR-OLDS HOLDING A CERTIFICATE OF UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1993



Source: Eurostat labour force survey, 1993.

Denmark: Completed introductory year of vocational education and training included. If this is excluded, 53% of 20-year-olds hold a certificate of upper secondary education.
Austria, Finland and **Sweden:** The data are taken from national studies and were provided by the statistical offices given in the annex. They are not taken into account in calculating the European average.

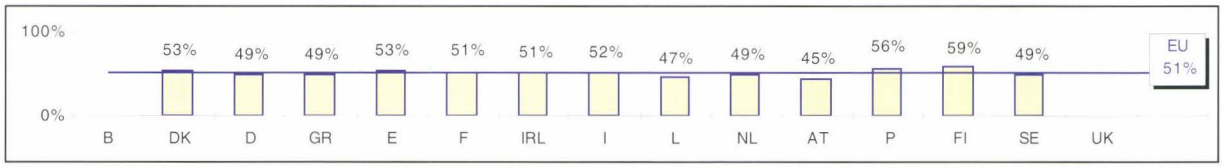
In Sweden, 83% of 20-year-olds hold a certificate of upper secondary education. In eight other countries, one finds a percentage greater than 70% (Belgium, Denmark, Greece, France, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria and Finland). Portugal, with only 36%, is the country with the lowest percentage of 20-year-olds holding an upper secondary qualifications.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The Eurostat labour force survey provides statistical information with regard to employment and unemployment in the European Union. The data derive from large-scale sample surveys, which are carried out annually by the statistical offices of the Member States. The methods of data collection are devised to obtain statistical information which is optimally comparable both between countries and across years.

MORE GIRLS THAN BOYS AMONG THOSE QUALIFYING IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAPH E21: PERCENTAGES OF GIRLS OBTAINING AN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION, 1991/92



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium and **United Kingdom**: Data not available.
Denmark, Ireland and **Sweden**: Data are for 1992/93.
Luxembourg: Data provided by the Ministry of Education.

It is clear that secondary education is not resulting in any discrimination against girls.
On the contrary, more girls than boys obtained an upper secondary school leaving certificate in seven Member States of the EU. This is particularly the case in Portugal and Finland. In Luxembourg and Austria, on the other hand, girls are in a slight minority.

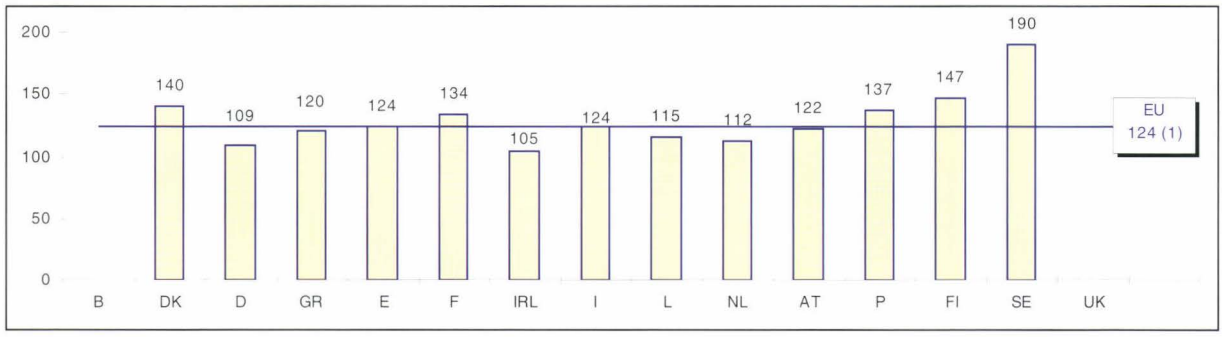
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The breakdown between girls and boys is based on the total numbers obtaining the qualification, and not on the total population of this age.

— MORE GIRLS OBTAINING GENERAL EDUCATION CERTIFICATES —

The ratios of the numbers of girls to the numbers of boys who obtain upper secondary school leaving certificates in each Member State are shown in Graph E22 for general education and Graph E23 for vocational education.

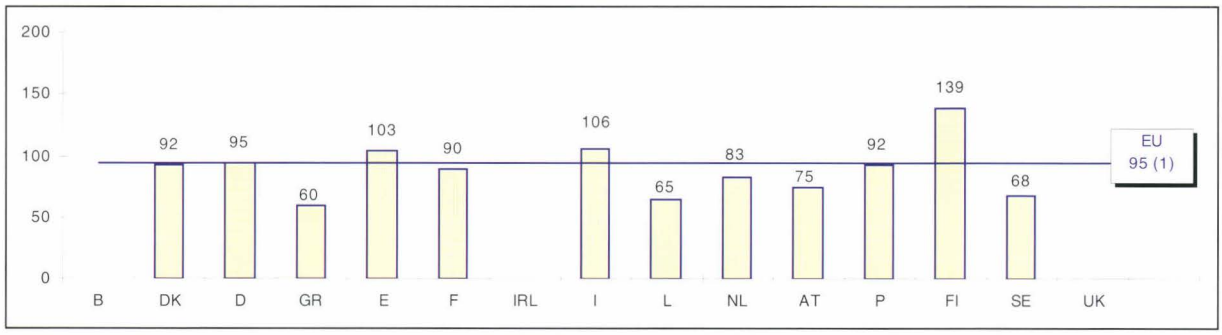
GRAPH E22: NUMBERS OF GIRLS (PER 100 BOYS) OBTAINING GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATES, 1991/92



(1) European average (13 countries).

Source: Eurostat.

GRAPH E23: NUMBERS OF GIRLS (PER 100 BOYS) OBTAINING VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATES, 1991/92



(1) European average (12 countries).

Source: Eurostat.

Belgium and **United Kingdom**: Data not available.
Denmark, Ireland and **Sweden**: Data are for 1992/93.
Luxembourg: Data provided by the Ministry of Education.

Two facts emerge.

- In all of the Member States for which data are available, more girls than boys are obtaining general upper secondary school leaving certificates. This phenomenon is particularly marked in Denmark, Finland and Sweden.

- In vocational upper secondary education, slightly more girls than boys obtained leaving certificates in Spain and Italy and considerably more in Finland. In Denmark, Germany, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal and Sweden, however, more boys than girls obtained vocational qualifications.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The number of girls per 100 boys is obtained by dividing the total number of girls by the total number of boys and multiplying the result by 100.

F

HIGHER EDUCATION

OVER 10 MILLION STUDENTS

During the academic year 1992/93, there were 10.7 million students in higher education in the European Union. Higher education accounts for, on average, 15% of all pupils and students in education in the Union.

TABLE F1: STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THOUSANDS AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN EDUCATION, 1992/93

B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
275	157	2 113	166	1 371	1 952	108	1 615	1	507	221	248	188	227	1 528
11%	17%	16%		16%	16%	12%	17%	2%	14%	16%	12%	18%	16%	12%

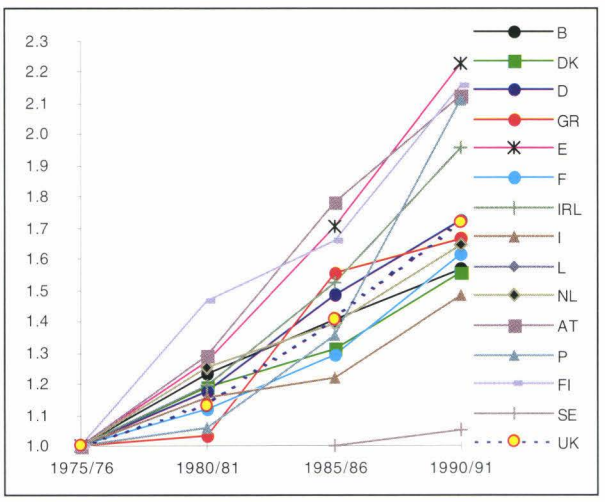
Source: Eurostat.

Germany: Figures include the new *Länder.*
Luxembourg: The very low figures are explained by the fact that the vast majority of this Member State's students study in institutions abroad. Luxembourg is therefore not included in the international comparisons in relation to this level of education.

The relative share of higher education varies according to the Member State from 11 to 18%. These variations reflect in particular different patterns of organization — for example, differences in duration of courses of study — and the numbers of places available.

Graph F1 illustrates the continuous rise in the number of students enrolled in higher education in each of the 15 Member States since 1975. This increase is expressed as the rate of increase in the numbers of students relative to the reference year 1975/76.

GRAPH F1: INCREASE IN THE NUMBERS OF STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION (ISCED 5,6,7) IN THOUSANDS, 1975-90



Over a period of 15 years, the number of students enrolled in higher education in the European Union has almost doubled.

The countries in which this rise has been greatest are, in descending order Spain (2.2 times), Austria, Portugal and Finland (2.1 times) and Ireland (2 times).

Source: Eurostat.

Germany: Data refer to the Federal Republic of Germany before 3 October 1990.
Sweden: The reference year is 1985/86.
United Kingdom: Data for years prior to 1982/83 do not include nursing and paramedical students.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The different types of higher education analysed in this chapter correspond to levels 5 (higher non-university education), 6 (first-stage university education) and 7 (second stage – post-graduate – university education) of the Unesco International Standard Classification for Education (ISCED). At present, these are treated globally in the statistics available from Eurostat, with full-time and part-time, university and non-university higher education being regarded as a whole.

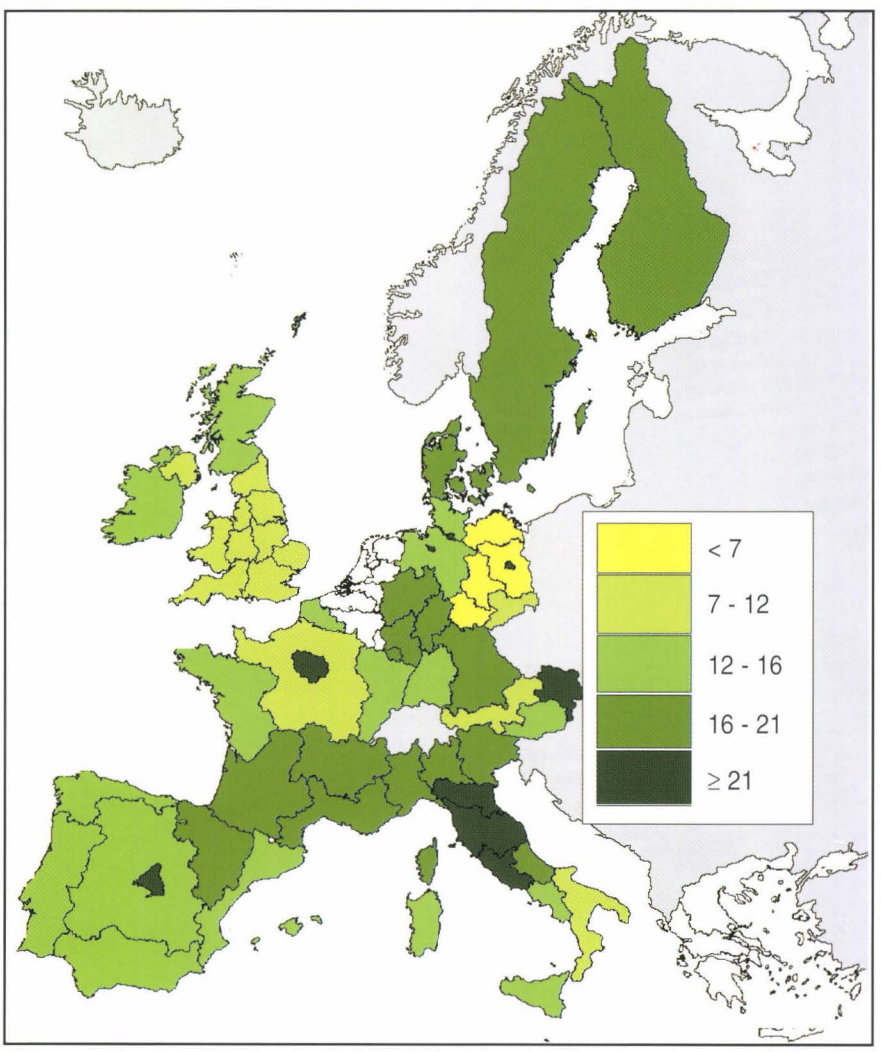
The relative share of higher education is calculated as the ratio of students in higher education to the total number of pupils and students. The total figure for all pupils and students is calculated excluding pupils in pre-school establishments.

REGIONAL VARIATIONS IN RELATIVE SHARE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The various regions do not all contribute equally to the participation of young people at the higher education.

Some regions well-endowed with university and other infrastructures draw considerable numbers of students from both adjacent regions and other countries. The highest percentages of students in higher education are found in Germany, in the regions of Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg; in Spain, in the Madrid region; in France, in the Île-de-France; in Italy, in Emilia-Romagna, in the centre, and in Lazio; and in eastern Austria.

MAP F1: HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS AND STUDENTS, BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg and **Netherlands**: Data not available.

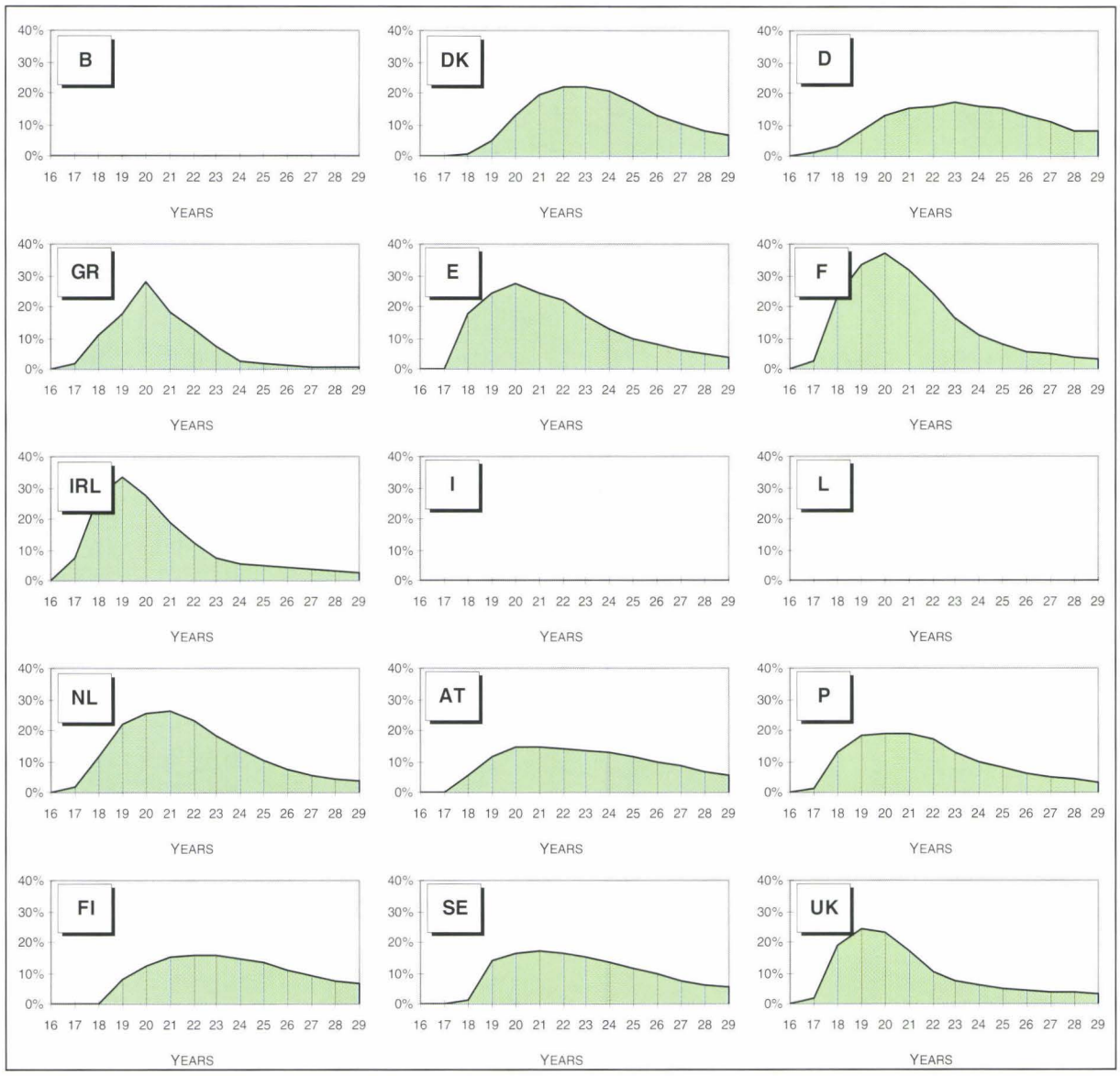
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The map is constructed in quantiles, with an equal number of regions for each of the values of the variable.

The relative share of higher education is calculated as the ratio of students in higher education to the total number of pupils and students. The total figure for all pupils and students is calculated excluding pupils in pre-school establishments.

HIGHER EDUCATION: A VERY WIDE AGE RANGE

GRAPH F2: RATES OF PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION BY AGE AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium, Italy and **Luxembourg**: Data not available.
Denmark: Adult education and continuing training excluded.
Austria: Data relate to only university level or equivalent.
United Kingdom: Students in private institutions are not included, apart from nursing and paramedical students attending Department of Health establishments.

In six Member States (Spain, France, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom), the curve peaks between 19 and 21 years. In Denmark, Germany, Austria, Finland and Sweden, the proportion of older students is greater than in the other Member States of the European Union.

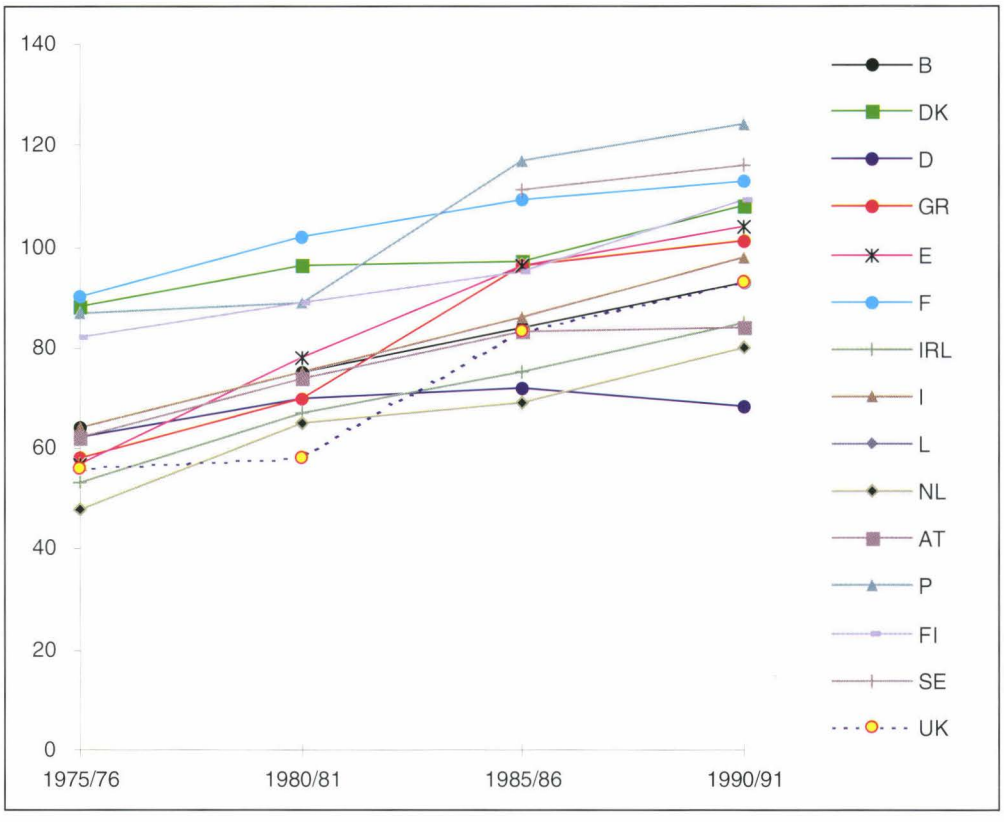
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The participation rates in higher education by age are calculated as the ratio of students enrolled in higher education to the total population of that age.

WOMEN HAVE BEEN MORE AND MORE NUMEROUS IN HIGHER EDUCATION SINCE 1975

Alongside the movement in the number of students enrolled in higher education since 1975, a time-series has been plotted to measure the movement in the participation of women at this level of education.

GRAPH F3: MOVEMENT IN THE NUMBER OF WOMEN PER 100 MEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION (ISCED 5,6,7), 1975-90



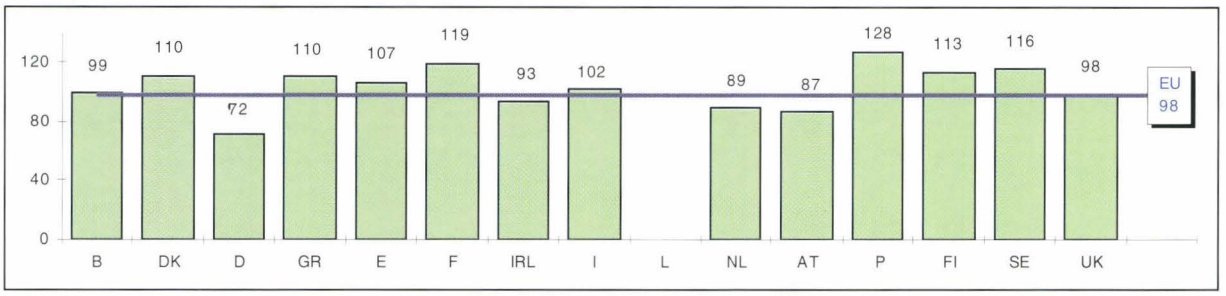
Source: Eurostat.

Germany: Data refer to the Federal Republic of Germany before 3 October 1990.
Luxembourg: Data not available.
United Kingdom: Data for years prior to 1982/83 do not include nursing or paramedical students.

The graph illustrates a continuous rise in the ratio of women to men since 1975.

A quarter of a century ago, women were not in the majority in higher education in any Member State. Today, their participation at this level remains lower than that of men, except in France, Portugal and Sweden, where women have been in the majority since 1985. In Denmark, Spain and Finland, it was not until 1990 that women began to outnumber men.

GRAPH F4: NUMBERS OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION PER 100 MEN (ISCED 5, 6, 7), BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium: Estimate.
Luxembourg: Data not available.

In the European Union as a whole, levels of enrolment of women and men in higher education are almost equal, with 98 women to 100 men in higher education establishments there.

This average, however, conceals disparities between Member States. Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and Austria have more men than women in higher education. In contrast, in Denmark, Greece, Spain, France, Portugal, Finland and Sweden, there are more women than men at this level.

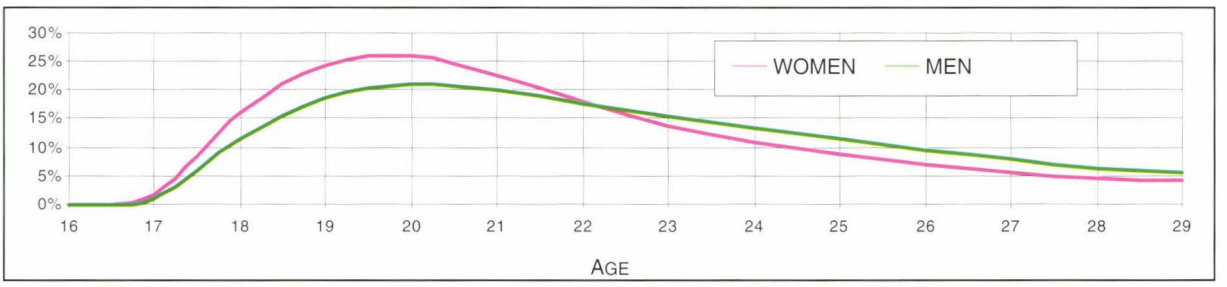
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The European rate of women per 100 men is calculated on the basis of the total numbers of students, broken down according to sex, in the 13 Member States for which data are available.

WOMEN STUDENTS YOUNGER THAN MEN STUDENTS

On average, among the youngest students, women are more numerous than men. This ratio is reversed after age 23.

GRAPH F5: ESTIMATED RATES OF PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION, BY AGE AND BY SEX, OVER 10 MEMBER STATES, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

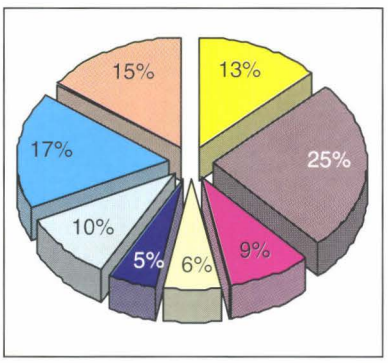
It is possible that women choose shorter courses than men, but this hypothesis cannot be tested from the higher education statistics available at present.
Women tend to enter higher education younger than men. This earlier entry could be the result of more girls opting for shorter courses of general secondary education, of a less disrupted school career (less repeating of years), or of the effect of compulsory national service on boys' education.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The European higher education rate by age and sex is calculated as the ratio of the total numbers of students, broken down by age and by sex, in the 10 Member States for which data are available (Denmark, Germany, Spain, France, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom) to the total age cohorts in question in these Member States.

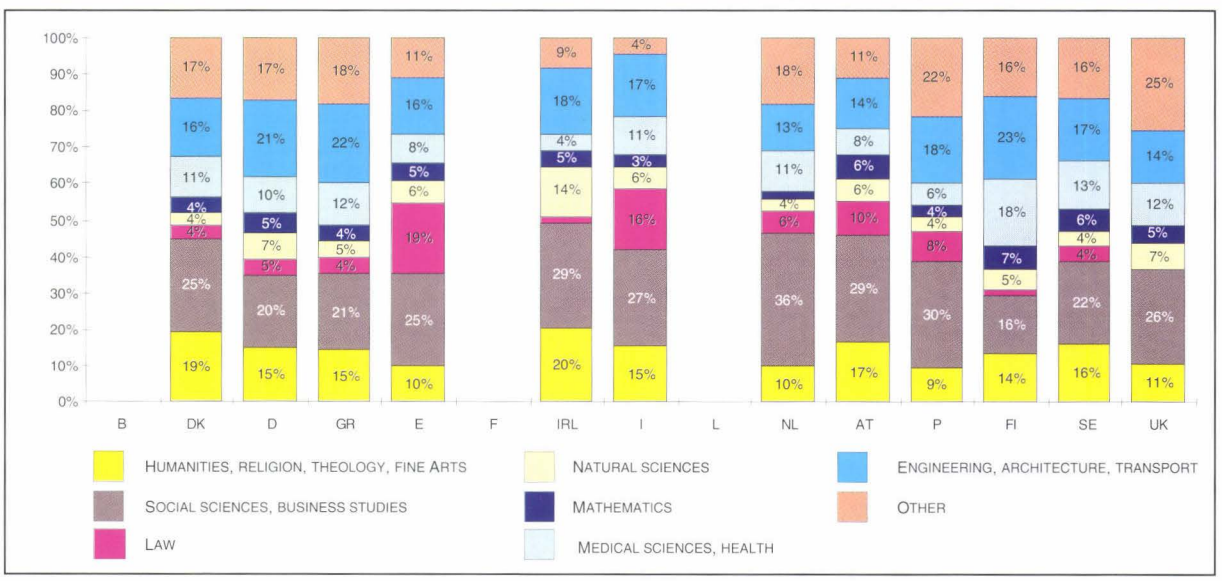
SOCIAL SCIENCES: THE MOST POPULAR AREA OF STUDY IN ALL THE MEMBER STATES

GRAPH F6: HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS BY FIELD OF STUDY (ESTIMATE FOR 12 MEMBER STATES), 1992/93



A considerable proportion of students are pursuing studies in the various social sciences subjects. The next commonest group of subjects is that leading to careers in industry, with 17% wanting to become engineers or architects, or work in transport or telecommunications. Law and medical sciences attract 9 and 10% respectively of the student population.

GRAPH F7: STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION BY FIELD OF STUDY AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium, France and **Luxembourg**: Data not available.
Austria: Some students are included in more than one subject area.
United Kingdom: Law is included under Humanities, religion etc. Information and documentation is included under Other.

It is in the category of Social sciences and business studies that one finds the greatest proportion of students in most countries. This field is particularly developed in Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal.

The field of Engineering, architecture and transport is generally the second most popular or even the most popular (Greece and Finland). However, the differences are minor. In Spain and Italy, a large number of students are enrolled in law. Ireland has the highest proportion of natural sciences students. Subjects included under 'Other', leading mainly to teaching careers, are extremely popular in Portugal and the United Kingdom.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

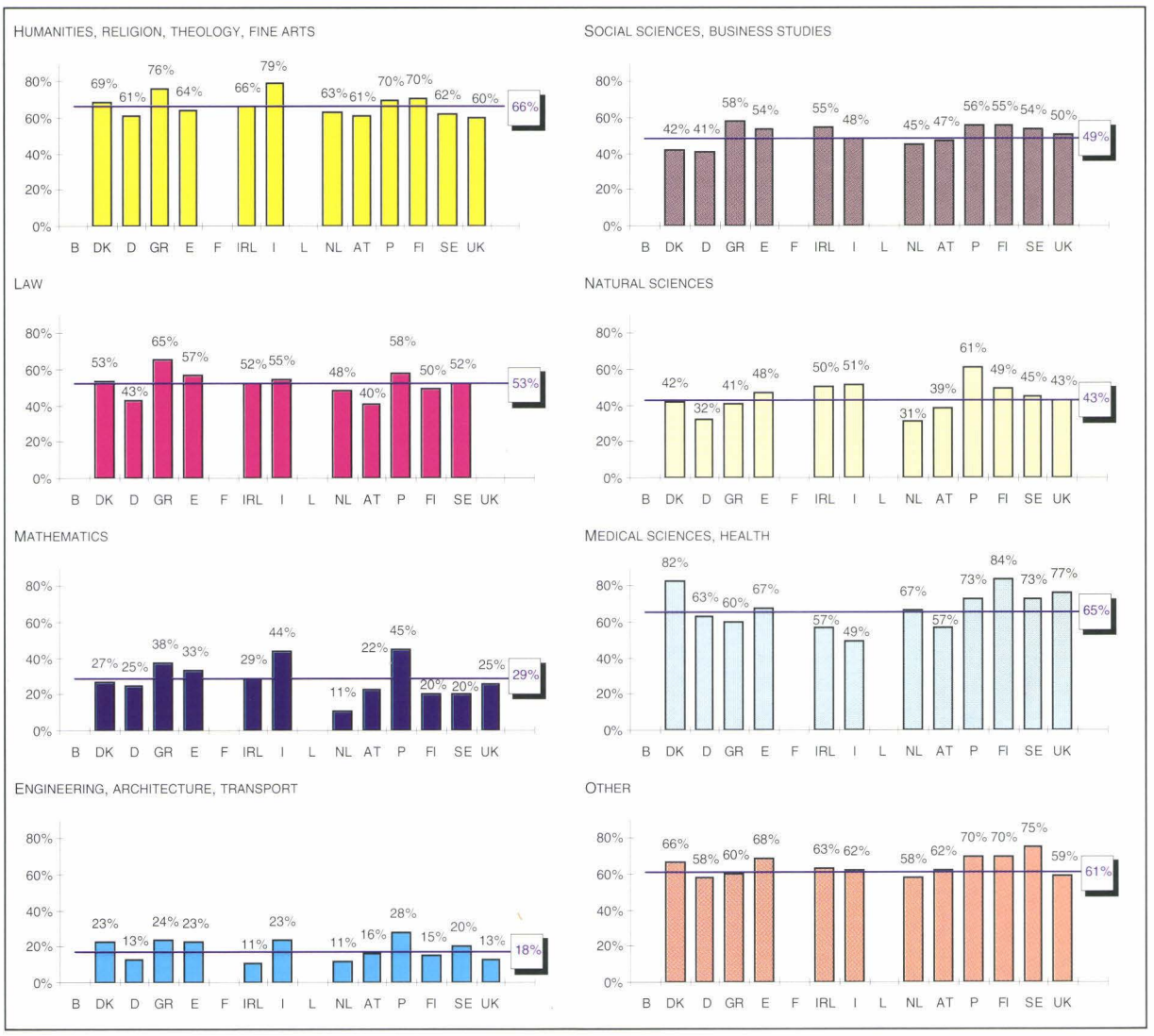
Eurostat generally distinguishes eight fields of study: Humanities, religion and theology; Social sciences (commercial and business administration, mass media); Law; Natural sciences; Mathematics and computer sciences; Medical sciences; Engineering, architecture (transport, trade, craft and industrial programmes); Others (education; agriculture; services sector; others unspecified).

WOMEN PREFER ARTS AND MEDICAL SCIENCES

Some subject areas are clearly more dominated by women than others. Throughout the European Union, women choose humanities, religion and fine arts, law, medical sciences, health and hygiene, and non-classified disciplines, including in particular teacher training, more often than men.

The women's participation rate is above the European average in arts, religion and fine arts in Italy, and in social sciences in Spain, Ireland, Portugal, Finland and Sweden. Women enrol more frequently in mathematics and information technology in Italy and Portugal, and in engineering studies in Denmark, Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal. A great number of women take medical sciences courses in Denmark, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

GRAPH F8: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION BY AREA OF STUDY AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium, France and **Luxembourg**: Data not available.

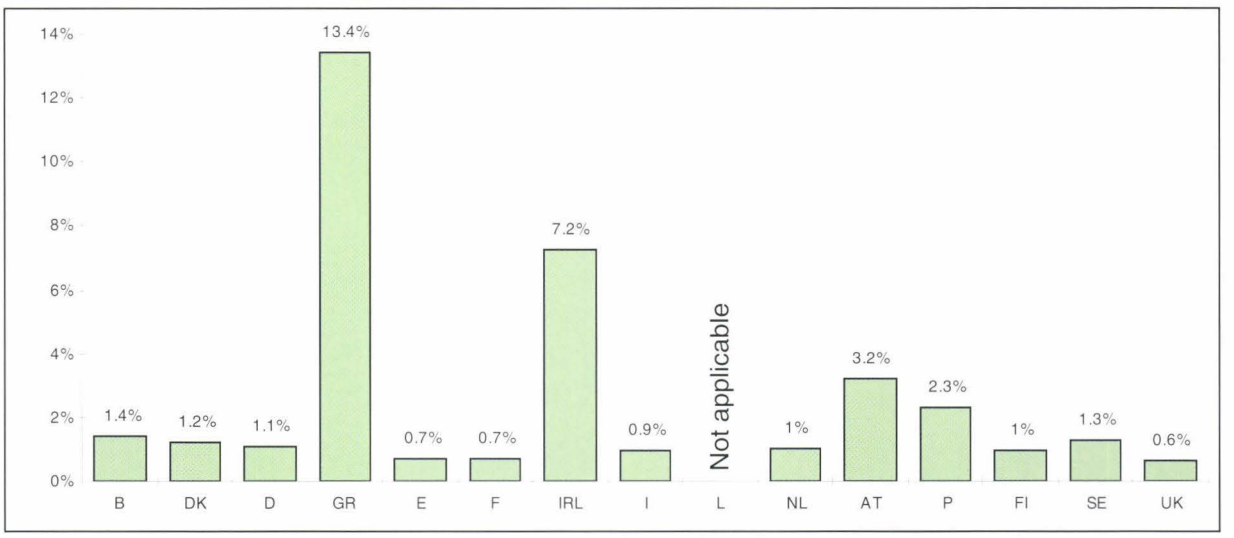
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The European rate for women by field of study is calculated on the basis of the total number of students, broken down by area of study and by sex, in those Member States for which data are available.

SOME NATIONALITIES PURSUE THEIR HIGHER EDUCATION IN ANOTHER MEMBER STATE

The graph below presents the percentages of young people with each of the 15 nationalities of the European Union pursuing their higher education abroad.

GRAPH F9: PERCENTAGES OF HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS STUDYING IN ANOTHER MEMBER STATE OF THE EU, BY NATIONALITY, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

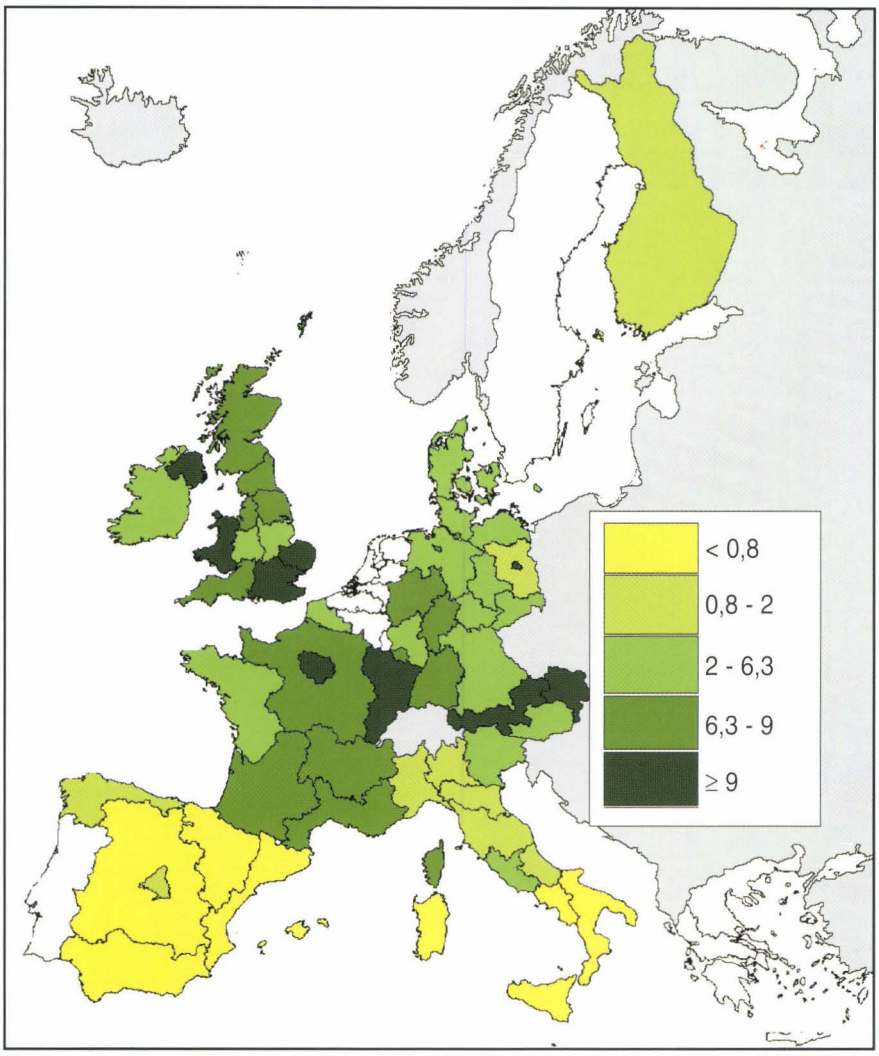
Belgium, Portugal and **Sweden**: There are no data differentiating between foreign and indigenous students in higher education. Percentages are therefore underestimated.
Greece: Only students enrolled at ISCED levels 5 and 6 are taken into account. The data concerning ISCED level 6 refer only to new entrants.
Italy and **Finland**: Only students enrolled at ISCED level 7 are taken into account.

A greater number of Greek, Irish, Luxembourg, Austrian and Portuguese students than any other nationality go abroad to pursue their higher education in another Member State of the European Union. The case of Luxembourg is very particular; there is only a limited provision of higher education in that country, and students are therefore obliged to study abroad.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The percentage of higher education students studying in another Member State of the European Union is arrived at by dividing the total number of students of a given nationality enrolled to study in a country other than their own, divided by the number of students of that nationality studying in their own country, and then multiplied by 100.

MAP F2: PERCENTAGES OF NON-NATIONAL STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION, BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal and **Sweden**: Data not available.
Austria: Includes some multiple counting.
United Kingdom: Foreign students are defined as those who are not permanently resident in the country and not on the basis of nationality. Part-time students are excluded.

European capital cities have an attraction for foreign students. Other regions are also chosen by a relatively significant number of foreign students: eastern France, eastern and western Austria, the South-East of England, East-Anglia, Wales and Northern Ireland.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The quantile method was used in the construction of this map. Each category contains the same number of regions.

MORE THAN ONE FIFTH OF YOUNG EUROPEANS ARE HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES

It is in Belgium that the greatest number of 30-year-olds hold a higher education qualification (29%). In Denmark, there is also a relatively high percentage (26%) and likewise in Sweden (25%). In nine countries, the percentage of 30-year-olds who are higher education graduates varies between 20 and 25% (Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland and the United Kingdom). Italy (8%) and Austria (7%) have the lowest percentages.

GRAPH F10: PERCENTAGES OF 30-YEAR-OLDS HOLDING A HIGHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATION, 1993

Source: Eurostat labour force survey, 1993.

Austria, Finland and **Sweden**: The data are taken from national studies and have been provided by the statistical offices given in the Annex. They are not taken into account in calculating the European average.

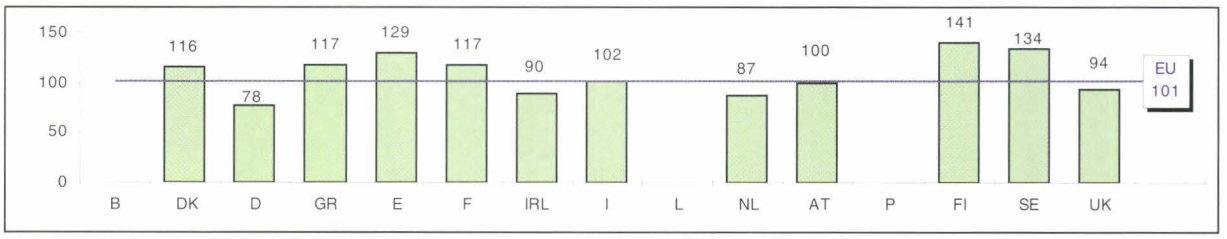
EXPLANATORY NOTE

The Eurostat labour force survey provides statistical information with regard to employment and unemployment in the European Union. The data derive from large-scale sample surveys, which are carried out annually by the statistical offices of the Member States. The methods of data collection are devised to obtain statistical information which is optimally comparable both between countries and across years.

AS MANY WOMEN HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES AS MEN

In seven Member States (Denmark, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Finland and Sweden), more women than men are graduating from higher education. The opposite is the case in other Member States. Germany has the smallest proportion of women among higher education graduates.

GRAPH F11: WOMEN HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES PER 100 MEN, BY MEMBER STATE, 1991/92



Source: Eurostat.

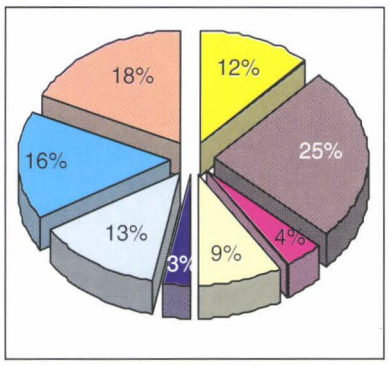
Belgium, Luxembourg and **Portugal**: Data not available.
France: The qualifications covered account for 88% of the total for higher education.
Austria: Distance learning is not included.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The European rate of women per 100 men is calculated on the basis of the total numbers of graduates, broken down by sex, in the 12 EU Member States for which data are available.

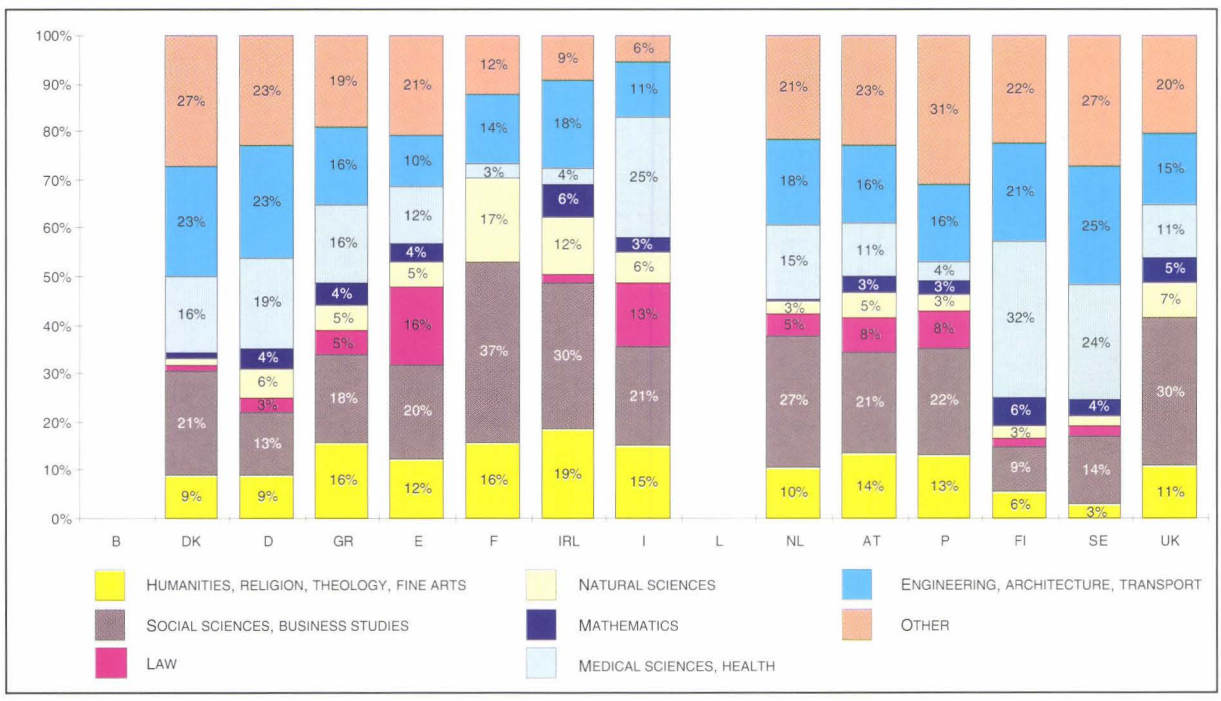
A QUARTER OF HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES ARE IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

GRAPH F12: HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES, BY FIELD OF STUDY (ESTIMATE FOR 13 MEMBER STATES), 1991/92



A quarter of higher education graduates in 1991/92 completed social sciences courses.
The next highest group with a considerable percentage of graduates is the 'Other' category, which includes future teachers.
Law has a lower proportion of graduates than students.
Conversely, in the field of natural sciences and in the 'Other' category, the percentages of students are lower than the percentages of graduates.

GRAPH F13: HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES BY FIELD OF STUDY AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1991/92



Source: Eurostat.

Belgium and **Luxembourg**: Data not available.
Denmark: Data are for 1992/93.
France: Law is included under Humanities etc., mathematics under Natural Sciences, and information and documentation under 'Other'.
United Kingdom: Law is included under Humanities etc; and information and documentation under 'Other'.

The field of social sciences and business studies produces the greatest number of French, Irish, Dutch and British graduates. In Italy and Finland, the greatest numbers of graduates are in the medical sciences. The 'Other' category provides the greatest number of graduates in Denmark, Greece, Spain, Austria, Portugal and Sweden.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

Eurostat generally distinguishes eight fields of study: Humanities, religion and theology; Social sciences (commercial and business administration, mass media); Law; Natural sciences; Mathematics and computer sciences; medical sciences; Engineering, architecture (transport, trade, craft and industrial programmes); Other (education; agriculture; services sector; others unspecified).

G

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

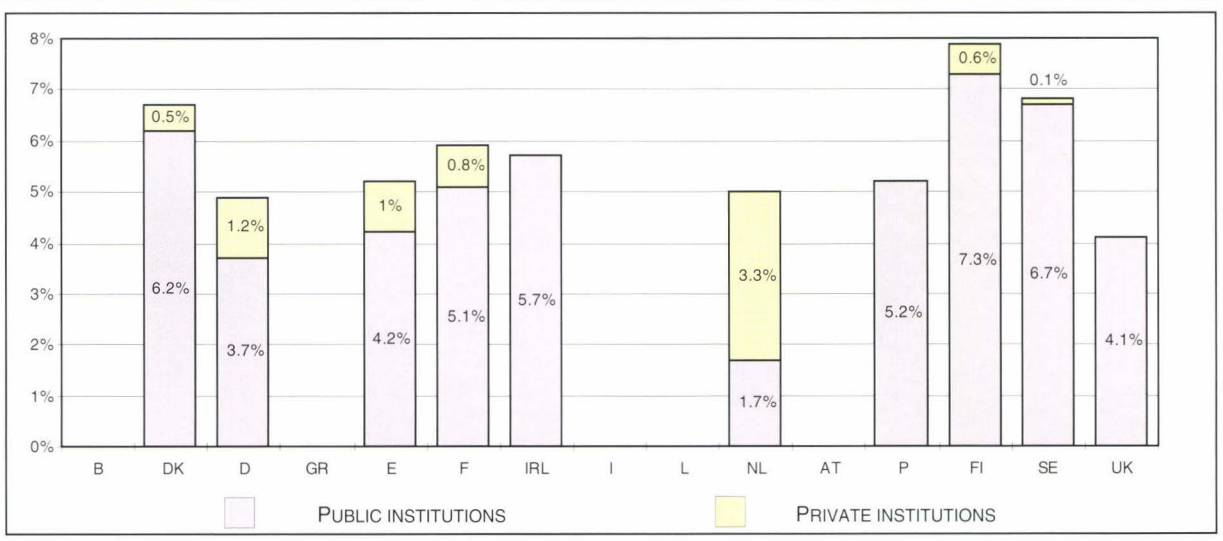
NOTE
This chapter on the financing of education is only one part of the chapter which should have an increasing place in the regular publication *Key data on education in the European Union.* A very detailed questionnaire prepared jointly by the Commission (Eurostat), the OECD and Unesco is being tested. It will enable more detailed information to be made available, making it possible to measure the collective investment in education (by Member State, region, household, business etc.), and to compare the make-up of both income (by source of finance, method of financing etc.) and expenditure (by type of education, nature of expenditure etc.).
At the time of writing, this information is not yet available. For this reason, this chapter contains only some of the data collected, mainly by the OECD (1995) for its INES project, a international education indicators.

EDUCATION'S SHARE OF GDP

Education expenditure as a percentage of GDP gives an indication of the collective public investment in relation to national wealth; it shows the share of the national wealth produced annually (measured as GDP) which is invested in the field of education.

Graph G1 shows the percentages of GDP devoted to education all at levels (nursery, primary, secondary and higher). A distinction is made between expenditure on public and private institutions, both grant-aided and non-grant-aided. Of all the Member States, only the Netherlands spends a greater proportion of its GDP on the private rather than the public sector. There, private grant-aided schools are in the majority and equality of financing between the private and public sectors is a constitutional right. Finland is the country which spends the largest share of its financial resources on education (7.9% in total) while Germany and the Netherlands devote a relatively modest proportion of their national resources to education (about 5%).

GRAPH G1: EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP
ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION COMBINED ,1992



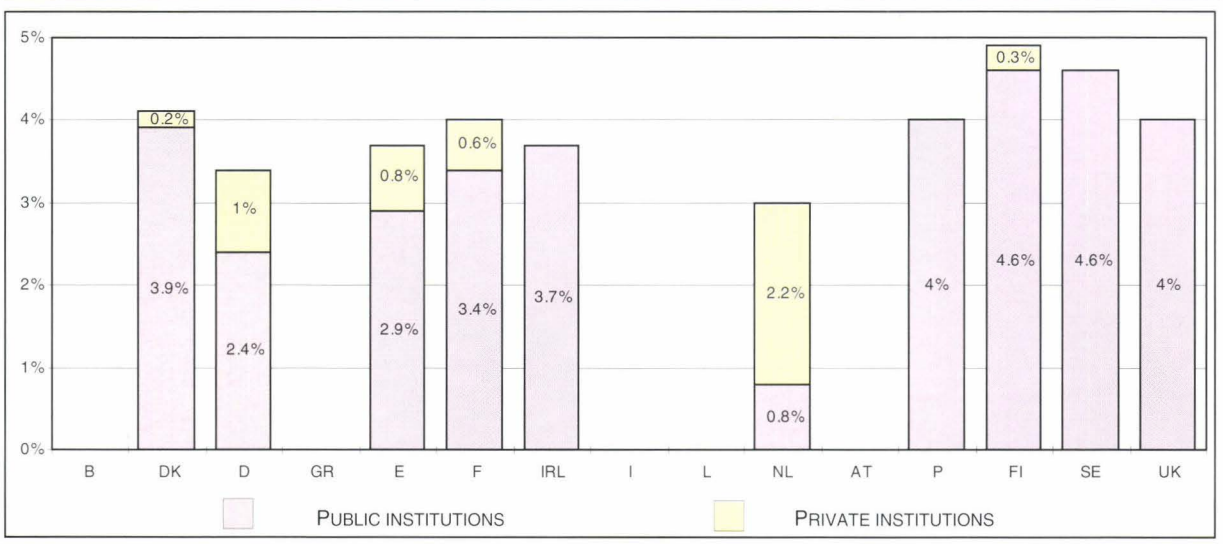
Source: OECD, Education at a glance, 1995.

Belgium, Greece, Italy Luxembourg and **Austria**: Data not available.
Germany: The data relate exclusively to the old *Länder.*
Portugal and **United Kingdom**: No data are available on expenditure on private institutions.

It is difficult, however, to draw a fair comparison between countries on the basis of their expenditure in the fields of pre-school and higher education. In the Scandinavian Member States (Denmark, Finland and Sweden), pre-school education often includes extended day and evening care for young children. As regards higher education, the expenditure of some countries includes, in particular, all spending on research in higher education institutions, while others do not count resources allocated to research as part of their education expenditure. Expenditure on primary and secondary education can thus be more reliably compared across countries.

The percentages of GDP spent on primary and secondary education are shown in Graph G2. It appears that the Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Finland and Sweden) allocate relatively more resources (4 to 5%) to education.

GRAPH G2: EDUCATION EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION , 1992



Source: OECD, Education at a Glance (1995).

Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and **Austria**: Data not available.
Germany: The data relate exclusively to the old *Länder.*
Portugal and **United Kingdom**: No data are available on expenditure on private institutions.

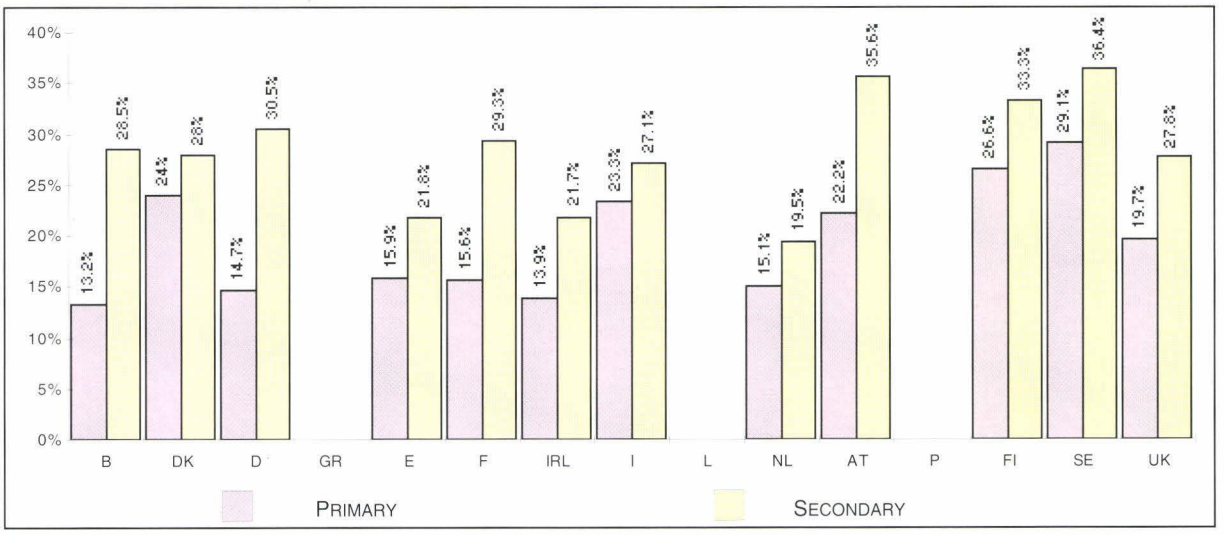
EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL

One major factor determining the amount of resources a country spends on education is the number of pupils. Given roughly equivalent rates of participation in education, a country with a high percentage of young people would be expected to spend a larger share of its GDP on education than one with a much lower percentage in the same age band. This difficulty can be overcome by looking instead at expenditure per pupil.

Graph G3 shows the expenditure per pupil in primary and secondary education in 12 Member States of the European Union for which information is available. Expenditure per pupil is expressed as a percentage of the per capita GDP of each. For most countries, the figures relate to public education, but for a few countries where largely grant-aided private institutions play an important role in primary and/or secondary education, figures are presented which relate to both public and grant-aided private education.

In all these Member States, expenditure per pupil is higher in secondary education than in primary, with differences which are sometimes quite marked. This is particularly evident in the case of Belgium, Germany, France and Austria.

GRAPH G3: EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL AS A PERCENTAGE OF PER CAPITA GDP PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION (PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS), 1992



Source: OECD, Education at a glance, 1995.

Belgium, Spain, France and **Netherlands**: Private grant-aided institutions dependent on public funding are included for primary and secondary education.
Germany: The data relate exclusively to the old *Länder*. Private institutions grant-aided by the government are included for secondary education. The data on primary education relate only to the public sector.
Greece, Luxembourg and **Portugal**: Data not available.

Germany and Ireland demonstrate that a low percentage of GDP spent on education does not necessarily imply low expenditure per pupil, and vice versa.

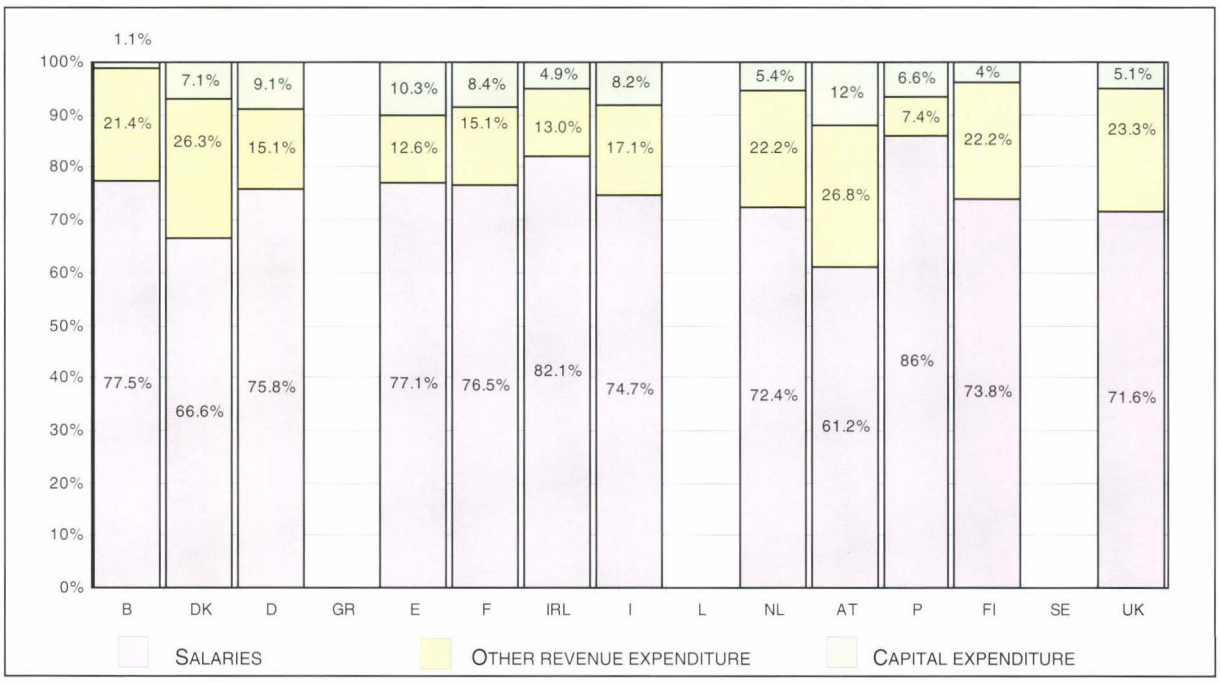
The percentage of GDP spent on primary and secondary education in Germany is quite modest (3.4%), but since the percentage of young people in Germany is also relatively low, the expenditure per pupil is in fact much higher. In Ireland, where the proportion of young people is the highest, the share of GDP spent on education is in the middle of the European range (3.7%), but the expenditure per pupil is one of the lowest in the European Union at both primary and secondary level.

Several factors may account for the differences between countries in expenditure per pupil, but the pupil:teacher ratio and teachers' salaries are among the most important ones, since staff costs account for the bulk of education expenditure in all Member States.

NATURE OF EXPENDITURE: MOSTLY ON SALARIES

Education expenditure has been divided into three categories: salaries (for both teaching and non-teaching staff), other revenue expenditure and capital expenditure.

GRAPH G4: THE NATURE OF EDUCATION EXPENDITURE
RELATIVE PERCENTAGES OF STAFF SALARIES, OTHER REVENUE EXPENDITURE AND CAPITAL EXPENDITURE ON ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE GRANT-AIDED, 1992



Source: OECD, Education at a glance, 1995.

Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy and **Portugal**: Percentages relate to public education only.
Germany: Data relate exclusively to the old *Länder.*
Greece, Luxembourg and **Sweden**: Data not available.

Capital expenditure relates to spending on assets that last longer than one year, e.g. outlays for construction, renovation and major repair of buildings and expenditure on new or replacement equipment. Other revenue expenditure is spending on goods and services consumed within the current year and which need to be continually renewed to sustain the production of education services.

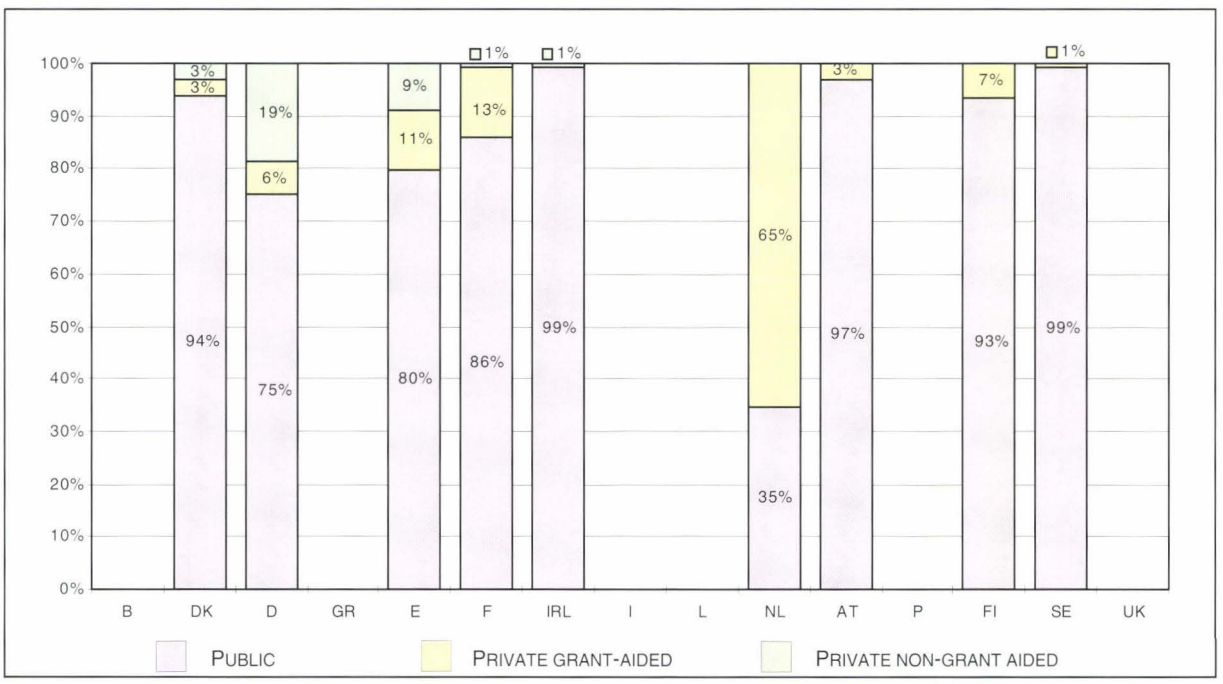
In all countries, salaries (for teaching and non-teaching staff combined) account for the bulk of education expenditure. The proportions range from 61.2% in Austria to 86.0% in Portugal. Capital expenditure is the smallest category in all Member States, ranging from 1.1% in Belgium to 12.0% in Austria. These variations should be viewed with some caution, however, for they may be due partly to differences in definition between countries.

No breakdown by levels of education is shown in Graph G4, but the data available show that in most countries the share of salaries is smallest at higher education level and the share of capital expenditure largest.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS ACCOUNT FOR MOST OF THE EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

In eight out of the nine countries for which data on all levels of education are available, the bulk of the expenditure on education is allocated to public institutions. Only in the Netherlands is most of the spending on education allocated to private, government-dependent institutions, reflecting the fact that most of the schools in that country are private grant-aided institutions. In five countries, less than 10% of the total expenditure on education is accounted for by private institutions. In Germany, Spain, and France, private education accounts for a more substantial percentage of the total expenditure.

GRAPH G5: EXPENDITURE DISTRIBUTION (%) ON PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION COMBINED, 1992



Source: OECD, Education at a glance, 1995.

Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal and **United Kingdom**: Data not available.
Germany: The data relate exclusively to the old *Länder*.

It should however be recognized that the share of expenditure on private institutions may be underestimated to some extent because an estimate of private expenditure on the training of apprentices is available for only one country, namely Germany, in which initial vocational training is highly developed under the *duales System*.

VARYING DEGREES OF FINANCIAL DECENTRALIZATION

An important aspect of education policy is the attribution of both responsibility for, and control over, financial resources to central, regional and local authorities. Considerable differences exist between Member States with respect to the way they divide public sector responsibility for financing education. Graph G6 shows the distribution of public funds among central, regional and local levels of government both before and after transfers between these levels of government. It should be noted that the graph relates exclusively to funds specifically designated for education. In some countries, however, much education expenditure is financed from block grants which regional and local authorities receive from central government. This is, in particular, the case in the United Kingdom (except Northern Ireland) as regards primary and secondary education.

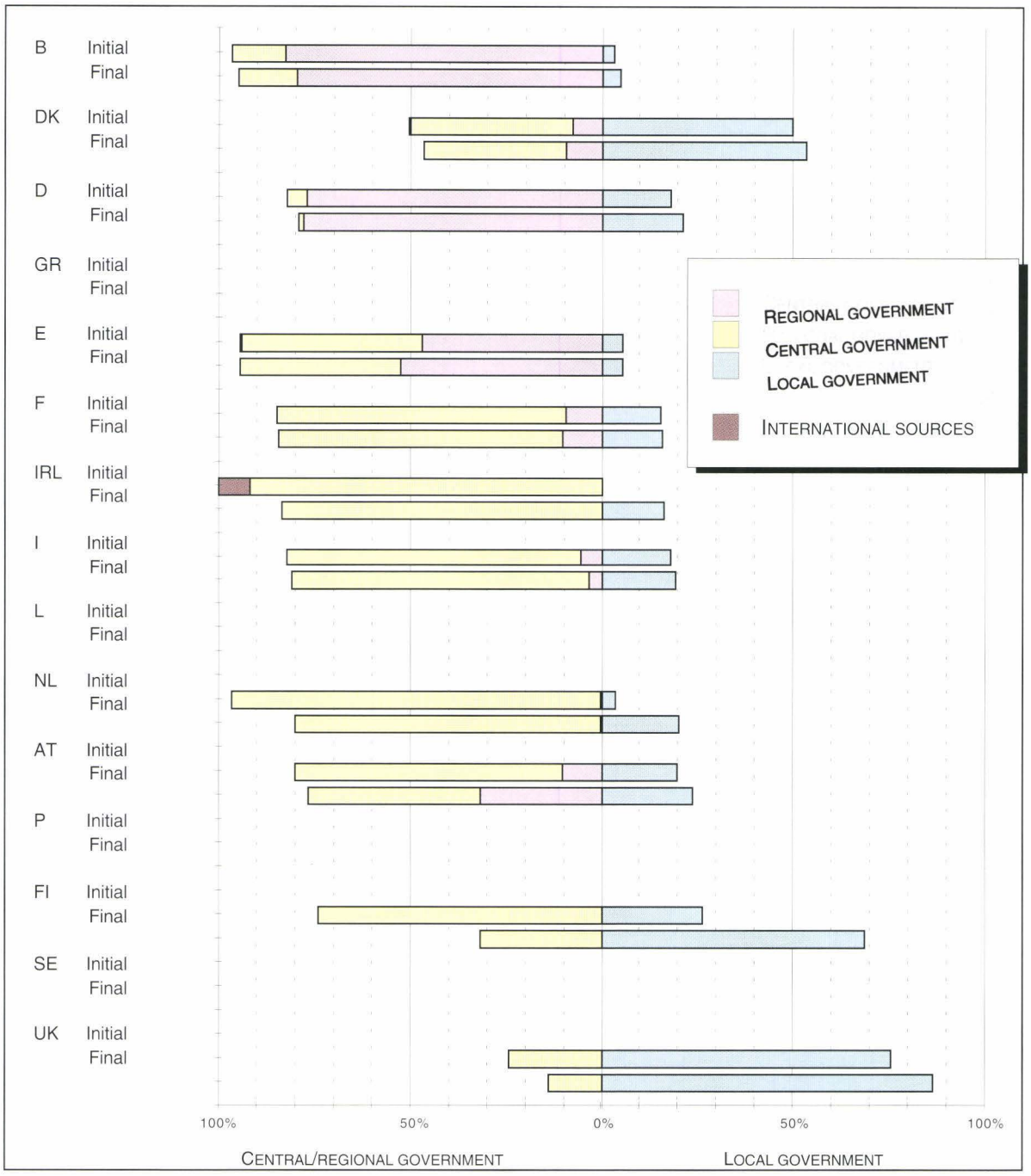
The local authorities are the main managers and users of final education expenditure in Denmark, Finland and the United Kingdom. In Belgium, Germany (the old *Länder*) and Spain, it is the regional governments that determine and allocate the final expenditure, whereas in France, Italy, Ireland and the Netherlands it is the central government that takes the decision on most of the final expenditure on education. In Austria, both the central and regional levels of government provide a considerable share of the final expenditure, while the local authorities manage nearly one quarter of it. Only in Ireland do funds from international sources make a substantial contribution to education expenditure.

There are notable differences in the situation before and after transfers between levels of government in Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and the United Kingdom. In the first three countries, the role of the local authorities is considerably more important after transfers than before. In Austria, it is the regional level whose share increases after transfers. In the United Kingdom, the education authorities at local level are largely financed from funds provided by the central government in the form of block grants. If these block grants were included in Graph 6, the share of the central government, before transfers, would be much larger in the United Kingdom.

In all Member States except Ireland, the central government share is greater for higher education than for primary and secondary education, both before and after transfers between levels of government.

In Denmark and the United Kingdom, although by far the greatest part of expenditure on higher education is borne by central government and the balance by local government, the reverse is true for primary and secondary education. In Austria and Finland, the central level provides less than 50% of expenditure on primary and secondary education after transfers between levels but it provides most of the final expenditure on higher education.

GRAPH G6: SOURCES OF PUBLIC FUNDS
PERCENTAGES OF EDUCATION FUNDS BY LEVEL OF GOVERNMENT BEFORE AND AFTER TRANSFERS
ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION COMBINED, 1992



Source: OECD, Education at a glance, 1995.

Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal and **Sweden**: Data not available.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

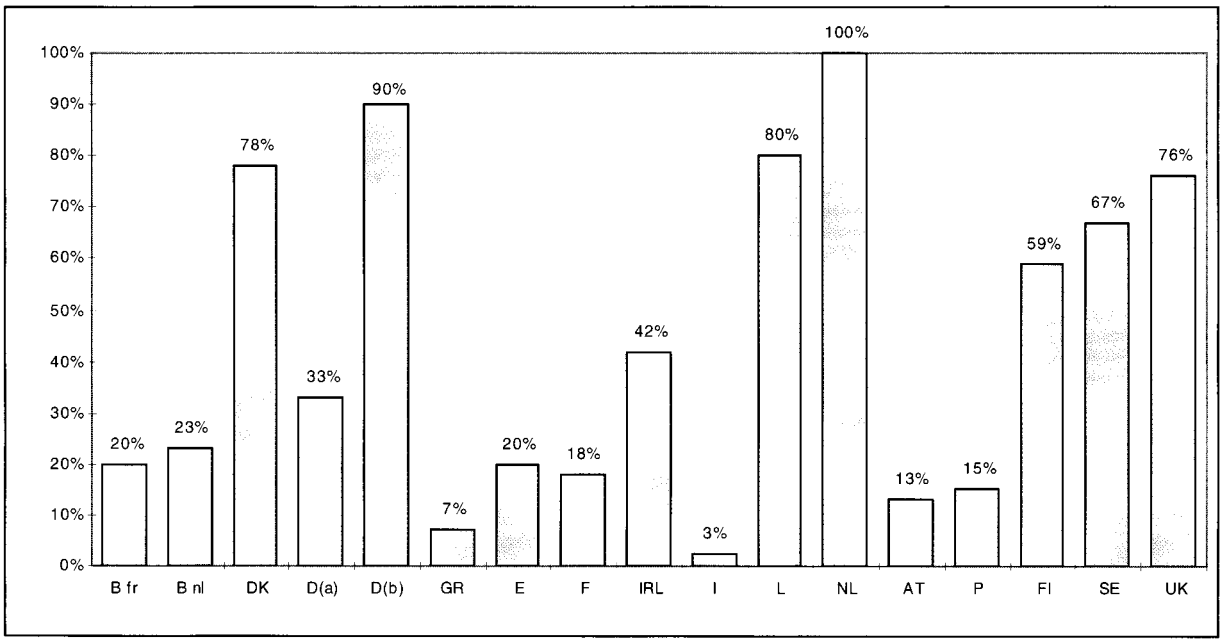
The data relate exclusively to expenditure specifically designated for education. General-purpose transfers between levels of government have not been included. Final expenditure relates to the amount of resources spent directly on education services and does not include transfers to families or other private entities.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

The democratization of higher education implies that all pupils with the necessary aptitude should be able to go on to higher education. There are several ways in which this can be made possible including free courses, indirect assistance and a variety of social benefits, including financial support. Every Member State of the European Union has some form of grants and/or loans scheme, with grants being the commonest form of assistance.

In most Member States, the award of a grant is related to the student's financial circumstances, except in Denmark and the Netherlands, where all students may receive government funding.

GRAPH G7: STUDENT GRANTS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION
PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS RECEIVING DIRECT ASSISTANCE , 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Denmark: The figure is an estimate, provided by the Ministry of Education.
Germany: (a) Old *Länder;* (b) new *Länder.*
Netherlands: The figure is an estimate but must be close to 100%.
Finland and **Sweden**: Data relate to 1993/94.

The income levels up to which financial assistance is granted vary in the different Member States and influence the numbers of students supported in each of them. In Germany (the new *Länder*), Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, more than half of the students receive financial support. The smallest proportions — less than 10% — are found in Greece and Italy.

PART II

THEMATIC DOSSIER

TEACHERS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

INTRODUCTION

The four million teachers in the European Union are the focal point of the discussions on education in all the Member States. Similarly, they are omnipresent in all the Community initiatives undertaken since the launch of the first actions in the field of education in 1976 and currently under the Treaty of Maastricht. The references to their role in all the Community texts adopted to date provide ample evidence of this. They have been given a special place in the various Community actions and programmes. Thus, throughout these years of cooperation, the mobility of teachers has been increased and the importance of their training and their contribution to the development of quality in education has been stressed on several occasions. Teachers are not only transmitters but also interpreters of the education policies which they translate into action, and the success of the measures taken in various fields depends on them, whether in relation to the advancement of equality of opportunity, intercultural education, language teaching or health education, or of the promotion of the European dimension in education.

Amongst the specific actions mounted for teachers, mention should be made of:

- the organisation of some 500 exchanges of secondary school teachers annually since 1989, following an initiative of the European Parliament;
- the development of a European network of teacher training institutions as a pilot project between 1989 and 1994;
- mobility for almost 14 000 university teaching staff to go to another Member State in 1994, thanks to support from the Erasmus programme;
- in-service training schemes for foreign language teachers under the Lingua programme, in which 18 000 teachers took part between 1991 and 1994.

The Community's new education programme, Socrates, approved in March 1995, is further increasing the scope for Community action in relation to teachers since primary and secondary education (Comenius) are now integral parts of it. Under Socrates, the number of teacher exchanges increased to almost 600 in 1995. About a hundred exchanges were also arranged in 1995 under the Teacher Placement Scheme, enabling teachers to undertake placements in firms for periods of one to three weeks. In that year too, there were about 14 000 exchanges of university teaching staff, as in 1994. In addition, about 7 500 teachers took part in in-service training schemes under Lingua in 1994/95.

Several European conferences and seminars have dealt with the question of teachers and their role. These have frequently taken place with European Commission support. From these events and from the studies undertaken, a selection of which appears at the end of this dossier, a picture emerges revealing great diversity in the training and working conditions of the teaching profession in the European Union.

This dossier on teachers at the nursery, primary and secondary levels of education is based in part on this work. It also owes much to the contributions from the Eurydice network, which provided the basic information and statistics required for it. Responsibility for the overall format and the comparative analysis, however, rests entirely with the Eurydice European Unit.

The **first chapter** is devoted to the initial training of primary and secondary school teachers. A historical review has been carried out of the main reforms that have punctuated this century in relation to the duration and level of training in each Member State.

The **second chapter** sketches in the main features of the teaching body. The development of the feminization and ageing of the profession and of pupil:teacher ratios is presented here in time series tracing the development of the situation over more than a quarter of a century. This chapter also includes an analysis of the status of the profession, recruitment conditions and forward planning of the staffing requirements of the education systems.

The **third chapter** deals with three important aspects of teachers' working conditions: working time, years of service and the movement of salaries over the past 30 years.

H

INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING

AN INCREASING TREND TOWARDS TRAINING AT UNIVERSITY

In the European Union today, the training of teachers working in primary and secondary schools is provided at higher education level, either in universities or in non-university institutions of higher education. In Italy, however, the reform measure passed in 1990, intended to ensure university training for primary teachers, has not yet been implemented and those teachers are still being trained in the *istituti magistrali* at upper secondary level.

The same applies to the nursery education level, with the exception of Germany, where the training of the adults responsible for children in the *Kindergärten* is still provided at upper secondary level, Italy and Austria, where it is at either upper secondary education or higher education level.

In half of the Member States (Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom), initial teacher training for all levels of education is provided in universities. Almost everywhere, the higher the level of education, the more common is university training. At the level of lower secondary education, teachers are trained in university level institutions in all countries, except Belgium, Denmark, Austria (in the case of teachers in the *Hauptschulen*) and the Netherlands. At upper secondary level, only the Netherlands differs, with a four-year non-university course followed by one year of university training.

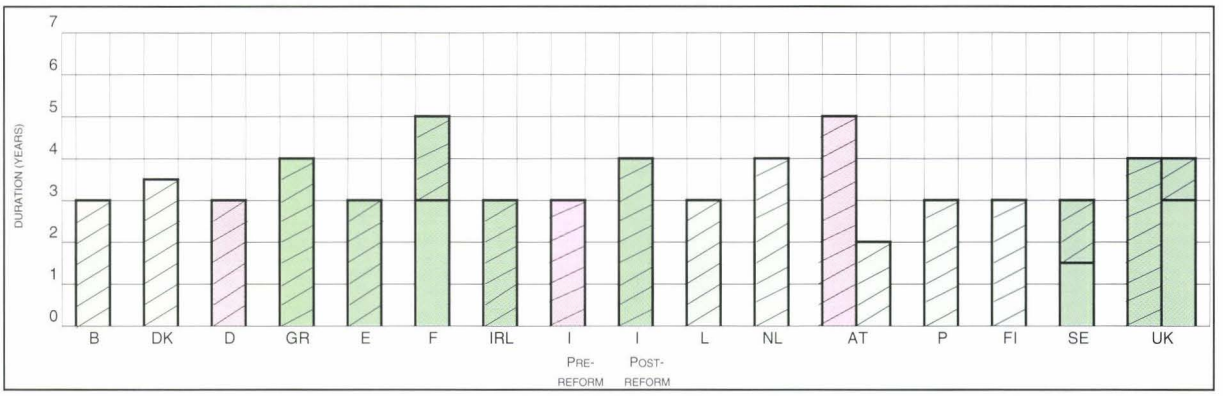
The professional and practical training of teachers is provided either at the same time as their general (degree) course (the **concurrent model**) or following the general course, for instance at post-graduate level (the **consecutive model**). The entrance requirement for admission to teacher training following the concurrent model is the school-leaving certificate awarded at the end of upper secondary education, and also, in some cases, a certificate of aptitude for higher education. Under the consecutive model, students who have already obtained a higher education qualification (university or non-university) train for the teaching profession by taking a post-graduate university or non-university course.

The concurrent model is more common in training for primary teaching, except in France, where all primary teacher training follows the consecutive model. In the United Kingdom, the two models co-exist but the simultaneous model is the more common. Conversely, the consecutive model is more common in secondary teacher training. Thus the proportion of professional and practical training in initial training diminishes, the higher the level at which teachers intend to use their training, except in Germany, which is distinguished by a combination of the concurrent and consecutive models, and in the United Kingdom (except Scotland), where both models are still found.

More particularly, in Germany, the training of teachers for both levels of education is in two stages — first, study at a higher education institution which includes integrated professional training and theory from the start, then a second stage of training involving a programme of practical teaching in the form of preparatory service (*Vorbereitungsdienst*). During this period, future primary and secondary teachers are remunerated and usually have the status of temporary civil servants. In France, professional practice is also required at the end of training. During the year of practical teaching, students of the *Instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres* (IUFM) have the status of paid student teachers. In Denmark, professional training for upper secondary teachers is available only to teachers in service.

In Italy, the university degree testifies that the student has mastered the subjects studied but it is not a qualification for teaching at secondary level. At present, to obtain a teaching qualification, an examination (*abilitazione*) has to be taken in teaching norms, theory and methods. However, it is left to candidates themselves how they prepare for this examination. The reform provides for the professional qualification to be obtained after two years of post-graduate courses followed by an examination.

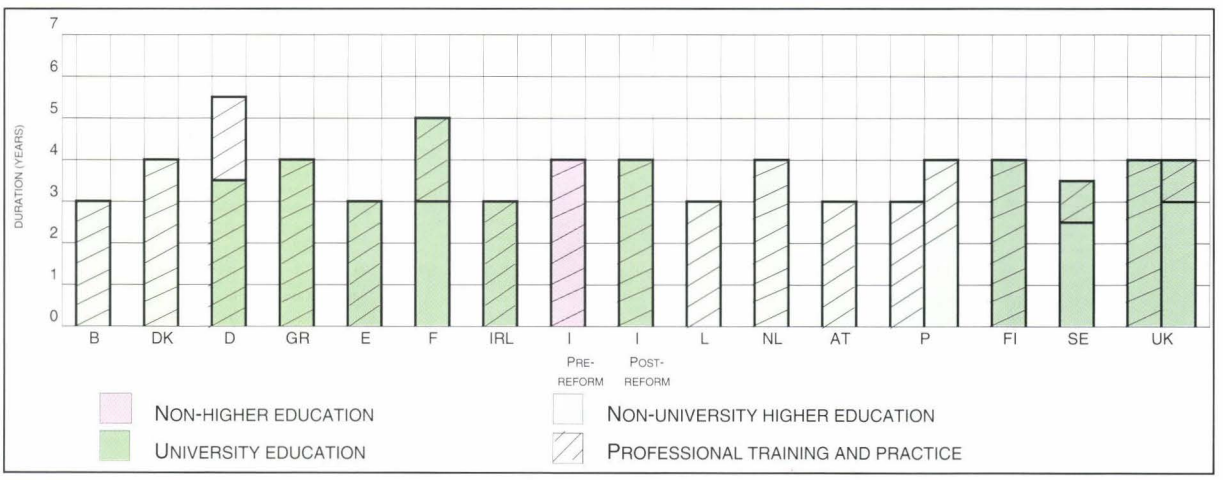
GRAPH H1: INITIAL TRAINING OF NURSERY TEACHERS, 1994



Source: Eurydice.

Denmark: The colleges of education for *folkeskole* teachers are non-university institutions.
Germany: The graph refers to the 'educators' (*Erzieher)*, who have neither the training nor the status of teachers. Prior to entering training, students must have two years of either vocational training or experience.
France: A full degree (*licence*) is essential for admission to the open entrance competitions for entry to training and appointment to established staff posts as primary teachers (*professeurs des écoles*).
Ireland: No distinction is made between nursery education and primary education, children of 4 to 6 years being integrated in the primary schools in the 'Infant Classes'. The graph therefore presents the training of primary teachers.
Italy: According to the law passed in 1990, the initial training of nursery and primary school teachers should be at university level, but this has not yet been implemented. The duration of the course has been set at a minimum of four years and a maximum of six years, depending on the faculty.
Netherlands: Children aged 4 to 6 years are integrated in primary schools. The graph presents the training of primary teachers. Initial training takes place over four years (full-time study) or six years (part-time study).
Finland: Since 1995, initial training has been at higher education (university) level and lasts three years.
United Kingdom: Teacher training is the same as that for primary schools. There are several routes to qualified teacher status. The concurrent model is the most common.

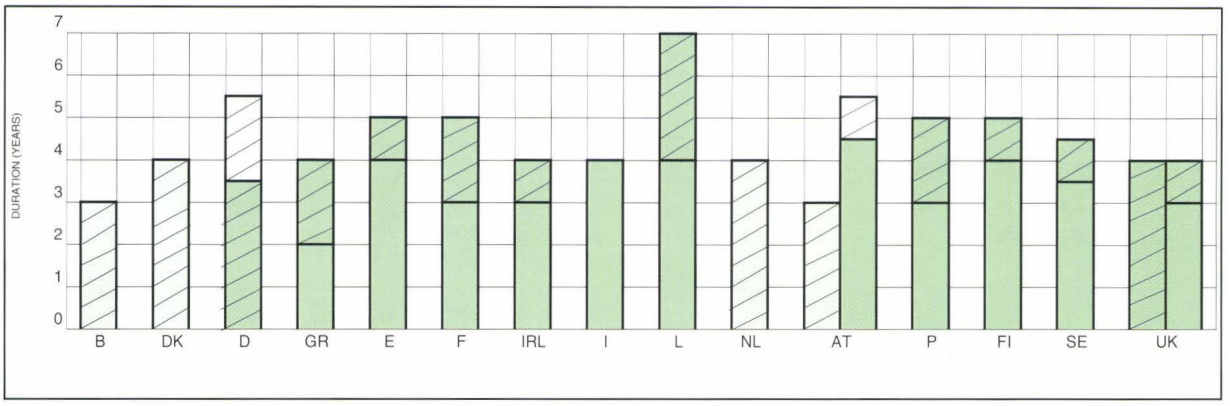
GRAPH H2: INITIAL TRAINING OF PRIMARY TEACHERS, 1994



Source: Eurydice.

Denmark: The colleges of education for *folkeskole* teachers are non-university institutions.
Germany: A minimum of seven semesters (three-and-a-half years) of university or non-university higher education is required, depending on the *Land*. There is generally a compulsory two-year period of teaching practice/professional training.
France: A full degree (*licence*) is essential for admission to the open entrance competitions and appointment to established staff posts as primary teachers (*professeurs des écoles*).
Italy: According to the law passed in 1990, the initial training of nursery and primary school teachers should be at university level, but this has not yet been implemented. The duration of the course has been set at a minimum of four years and a maximum of six years, depending on the faculty.
Portugal: This applies to teachers of the first four years (pupils ages 6 to 10 years) of *Ensino básico*. Teachers of the second stage (pupils ages 10 to 12 years) have four or five years' training.
Finland: This information relates to teachers in the first six years of the *peruskoulu/grundskola*.
Sweden: This information relates to teachers in the first seven years of the *grundskola*.
United Kingdom: There are several routes to qualified teacher status. The most common models are presented here.

GRAPH H3: INITIAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS (GENERAL EDUCATION), 1994



Source: Eurydice.

Denmark: The colleges of education for *folkeskole* teachers are non-university institutions.
Germany: Training of seven or nine semesters (three-and-a-half or four-and-a-half years), at university or non-university higher education level, depending on the *Land*. There is a compulsory period of two years' practical training/professional practice.
Greece: There is in parallel a consecutive model with practical training of six months to one year provided in the education training college (PATES) for university and higher technology education graduates.
France: Teachers holding the certificate of aptitude for teaching in lower and upper secondary education (*Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire*, CAPES) may teach in lower and upper secondary schools (*collèges* and *lycées*, respectively).
Italy: The student studies for the examination for 150 hours under the supervision of a tutor.
Netherlands: Candidates obtaining grade 2 may teach general subjects only in lower secondary schools and vocational upper secondary schools. Initial training takes place over four years (full-time study) or six years (part-time study).
Portugal: This illustrates the training of teachers for the third stage of *Ensino básico* (pupils ages 12 to 15 years).
Finland: This information relates to teachers in the last three years of the *peruskoulu/grundskola*.
Sweden: This information relates to teachers in the last five years of the *grundskola*.
United Kingdom: There are several routes to qualified teacher status. The most common models are shown here.

GRAPH H4: INITIAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS (GENERAL EDUCATION), 1994

Source: Eurydice.

Belgium: Post-graduate teacher training may be undertaken either parallel to the university course (along with the *licence,* in one year or two years, as the student chooses) or following the university course, in one year, or two years part-time.
Germany: At least nine semesters (four-and-a-half years) at university. Practical teaching experience generally of two years is obligatory.
France: Two kinds of teacher may teach at this level — certificated teachers with the CAPES (see lower secondary, above) and teachers who have passed the *agrégation*; this graph represents the training of the latter. After taking the entrance competition, successful candidates undertake a year of professional training in the IUFM.
Italy: The student studies for the examination for 150 hours under the supervision of a tutor.
Sweden: Length of training varies from four-and-a-half to five-and-a-half years, depending on the subjects chosen.
United Kingdom: There are several routes to qualified teacher status. The most common models are shown here.

A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF INITIAL TRAINING IN THIS CENTURY

The twentieth century might well be described as the century of education, as it is characterized by significant efforts to promote democracy in education and to improve the quality level of education in all Member States. The historical development of initial teacher training presented in the following pages illustrates clearly both the growing demands that have been made on teachers during the course of this century and the increasing attention being given to them.

AN INCREASING NUMBER OF YEARS OF EDUCATION AND A HIGHER LEVEL OF TRAINING FOR TEACHERS AT PRIMARY LEVEL

In examining the development of initial teacher training, we discover that major changes have been brought about in all of the Member States over the last 100 years. Graphs H5 and H8 show that this is particularly true of primary education.

First, a progressive increase is noted in all countries in the total number of years of full-time education received by future primary school teachers (Graph H8). At the beginning of the century, primary school teachers had undergone some 10 to 12 years of full-time education on average before being entrusted with primary school pupils. Nowadays, they remain in full-time education for 15 to 18 years before assuming this task. The number of years of full-time education of future primary school teachers has increased considerably in some countries, from a minimum of nine years to 17 years in the Netherlands and from 10 to 17 years in Italy once the decree law is implemented. The duration of initial professional training as such is following a similar trend. In most countries, training is two years longer today than at the beginning of the century.

Moreover, and probably still more indicative of the importance given to the profession, the educational level at which initial teacher training is provided has risen from the upper secondary level, or even the post-primary level in some countries, to the university or non-university higher education level.

The graphs also show that the rates of change have differed from one Member State to the other. In some Member States, the century has been marked by a series of reforms. In others, major reforms affecting the initial training of primary teachers were introduced at two specific points of time — following the Second World War and during the 1970s.

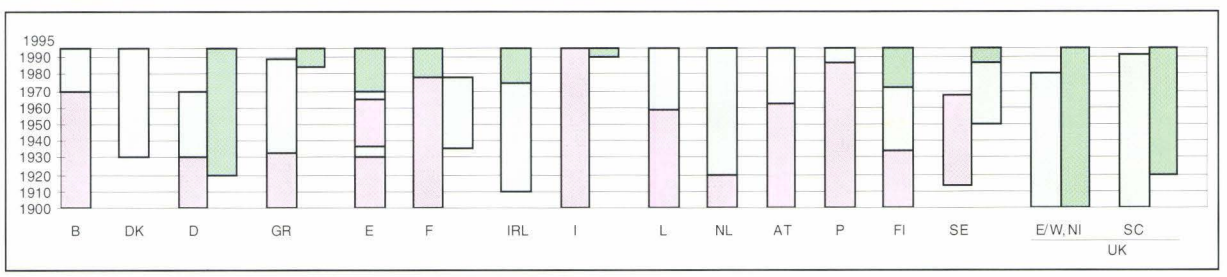
At the turn of the century, teacher training commenced immediately upon completion of primary education in Spain, Finland and Sweden. Two years of post-primary or secondary education were required before starting teacher training in Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and England. In Greece, France, Italy and Austria, lower secondary education was required. In Germany, until 1920, training was provided at upper secondary education level, and this model persisted in some *Länder* until 1930. On the other hand, the initial training of teachers was already provided in non-university higher education institutions from the first decades of the century in Ireland and Scotland.

Finland and England are remarkable for the existence very early in the century of a higher education model as an alternative to post-primary training, the higher level of training becoming compulsory only in the 1960s.

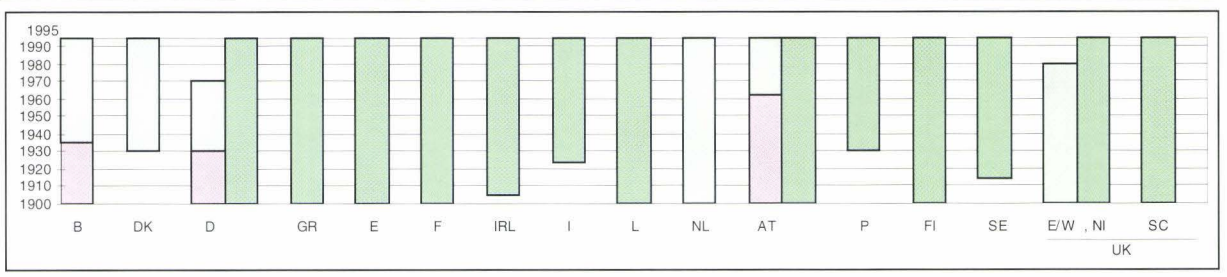
For the entire first half of the century, teachers in Belgium, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal and Sweden were trained in specialized institutions at the equivalent of upper secondary level or of post-secondary, non-higher education. It was not until the 1960s that teacher training was fully provided at higher education level in the majority of these countries. In Portugal, the training of primary teachers (for the first four years of 'basic education') was only raised to the higher education level after 1986. Italy alone has maintained training for primary teachers in specialized branches at upper secondary education level until the end of this century.

In general, in those Member States which have now given responsibility for primary teacher training to the universities, the change has taken place during the last two decades — in the 1970s in the case of Spain, Ireland, Finland and Sweden, and in the 1980s in Greece and France. In the United Kingdom, however, university training was already provided very early in the century, long before it became compulsory. In Ireland, the effort to associate primary teacher training with university education can be recognized in the early years of the century (1912), when those with the highest marks in the examinations at the end of the two-year training college courses were entitled to enter a third year of training provided at university. At that time, only a minority of students took up this option, and it was not until the 1970s that the BEd degree for primary teachers was introduced.

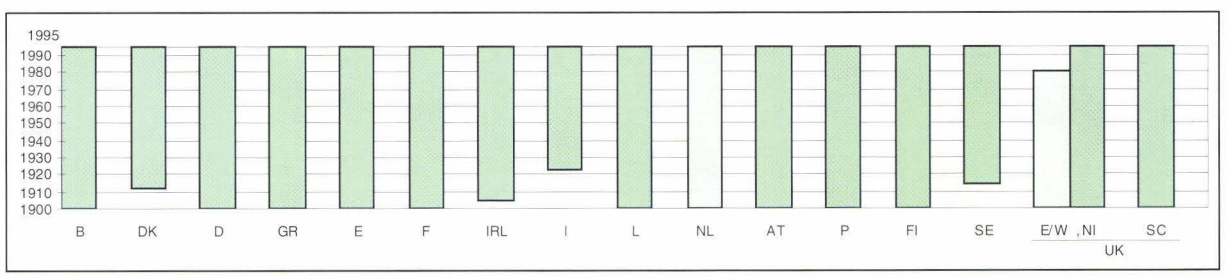
GRAPH H5: CHANGES IN THE COURSE OF THE CENTURY IN THE EDUCATION LEVEL AT WHICH INITIAL TRAINING HAS BEEN PROVIDED FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS



GRAPH H6: CHANGES IN THE COURSE OF THE CENTURY IN THE EDUCATION LEVEL AT WHICH INITIAL TRAINING HAS BEEN PROVIDED FOR LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS



GRAPH H7: CHANGES IN THE COURSE OF THE CENTURY IN THE EDUCATION LEVEL AT WHICH INITIAL TRAINING HAS BEEN PROVIDED FOR UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS



NON-HIGHER EDUCATION NON-UNIVERSITY HIGHER EDUCATION UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

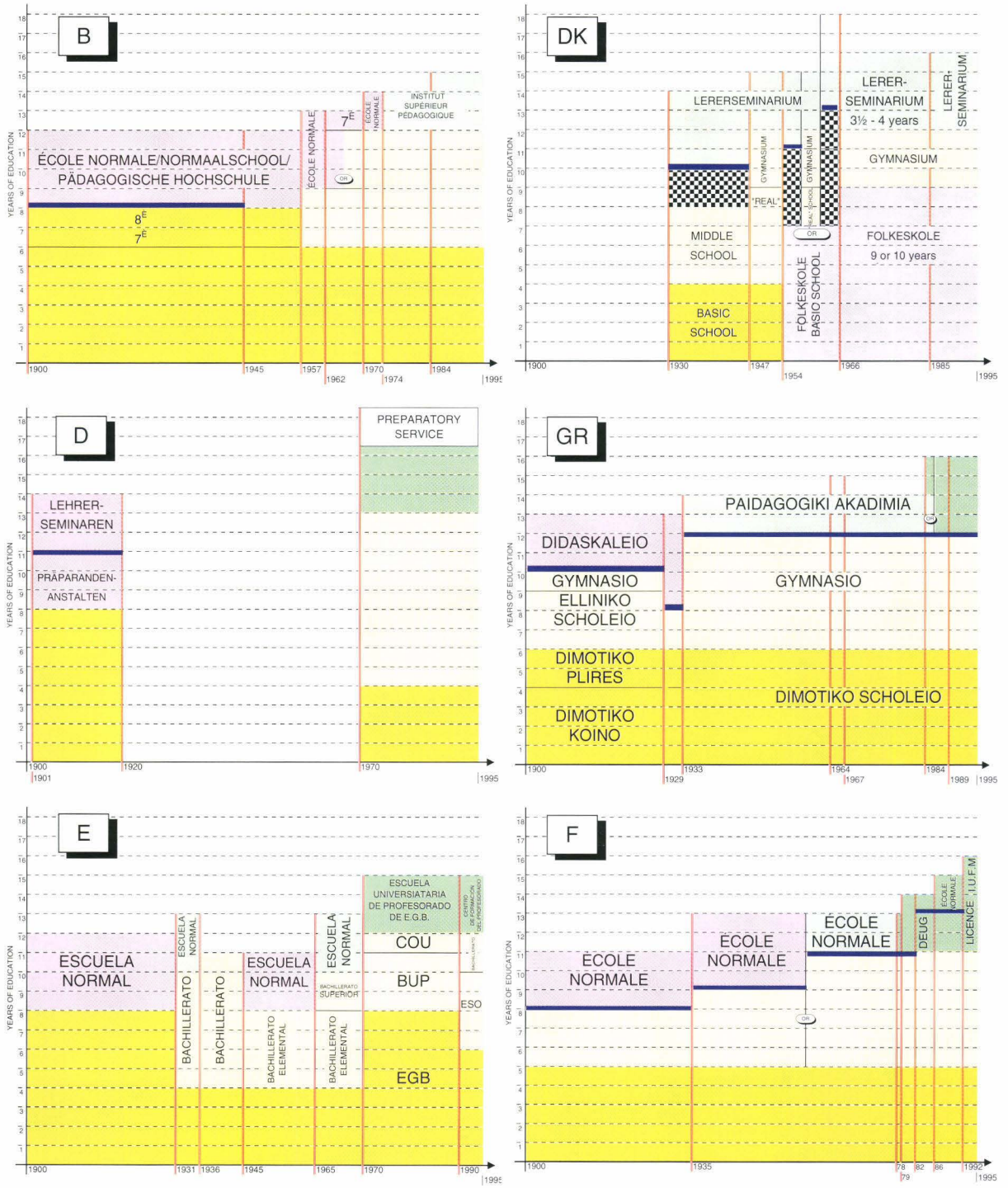
Source: Eurydice.

Germany: The graph shows the development in the old *Länder.*
France: Graph H6 depicts the training of secondary school teachers. At the beginning of the century, the teachers of the supplementary classes of the primary school were primary teachers (*instituteurs*).
Portugal: Graph H5 illustrates the changes in the training of primary teachers for the current first four years of *Ensino básico.*

EXPLANATORY NOTE

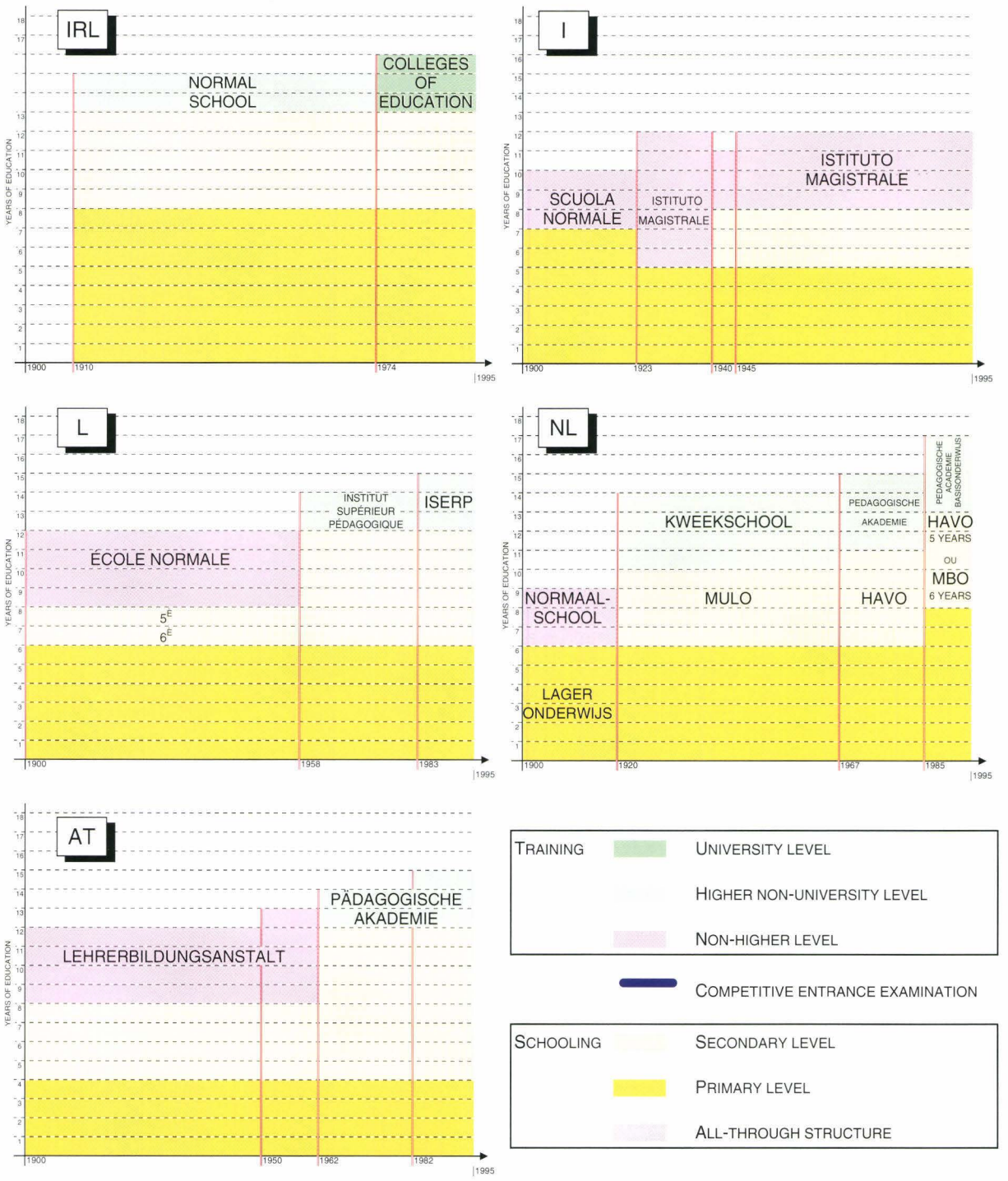
The juxtaposition of two columns in the graph indicates the existence of two possible levels of training during the period concerned.

GRAPH H8: CHANGES IN THE COURSE OF THE CENTURY IN NUMBER OF YEARS OF EDUCATION AND LEVEL OF INITIAL TRAINING FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS



Source: Eurydice.

General note: For the current situation, see notes relating to initial teacher training in the previous chapter.
Denmark: The grey shaded areas indicate the years prior to the age (17 years) for admission to the competitive examination without any level of additional study being required.
Germany: The graph shows the development in the old *Länder*. In view of the great diversity of models of training adopted by the individual *Länder* after 1920, these cannot be shown here.

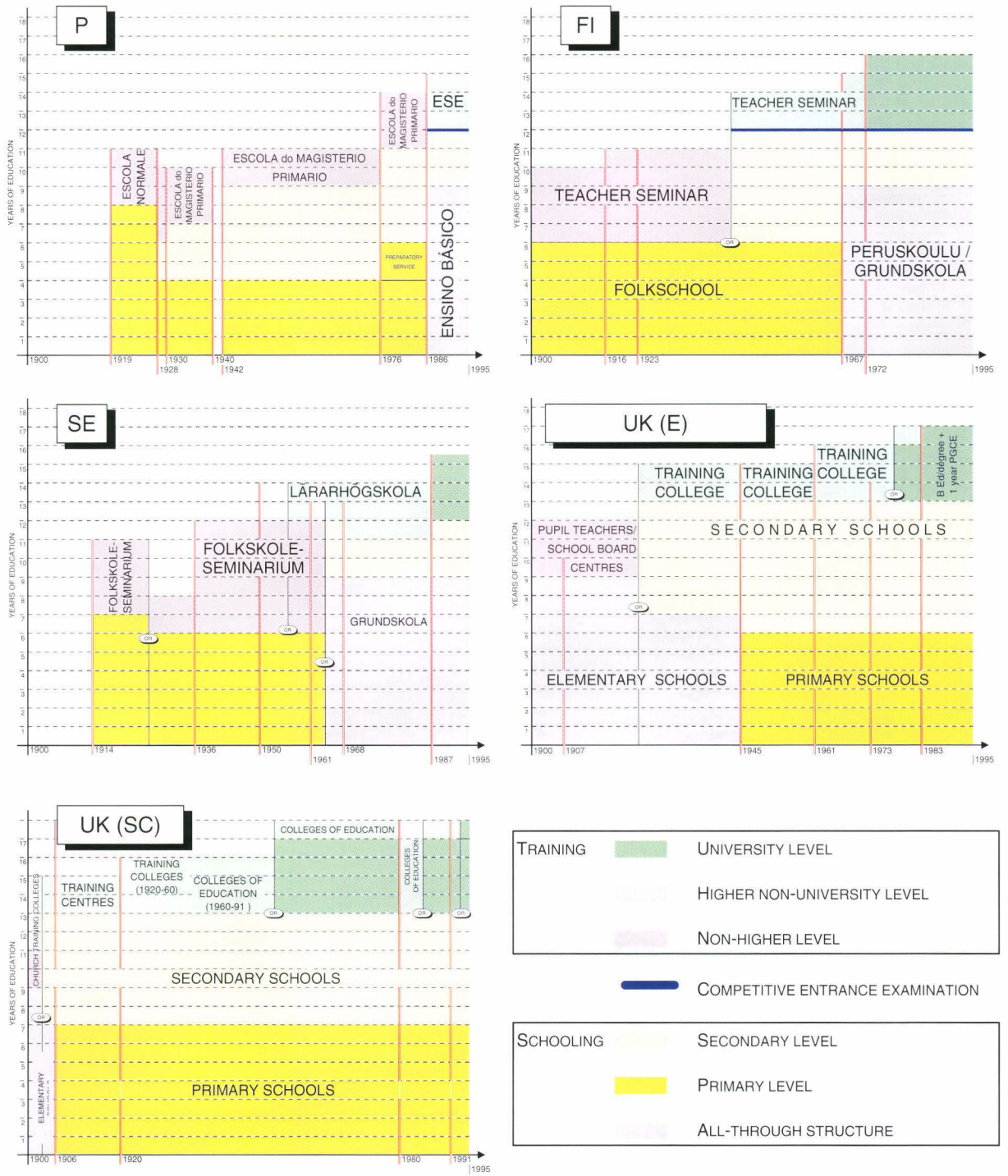


Source: Eurydice.

Italy: The new four-year degree for primary teachers is not yet in operation. However, the education and training provided at upper secondary level (*Istituto Magistrale*) is still recognized as adequate for appointment to teaching posts.
Netherlands: At the beginning of the century, higher non-university training was already available. The graph illustrates the minimum qualifications required.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The co-existence of several possible training systems during the same period is indicated by 'or'. The years indicated refer to the dates of reforms which brought about the changes.



Source: Eurydice.

Portugal: This graph illustrates the changes in the training of teachers for the current first stage of *Ensino básico*. Between 1940 and 1942, primary teachers were appointed administratively. At present, in the regions where the higher institutes of education (ESE) have not been established, the teachers are trained in specific university centres (CIFOP, *Centros integrados de formação de professores*).

Sweden: Only the training of teachers for the former primary schools and the first four years of the present *grundskola* is shown here.

United Kingdom (E): The development is more gradual than appears here. A four-year university course (three-year degree plus one year of professional training) was developing in the early years of the century and provision for this path was specifically included in the 1918 Regulations for the Training of Teachers. However, even by the 1940s, only 9% of elementary school teachers were graduates. In the 1940s and 1950s, there were still some uncertificated teachers, i.e. with no specialised professional training to teach; some undertook special courses while others were regarded as qualified by virtue of their exeperience. The two-year training course gradually diminished to be replaced by the middle of the century by the three-year course then by the four-year BEd degree or a first degree plus one year's college — now university-level — training (PGCE). The final block in the graph represents this last pattern of training, but there are also others.

United Kingdom (SC): The four-year course represents both the four-year simultaneous (BEd) course and the three-year university degree followed by one year of professional training, while the five-year course represents the four-year degree followed by one year of training.

In Greece and in Finland since the beginning of the century and in Portugal since 1986, an entrance examination is set prior to admission to training (Graph H8). Other countries have abolished such examinations during the course of the century.

In general, the pattern of initial training of primary school teachers has become closer to or, in some cases, the same as that of secondary school teachers. This development of the initial training of primary school teachers demonstrates the extent to which views on primary education, expectations of primary school teachers and their role have changed in the course of a century. A hundred years ago, higher education was required only for teachers in secondary schools, which were available at that time to only a minority of pupils from the upper classes, whereas a basic training was deemed sufficient for those responsible for teaching primary school pupils. Today, on the other hand, it is recognized that primary school teachers need to have education and training at higher education level in order to educate young children and provide them with a sound foundation in basic skills.

In most Member States (9 out of 15), these changes have gone hand in hand with the general expansion of secondary education. Primary school has thus become for all children a prelude to secondary school education. It therefore went without saying that a secondary school diploma should be required, as a condition of entry to training, of those who were going to be responsible for teaching primary school pupils. The gradual fall in school populations, which appeared at the same time, probably increased the need for selection in the training of teachers. In many countries, the demand for teaching posts rapidly outstripped the supply. By raising the level of education required, it became possible to recruit future teachers from a generation which had received a sound general education and a broad cultural base.

To sum up, three broad approaches to teacher training for primary education characterize the development of teacher training during the course of this century: post-primary education in a specialized vocational school, training in post-secondary level institutions, and finally training in higher education, generally at university. These models are found almost everywhere in Europe, but have been established at different times during the century.

TEACHER TRAINING INCREASINGLY REQUIRED IN ADDITION TO SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION FOR UPPER SECONDARY TEACHERS

At the level of secondary education, initial teacher training has not, during the current century, undergone change to the same extent as that for primary school teachers. This is because secondary school teachers, at least in upper secondary education, have been trained at university since the beginning of the century in most of the Member States (Graph H7).

However, although universities always provided academic courses in the subjects which teachers were required to teach, the need for teachers at the secondary level of education to have professional and practical training is a more recent phenomenon. At different points in time during the second half of this century, several Member States have introduced, or extended the duration of, initial training for the teaching profession as such, either during or after the university course.

In Denmark, the one year of teacher training (*paedagogikum*) is at present integrated into the first year of teaching in a school, but there is discussion currently as to whether it should not be provided as part of the initial training, as was the case from 1963 to 1985.

In Italy, when the 1990 reform is introduced, secondary school teachers will have to follow a specialized two-year teacher training course leading to an examination for the *diploma di terzo livello* after completing their university studies. In Luxembourg, the duration of teacher training following the university course was extended from two to three years in 1974. The Netherlands introduced a one-year university course of teacher training (ULO) in 1987. Other education systems, such as those of Germany, Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom, have provided professional training as part of upper secondary school teacher education for much longer.

In Portugal, teacher training and practice have been subject to regulation since 1930, when they were already a *sine qua non* for teaching at secondary level. In Germany, future upper secondary teachers have since 1900 had a two-stage training, comprising one of study and one of preparatory service.

The ever growing number of research studies in the field of developmental psychology and education which has been carried out during the course of the century has contributed to the reform of the initial training of teachers.

It is increasingly considered, in particular, that initial training for secondary teachers based only on knowledge of the subject matter is inadequate to guarantee a high level of success in democratic school systems which are open to pupils from all social backgrounds. The increasing heterogeneity of pupils, with which teachers must learn to cope at secondary level, explains in part why a wide range of pedagogical skills has been included in university training. These include teaching methods, teaching materials and tools, and techniques of evaluation.

Although, as this chapter has shown, the initial training of teachers has undergone major reforms in all Member States of the European Union, we should exercise caution in evaluating the impact of the new training models on the efficiency of an education system. Given the relatively recent introduction of these reforms in several countries, a large part of the teaching body in post has actually been trained following the old models. This must be borne in mind in any attempt at evaluating the reforms in initial teacher training.

I

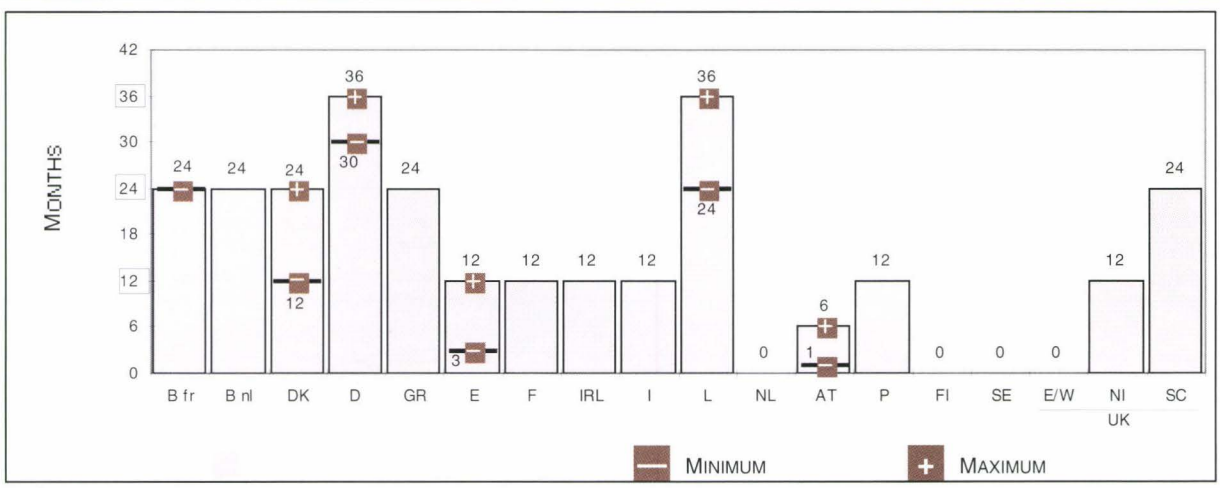
STATUS AND POPULATION

ENTRY TO THE PROFESSION

Certain countries impose a probationary period on teachers prior to their definitive appointment, while others do not. Thus the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and England and Wales (UK) do not require any such trial period. The duration of this period, where it is imposed, can vary from one country to another. In Luxembourg, provisional appointment lasts three years for secondary teachers and two for primary teachers. In Germany, an applicant who has been successful in the selection process is appointed as a 'civil servant on probation'. This period is usually two-and-a-half or three years before the teacher is definitively appointed as a permanent civil servant. In Scotland, teachers have a period of at least two years of probation. The probation period is also two years in the Flemish Community in Belgium and in Greece. In the French Community in Belgium, the duration of this status is extremely variable. In Denmark, it is two years for civil servant teachers and those with a similar status and one year for non-civil servants. In Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Northern Ireland (UK), the probationary period is one year. Finally, in Spain and Austria, it is only a few months. In France, teachers are also given responsibility for a class for one school year before being appointed, but this year is an integral part of their training.

Generally speaking, the probationary period is imposed in the public and private grant-aided sectors of education, but it is also used in non-grant-aided private education in Spain and Austria.

GRAPH I1: PROBATIONARY PERIOD, IN MONTHS, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION (PUBLIC AND PRIVATE GRANT-AIDED COMBINED), 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium (B fr): Only the minimum duration is shown here. The maximum may last for up to 10 years.
Denmark: Teachers who have civil servant or equivalent status have a probation period of two years. Teachers in upper secondary schools have a probation period of one year (see Table I2).
Germany: The duration of the probation period usually varies depending on the level of education chosen by the teacher and the corresponding civil service grade (i.e. two-and-a-half years for teachers in primary schools, *Hauptschulen* or *Realschulen,* for example, and three years for teachers in *Gymnasien* and upper secondary vocational schools).
Greece: In state schools, teachers are formally appointed after two years. In private education, teachers are appointed under contract for a period of two years, renewable for four years. At the end of six years, it is possible to be given a permanent contract.
Spain: In public sector education, the period varies from three months to a school year. In private education, whether contract or non-contract, it is four months.
France: To enter the second year of the *Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres* and remain in training, students must have been successful in the competitive recruitment examination. The second year consists of a placement with responsibility and a dissertation. At the end of this year, the student teacher is appointed as a teacher.
Italy: The probationary period only applies in the public sector. There is none in private education.
Austria: The probationary period applies in all schools, public or private. It is six months for civil servant teachers and one month for contract teachers.

STATUS: CIVIL SERVANT OR UNDER CONTRACT

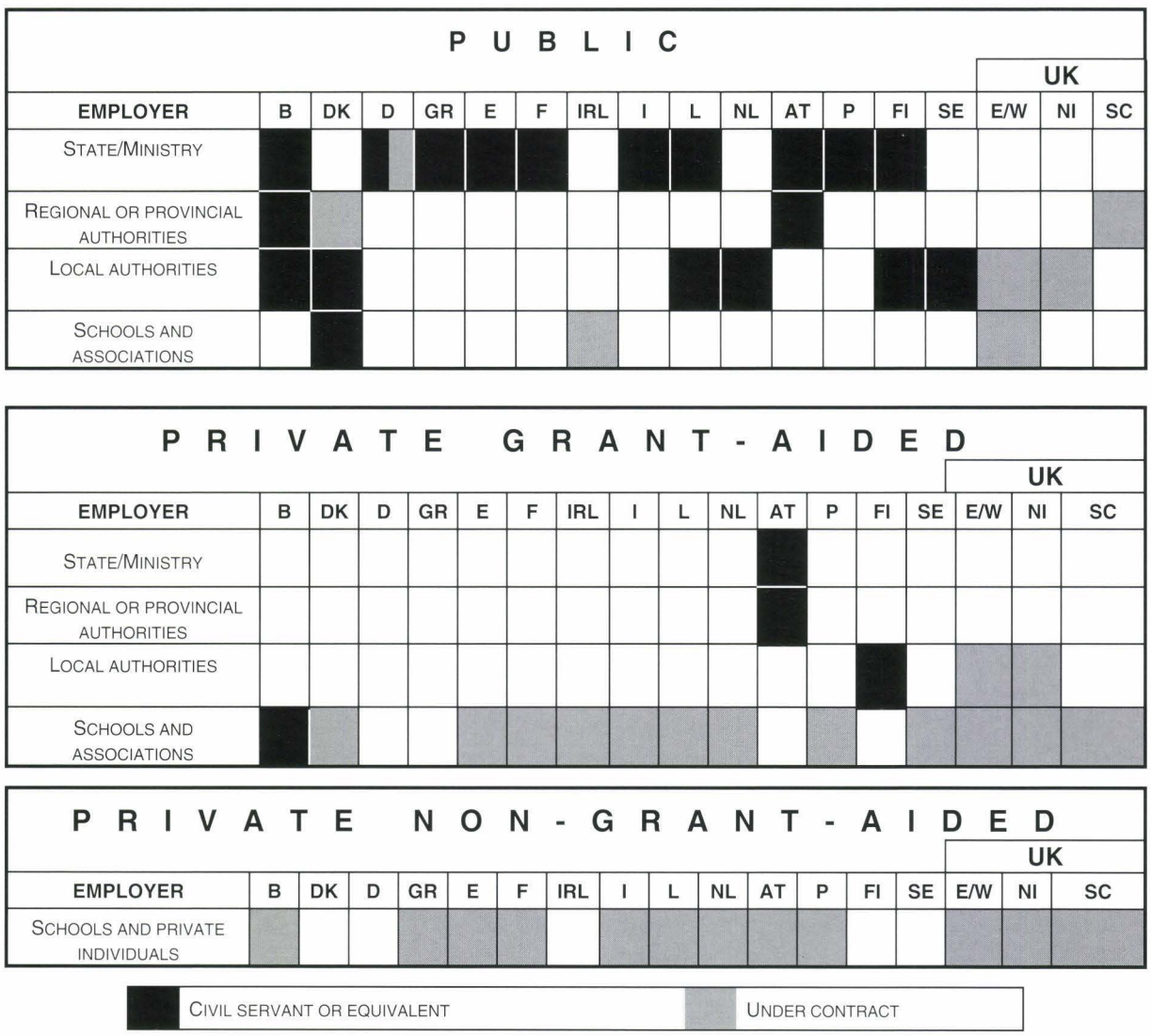
In most countries, the status of teachers depends on whether they work in the public or private sector. Generally speaking, only public sector teachers are civil servants while those in the private sector, grant-aided or not, are not.

Some Member States are exceptions to this rule. In Belgium, all teachers have a special status which has similarities to that of civil servants but varies according to the legal nature of their employer. In Denmark, teachers in the upper secondary schools are employed by the counties, under contract, as are teachers in the *folkeskole* from 1994/95. On the other hand, teachers in the vocational schools who are employed by the schools have a status similar to that of civil servants. In Austria and Finland, teachers employed in the state and private grant-aided sectors are civil servants. In Ireland and the United Kingdom, however, teachers are never civil servants.

In some countries, teachers are civil servants and are employed by local authorities — in Luxembourg (in primary education), the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden.

In private education, teachers usually have a contract with the school.

TABLE I1: STATUS AND EMPLOYERS OF TEACHERS IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium: Teachers have their own legal status which has similarities to that of civil servants. In public sector education, teachers are employed by a number of different bodies: the Communities, the provinces and the communes. In private grant-aided education, they are employed by the school's organising body (usually a non-profit-making association). The Education Ministry meets the salaries of all these teachers. In non-grant-aided private education, the employer is a legally-recognised private individual or body.
Denmark: The employer depends on the type of school. In the *folkeskole,* teachers are employed by the municipalities; in the upper secondary schools, the employer is the county and in the vocational schools, the teachers are employed by the school on terms similar to those of civil servants.
Germany: Teachers in the public sector are civil servants and they come under the public service statute of each individual *Land*. Teachers in the new *Länder* are at present under contract. These *Länder* will decide individually whether to assimilate them into the civil service system. The rights of teachers under contract are close to those of teachers who are civil servants. Teachers in private schools are usually under contract except those in the Catholic and Protestant church schools, who have a status similar to that of civil servants in the public sector.
Greece: The public sector also employs teachers who have worked in private schools and from private schools which have closed. The employer is still the public sector but the employment relationship with the public authority is a contract for a fixed period under private law.
Spain: In private schools under contract, the *consejo escolar del centro* (council responsible for the running of the school) fixes the criteria of selection. The headteacher executes the contract. In non-grant-aided private schools, the headteacher recruits the teachers and draws up their contracts.
France: The state recruits teachers for the public service through open competitions. There is also a small percentage of unestablished teachers who are recruited under contract in the *Académies* to meet specific needs (e.g. supply teachers for the primary and secondary schools).
Ireland: All teachers are employed by the board of management of the school or, in the case of those in vocational education, by the Vocational Education Committee (VEC). Their salaries are however largely met by the state and they are regarded (from the income tax point of view, for example) as public servants.
Luxembourg: Teachers are employed by the state, except in primary education, in which the employer can be a local authority. In such cases, they are still remunerated by the state.
Netherlands: In private grant-aided education, the employer is the foundation or association on which the school depends.
Austria: The employer in the non-grant-aided private schools is the *privater Schulerhalter.*
Finland: Apart from those in some vocational schools which come under the state, teachers are employed by the local authorities.
United Kingdom (E/W): There are two types of schools wholly financed by the public sector: county schools (financed by the local education authorities) and grant-maintained schools (financed by the Funding Agency for Schools). Teachers in county schools are formally employed by the local education authorities on the recommendation of their school's governing body. Teachers in the grant-maintained schools are employed by the schools' governing bodies. In grant-aided schools, they are officially employed by the relevant local education authority on the recommendation of the school governing body. In the City Technology Colleges, a new category of grant-aided school, they are employed by the schools. In private non-grant-aided schools, teachers are under contract to the school.
United Kingdom (NI): Teachers in the public sector schools are formally employed by the Education and Library Boards on the recommendation of the school Boards of Governors. There are no grant-maintained schools in Northern Ireland. The Council for Catholic Maintained Schools employs the teachers who work in the grant-aided Catholic schools.The Boards of Governors of the other grant-aided schools are responsible for the recruitment of teachers.
United Kingdom (SC): Public sector education is managed by the education authorities (the Regional and Islands Councils).

EXPLANATORY NOTE

In most Member States, 'state' level means central government level. In Belgium, where education is a function of the Communities, it means Community level. In Germany, where primary and secondary education is largely a Land *function, it means the* Länder. *In Spain, it means the Autonomous Communities. The 'regional or provincial authorities' include the provinces in Belgium, the counties in Denmark and the* Länder *in Austria.*

MORE THAN FOUR MILLION TEACHERS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

At the present time, the European Union has more than four million teachers in the primary and secondary levels of its education systems, quite apart from the thousands of young people intending to teach and who are attending initial teacher training institutions. In fact, it can be said that the teaching profession (excluding higher education) employs an average of 2.8% of the working population in the Member States. The variations are however significant. Belgium appears as the country in which teachers make up the highest percentage (3.9%) while in Germany they account for the lowest (1.8%).

In these statistics, only teachers in post are taken into account. Staff allocated to duties other than teaching (inspectors, non-teachings heads, teachers on secondment etc.) are excluded. The numbers of such staff can vary considerably depending on the country. The definitions of teaching staff are not however always the same from one Member State to another. It is also important to note that these statistics do not include special education. However, in countries in which the education of children with special educational needs is integrated into mainstream education, the teachers responsible for these children are included. This is the case in Italy, in particular.

Caution is therefore called for in comparing percentages between Member States. In practice, in view of the variety of situations across the Member States, a number of variables have to be taken into account in carrying out a comparative analysis of this sort. It is necessary, amongst other things, to take account of parameters such as the duration of compulsory education and the numbers of young people in the education systems as well as the magnitude of the ratio of the working population to the total population.

TABLE I2: TEACHERS (THOUSAND) IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE, PRIMARY AND GENERAL AND TECHNICAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS, IN RELATION TO THE TOTAL WORKING POPULATION, 1992/93

	TOTAL WORKING POPULATION	PERCENTAGE WORKING POPULATION/TOTAL POPULATION	TEACHERS (FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME)	TEACHERS (FULL-TIME EQUIVALENTS)	PERCENTAGE TEACHERS/TOTAL WORKING POPULATION	PERCENTAGE PUPILS/TOTAL POPULATION
B	4 041	40	160.5	140.7	3.9	15.2
DK	2 875	56	85.9	77.4	2.9	16
D	39 113	49	742	638.4	1.8	13.7
GR	4 101	41	113.7	N/A	2.7	15.4
E	15 263	39	415	402.9	2.7	18.8
F	24 718	44	677.9	638.1	2.7	17.3
IRL	1 352	39	N/A	38		
I	22 235	40	831.3	831.3	3.7	16.4
L	168	44	5	N/A	2.9	13.4
NL	7 085	47	173	139.9	2.4	17.6
AT	3 728	47	114	114	3	14.4
P	4 717	48	142	N/A	3	17.7
FI	2 474	49	65	N/A	2.6	14.2
SE	4 286	49	125	98.7	2.9	13.7
UK	28 244	49	643	585	2.2	19.6
Total	164 400	45.4	**4 293**		**2.8**	15.9

Source: Eurostat.

Belgium and **Luxembourg**: The statistics available in relation to the total working population and teaching staff are for 1991/92.
Germany: Trainers in firms working in initial vocational training under the *duales System* are not included under teaching staff.
Portugal and **Finland**: Statistics on teachers provided by the respective Ministries of Education.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

As the total working population is calculated on the basis of the actual number of individuals, the ratio of teachers to working population has been calculated on the basis of the number of full-time and part-time teachers. Pupils include all those in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 and 3).

PUPIL:TEACHER RATIOS – A GRADUAL IMPROVEMENT OVER THE PAST 30 YEARS

The pupil:teacher ratio is an indicator of the share of teaching resources provided for pupils at a given level of education in an education system. It thus gives general information on the investment made in provision for pupils in a Member State, without being itself an indicator of class size at the level of education in question. In other words, the fact that one country has a lower ratio than another does not necessarily signify that it has fewer pupils per class.

In those Member States for which data are available, the movement of pupil:teacher ratios over the past 30 years shows a gradual improvement, particularly at the nursery and primary levels. A reduction in the ratio is observed more particularly in those countries which had a high ratio in the 1970s (Greece, Spain and Luxembourg at the nursery and primary levels, and the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal at the primary level). In other words, it can be said that, on the average, primary teachers in these countries today are responsible for fewer pupils compared with the situation faced by their colleagues of 30 years ago.

It should however be noted that the ratios in Denmark and Sweden have remained fairly stable and relatively low in relation to the European average.

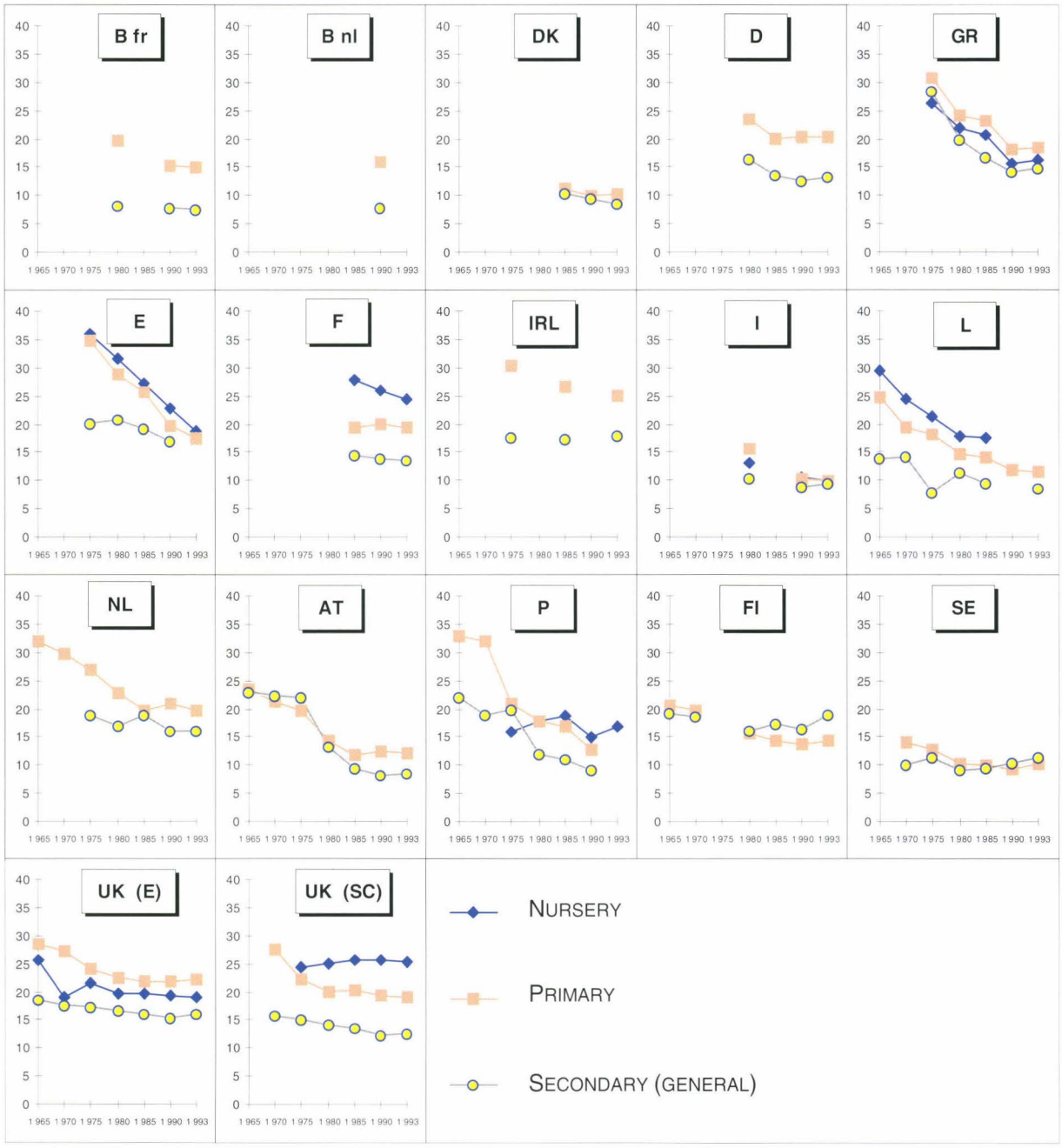
The reduction in the numbers of pupils per teacher varies according to the country and the level of education examined. Thus, at the **nursery education level**, the ratio in Spain has fallen considerably from over 36 pupils per teacher to about 20 today. The same is found in Greece and Luxembourg. On the other hand, in England and Scotland, the ratios at this level of education have remained fairly stable for about 25 years.

At the **primary education level,** the change is also very marked in the majority of the Member States. For example, in Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria and Portugal, the ratio has fallen by half over the last quarter of a century. On the other hand, the ratios have fallen little in Ireland and England, which have the highest ratios in the European Union at the present time, with 25 pupils per teacher in Ireland and more than 22 in England.

In fact, the differences between countries are becoming very much less marked at the present time. There is a closing of the gap downwards between those Member States in which very high ratios were observed 20 years ago and those whose ratios have remained stable throughout this period.

In comparison with the primary level, ratios at the **secondary education level** have changed little over the past 20 years, except in Greece, Austria and Portugal, where they have fallen considerably. They have come down by half in Greece and Portugal and by almost one third in Austria.

GRAPH I2: MOVEMENT IN PUPIL:TEACHER RATIOS (FULL-TIME EQUIVALENTS) BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR, 1965-93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium: Primary includes the nursery level and secondary includes general, technical and vocational in the public and private grant-aided sectors taken together. For the French Community, the 1980 data are estimates.
Denmark: Secondary does not include the HHX (higher business studies) or the HTX (higher technical studies).
Denmark, Germany, Austria, Finland and **Sweden**: Pre-school provision is not part of the school system and it therefore does not appear in this graph.
Germany: Secondary general is the average of lower secondary and upper secondary (see Annexes).
Greece: The year 1993 represents the start of the 1993/94 school year (Data are provisional).
Spain and **Luxembourg**: The year 1993 represents the start of the 1993/94 school year.
Netherlands and **Austria**: Public and private schools taken together.
Finland: Primary refers to the *peruskoulu/grundskola* and secondary to upper secondary general education.
Sweden: Primary refers to the *grundskola* and secondary to upper secondary general and technical education.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

*The **ratio** is calculated by dividing the number of pupils (full-time equivalents) at a given level of education by the number of teachers (full-time equivalents) at that level.*
In drawing up the time series, ratios have as far as possible been calculated on the basis of the number of full-time equivalent teachers in the knowledge that the calculation to convert part-time teachers to full-time equivalents is not always the same in different Member States. Consequently, it is important only to examine trends within the same Member State and not to undertake a comparative analysis of ratios between them.

***Greece, Portugal** and **Finland**: The ratio has been calculated on the basis of full-time and part-time teachers but the number of part-time teachers is small and does not greatly influence the calculation.*

***Spain, Luxembourg** and **Scotland**: The ratio has been calculated on the basis of full-time teachers only, the numbers of part-time teachers not being available.*

OLDER PUPILS ARE FAVOURED

As Graph I2 shows, secondary pupils throughout the European Union generally enjoy more favourable pupil:teacher ratios than primary pupils, except in Finland and Sweden, where the ratio is highest at secondary level.

One group of Member States demonstrates very favourable ratios at both primary and secondary level. This is the case in Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria and Sweden, which have between 10 and 15 pupils per teacher in primary and between 7 and 11 in secondary education. The other Member States have much higher ratios at both levels of education.

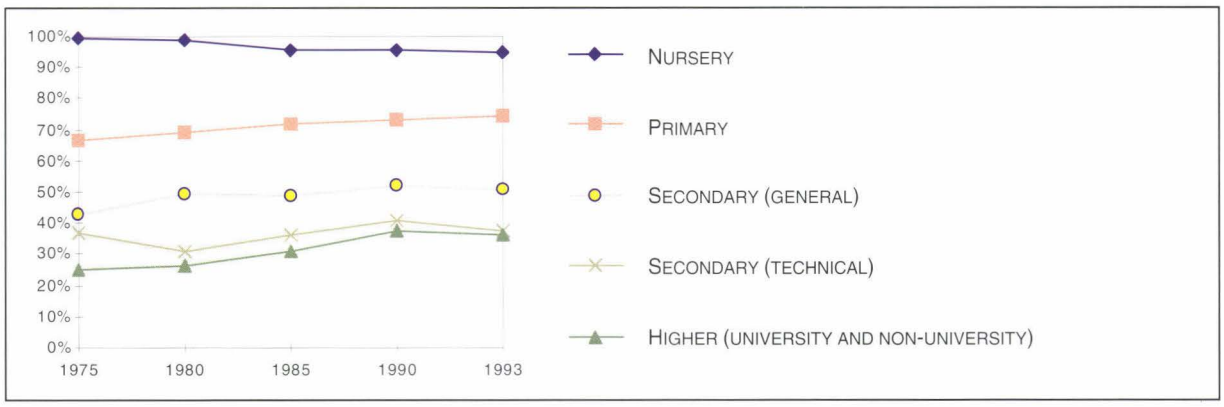
This difference in the ratios in the two levels of education is probably explained at least in part by the fact that pupils at the primary level are usually in the hands of one single teacher for all subjects. In secondary education, on the other hand, a number of teachers share in the teaching of the various subjects. It is also at this level that options appear. Moreover, as Chapter J illustrates, at the secondary education level, teachers' teaching hours are generally fewer than pupils' hours. This factor very probably comes into play and has a favourable effect on the ratio.

WOMEN IN TEACHING: VARIATIONS DEPEND ON THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND THE COUNTRY

In the European Union generally, the proportion of women in teaching has increased little over the last 30 years.

Graph I3, which is based on the data available, demonstrates that the increase in the percentage of women in the teaching profession since the 1970s is on average quite small, with the exception of the higher education sector, in which the participation rate of women has gone up from 25 to 36%.

GRAPH I3: MOVEMENT IN PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN NURSERY, PRIMARY, SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE COMBINED (AVERAGE CALCULATED OVER 15 MEMBER STATES), 1975-93



Source: Eurydice.

Nursery, and to a lesser extent primary, education has had a large proportion of women teachers for a very long time. At primary level, where women accounted for an average of over 66% of all teachers in 1975, there has been an increase of about 8%. On the other hand, in secondary general education, the male:female ratio of the teaching staff is more or less in balance and has been relatively stable for 20 years. It should, however, be noted that in secondary technical education there are fewer women than men teachers. Higher education is still a largely male professional field today, despite the considerable increase in the number of women amongst academic staff in recent years.

Closer study of the position of women in the teaching profession country by country over the same period reveals the extent to which the overall trend conceals major national disparities. In fact, it is only at the nursery and higher education levels that there is a more or less similar pattern of development throughout Europe, the nursery level being massively devoid of men and the higher level preponderantly male, but with an increase in the percentage of women in recent years.

As Graph I4 illustrates, there are three distinct patterns of change at the level of primary education. The first is marked by a major increase in the proportion of women over the last quarter of a century. This appears in Italy and Austria and to a lesser extent in the Netherlands. It is particularly marked in Austria where the percentage of women has risen from 57 to 84%.

In a second group of countries, primary teaching staffs have been fairly evenly divided between men and women for many years. This is the case more particularly in Greece and Luxembourg, where women have for a long time accounted for approximately 50% of all primary teachers.

The graph for the third group is also fairly level over time but it differs from that of the second group in that women are in the majority. For the past 30 years, between 70 and 80% of teachers have been women in Belgium, Spain, Ireland, Portugal, Sweden and England and Wales, while in Scotland the figure almost reaches 90%.

At the level of secondary education, there is no marked general movement except in Spain and Italy. No country presents a mainly female profile. It should, however, be mentioned that in Belgium (French Community), France, Portugal and Finland, the proportion of women is slightly over 50%. Some countries are remarkable for their very low proportions of women in this level of education — less than one third in Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

GRAPH I4: MOVEMENT IN PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ON THE TEACHING STAFF (PRIMARY AND SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE COMBINED), 1965-93

Source: Eurydice

Belgium (B fr and **B nl)**: Primary includes the nursery level and secondary includes general, technical and vocational education in the public and private grant-aided sectors taken together.
Germany: Data for 1985 and 1990 are for the old *Länder*.
Italy: Data relate only to the public sector.
Portugal: Data for the primary level in 1980 and 1985 do not include the Autonomous Region of the Azores.
United Kingdom (E/W): Data relate only to full-time teachers in maintained schools. Primary includes nursery.
United Kingdom (SC): The private sector includes only the private grant-aided schools.

FEW WOMEN WITH HEADSHIPS

Judging by the evidence, women are less frequently found than men in headships and this trend is particularly pronounced in secondary education.

Only responsibility for nursery schools, where they are separate from primary schools and have their own headteacher, is largely in the hands of women. From 1985, a rate of 100% is found in France, with 99.9% in the Netherlands, 97% in Denmark and 91% in Sweden. This trend is so marked that the 9% of men in charge of nursery institutions in Sweden deserve mention. These figures do not appear in Graphs I5 and I6.

Although the teaching profession is largely feminine at the primary education level, the same cannot be said in relation to headships. The percentage of women amongst heads is always lower than that of women teachers. Moreover, this proportion never exceeds 50% except in Scotland.

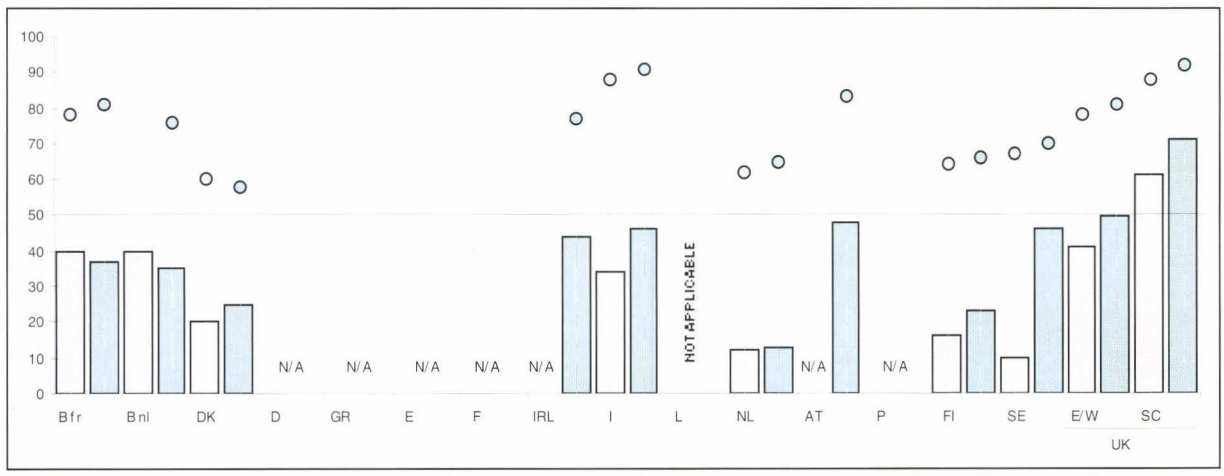
The percentage of women heads is particularly low in the Member States with least women in teaching — Denmark, the Netherlands and Finland. Comparison of the movement between 1985 and 1993 indicates some increase in all countries for which data are available with the exception of Belgium, where the rate is falling. This movement is remarkable in Sweden.

In secondary education, the trends are identical and even more marked. The percentage of women headteachers is distinctly lower than that of women on the teaching staff. In all Member States except Ireland, less than one third of heads are women. However, the proportion is on the increase everywhere except in Belgium and Scotland, where it is falling.

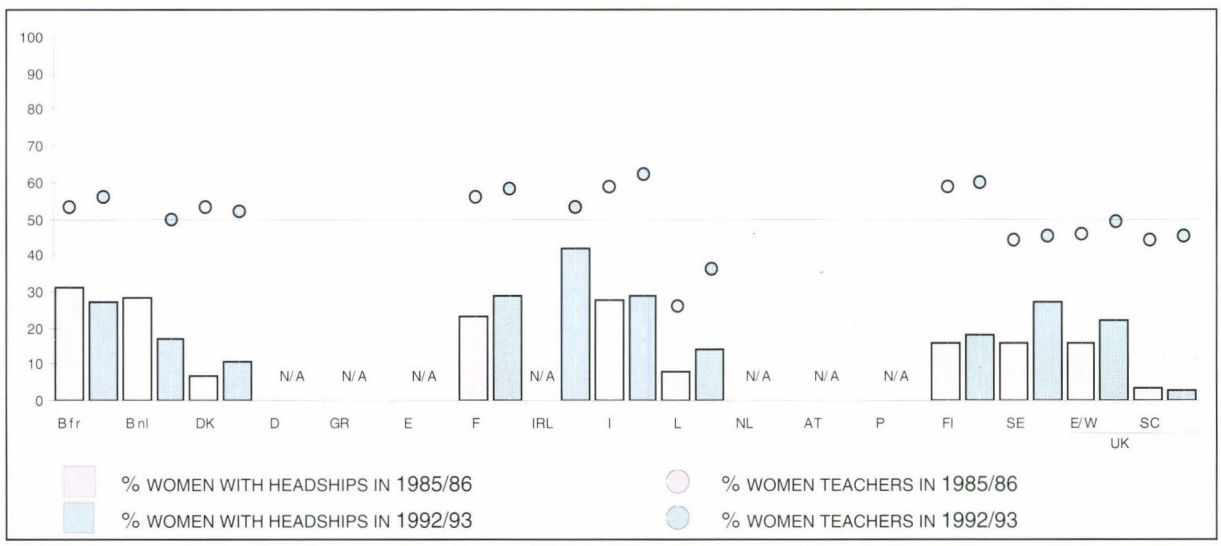
Comparison between Member States is not easy. Certain of them, like Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland and Scotland have very low percentages. The explanation may lie in the role and powers of the headteacher which, depending on the situation, can be more or less wide-ranging. The size of the school, the number of teachers to manage, and the existence of a hierarchy of management functions (deputy heads, heads of department and administrators) are amongst the factors which would have to be taken into account to explain the disparities which have been observed.

It would also be interesting to establish the extent to which co-education — relatively recent in some Member States — has been able to alter the proportion of women holding headships. All-girls schools were in fact more often run by women. The data appearing here do not however allow any such analysis to be made.

GRAPH I5: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN TEACHERS AND WOMEN HOLDING HEADSHIPS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1985/86 AND 1992/93



GRAPH I6: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN TEACHERS AND WOMEN HOLDING HEADSHIPS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1985/86 AND 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium (B fr): The reference year is 1994.
Denmark: The primary level includes the nine years of the *folkeskole*. The secondary level refers to upper secondary education.
Ireland: Data given here relate to secondary schools and community and comprehensive schools.
Luxembourg: The reference year is 1995. Primary schools do not have headteachers. Supervision of teachers is a matter for the inspectors.
Finland: Data have been provided on the basis of the Finnish school system, the primary level including the nine years of the all-through *peruskoulu/grundskola* and the secondary level including the three years of the upper secondary school.
Sweden: The primary level includes the nine years of the all-through *grundskola*. The secondary level refers to upper secondary education.
United Kingdom (E/W): The primary level includes nursery. The data refer only to full-time teachers in maintained schools.

TEACHERS — AN AGEING PROFESSION

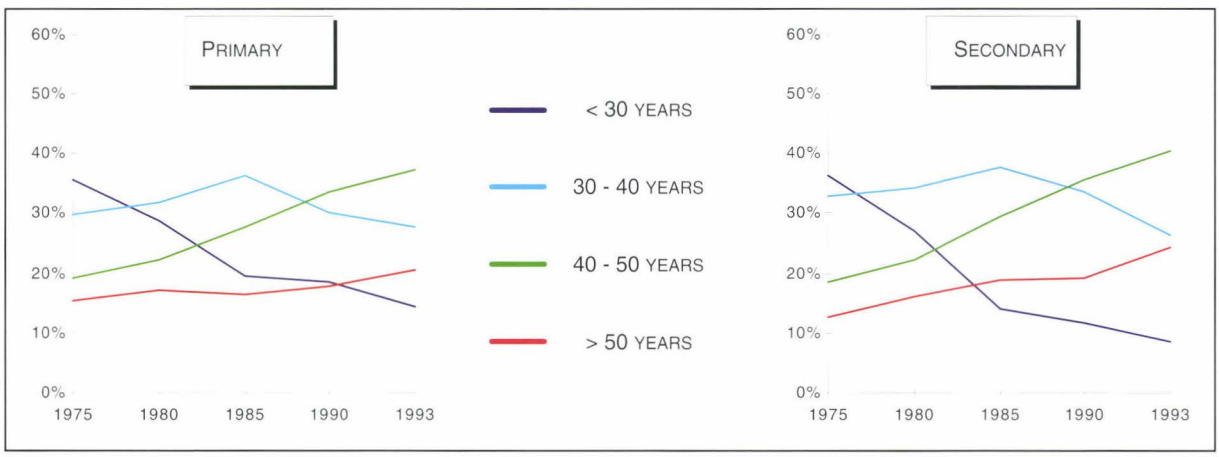
The teaching profession in the European Union is characterized by a continuing trend towards increasing age. More than half of today's teacher population is over the age of 40.

This situation is even more marked in secondary education where 65% of teachers are more than 40 years old.

In the countries for which data are available, the proportion of teachers in the 40 to 50 years age band has increased considerably since the 1970s. Graph I7 clearly illustrates this movement, with an increase from 20 to 38% at primary level and from 18 to 40% at secondary.

Younger teachers under the age of 30, on the other hand, are less and less numerous, with a fall from 35 to 14% in primary education and from 36 to 9% in secondary.

GRAPH I7: MOVEMENT IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, AVERAGE (PERCENTAGE) OVER 12 MEMBER STATES, 1975-93



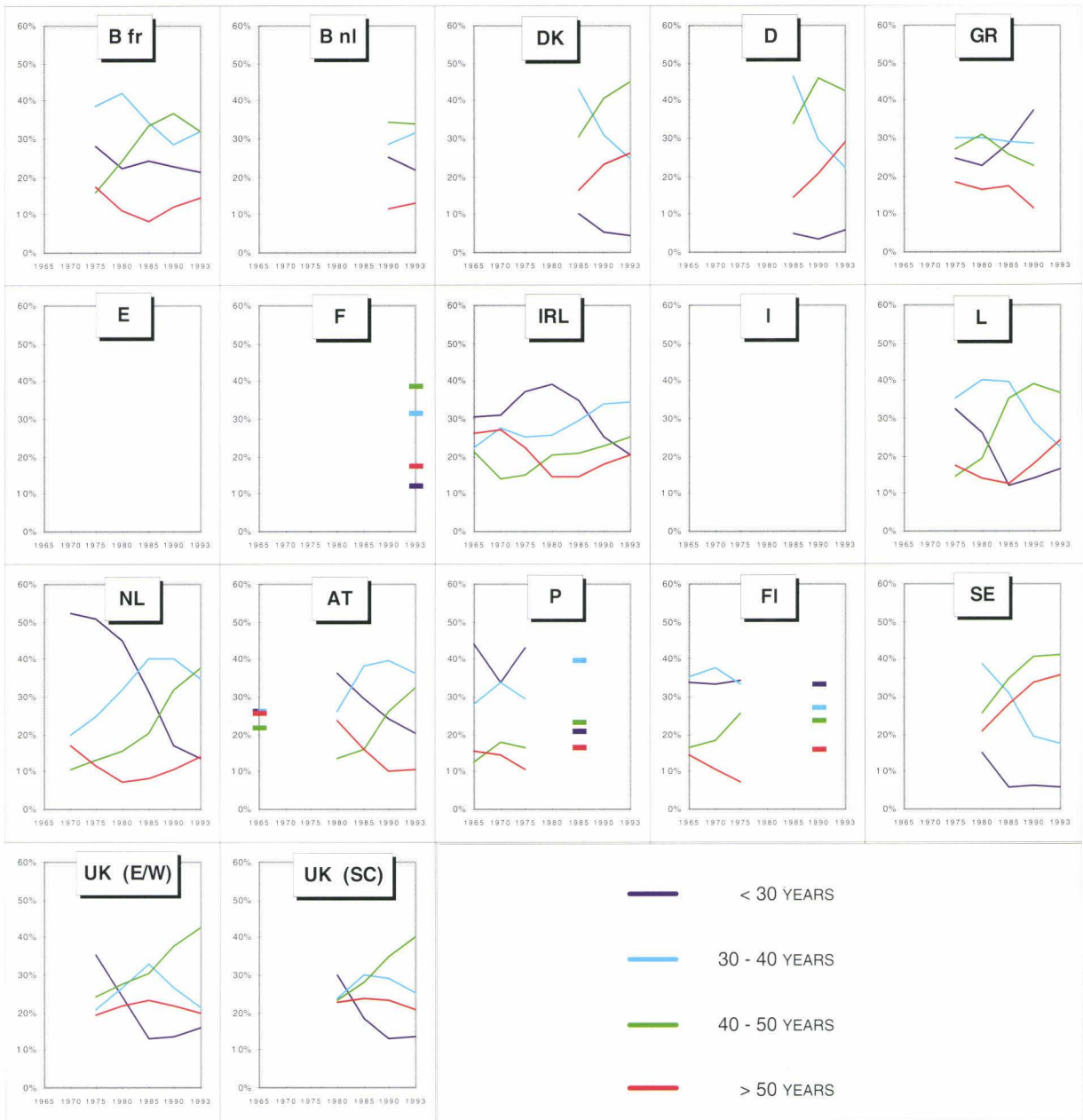
Source: Eurydice.

Graphs I8 and I9 illustrate the changes in the percentages of teachers by age band in each Member State. Only the primary and secondary levels have been studied, in view of the lack of data on the other levels of education.

Denmark, Germany and Sweden provide a particularly clear example of the ageing of the teaching profession. Young teachers are, since 1985 at least, very rare in the two levels of education under consideration. The percentage of over-40-year-olds, however, has increased and the over 50-year-old category has doubled in less than 10 years. At the present time, almost three quarters of teachers in these Member States are over 40 years old. In Sweden, almost half of all upper secondary teachers are more than 50 years old (Graph I10).

In Finland, on the other hand, the proportions of teachers in the various age bands have been relatively stable since 1965 and include a large proportion of younger teachers: more than half of all teachers are under 40 years of age.

GRAPH I8: MOVEMENT IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1965-93

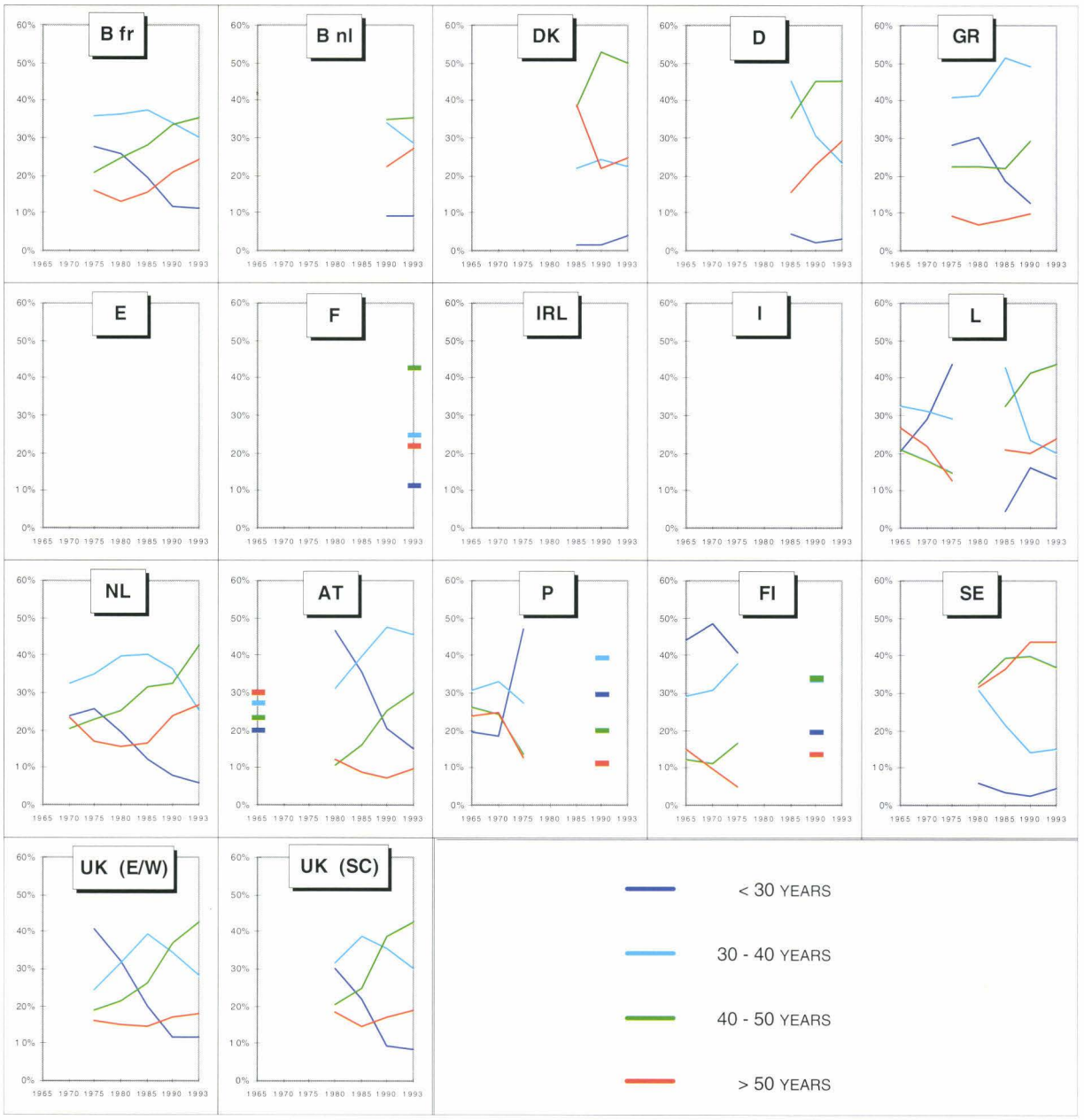


Source: Eurydice.

Belgium (B fr): Primary includes nursery.
Denmark: Primary relates to the *folkeskole* and includes special education and the private (*efterskoler).* Figures are estimated.
Germany: Data for 1985 and 1990 relate to the old *Länder.*
Spain and **Italy**: Data not available.
Portugal: Data for 1980 and 1985 do not include the Autonomous Region of the Azores.
Finland: Primary relates to class teachers in the first stage of the *peruskoulu/grundskola.*
United Kingdom (E/W): Primary includes nursery. The data relate only to full-time teachers in maintained schools.

The proportion of young teachers under the age of 30 has fallen considerably except in Greece, where it has risen from 25 to 37%, and in Finland, where it has remained stable at around 35%. The decline in this age band is particularly marked in primary education in the Netherlands, where the proportion of young teachers has fallen from 52 to 13%. It should be noted that in Luxembourg and England and Wales, however, a slight increase in the proportion under-30s has appeared again since 1985.

GRAPH I9: MOVEMENT IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF SECONDARY TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1965-93

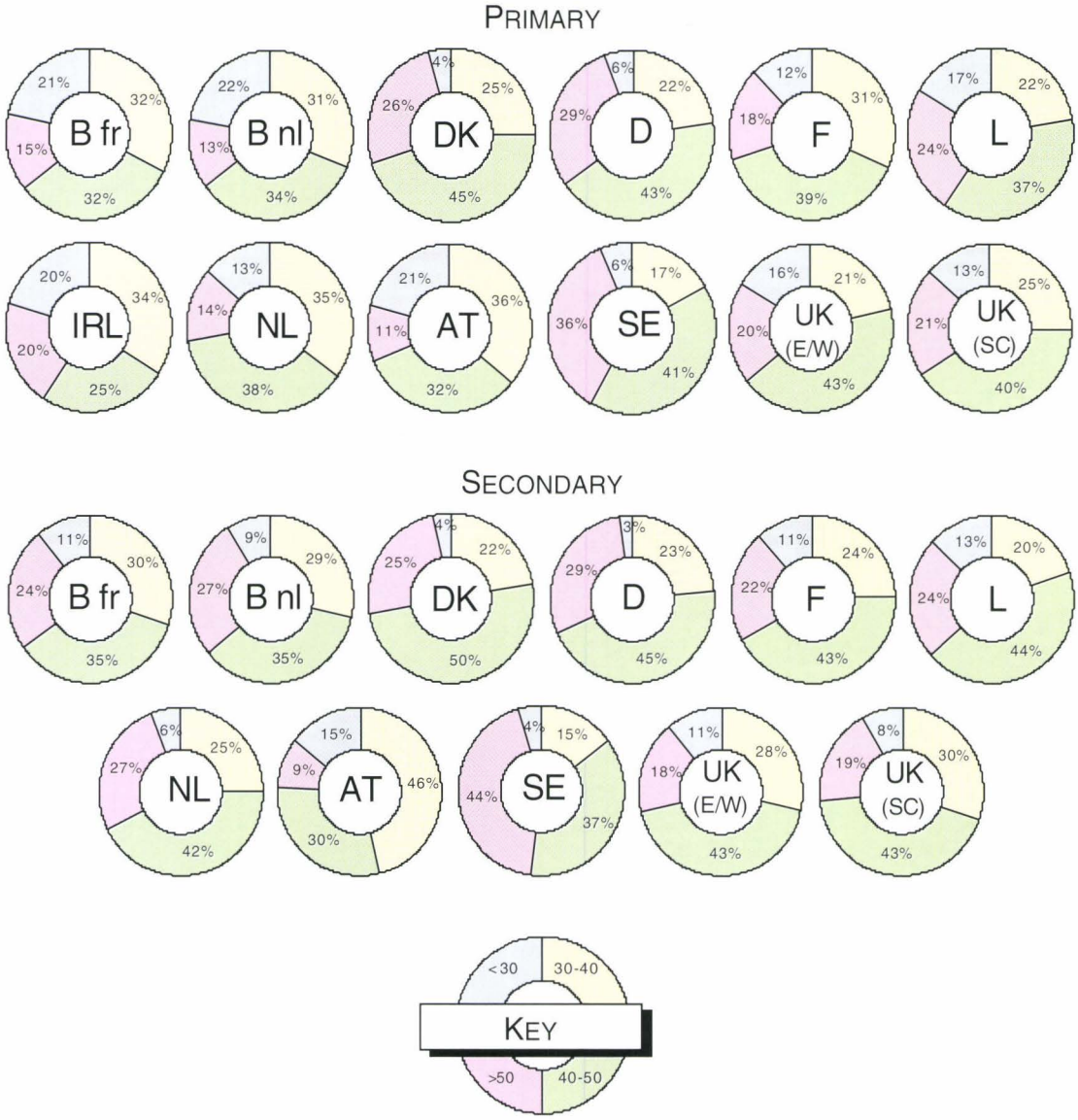


Source: Eurydice.

Denmark: Secondary relates to upper secondary general education; the HHX (higher business studies) and the HTX (higher technical studies) are excluded. The data provided are estimates. Data shown for 1985 are those for the school year 1988/89.
Germany: Data for 1985 and 1990 relate to the old *Länder*.
Spain, Ireland and **Italy**: Data not available.
Finland: Secondary relates to subject teachers in the second stage of the *peruskoulu/grundskola*.
Sweden: Secondary relates to upper secondary.
United Kingdom (E/W): There is no separate secondary technical sector. The data relate only to full-time teachers in maintained schools.

A RECENT SNAPSHOT OF THE AGEING OF TEACHERS

GRAPH I10: DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Greece, Spain, Portugal and **Finland**: Data for 1992/93 not available.
Ireland: Data for 1992/93 not available for secondary level.

The ageing of the teaching profession is probably explained in part by the fall in pupil numbers during the 1980s. This was experienced in a majority of Member States (with the exception of Greece and Finland, where the population in the primary schools remained fairly stable), the 1960s having seen a very high birth rate and a vast recruitment of teachers by and large everywhere in the European Union. Consequently, the career advancement of staff in post since then has not been balanced by a significant recruitment of younger teachers. In the light of the present position, it is to be expected that a considerable proportion of teachers who were recruited in the 1960s will be departing on retirement in the next few years. In this general situation, it will be important to ensure that the planning of teacher supply and demand is managed so as to meet the professional requirements throughout the European Union and avoid the risks of shortages or surpluses.

FORWARD PLANNING: A RECENT PRACTICE IN THE MEMBER STATES

Forward planning is a very recent practice in most countries. Nowadays, long and/or short-term planning of teaching staff requirements is fairly current practice in a majority of the Member States of the European Union. However, there is not always a specific statutory framework for such forward planning. In Denmark, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the planning models for managing teacher supply and demand do not have any statutory basis. It is only since the 1980s that countries such as Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal have introduced legislation for planning entry to the profession.

In Italy and the Netherlands, the legislation or planning models date from the beginning of the 1990s. On the other hand, Spain, France (at secondary level) and Finland have a long tradition of planning, but without any legislative backing for it. It should be mentioned that France has had legislation on planning in primary sector for more than a century.

Belgium is the only Member State not to have developed procedures for planning teaching staff requirements. In Ireland, a planning policy has been in operation since 1995.

In general, forward planning is undertaken by the education ministries. In most cases, the education authorities have the assistance of the statistical services for the collection and analysis of data. In some cases, the Ministry appoints a committee or group of experts for this task.

The differing methods of forward planning are based on variables such as demographic changes, movement within the profession (retirements, transfers to other non-teaching posts, resignations etc.) and forecasts of pupil: teacher ratios.

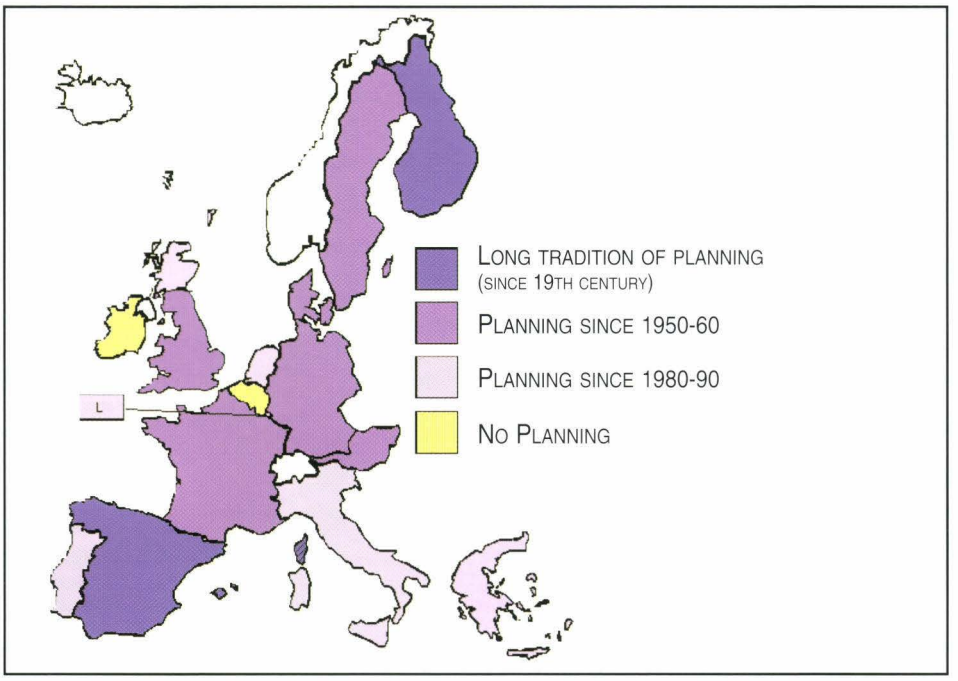
As the forward planning of future teacher requirements is a fairly recent practice in most countries, the problems of shortages and/or surpluses have not yet been completely solved. At the present time, there are shortages in Greece (in non-university higher education), in the Netherlands (in science subjects in secondary education) and in Italy (in upper secondary education). According to the estimates forecast in Sweden, there will be shortages in compulsory and upper secondary education at the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Some countries also have problems of surplus teaching staff. These are often in specific areas — in Greece, in primary and secondary schools, and in Finland, in areas of vocational education such as building, textiles and agriculture.

FORWARD PLANNING CHARACTERISTICS

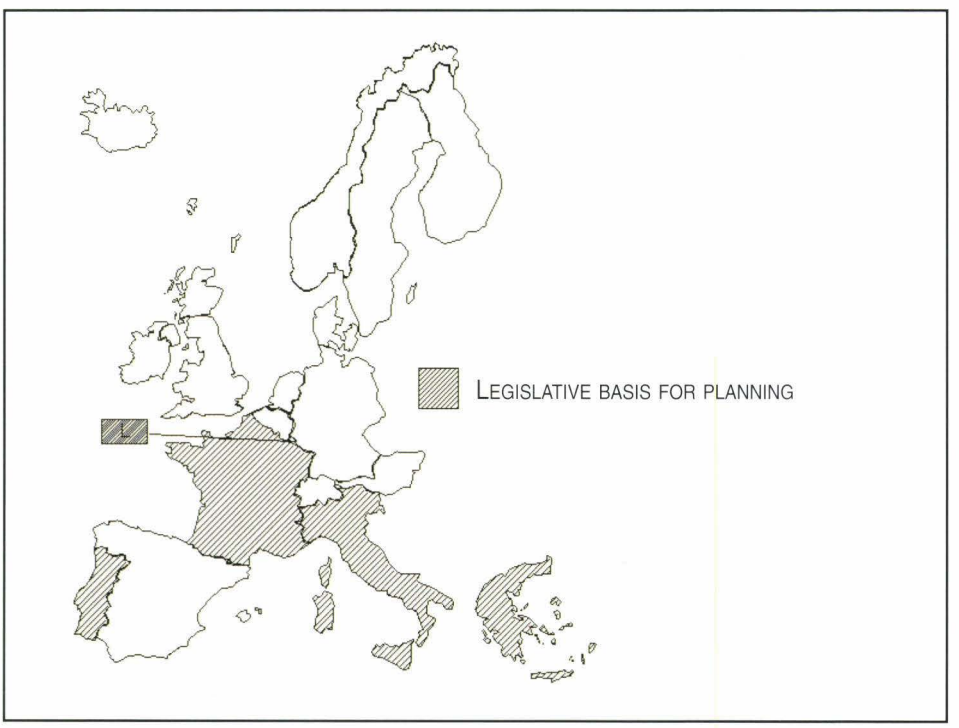
	LEGISLATION/START OF PLANNING	BODY UNDERTAKING PLANNING	FREQUENCY AND METHOD OF PLANNING
B fr		No planning	
B nl		No planning	
DK	No specific legislation. Register of primary and secondary teachers prepared in 1970s. Supply and demand forecasts in 1970s. In 1980s, central register established covering all civil service staff and post-secondary teachers.	The municipalities and counties undertake planning for the *folkeskole* and upper secondary schools respectively, with access to the statistical information systerms and forecasting models of the Ministry of Education.	The Ministry of Education makes regular forecases. Planning is undertaken in working groups.
D	No specific legislation. Since the 1960s, educational planning departments have been set up in the *Länder* Ministries of Education to prepare the parliaments' decisions on their budgets.	No forward planning at Federal level. At *Land* level, special forward planning departments have been created within the education ministries and these are supported by the *Land* statistical services (*Statistische Landesämter*) for collecting the data.	Decisions regarding new teaching posts are taken on an annual or biennial basis for all levels of education. New teaching posts are provided for in the official budget.
GR	1985 law (nursery, primary and secondary levels); 1983 law (non-university higher education); 1982 and 1992 laws (planning of higher education-university level)	Ministry of Education (Directorate responsible for studies in cooperation with Directorate for Teaching Staff). Ministry of Education in cooperation with technological institutions.	Long-term planning at non-university level. Before the end of each school year, the Ministry proposes which schools are to be constructed, closed, converted or merged and the creation of the required teaching posts.
E	No specific legislation but planning has been undertaken since 1845.	Ministry of Education (Directorate General for Personnel) and education departments of the Autonomous Communities with education powers.	Annual planning at all levels of non-university education. Schools participate by providing annually data on their numbers of pupils and of teachers and on changes within each school.
F	*Loi Goblet* (1886) for primary level and since the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1828 for secondary level.	Function shared between the state and the local authorities, the latter being responsible for capital expenditure and the former for teaching posts.	Annual planning.
IRL	No specific legislation. A Bill has been introduced following publication of the White Paper on Education in 1995.	Department of Education.	Multi-annual planning (triennial). A longer-term planning policy is proposed in the 1995 White Paper.
I	*Direttiva interministeriale* 1992 (first plan fixing ratios). 1993 law (fixing ratios at provincial level). 1994 decrees (fixing ratios).	Provincial authorities (*Provveditorati agli Studi*) in cooperation with the unions and local authorities.	Multi-annual planning.
L	1980 law (secondary level). 1993 law (laying down details of open competition for entry to teaching at nursery and primary level).	Ministry of Education (Standing Committee of experts for secondary level).	Long-term planning: five-year programmes of recruitment at secondary level.
NL	No specific legislation. Planning models established in 1990 for primary and secondary education (first results at the end of 1995).	Directorate for Working Conditions and Professional Quality in cooperation with the Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education in Ministry of Education.	Multi-annual planning (over 10 years) but with regular surveys in the schools (primary and secondary) to identify teaching staff needs.
AT	No specific legislation, but planning undertaken since 1946.	Ministry and *Landesschulräte* for teachers of the *Bund*. Governments and authorities of the *Länder* for teachers of the *Länder*.	Annually, the number of civil service posts forms part of the federal budget.
P	The most recent legislation was passed in 1988.	Ministry of Education (*Departamento de gestão de recursos educativos* and the regional education directorates).	Annual planning (non-university levels).
FI	No specific legislation but planning undertaken since 1860.	Ministry of Education assisted by Consultative Council for Planning (post-compulsory level).	Multi-annual planning — latest report of the Consultative Council goes up to the year 2000.
SE	No specific legislation, but there has been a planning model since 1960.	The municipalities are responsible for meeting teaching staff requirements. The statistical service carries out analyses for the non-university level.	The statistical service publishes annually the results of its analyses of supply and demand.
UK (E/W)	No legislation, but planning undertaken since the 1950s.	Department for Education and Employment (Teachers Branch and Analytical Services Branch) and Teacher Training Agency.	Annual planning (non-university levels).
UK (SC)	Planning model since the 1980s.	Planning Group on Teacher Supply with the General Teaching Council, the Regional Authorities and the Teacher Education Institutions.	Annual planning (non-university levels). Group meets twice a year.

MAP I1: TRADITION OF PLANNING, 1994



Source: Eurydice.

MAP I2: LEGISLATIVE BASIS FOR PLANNING,1994



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium: No planning.
France: Legislation for primary level.
Ireland: Gradual introduction of a policy of planning from 1995.
United Kingdom (NI): Data not available.

J

TEACHERS' CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

ANNUAL WORKING TIME: CONTRASTING PATTERNS

Teaching time is the time during which the teacher gives lessons. In primary education, it ranges from 570 hours in Sweden to 988 in the Netherlands. In secondary general education, it can vary by almost 100%, from 498 hours in Sweden to 950 in Scotland.

In general, teaching time varies according to the level of education — the higher the level of education, the less heavy the teaching load. In certain Member States (Belgium, France, Portugal and Finland), teaching time in upper secondary vocational education is however longer than in general education. In Germany, the number of hours of teaching also varies according to the type of school and the *Land*. Finally, teaching time is reduced towards the end of the teacher's career in Germany, Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal. In Portugal, the difference is such that, in secondary education, teachers at the end of their career teach 40% fewer hours than their younger colleagues.

Working time includes all working hours specified in the teacher's contract or conditions of service, whether these are devoted to teaching or earmarked for other tasks. As Graph J1 shows, working time varies greatly from one country to another. Thus, in primary education, it ranges from 846 hours in Ireland to 1 680 hours in Denmark. These figures do not tell us anything about the real workload of teachers but only about their working conditions as defined in the terms of their contracts.

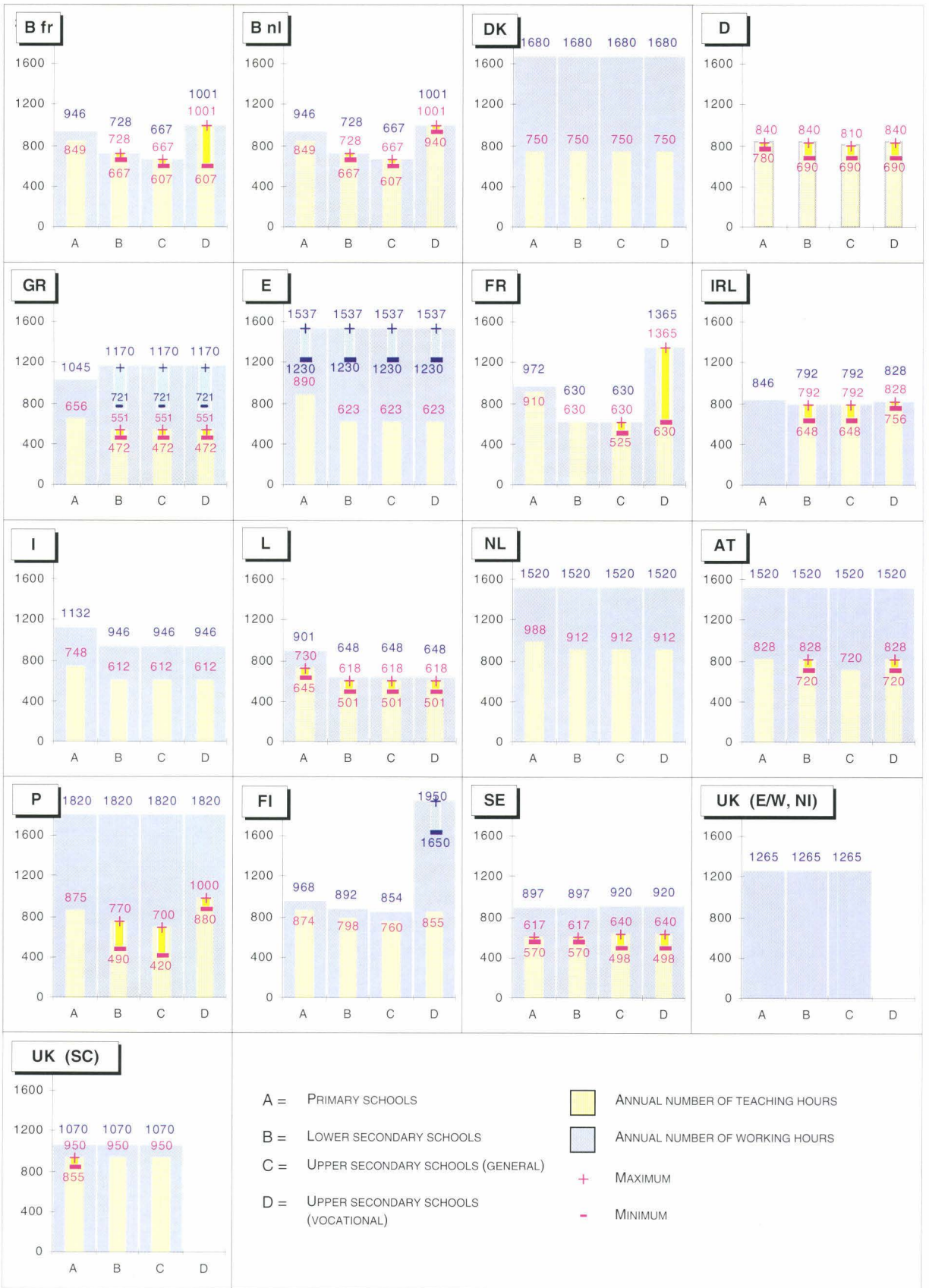
Comparison of the time allocated to teaching with total working time reveals contrasting patterns. In one group of countries, only teaching time is fixed. This is the case in Belgium, Germany, France, Ireland and Luxembourg. It is assumed that teachers will undertake other duties, but the time to be spent on them is not specified either in their contracts or in their conditions of service.

A second group of countries presents a totally different working pattern. The contract sets out in detail the breakdown of time to be spent on teaching and on other activities such as preparation of lessons and correction of pupils' work, meetings with parents, in-service training, staff meetings and discussion with pupils. These non-teaching activities are officially recognized, with some variations in the percentages of working time allocated to them — between 33 and 40% in Greece, Spain (in primary education), Italy and the Netherlands, and between 40 and 50% in Spain (in secondary education) and Austria. In Denmark and Portugal, and also in certain vocational schools in Finland, the contract is based on 52 weeks, which explains the considerable difference between working time and teaching time (see also Graph J2).

In Finland and Sweden, a certain number of hours are added to teaching time for in-service training and duties in school. In Scotland, these hours are allocated to in-service training and meetings with parents.

In England and Wales and in Northern Ireland, where working time is defined as 1 265 hours a year, the division between teaching and non-teaching duties is determined by the headteacher. In addition to these hours of 'directed time', teachers must carry out other professional duties including in particular the preparation of lessons and the writing of reports on pupils.

GRAPH J1: CONTRACTUAL WORKING TIME AND ANNUAL NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium: Teaching time is calculated on the basis of 50-minute lesson periods. Secondary education is divided into three stages (*degrés*). In the French Community, the minimum in vocational education corresponds to the working conditions of teachers of general subjects and the maximum to those of teachers of technical and practical vocational courses. In the Flemish Community, the figures shown for lower secondary education relate to teaching time in the first stage. The figures shown for upper secondary general education relate to teaching time in the third stage. In the second stage, which does not appear here, teaching time varies between 637 and 698 hours.
Denmark: A represents the first stage (years 1 to 6) and B the second stage (years 7 to 9) of the *folkeskole*.
Germany: The information given in Graph J1 refers only to the number of hours of teaching calculated on the basis of periods of 45 minutes (length of a lesson) and 40 weeks of teaching in the year. The number of hours of teaching is reduced towards the end of the teacher's career.
Greece: In secondary schools, working time and teaching time vary with seniority; both are reduced towards the end of the teacher's career.
Spain: The maximum represents working time in public sector schools while the minimum is that for private schools under contract. Figures for private schools not under contract are not included in the graph.
France: Teaching time in secondary schools varies depending on whether the teacher holds the CAPES (18 hours a week) or the *agrégation* (15 hours a week). In vocational education, teaching time varies depending on whether the teacher gives theoretical courses (18 hours a week) or practical courses (23 hours a week) or is head of a technical department (39 hours a week).
Luxembourg: Teaching time is defined in 50 and 55-minute periods in primary schools and 50-minute periods in secondary. It depends on the teacher's seniority, teachers giving fewer lessons towards the end of their career. At primary level, it also varies depending on the number of 50 and 55-minute lessons given by the teacher. (Pupils' lesson time is 18 periods of 55 minutes plus 12 periods of 50 minutes.) Consequently, if both the seniority of the teacher and the division into 50 and 55-minute periods are taken into account, a primary teacher may have a weekly minimum of 22 periods, 12 of 50 minutes and 10 of 55 minutes, and a maximum of 24 periods, 18 of 55 minutes and 6 of 50 minutes.
Netherlands: Teaching time is estimated at 65% of working time in the primary sector and at 60% in the secondary.
Austria: Teaching is divided into periods of 50 minutes with a break of 5 to 20 minutes between them during which the teacher supervises the pupils, prepares lessons, or discusses school problems with the pupils. Teaching time at secondary level varies from school to school. In lower secondary it is: *Hauptschule* 828 hours, *Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule* 720 hours. In upper secondary vocational education it is: *Berufsschule,* 828 hours, *Berufsbildende mittlere und höhere Schulen* 720 hours.
Portugal: A represents the first stage and B the second and third stages of *Ensino básico*. In the second and third stages of 'basic education' and in upper secondary general education, teaching time varies with seniority, fewer lessons being given towards the end of the teacher's career. At these levels of education, each hour is divided into 50 minutes of teaching time and 10 minutes of break.
Finland: A represents the first stage (years 1 to 6) and B the second stage (years 7 to 9) of the *peruskoulu/grundskola*. Each hour is divided into 45 minutes' teaching and 15 minutes' break.
Sweden: A represents the first stage (years 1 to 6) and B the second stage (years 7 to 9) of the *grundskola*.
United Kingdom: There is no separate technical secondary school sector. In England and Wales and in Northern Ireland, a teacher's contractual obligations are not expressed in terms of teaching and non-teaching duties. Teachers are required to be available to carry out teaching or non-teaching duties under the direction of the headteacher for a maximum of 1 265 hours a year. In addition to these hours of 'directed time', teachers must carry out other professional duties, including, in particular, the preparation of lessons, teaching materials and teaching programmes, the marking of pupils' work and the writing of reports on pupils.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

Teaching time *is expressed in hours. In some Member States, it is calculated on the basis of lessons of less than an hour's duration (usually 50 minutes). In other Member States, the teaching hour explicitly includes a break of some minutes, in which case the exact lesson time is indicated in a note.*
Teaching time is calculated on the basis of the theoretical number of weeks of teaching in the year (the number of school days divided by the number of days in the week) multiplied by the number of hours in the week.
Working time *is calculated either on an annual basis or on the basis of the number of working weeks in the year multiplied by the number of working hours in the week. The detail of the calculation appears in the Annex.*

NUMBER OF WORKING WEEKS SOMETIMES MORE FOR TEACHERS THAN FOR PUPILS

The number of working weeks defined in teachers' contracts or conditions of service ranges from 36 to 52 weeks a year, depending on the country, while the number of teaching weeks varies between 35 and 40.

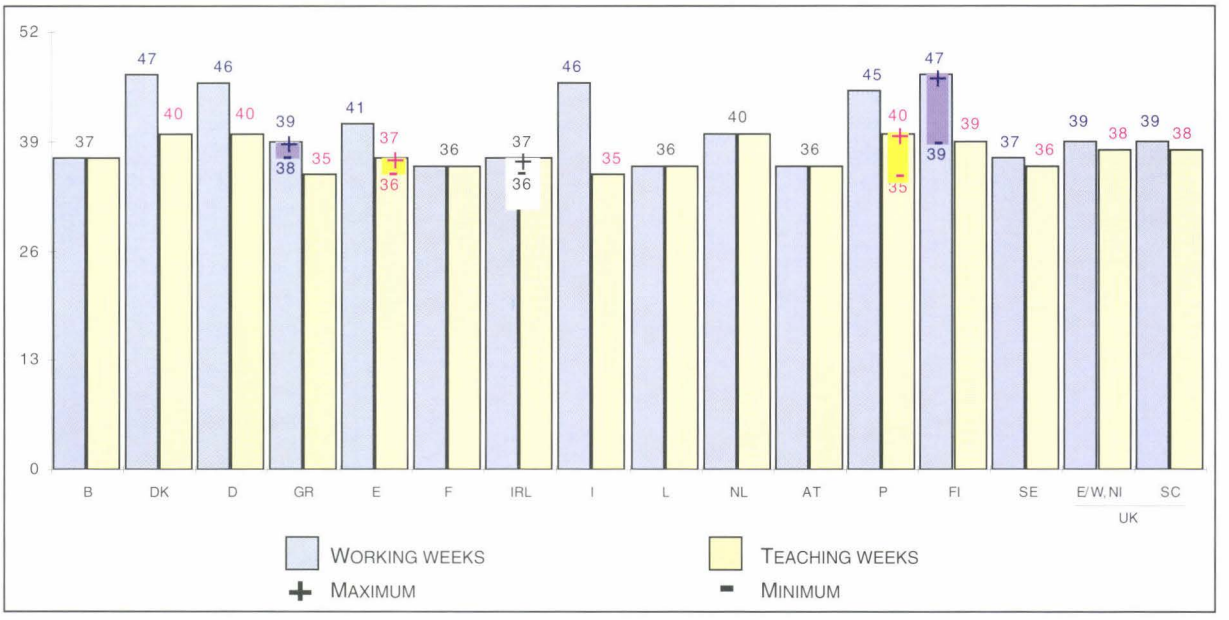
The annual number of working weeks for teachers is not always the same as the school year. Several Member States earmark non-teaching working weeks for in-service training or for planning teaching — Germany, Denmark, Greece, Spain, Italy, Portugal, Finland in vocational education, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

Within any given Member State, the number of working weeks is identical, whatever the level of education, except in Greece and in Finland. In Spain, primary teachers have one week more of teaching than secondary teachers, but the working year is the same at both levels.

There is a particularly wide disparity between teachers' contract time and pupils' lesson time in Denmark, Germany and Portugal and in certain vocational schools in Finland, where the annual workload is contractually defined on the basis of the normal 52-week year, which of course includes the five or six weeks of annual holidays which have to be taken during the school holidays. It is proposed to introduce this pattern in the education system in the Netherlands; the number of working hours will be aligned with the annual working hours of national civil servants.

For those Member States in which contracts are based on the calendar year, Graph J2 shows the net number of working weeks, excluding annual holidays.

GRAPH J2: CONTRACTUAL WORKING WEEKS AND TEACHING WEEKS IN THE YEAR (ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION COMBINED), 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Denmark: Teachers work 52 weeks a year, less 5 weeks of annual holidays.
Germany: Teachers have a 52-week working year, inclusive of holidays. They are obliged to take their holidays (6 weeks on the average) during the periods of the school holidays (12 weeks). The remainder of the time (about 6 weeks), they must be available for planning teaching activities and preparing lessons.
Greece: The number of working weeks varies according to the level of education — 38 in primary and 39 in secondary.
Spain: The number of teaching weeks varies according to the level of education — 36 in primary and 35 in secondary — but the number of working weeks defined in teachers' contracts is the same for all teachers. The additional working weeks are used for timetabling, preparation of course work, staff meetings, meetings with parents, correcting pupils' work, marking of examinations etc.
Italy: The 12 weeks allocated to other non-teaching duties include the examination weeks.
Austria: During the school holidays, teachers are in principle not obliged to teach. On rare occasions, the headteacher may require them to be available in school. Teachers are obliged to take in-service training courses, in particular during the school holidays.
Portugal: The terms of the contract in state education require teachers to work 52 weeks a year, inclusive of public and school holidays. There are 45 **working** weeks, apart from public and school holidays. The 40 weeks of **teaching** apply only to vocational education.
Finland: Certain vocational schools define the annual workload on the basis of a normal pattern of full-time work. Teachers there work for 52 weeks a year, less 5 weeks' holidays.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

*The annual number of **working weeks** is indicated as it appears in the contract. It may include public holidays. The annual number of **teaching weeks** is the same as the school year. In the graph, fractions have been rounded up to the next whole number.*

TIME FOR NON-TEACHING DUTIES RARELY SPECIFIED

The extent of activities such as meetings with parents, staff meetings and in-service training is generally recognized. In addition to the time teachers devote to teaching, they are expected to carry out duties which help to forge home/school links, to promote the *esprit de corps* of the teaching team, and to improve the quality of teaching.

Nonetheless, the time to be spent on these varied duties is rarely specified. In the majority of countries, the number of hours to be allocated to training activities or meetings with parents is neither fixed nor imposed. These activities, like many others — staff meetings, absence cover etc. — are organised at local level.

In several Member States, the contract stipulates a number of hours during which the teacher must obligatorily be available in school to carry out various tasks. In Greece and France, in primary education, it is one hour a week. In Finland, it is two hours. In other Member States, the number of hours of obligatory availability is greater — five hours in Sweden, and five hours in Spain in primary education, and 12 hours in secondary education. In Spain, teachers may use this time for their own work — preparation of lessons or correcting pupils' work. In the United Kingdom, teachers are required to remain in school throughout opening hours (except the lunch break) in both primary and secondary education.

In two countries, Luxembourg and Scotland, the number of hours to be allocated to meetings with parents is specified in relation to primary education. There is no such provision at secondary level, except in Scotland. In Belgium and Luxembourg, timetable provision is made for the supervision of pupils both before and after classes.

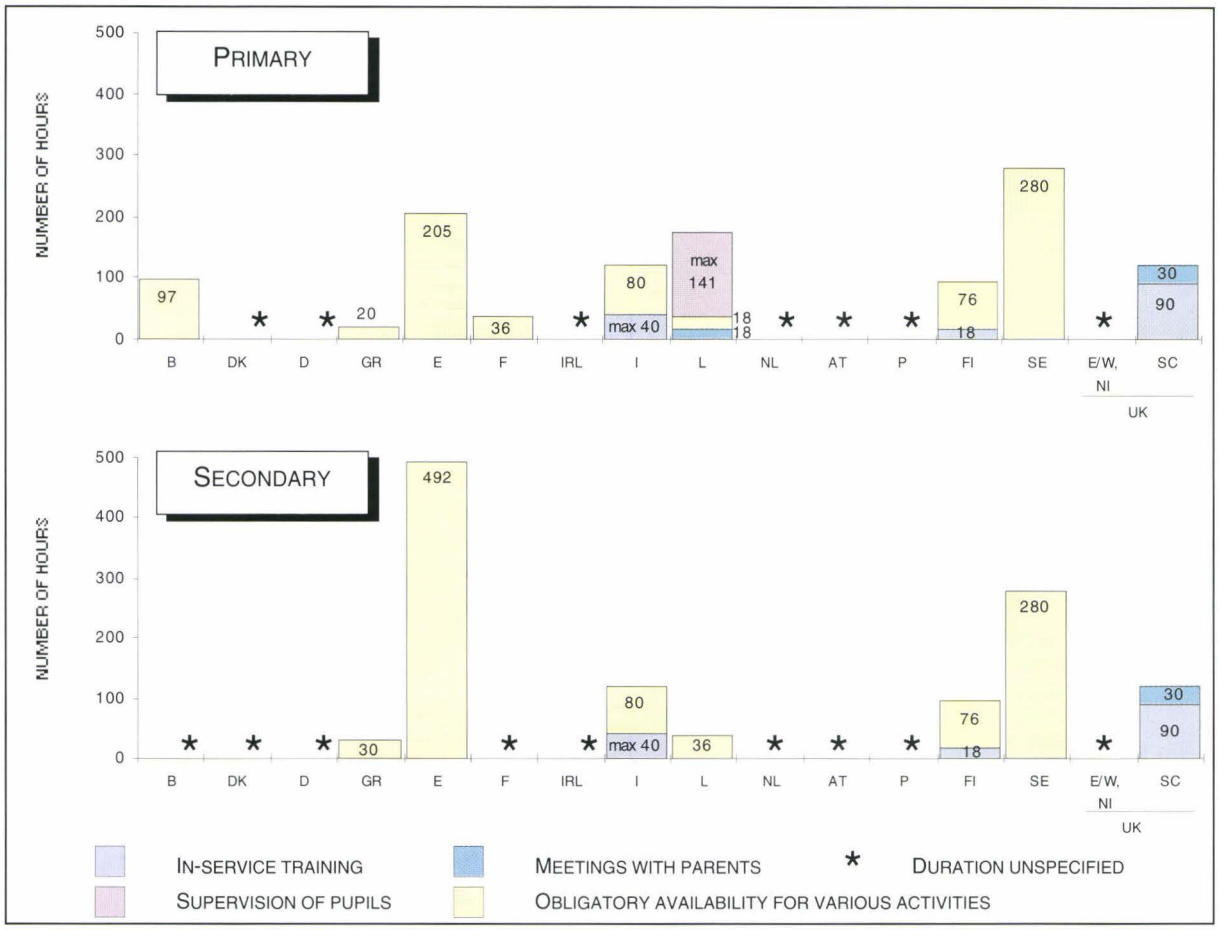
The service expected from teachers in terms of time is thus far from finding precise expression on the face of their contracts. The disparity between the 'moral' obligation and the absence of precision regarding the time involved is particularly noticeable in relation to in-service training. In fact, all Member States offer in-service training courses and thus respect the principle of the right to training. On the other hand, very few of them have made it obligatory. Amongst those which have, Scotland has a very complete formula, with 50 hours of training during the school year plus five days outside the school year, which taken together means that about 10% of working time is devoted to in-service training. In Finland, three days a year are allocated to in-service training. In Sweden, teachers have about five days. In Greece, the preliminary training intended for new teachers is extended by in-service training in which teachers are obliged to take part every five or six years (i.e. three or four times in the course of a career). In the other Member States, training is generally on a voluntary basis, with some exceptions in the case of individual promotion or reforms requiring specific training. Italy lays down a maximum number of hours and maintains the principle of optional training.

TABLE J1: PROVISION OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

COURSES ONLY OPTIONAL		COURSES OPTIONAL AND OBLIGATORY	COURSES OPTIONAL AND OBLIGATORY IN CERTAIN SPECIFIC CASES
Belgium	Denmark	Finland	*– for individual promotion:*
Germany	Italy	Sweden	Spain and Portugal
Ireland	Luxembourg	Scotland	*– specific initiative of inspectors or for reforms:*
Netherlands	England	Greece	France and Austria

Source: Eurydice 1995.

GRAPH J3: ANNUAL HOURS OF OBLIGATORY NON-TEACHING DUTIES, 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium (B fr): In-service training is arranged within teaching time for a total of up to 10 days.
Germany: In principle, teachers are expected to undertake in-service training but they are not obliged to take any particular course.
Greece: The hours of obligatory availability are used for staff meetings, meetings with parents and in-service training.
Spain: The hours of obligatory availability are used for preparation of lessons, correction of pupils' work, staff meetings, meetings with parents and in-service training.
France: In primary education, the hours of obligatory availability are used for team work, cooperation, and individual work with pupils (one hour a week).
Ireland: In-service training is arranged within teaching time. Teachers may only leave their classes for a maximum of five days.
Italy: The hours of obligatory presence are used for staff meetings, meetings with parents, and programming activities.
Luxembourg: In primary education, the contract provides for periods of pupil supervision before and after classes. The amount of supervision depends on the way the school is organized (minimum four hours/week = 141 hours/year).
Austria: The number of hours of obligatory service is not fixed but this service is a statutory obligation.
Portugal: The allocation to individual activities of the time available and the work to be done in school are not defined in state education. Teachers manage their time according to need. In private education, teachers have three hours a week of obligatory availability at the primary level and they devote four hours a month to staff meetings at secondary level.
Finland: Teachers have three days a year of obligatory in-service training (18 hours a year). They spend two hours a week (76 hours a year) on staff meetings, meetings with parents, and planning and development work.
Sweden: Teachers have to undertake 13 days a year of in-service training activities or planning in addition to five hours a week of obligatory presence at school.
United Kingdom: For England and Wales, see note to Graph J1. In Scotland, the teacher's year is one week longer than that of the pupils (five days = approximately 40 hours a year), for in-service training. In addition, 50 hours a year are allocated to other in-service training activities during the school year.

STUDY OF THE MOVEMENT OF TEACHERS' SALARIES: NOTES ON THE APPROACH USED

A study of the **movement of salaries** in the various Member States of the European Union is only meaningful when taken together with the movement of other indicators. In fact, although teachers' salaries have increased gradually but systematically between 1965 and 1993 (see Annex), this increase does not tell us anything about either changes in teachers' purchasing power or their financial situation in relation to the average standard of living of the population in their country. It is for this reason that two indicators have been chosen.

The first is **inflation**. Taken together with changes in salaries, this provides an index of the fluctuations in teachers' purchasing power over some 30 years. This index is calculated for each of the years under consideration by dividing the percentage salary increase, starting from a base year, by the inflation index for the period in question.

The second indicator is the **per capita gross domestic product (GDP)**. This provides an index of the standard of living of the population of a country. It is calculated by dividing the GDP, which reflects the wealth of a country, by the total number of inhabitants of that country. By systematically establishing the ratio of the salary of a teacher (in national currency) to the per capita GDP of the country (at current prices in national currency), it is possible to make comparisons both within individual countries and also between countries. Examination of the variations in this ratio over a period of time makes it possible to see the movement which has taken place in teachers' salaries.

The data on the basis of which inflation and per capita GDP have been calculated appear in the Annex.

CHANGES IN PURCHASING POWER: A SLIGHT TREND TOWARDS RECOVERY

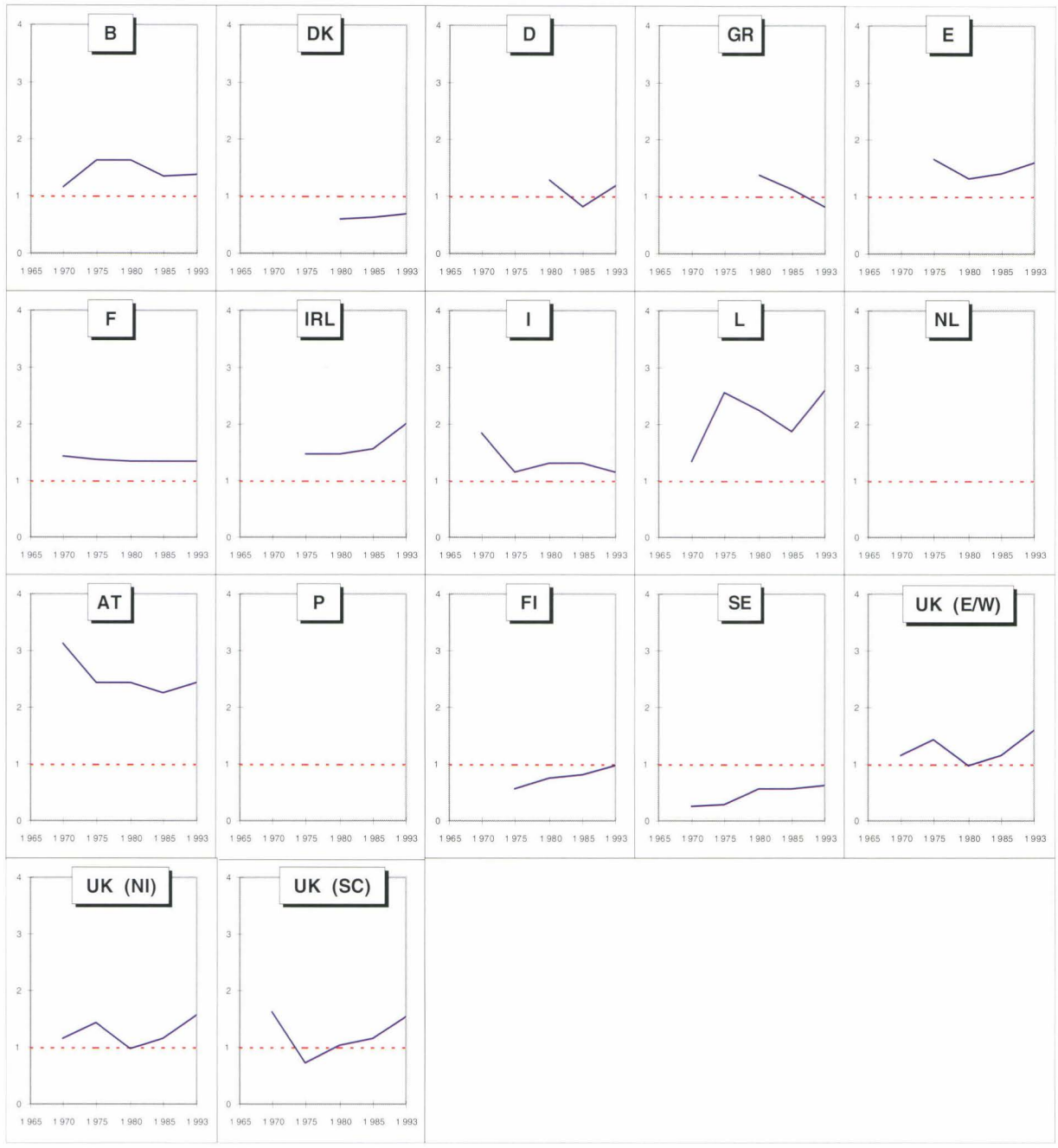
Graph J4 provides an indication of the movement in teachers' purchasing power. In three Member States, Denmark, Finland and Sweden, the rates of salary increase are still below the inflation rates, although the gap is tending to narrow. The purchasing power of teachers has fallen in Greece since 1980 and in Italy since 1985. It has been stable in Belgium since 1985 and in France since 1975. **The general trend however is towards a slight increase in purchasing power**, as has been observed in Finland and Scotland since 1975, in Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom (except Scotland) since 1980 and in Germany, Luxembourg and Austria since 1985. In 1993, the rates of salary increase were two to two-and-a-half times the inflation rate in Ireland, Luxembourg and Austria.

A degree of caution is nonetheless required in interpreting these figures. In fact, the changes in purchasing power shown here are based only on gross salaries, and do not take account of the effect of taxes and other deductions.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

Gross annual salary *is defined as the amount paid by the employer in a year, including all bonuses, increases and allowances such as that towards the cost of living, the 13th month (where 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 additional functions, additional qualifications or specific 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 a teacher with the above profile who is starting teaching, having completed education, training and probation.*
Maximum salary *is the salary received by a teacher with the above profile at the end of the career, i.e. in the last year before retirement.*
Average salary *is the average of the minimum and maximum salaries.*

GRAPH J4: MOVEMENT OF AVERAGE SALARIES (ALL LEVELS OF SCHOOLS) IN RELATION TO INFLATION



Source: see Annex.

Netherlands and **Portugal**: Data not available.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

Figures are arrived at by establishing, for each year, the ratio of the percentage increase in average salaries starting from a base year, to the rate of inflation over the period concerned. The unbroken line shows the movement of this ratio.

The value shown for the inflation rate is the percentage increase in the general cost of living index (see Annex) between the base year and the year under consideration.

Depending on the data available, the base years are 1975 for Denmark, Germany and Greece, 1970 for Spain, Ireland and Finland, and 1965 for the other Member States.

MOVEMENT OF SALARIES IN RELATION TO AVERAGE PER CAPITA WEALTH IN EACH MEMBER STATE

A DOWNWARD TREND AND A CLOSING OF THE GAP BETWEEN MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM SALARIES

The movement in teachers' salaries since 1965, calculated with reference to the ratio of maximum and minimum salaries to per capita GDP, is shown in Graph J5. The general direction of the curves is downwards, with some upturn since 1980 in the United Kingdom and since 1985 in Finland. It therefore appears that **the relative position of teachers in relation to average per capita wealth in their country has weakened** over 30 years, in those countries for which data are available, although their salaries have increased consistently over this period.

There is generally a more marked fall in relation to maximum than to minimum salaries which, together with the general fall, indicates a gradual but more or less systematic narrowing of the gap between salaries at the beginning and end of the teaching career. Only Ireland, Luxembourg and Sweden have maintained or significantly increased this gap. Italy is a perfect illustration of this double phenomenon which appears to a lesser degree in most of the other Member States of the European Union.

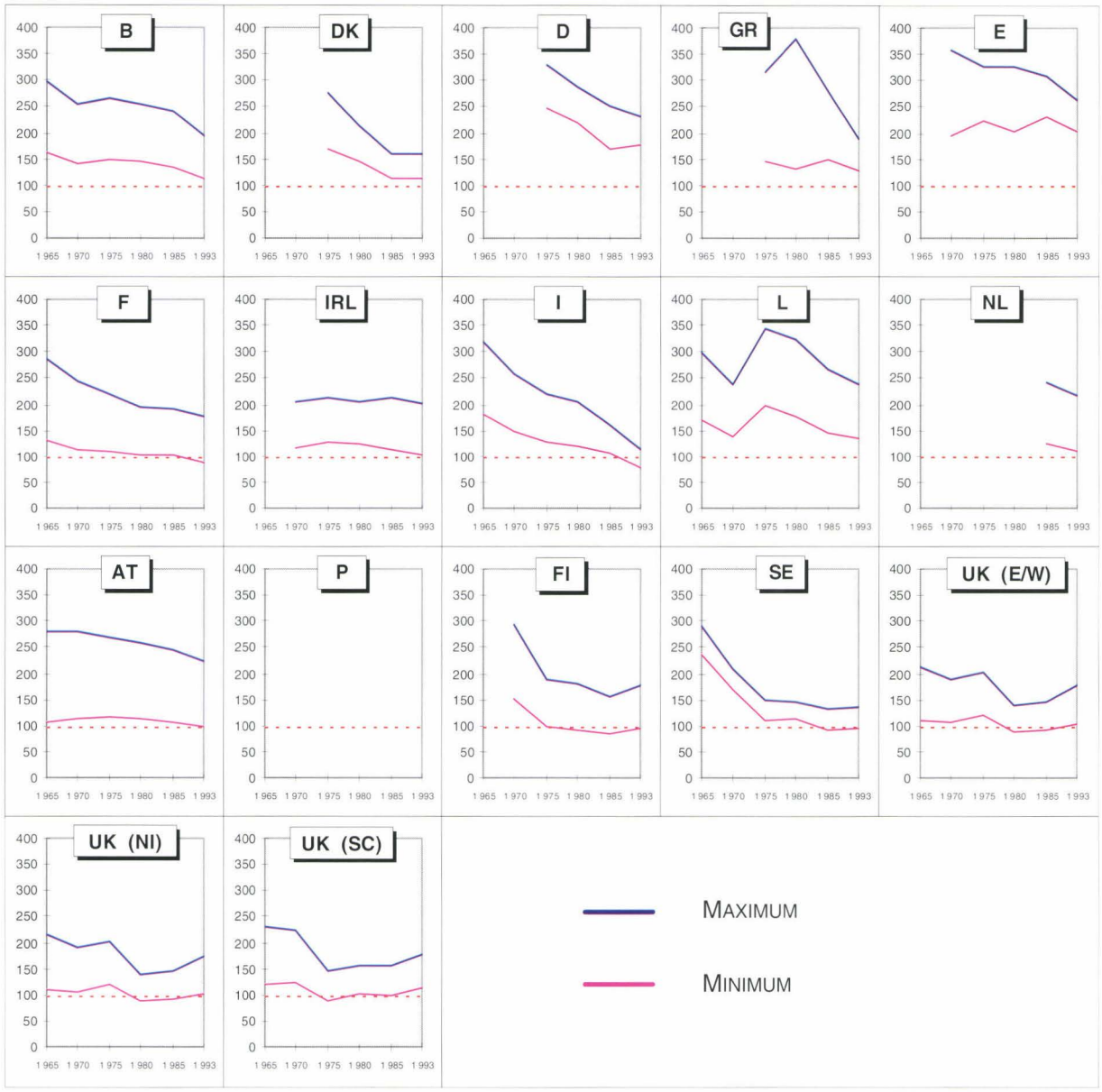
It thus appears that, in the majority of Member States, the policies followed in relation to salary increases have improved starting salaries to the detriment of those at the end of the teaching career. This policy is doubly advantageous to governments in that on the one hand it makes entry to the profession more attractive while on the other it lightens the pension burden.

NARROWING OF THE DIFFERENTIALS BETWEEN LEVELS OF EDUCATION

Graph J6 shows the movement of the salaries of teachers in different levels of education in terms of the ratio of the average salary to the per capita GDP. It appears that the fall in the ratio salary:per capita GDP looked at over some 30 years has affected teachers at all levels. The downward trend is, however, generally more pronounced at secondary than at primary level. In fact, the salary differentials between different levels of teaching are tending to be eroded in most Member States of the European Union. **Whereas in 1965 a considerable difference was found fairly generally between primary and secondary teachers' remuneration, in 1993 this difference was much less (**Belgium, Spain and Austria**) or tending to disappear** (Greece, France, Italy, Finland, Sweden and Scotland). On this point, primary and secondary teachers have been consistently paid on the same basis since 1968 in Ireland and since 1945 in the United Kingdom (except in Scotland).

For two decades at least, five Member States (France, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland and Sweden) had separate scales of remuneration for upper secondary vocational school teachers. In all these countries, the same hierarchy of salaries prevailed, in ascending order — primary, upper secondary vocational, lower secondary and upper secondary general, with the exception of Luxembourg, where the salaries of teachers in upper secondary vocational education tended to be much higher than all the others. In 1993, Austria alone still retained a separate salary scale for teachers in upper secondary vocational education.

GRAPH J5: MOVEMENT OF MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM SALARIES (ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION COMBINED) RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP, 1965-93



Source: see Annex.

Belgium: In 1989, teachers' salaries, which had hitherto been a national responsibility, became a 'Community' responsibility. Consequently, the salaries for 1993 are the average of the 'Community' salaries. Graph J7 shows the ratio of salary to per capita GDP by 'Community' for 1992/93.

Germany: The salaries covered here are those in the old *Länder*. The gross salaries of teachers (government civil servants practising in state schools) were not harmonized across all the *Länder* until 1971.

Netherlands: Until 1985, the system of remuneration of teachers was age-related and included a considerable number of salary scales depending on the qualification held.

Portugal: Data not available.

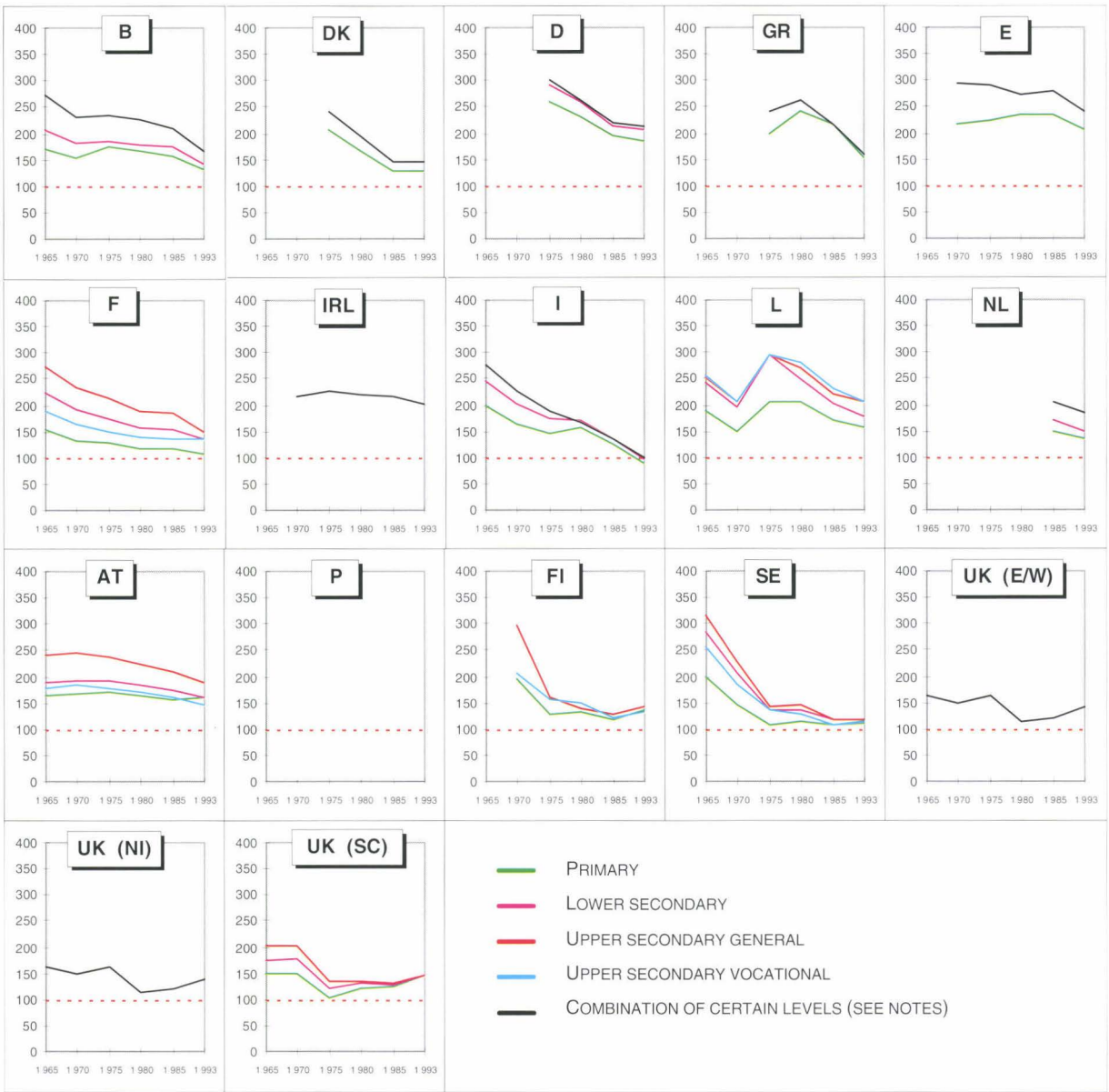
United Kingdom: A considerable number of teachers have specific responsibilities and therefore receive higher salaries than those shown here.

United Kingdom (E/W): These salaries are exclusive of London allowances, the amount of which varies according to the area (Inner London, Outer London and London Fringe).

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The figures used in Graphs J5, J6 and J7 are arrived at by calculating the ratio of the gross annual salary in national currency to the per capita GDP (at current prices and in national currency). In the interest of legibility, this ratio is multiplied by 100 in these graphs. The 100 line provides a base equal to the amount below which a salary is below the per capita GDP of the Member State.

GRAPH J6: MOVEMENT OF AVERAGE SALARIES BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN RELATION TO PER CAPITA GDP, 1965-93



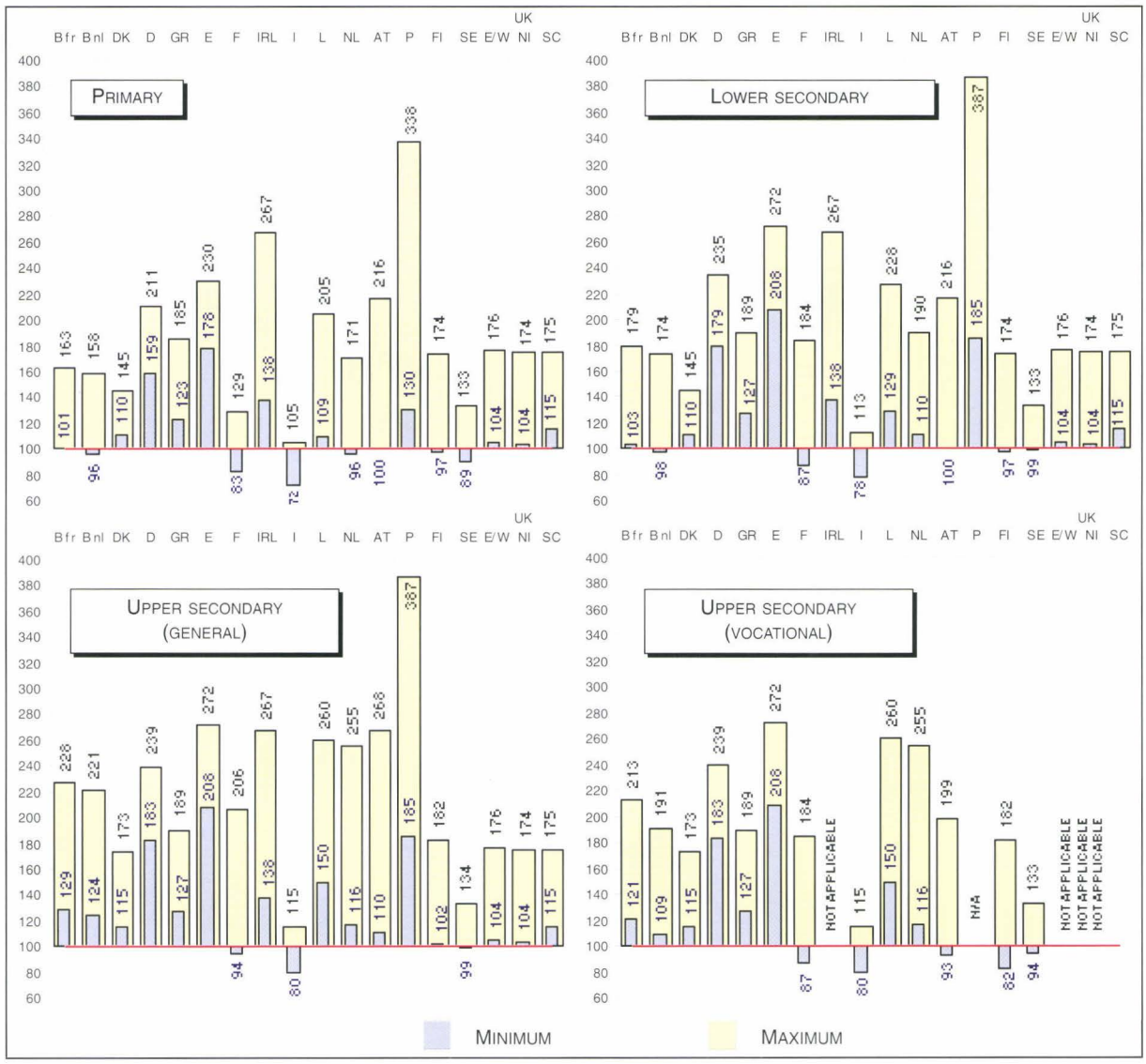
Source: see Annex.

The black curve indicates those cases in which teachers at different school levels receive the same basic salary. The notes below explain for each Member State concerned which school levels are taken together.

Belgium: (a) Upper secondary general and vocational; (b) see note on Graph J5.
Denmark: (a) Upper secondary general and vocational; (b) primary and lower secondary constitute one level of education.
Germany: (a) Upper secondary general and vocational; (b) see note on Graph J5.
Greece: Lower secondary and upper secondary general and vocational.
Spain: (a) Lower secondary and upper secondary general and vocational; (b) certain secondary teachers attain the position of *Catedráticos* and they receive a higher salary than that indicated here.
France: The salary indicated for primary teachers in 1993 is that of the *instituteurs*, who form the majority. However, since 1992, teachers recruited to primary teaching have been designated *professeurs des écoles* and they receive a higher salary than the *instituteurs*.
Ireland: (a) Primary, lower secondary and upper secondary general; (b) there is no separate vocational secondary sector.
Italy: Upper secondary general and vocational.
Netherlands: Upper secondary general and vocational.
Austria: Salaries in upper secondary vocational education are equivalent to the average of the maximum and minimum points for this level of education in which there are several scales in force.
Portugal: Data not available.
Finland: Primary and lower secondary constitute one level of education.
United Kingdom: (a)There is no separate technical secondary sector; (b) see note on Graph J5.
United Kingdom (E/W and **NI)**: (a) Primary, lower secondary and upper secondary general; (b) see note on Graph J5.

A RECENT SNAPSHOT BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

GRAPH J7: SALARY MAXIMA AND MINIMA RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP, 1992/93



Source: see Annex.

Belgium (B fr): The salaries given for upper secondary vocational education are those of teachers of general subjects.
Belgium (B nl): Salaries shown for upper secondary vocational education are the average of the salaries of the three categories of teachers at this level, which are defined in terms of type of training and qualification.
France: See note on Graph J6.
Ireland: There is no separate secondary technical sector.
Portugal: No data available for upper secondary vocational education.
United Kingdom: (a): There is no separate secondary technical sector; (b) see note on Graph J5.
United Kingdom (E/W and **NI)**: See note on Graph J5.

In four Member States of the European Union (France, Italy, Finland and Sweden) at all levels of education (except upper secondary general in the case of Finland), teachers at the start of their career receive a salary which is below their country's per capita GDP. On the other hand, the minimum is consistently almost twice the per capita GDP in Germany and Spain. The same is the case in Portugal, but only in lower secondary and upper secondary general education. Finally, the ratio of end-of-career salary to per capita GDP is highest in Spain, Ireland and particularly in Portugal.

REACHING THE TOP OF THE SALARY SCALE: AFTER A CAREER OF BETWEEN 8 AND 40 YEARS DEPENDING ON THE MEMBER STATE

The **number of years required to reach the top of the salary scale from the starting salary** varies greatly from one Member State to another. Progress up the scale is slowest in Spain, Italy and Austria (40 years) and it is quickest in the United Kingdom (8 or 9 years).

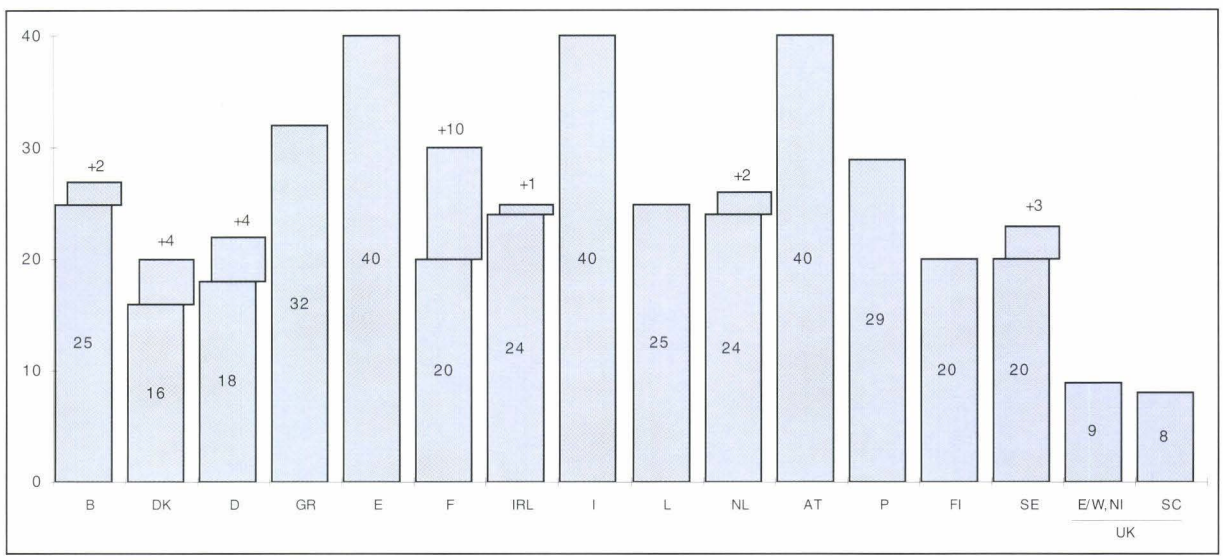
Generally speaking, within a given Member State, the number of years does not vary, or varies only slightly, according to the level of education (Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Netherlands and Sweden).

Finally, the period of time needed to reach the top of the salary scale has remained relatively stable since 1965 in most countries. Indeed, it has not changed at all in Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria. It has fallen most in Scotland over the 30 years, coming down from 15 to 8 years, while it has risen most in Finland, going up from 15 to 20 years.

In Germany, the teachers' salary scale has 14 points. The teacher does not, however, start at point 1 or 2 but is appointed directly to point 3, 4 or 5, the training period (education and preparatory service) being taken into account, as is national service in the case of men. As increments are biennial, teachers reach their scale maximum 18 to 22 years after appointment.

In France, a teacher's career advancement depends on both the number of years worked and also the marks received in the inspectors' reports. Thus, as a rule, a teacher whose teaching skills are recognized by the inspector can reach the top of the professional salary scale up to 10 years earlier than by progressing up the scale on the basis of length of service alone (i.e. in 20 years instead of 30).

GRAPH J8: NUMBER OF YEARS REQUIRED TO REACH MAXIMUM SALARY, 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The off-set blocks indicate differences depending on the level of education, except in respect of Germany and France mentioned above. Annexed is a detailed table showing the movement by year and by level of education.

POINT OF RETIREMENT: MORE THAN 30 YEARS OF DIFFERENCE POSSIBLE

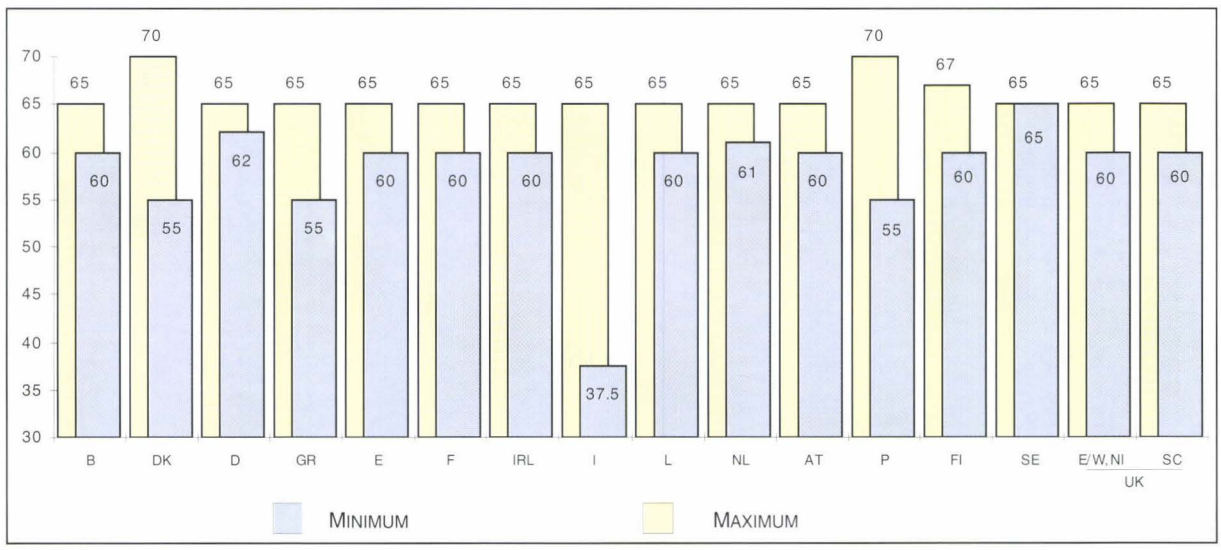
In most Member States, retirement age is independent of the level of education in which the teacher has been teaching (except in France, Ireland, Portugal and Finland). Graph J9 therefore does not make any distinction between levels of education.

Although the upper age limit for compulsory retirement is set at 65 years in the great majority of Member States (12 out of 15), the situation is more diversified in relation to the minimum age for voluntary retirement. Eight countries have however a common minimum age of 60 years — Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland and the United Kingdom.

Three countries (Denmark, Italy and Portugal) have a wide gap between the minimum and maximum retirement ages. In the case of Italy, this gap is due to the fact that it used to be possible to retire from the age of 37½, this age having been raised to 43 in 1995. In the case of Portugal, the gap is the result of two factors — primary teachers being able to retire from the age of 55 and the upper age limit for secondary school teachers being 70.

It should also be mentioned that only Sweden has one single retirement age, at age 65.

GRAPH J9: RETIREMENT AGE, 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Greece: Teachers who do not yet have 35 years of service can remain in post until the age of 67.
France: (a) Primary teachers designated *instituteurs* (i.e. who do not belong to the new body of *professeurs des écoles*) may retire from the age of 55; (b) primary teachers recruited since 1992 are automatically classed as *professeurs des écoles* and they, like all secondary teachers, will not retire until age 60.
Ireland: (a) Primary teachers may retire from the age of 55 if they have completed 35 years of service; (b) teachers retire obligatorily with effect from 31 August following their 65th birthday, with the exception of those born in July or August and who have been teaching since before 1 July 1979, who may if they wish continue to teach for a further year.
Italy: To be able to retire at the age of 37½, a teacher had to have contributed to the social security scheme for at least 19 years, 6 months and one day; this minimum period of contributions was increased to 25 years in 1995, bringing the minimum retirement age to 43.
Portugal: (a) The upper age for retirement is 65 in primary education and 70 in secondary education; (b) primary teachers may retire from the age of 52 if they have completed 32 years of service, but such cases are rare.
Finland: The minimum age for voluntary retirement is 60 for primary and lower secondary teachers compared to 63 for those in upper secondary education. On the other hand, there is a common upper age limit of 67 at which all teachers must retire.
United Kingdom (SC): Teachers who retire or leave teaching before age 60 do not receive their pension until that age, whatever their length of service.

PENSION ON RETIREMENT: BETWEEN 50 AND 100% OF SALARY

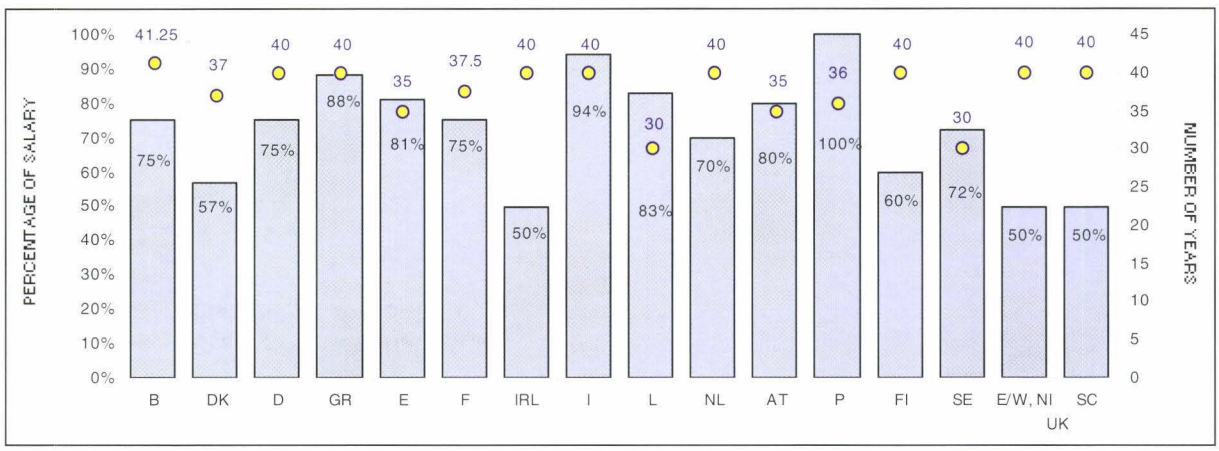
In all Member States of the European Union, except Spain, the percentage of salary received on retirement is independent of the level at which the teacher has taught. The same is true of the **minimum number of years of teaching required to receive the maximum percentage of salary on retirement**, with the exception this time of France and Portugal. Graph J10 therefore does not distinguish between levels of education.

On average, **the maximum proportion of salary received on retirement** is 74%, but the differences between countries are quite considerable. This percentage actually varies by 100%, going from 50% in Ireland and the United Kingdom to 100% in Portugal. In considering the significance of this difference, regard must be had to a peculiarity of the Irish and British systems in that on retirement a teacher also receives a lump sum equal to 3/80ths of the best of the last three years' salaries for every complete year of service.

Two conditions must be fulfilled to qualify for the maximum pension on retirement — to have reached minimum retirement age and to have taught for a minimum period. This minimum period can vary from 30 years in Luxembourg and Sweden to 41¼ years in Belgium. Seven Member States all have 40 years as the minimum — Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Finland and the United Kingdom. Seven others have a minimum period of less than 40 years.

Graph J10 shows that it is necessary to teach for only 30 years in Luxembourg to be entitled to a pension of 83% of salary or for 36 years in Portugal to qualify for 100% of salary, while 40 years' service is required in Ireland and the United Kingdom to receive 50% of salary.

GRAPH J10: MAXIMUM PERCENTAGE OF SALARY RECEIVED ON RETIREMENT AND MINIMUM QUALIFYING PERIOD (IN YEARS), 1992/93



Source: Eurydice.

Belgium: Years of higher education and military service count towards length of service.
Germany: The 40 years of service include part of the period of initial training.
Spain: The maximum percentage of salary received by way of pension varies according to both the level of education (primary, 84.6%; secondary, 81%) and, within secondary education, whether the teacher reached the position of *Catedráticos* (in which case, 62.5%). This arises from the fact that salaries include a considerable element of bonuses which do not count for pension purposes.
Italy: The 40 years required can include the years of university study (for example, a maximum of four years for a secondary teacher).
Austria: The maximum pension (i.e. 80% of the maximum salary for a given level of education) can however only be reached after 40 years of service (see Graph J8).
Portugal: Primary teachers can reach the maximum percentage of their salary from the age of 52 if they have been in teaching for 32 years or from the age of 55 after a minimum of 30 years' service.
Finland: Teachers born before 1940 require only 30 years' service to qualify on retirement for the maximum percentage of their salary (i.e. 66%).

KEYS TO READING:

THE NEED TO CORRELATE

THE PARAMETERS EXAMINED

A variety of aspects of the teaching profession are dealt with in the course of this dossier. The career pattern is examined from initial training to retirement, and the main characteristics of the teaching population — such as age groups and the degree of feminization — are described. However, the parameters presented are dealt with in isolation. In practice, each graph illustrates the way in which the various Member States of the European Union appear in relation to a given criterion, but no single table or graph on its own gives a complete picture of the situation. It is therefore important for readers to exercise caution in any interpretation they may be tempted to place on any of the information presented in this dossier.

To go into a more detailed comparison of the various indicators presented and suggest a certain number of hypotheses, each indicator should be correlated with the others. It is essential to mention the importance of obtaining clarity on all aspects of the profession by taking into account the conditions of entry to training, the duration of training, teachers' duties, numbers of pupils and working time, status and security of employment, salary scales, conditions of retirement and so on.

In general, two aspects of this situation may be taken together — on the one hand, what is offered to teachers, in terms of in-service training, salary, pension, etc. and, on the other hand, what is expected of them in terms of working time, responsibility, numbers of pupils to be coped with etc.

The analyses carried out do not in any way claim to be exhaustive and certain information essential to a clear snapshot of the situation is missing. It is in particular to be regretted that the analysis of the movement of salaries is based only on gross salaries, without taking account of income and other taxes or of the social benefits available in each Member State. The trends illustrated must therefore be qualified.

Nor do the time series always permit comparison between Member States. They do however make it possible to refine our understanding of the movements and observe how, within a given country, changes in one area are linked to others. For example, the retirement age of primary school teachers in France has recently been raised from 55 to 60 years. This extension of the working life is in fact accompanied by other more far-reaching changes, including the provision of initial training in the *Instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres* and a revaluation of salaries.

Similarly, analysis of the movement in salaries demonstrates that, fairly generally in Europe, the differences between primary and secondary teachers' salaries are becoming less marked. This observation must be taken together with the ever increasing demands being made on primary teachers as regards their level of training.

Moreover, the curves illustrating the movement of salaries also indicate that, in many cases, the differentials between the minimum and maximum points of the scales are diminishing. It appears that the efforts made in recent years in relation to salary increases have affected more particularly the early years of the teaching career. At the same time, the statistics on the movement of the age bands of the teaching population reveal a general trend towards an ageing of the profession, and the numbers of teachers at the end of their career are consequently continuing to increase. It is therefore clear that the direct economic impact of these measures on national budgets is less than if their effect had been on salary maxima. Moreover, in the short and medium term, they will place less of a burden on pensions. On this point, attention should be drawn to the case of Sweden. Although this Member State has the highest proportion of teachers over 50 years old in the European Union (almost half of its teaching body), the measures introduced for increasing salaries have not systematically favoured the minima.

The changes introduced in relation to status are tending in certain Member States to bring teachers' terms and conditions of employment closer to those of other workers. Thus, until quite recently, the United Kingdom was remarkable for the fact that its teachers, even in the public sector, do not have civil servant status. Today, Denmark has also introduced contract status for teachers in the *folkeskole,* teachers in the new *Länder* in Germany also have this status, and in Belgium, the number of temporary teachers — i.e. those not given permanent established appointments — is progressively increasing.

Analyses of teachers' contractual working time have enabled three main patterns to be distinguished:

- in which duties outside teaching hours are or are not included in teachers' working time;
- in which reference is to the calendar year or the school year as the basis for calculating the number of working weeks;
- in which duties to be undertaken in school, and the number of hours to be devoted to them outside teaching time, are precisely defined.

As mentioned above, the data do not permit an evaluation of the actual workload but they call into question how far the official texts give full detail on the point. It appears from the available information that the choices opted for by Member States vary from one to the other and that none provides all three types of clarification of working time mentioned above. This is probably why the comparisons generally made on this question are often limited to teaching time which, at first sight, appears more comparable. But this simplification immediately runs into a problem, for it presupposes that all contracts define at least the number of hours of teaching to be provided. This is not the case in England and Wales and Northern Ireland, where contracts give only an overall indication of the time the teacher has to be available for work in school, without distinguishing between teaching time and other duties.

The information on working time has also brought to light the fact that, in the majority of Member States, the teaching time of secondary teachers is less than that of primary teachers. This fact is worth stressing not for itself but because it may be an element to be taken into account in explaining in part the differences in pupil:teacher ratios found in these two levels of education. In practice, in as far as the information on the use of school time shows that secondary pupils do not have a lighter course load than primary pupils, it follows that the number of teachers needed at secondary level to provide all the lessons increases.

It is often thought that there is a correlation between the extent of feminization of a profession and the devaluation of its socio-economic status. Analysis of the movement in the proportions of women in teaching shows that the phenomenon is much more complex. First, comparison of those Member States which demonstrate a roughly equal division between men and women at primary level and those which have had a very high degree of feminization for a very long time does not enable particular profiles to be distinguished for the other parameters examined in the dossier. Moreover, the only two Member States which demonstrate a considerable increase in feminization at the primary level of education over the past 20 years (Italy and Austria) reveal clear differences as regards two other elements in the teaching situation — the level of training required to enter the profession and the movement of salaries. Italy is the only country in which the training of primary teachers is still provided today at upper secondary level (even though under the law passed in 1990 it is intended to provide it at university level). It is also there that the movement of salaries shows a consistently downward trend for the various aspects covered. In Austria, on the other hand, the situation is very different. Primary teachers have been trained at higher education level for more than 30 years, and this is one of two countries in which salary conditions have remained fairly favourable throughout this period. In conclusion, if some of the parameters examined suggest that the increase in feminization could be an indicator of crisis in the profession in Italy, the same conclusion cannot be drawn in relation to Austria.

The overall development of the situation in Spain since 1975 also merits attention. At that time, the initial training of primary teachers was raised to university level and pupil:teacher ratios were considerably improved; the indicators of movements in teachers' salaries suggest that teachers' purchasing power has been relatively well preserved. In addition, the financial position of teachers in relation to per capita GDP is among the highest in the European Union, at both the beginning and the end of their careers. It is difficult not to see in this picture sketched over 20 years a major attempt at a revaluation of the teaching profession. However, the progressive implementation of the reform of the education system passed in 1990, known as the LOGSE, is bringing about far-reaching changes in the structure and organization of education and the working conditions of teachers. It will probably be possible to gauge better this reform's consequences on the teaching profession and the education scene in the coming years.

In conclusion, the different lights in which the same subject — the teaching profession — has been shown have revealed again the diversity of the situations in the Member States of the European Union. This approach has also made it possible to see that many Member States are asking the same questions and trying to solve the same problems.

This information dossier is intended for the use of all those who are trying to derive maximum benefit from the diversity and to find there some lines of thinking to illuminate and assist educational policy makers in the choices with which they are faced. The end of the century will certainly see major changes in the way in which educational policy makers think of managing the education systems. The current debates on the role of governments in financing education, the status of teachers, the distribution of resources between the different levels of education, and the curricula to be followed will come to one conclusion or another, and these measures will inevitably have repercussions on the teaching profession itself. It is to be hoped that the decisions which will have to be made will take into account as many parameters as possible so as to underwrite the quality of education and its democratisation.

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ANNEXES

PERCENTAGE OF UNDER 25-YEAR-OLDS, 1973, 1983 AND 1993
(Graph A1)

	1973	1983	1993
B	38.3	35.4	31.4
DK	38.1	34.8	31.0
D	36.5	33.8	28.7
GR	39.5	36.9	33.1
E	43.2	41.4	34.6
F	40.9	37.6	34.3
IRL	47.6	47.3	43.0
I	38.9	36.7	30.7
L	36.0	33.6	30.3
NL	43.5	38.3	32.8
AT	38.1	36.2	31.7
P	45.0	41.6	35.5
FI	41.5	35.2	31.8
SE	34.9	32.6	31.3
UK	38.1	36.3	32.9

PERCENTAGES OF UNDER-25-YEAR-OLDS BY NUTS 1 REGIONS, 1993 (MAP A1)

BELGIQUE-BELGIE	31.4	LAZIO	30.2
VLAAMS GEWEST	31.0	CAMPANIA	39.1
REGION WALLONNE	32.4	ABRUZZI-MOLISE	30.8
BRUXELLES-BRUSSEL	30.2	SUD	37.1
		SICILIA	36.4
DANMARK	31.0	SARDEGNA	35.0
DEUTSCHLAND	28.7	LUXEMBOURG	30.2
BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	29.5		
BAYERN	28.8	NEDERLAND	33.2
BERLIN	27.2	NOORD-NEDERLAND	33.9
BRANDENBURG	31.2	OOST-NEDERLAND	35.0
BREMEN	25.8	WEST-NEDERLAND	32.5
HAMBURG	24.9	ZUID-NEDERLAND	32.8
HESSEN	27.3		
MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	33.0	ÖSTERREICH	31.6
NIEDERSACHSEN	28.8		
NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	28.2	PORTUGAL	35.5
RHEINLAND-PFALZ	28.2	CONTINENTE	35.1
SAARLAND	26.6	AÇORES	42.8
SACHSEN	29.0	MADEIRA	41.9
SACHSEN-ANHALT	29.8		
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	28.0	UNITED KINGDOM	32.9
THÜRINGEN	30.6	NORTH	32.6
		YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE	33.2
ELLADA	33.1	EAST MIDLANDS	32.8
VOREIA ELLADA	33.4	EAST ANGLIA	32.2
KENTRIKI ELLADA	32.6	SOUTH EAST	32.3
ATTIKI	32.9	SOUTH WEST	30.9
NISIA	34.4	WEST MIDLANDS	33.5
		NORTH WEST	33.7
ESPAÑA	34.6	WALES	32.6
NOROESTE	30.7	SCOTLAND	33.0
NORESTE	31.1	NORTHERN IRELAND	39.8
MADRID	35.6		
CENTRO	31.1	SUOMI/FINLAND	31.7
ESTE	34.5		
SUR	39.2	SVERIGE	31.3
CANARIAS	39.8		
FRANCE (EXCLUDING DOM/TOM)	34.6		
Î LE DE FRANCE	35.1		
BASSIN PARISIEN	35.6		
NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	39.3		
EST	35.7		
OUEST	34.8		
SUD-OUEST	31.1		
CENTRE-EST	34.8		
MEDITERRANEE	31.7		
DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER			
IRELAND	43.0		
ITALIA	30.7		
NORD OVEST	25.0		
LOMBARDIA	28.1		
NORD EST	28.4		
EMILIA-ROMAGNA	24.1		
CENTRO (I)	25.9		

Source: Eurostat.

France, Netherlands: Data available are for 1992.

POPULATION DENSITY PER SQUARE KILOMETRE BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992
(Map A2)

BELGIQUE-BELGIE	329.2	LAZIO	299.1
VLAAMS GEWEST	430.0	CAMPANIA	415.5
REGION WALLONNE	195.0	ABRUZZI-MOLISE	104.0
BRUXELLES-BRUSSEL	5890.8	SUD	151.3
		SICILIA	193.8
DANMARK	120.2	SARDEGNA	68.5
DEUTSCHLAND	225.8	LUXEMBOURG	151.8
BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	281.8		
BAYERN	165.6	NEDERLAND	370.0
BERLIN	3886.9	NOORD-NEDERLAND	141.0
BRANDENBURG	86.3	OOST-NEDERLAND	296.2
BREMEN	1693.3	WEST-NEDERLAND	600.4
HAMBURG	2222.6	ZUID-NEDERLAND	459.7
HESSEN	278.4		
MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	80.0	ÖSTERREICH	94.4
NIEDERSACHSEN	159.0		
NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	516.4	PORTUGAL	107.2
RHEINLAND-PFALZ	194.1	CONTINENTE	105.4
SAARLAND	420.4	AÇORES	105.8
SACHSEN	253.4	MADEIRA	318.6
SACHSEN-ANHALT	137.4		
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	169.3	SUOMI/FINLAND	14.9
THÜRINGEN	157.8		
		SVERIGE	19.3
ELLADA	78.2		
VOREIA ELLÁDA	58.6	UNITED KINGDOM	239.9
KENTRIKÍ ELLADA	46.2	NORTH	201.0
ATTIKI	922.9	YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE	324.6
NISIA	56.9	EAST MIDLANDS	259.9
		EAST ANGLIA	166.2
ESPAÑA	77.4	SOUTH EAST	650.3
NOROESTE	98.0	SOUTH WEST	199.2
NORESTE	58.5	WEST MIDLANDS	405.8
MADRID	614.2	NORTH WEST	871.6
CENTRO	25.4	WALES	139.6
ESTE	174.3	SCOTLAND	66.3
SUR	82.6	NORTHERN IRELAND	119.4
CANARIAS	207.4		
FRANCE	105.5		
ÎLE DE FRANCE	904.2		
BASSIN PARISIEN	71.2		
NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	320.5		
EST	105.1		
OUEST	88.6		
SUD-OUEST	58.1		
CENTRE-EST	97.2		
MEDITERRANEE	100.5		
DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	17.2		
IRELAND	51.5		
ITALIA	188.7		
NORD OVEST	178.7		
LOMBARDIA	371.7		
NORD EST	162.7		
EMILIA-ROMAGNA	176.9		
CENTRO	140.3		

Source: Eurostat.

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%) BY COUNTRY, 1983-93
(Graph A7)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
B	24	25	24	21	21	18	16	15	14	13	19
DK	19	14	12	8	9	9	12	12	12	12	15
D	11	10	10	8	8	7	6	5	6	4	6
GR	23	24	24	24	25	26	25	23	25	25	27
E				47	44	41	34	32	31	33	42
F	20	25	26	24	23	22	20	20	20	22	26
IRL	21	23	25	26	26	25	22	20	23	23	25
I	29	32	32	33	34	33	32	29	28	27	30
L	7	5	7	6	5	5	3	4	3	4	4
NL	21		18		17	14	13	11	11	8	10
AT		5.4	4.5	4.1	5.3	4.8	4.3	3.9	3.9	4.3	4.9
P				20	18	14	12	10	9	10	12
FI	11	10	10	10	9	8	7	7	15	25	33
SE						4	4	5	8	14	23
UK	20	19	18	19	16	13	10	10	14	16	18

UNEMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATION
UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%) FOR PEOPLE AGED 25 TO 35 BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1993
(Graph A8)

	Lower secondary or less	Upper secondary	Higher education
B	13.8	7.2	4.4
DK	23.3	13.3	8.0
D	14.8	7.5	4.8
GR	8.7	10.1	9.6
E	28.2	21.4	19.8
F	19.3	10.5	8.4
IRL	27.0	9.5	6.5
I	12.8	10.0	12.2
L	n/a	n/a	n/a
NL	11.4	5.2	4.9
AT	6.0	2.9	1.8
P	6.5	6.4	3.3
FI	29.8	18.2	11.5
SE	16.4	11.0	6.2
UK	14.5	9.2	4.7

MOVEMENT IN GRADUATE AND OVERALL UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, IN SIX MEMBERS STATES
(Graph A9)

Sources:

France: INSEE, data analysed by CEREQ.
Spain: Encuesta de población activa, Instituto Nacional de Estadística.
Netherland: CBS, Enquete Beroepsbevolking.
Austria: Austrian Central Statistical Office, Mikrozensus.
Finland: Statistics Finland 1995, Series Labour Market, 1995/7.
Sweden: Statistics Sweden; Swedish labour force surveys.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION, 1992/93
NUMBERS OF SCHOOLS AND PUPILS
(PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION)
(Graph B2)

	Schools			Pupils		
	Public	Private grant-aided	Private non-grant-aided	Public	Private grant-aided	Private non-grant-aided
B*	3 005	3 500		596 193	935 883	
DK*	2 580	682		746 223	87 713	
D*	54 662	4 181		10 666 861	465 895	
GR*	10 393		443	1 501 460		100 689
E*	17 098	6 679		5 061 853	2 283 874	
F	44 275	9 477	750	7 960 679	1 943 878	50 619
IRL	3 644	467	79	658 739	102 167	8 280
I	48 776	18 594		8 078 771	1314985	
L	311	7		50 189	3 210	
NL*	3 508	7 704		666 096	2 027 015	
AT*	6 437	512		1 060 408	9 0431	
P	12 689	1667		1 582 241	164 436	
FI*	5 162	67		699 540	19 140	
SE	5 719	203		1 178 320	15 168	
UK	28 477	14	2 476	8 601 700	10 000	806 800

* Special education Included.

France: Data relating to schools include special schools. Data relating to pupils do not include special education.
Finland: Upper secondary vocational schools are not included.
Sweden: Special schools are not included.
United Kingdom: Further Education Colleges (which provide post-compulsory vocational education) are not included.

	F	IRL	I[1]	L	NL
2 years Demographic data	749 591	-	-	-	-
Level and rate by institution	Ecoles maternelles 191 424 25.5% Classes enfantines 69 139 9.2%	-	-	-	-
Total Level and rate by institution	260 563 34.7%	-	-	-	-
3 years Demographic data	754 183	54 000	567 268	5 014	190 335
Level and rate by institution	Ecoles maternelles 577 915 76.6% Classes enfantines 168 858 22.4%	Infant classes 730 1.4%	Scuola materna 262 410 46.3%	Jardins d'enfants 100 (e) 0.2%	Basisonderwijs approx. 2 750 (1 to 2% of the 4-year-olds)
Total Level and rate by institution	746 773 99.0%	730 1.4%	520 655 (e) 91.8% (e)	100 (e) 0.2%	approx. 2 750 (1 to 2% of the 4-year-olds)
4 years Demographic data	761 884	54 000	577 856	5 020	188 621
Level and rate by institution	Ecoles maternelles 589 834 77.4% Classes enfantines 183 291 24.1%	Infant classes 30 546 56.2%	Scuola materna 283 832 49.1%	Jardins d'enfants 4 468 (e) 89%	Basisonderwijs 183 379 97.2%
Total Level and rate by institution	773 125 101.5%	30 546 56.2%	563 159 (e) 97.5% (e)	4 468 (e) 89%	183 379 97.2%
5 years Demographic data	763 432	58 000	560 265	4 666	189 400
Level and rate by institution	Ecoles maternelles 568 042 74.4% Classes enfantines 193 293 25.3%	Infant classes 57 363 99.6%	Scuola materna 282 155 50.4%	Jardins d'enfants 4 619 (e) 99%	Basisonderwijs 185 094 97.7%
Total Level and rate by institution	761 335 99.7%	57 363 99.6%	559 831 (e) 99.9% (e)	4 619 (e) 99%	185 094 97.7%
6 years Demographic data	775 379	60 000			
Level and rate by institution	Ecoles maternelles 4 842 0.6% Classes enfantines 2 503 0.3%	Infant classes 33 642 56.1%			
Total Level and rate by institution	7 345 0.9%	33 642 56.1%			
7 years Demographic data		61 000 1 379 (2.3%)			

(e) = *estimate.*

[1] Based on the proportion of public to private schools in 1993: public 50.4%, private 49.6%.

	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
2 years Demographic data	94 256	-	66 000	-	780 900
Level and rate by institution	Kindergärten 916 1.0%	-	Päiväkoti 9 745 14.8%	-	Nursery classes 201 Private 796
Total Level and rate by institution	916 1.0%	-	9 745 14.8%	-	997 0.01%
3 years Demographic data	92 242	109 970	64 000	118 000	770 900
Level and rate by institution	Kindergärten 26 553 28.8%	Jardins de Infancia Min. Educ. + Min. Social Services 49 279 44.8%	Päiväkoti 16 234 25.4%	55 859 47.3%	Nursery classes 235 607 Private 2 031 Recept. classes + independent 29 351
Total Level and rate by institution	26 553 28 8%	49 279 44.8%	16 234 25.4%	55 859 47.3%	266 989 34.6%
4 years Demographic data	93 202	105 330	64 000	114 000	784 800
Level and rate by institution	Kindergärten 61 911 66.4%	Jardins de Infancia Min. Educ. + Min. Social Services 60 146 57.1%	Päiväkoti 18 910 29.5%	60 193 52.8%	Nursery classes 186 380 Private 1 665 Recept. classes + independent 395 430
Total Level and rate by institution	61 911 66.4%	60 146 57.1%	18 910 29.5%	60 193 52.8%	583 475 74.3%
5 years Demographic data	91 781	108 030	60 000	108 000	765 500
Level and rate by institution	Kindergärten 78 747 85.8%	Jardins de Infancia Min. Educ. + Min. Social Services 69 710 64.5%	Päiväkoti 22 343 37.2%	65 610 60.8%	Nursery classes 647 Private 78
Total Level and rate by institution	78 747 85.8%	69 710 64.5%	22 343 37.2%	65 610 60.8%	725
6 yeras Demographic data	92 408		61 000	106 000	
Level and rate by institution	Kindergärten 24 056 26.0%		Päiväkoti 32 293 52.9%	95 309 90.2%	
Total Level and rate by institution	24 056 26.0%		32 293 52.9%	95 309 90.2%	
7 years Demographic data	92.069 387 0.4%			102.000	

Finland: The data do not take into account the Åland Islands.

PRE-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATES AT 3 YEARS OF AGE, BY NUTS1 REGION, 1992/93
(Map C1)

3 years/region	B	DK	D	GR	E
Total		..		3-4 ½years	
Population	123 000	61 912	877 000	155 950 (e)	405 568
Pupils	119 936	35 139	387 000	44 509	181 637
Rate	97.5%	56.8%	44.1%	28.5%	44.8%
REG 1	VLAAMS GEWEST		BADEN-WÜRTT.	VOREIA ELLADA	NOROESTE
Population			115 000	50 996 (e)	36 679
Pupils	66 077		45 000	17 243	19 553
Rate			38.7%	33.8%	53.3%
REG 2	REGION WALLONNE		BAYERN	KENTRIKI ELLADA	NORESTE
Population			126 000	36 336 (e)	35 032
Pupils			36 000	11 416	28 756
Rate			28.8%	31.4%	82.1%
REG 3	BRUXELLES-BRUSSEL		BERLIN	ATTIKI	MADRID
Population			38 000	51 775 (e)	51 128
Pupils			28 000	10 542	22 303
Rate			71.9%	20.4%	43.6%
REG 4			BRANDENBURG	NISIA	CENTRO
Population			32 000	16 843 (e)	54 486
Pupils			29 000	5 308	28 751
Rate			90.4%	31.5%	52.8%
REG 5			BREMEN		ESTE
Population			6.000		103 701
Pupils					62 238
Rate					60.0%
REG 6			HAMBURG		SUD
Population			15 000		105 642
Pupils			7 000		17 033
Rate			46.2%		16.1%
REG 7			HESSEN		CANARIAS
Population			68 000		18 900
Pupils			22 000		3 003
Rate			37.9%		15.9%
REG 8			MECKLEN. B.-V.		
Population			24 000		
Pupils			21 000		
Rate			85.1%		
REG 9			NIEDERSACHSEN		
Population			74 000		
Pupils			24 000		
Rate			31.8%		
REG 10			NORDRH.-WESTF.		
Population			187 000		
Pupils			39 000		
Rate			20.8%		
REG 11			RHEINL.-PFALZ.		
Population			44 000		
Pupils			17 000		
Rate			39.0%		
REG 12			SAARLAND		
Population			12 000		
Pupils					
Rate					
REG 13			SACHSEN		
Population			53 000		
Pupils			48 000		
Rate			89.6%		
REG 14			SACHSEN-ANH.		
Population			34 000		
Pupils			31 000		
Rate			90.9%		
REG 15			SCHLESWIG-H.		
Population			30 000		
Pupils			11 000		
Rate			35.1%		
REG 16			THÜRINGEN		
Population			27 000		
Pupils			25 000		
Rate			92.7%		

(e) = *estimate.*

3 years/region	F excluding Dom/Tom	IRL	I	L	NL
Total Population Pupils Rate	 754 183 746 773 99.0%	 54 000 730 1.4%	 567 268	 5 014 100 (e) 0.2%	 190 335 ±2.750 (e) ±1.5%
REG 1 Population Pupils Rate	ÎLE-DE FRANCE 153 058 153 851 100.5%		NORD-OUEST 44 784 41 074 (e) 91.7%		NOORD-NEDERLAND 19 064 284 (e) approx. 1.5%(e)
REG 2 Population Pupils Rate	BASSIN PARISIEN 140 342 134 724 96.0%		LOMBARDIA 75 180 70 737 (e) 94.1%		OOST-NEDERLAND 40 889 599 (e) approx. 1.5% (e)
REG 3 Population Pupils Rate	NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS 59 256 59 043 99.3%		NORD-EST 55 618 52 031 (e) 93.6%		WEST-NEDERLAND 89 235 1 274 (e) approx. 1.5% (e)
REG 4 Démographie Effectifs Taux	EST 68 165 66 164 97.1%		EMILIA ROMAGNA 26 327 23 323 (e) 88.6%		ZUID-NEDERLAND 41 147 599 (e) approx. 1.5% (e)
REG 5 Population Pupils Rate	OUEST 93 756 94 978 101.3%		CENTRO 44 074 44 271 (e) 100.4%		
REG 6 Population Pupils Rate	SUD-OUEST 66 905 65 652 98.1%		LAZIO 49 958 41 728 (e) 83.5%		
REG 7 Population Pupils Rate	CENTRE-EST 89 384 88 139 98.6%		CAMPANIA 81 869 76 842 (e) 93.9%		
REG 8 Population Pupils Rate	MEDITERRANEE 83 317 84 222 101.1%		ABRUZZI MOLISE 15 970 15 415 (e) 96.5%		
REG 9 Population Pupils Rate			SUD 87 955 83 834 (e) 95.3%		
REG 10 Population Pupils Rate			SICILIA 69 945 56 086 (e) 80.2%		
REG 11 Population Pupils Rate			SARDEGNA 15 588 16 181 (e) 103.8%		

(e) = *estimate.*

3 years/region	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total					3 + 4 years
Population	92 242	109 970	64 000	118 000	1 555 700
Pupils	26 553	49 279	16 234	55 859	850 464
Rate	28.8%	44.8%	25.4%	47.3%	54.7%
REG 1	OSTÖSTERREICH	CONTINENTE	CONTINENTAL FINLAND		NORTH
Population	36 321	102 510			80 609
Pupils	17 018	46 388	16 234		63 396
Rate	46.9%	45.3%	25.4%		78.6%
REG 2	SUDÖSTERREICH	R.A. AÇORES	ÅLAND ISLANDS		YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE
Population	19 776	3 840			134 530
Pupils	3 026	1 693			88 821
Rate	15.3%	44.1%			66.0%
REG 3	WESTÖSTERREICH	R.A. MADEIRA			EAST MIDLANDS
Population	35 675	3 620			108 437
Pupils	6 509	1 199			58 382
Rate	18.2%	33.1%			53.8%
REG 4					EAST ANGLIA
Population					54 629
Pupils					22 377
Rate					41.0%
REG 5					SOUTH EAST
Population					475 262
Pupils					220 319
Rate					46.4%
REG 6					SOUTH WEST
Population					119 529
Pupils					48 829
Rate					40.9%
REG 7					WEST MIDLANDS
Population					144 384
Pupils					88 639
Rate					61.4%
REG 8					NORTH WEST
Population					177 741
Pupils					118 513
Rate					66.7%
REG 9					WALES
Population					77 098
Pupils					55 810
Rate					72.4%
REG 10					SCOTLAND
Population					128 738
Pupils					61 538
Rate					47.8%
REG 11					NORTHERN
Population					IRELAND
Pupils					51 478
Rate					23 841
					46.3%

Finland: The data do not take into account the Åland Islands.

AVERAGE DURATION OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION, 1992/93
(Graph C4)

	2 years (%)	3 years (%)	4 years (%)	5 years (%)	6 years (%)	7 years (%)	Total (years)	Theoretical duration (years)
B	38.0	97.6	99.2	97.8	4.0		3.37	3.5
DK	14.3	56.8	76.9	80.8	89.3	8.3	3.26	3.5
D		44.1	73.9	83.2	71.7		2.73	3
GR		28.5	78.5				1.07	2
E	8.3	44.8	96.9	102.1			2.52	3
F	34.7	99.0	101.5	99.7	0.9		3.36	4
IRL		1.4	56.2	99.6	56.1	2.3	2.16	2
I		91.8	97.5	99.9			2.89	3
L		0.2	89	99			1.88	2
NL		1.5	97.2				0.99	1
AT	1.0	28.8	66.4	85.8	26.0	0.4	2.08	3
P		44.8	57.1	64.5			1.66	3
FI	14.8	25.4	29.5	37.2	52.9		1.60	6
SE		47.3	52.8	60.8	90.2		2.50	4
UK/EW		35.3	79.1				1.14	3
UK/NI	1.0	38.2					0.39	2
UK/SC	1.6	22.5	53.4	1.1			0.79	2

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA AND RATE OF ATTENDANCE AT 3 YEARS OLD BY COUNTRY, 1992/93
(Graph C5)

	Population	Pupils	Rate (%)
B	122 849	119 954	97.6
DK	61 912	35 139	56.8
D	877 000	387 000	44.1
GR	155 950 (e)	44 509	28.5
E	405 568	181 637	44.8
F	754 183	746 773	99.0
IRL	54 000	730	1.4
I	567 268	520 655 (e)	91.8 (e)
L	5 014	100 (e)	0.2 (e)
NL	190 335	±2 750	1 to 2% of the 4-year-olds
AT	92 242	26 553	28.8
P	109 970	49 279	44.8
FI	64 000	16 234	25.4
SE	118 000	55 859	47.3
UK	770 900	266 989	34.6

(e) = *estimate.*

Finland: The data do not take into account the Åland Islands.

ATTENDANCE AT 4 YEARS OLD, 1992/93
(Map C2)

	Population	Pupils	Rates (%)
B	121 866	120 893	99.2
DK	59 552	45 775	76.9
D	888 000	656 000	73.9
GR	107 500 (e)	84 431	78.5
E	411 135	398 540	96.9
F	761 884	773 125	101.5
IRL	54 000	30 546	56.2
I	577 856	563 159 (e)	97.5 (e)
L	5 020	4 468 (e)	89 (e)
NL	188.621	183 379	97.2
AT	93 202	61 911	66.4
P	105 330	60 146	57.1
FI	64 000	18 910	29.5
SE	114 000	60 193	52.8%
UK	784 800	583 475	74.3%

(e) = *estimate.*

Finland: The data do not take into account the Åland Islands.

SOURCE OF POPULATION AND OTHER STATISTICS

Belgium
Statistics, population data, rates:
Ministère de l'Education, Service des statistiques (Communauté française)
Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap, Departement Onderwijs, Afdeling Begroting en Gegevensbeheer (Vlaamse Gemeenschap)
Ministerium der Deutschsprachigen Gemeinschaft, Abteilung Organisation des Unterrichtswesens (Deutschprachige Gemeinschaft)

Denmark
Population: Statistics Denmark.

Germany
Statistics, population data, rates: Bundesministerium für Bildung und Wissenschaft.

Greece
Statistics: Directorate of Investment Planning and Operational Research, Ministry of Education.
Population data: Eurostat.

Spain
Population data: Instituto Nacional de Estadistica.

France
Statistics, population data, rates: Direction de l'Evaluation et de la Prospective, Ministère de l'Education Nationale.

Italy
Population data: Compendio Statistico Italiano —ISTAT.

Ireland
Population data: Eurostat.

Luxembourg
Ministère de l'Education.

Netherlands
Statistics, population data: Statistiek van het basisonderwijs, het speciaal onderwijs en het voortgezet speciaal onderwijs 1992/93: scholen en leerlingen, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Voorburg/Heerlen, 1993.

Austria
Statistics, population data, rates: Österreichisches statistisches Zentralamt.

Portugal
Statistics: DEPGEF.
Population data: DEPGEF et Eurostat.

Finland
Statistics: National Board of Education, Eurydice Finland.
Population data: Eurostat

Sweden
Statistics: National Board of Education, Eurydice Sweden.
Population data: Eurostat

United Kingdom
Statistics, population data, rates: Department for Education.
England: Department for Education.
Wales: Statistics of Education and Training in Wales, Population Estimates Unit, OPCS.
Scotland: General Register Office for Scotland.
Northern Ireland: Population projections by the Government Actuary.

D

PRIMARY EDUCATION

CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS PER YEAR (AROUND AGE 9), 1970-94
(Graph D2)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK (E/W)	UK (NI)	UK (SC)
1970/71			624	653				723	972					720	893	950	950
1971/72			624	653				867	972					720	893	950	950
1972/73			624	653				867	972					720	893	950	950
1973/74			624	653				867	972					720	893	950	950
1974/75			624	653				867	972					720	893	950	950
1975/76			624	653				867	972					720	893	950	950
1976/77			624	653				867	972			716		720	893	950	950
1977/78			624	711				890	972			716		720	893	950	950
1978/79			624	711				890	972			716		720	893	950	950
1979/80			624	711				890	972			716		720	893	950	950
1980/81			624	711	788			890	972			752		720	893	950	950
1981/82			624	711	788			890	972			752		720	893	950	950
1982/83			624	711	788			890	972			752		720	893	950	950
1983/84			624	711	788			890	972			752		712	893	950	950
1984/85			624	711	788			890	972			752		712	893	950	950
1985/86			624	711	788			890	972			752		712	893	950	950
1986/87			624	711	788			890	972			752		712	893	950	950
1987/88			624	725	788			890	972			752		712	893	950	950
1988/89			624	725	788			890	972			729		712	893	950	950
1989/90			624	725	788			890	954			729		712	893	950	950
1990/91			624	725	810			890	954			752		712	893	950	950
1991/92			624	725	810			890	954			752		712	893	950	950
1992/93			624	725	810			890	954			774		712	893	950	950
1993/94			624		810			890	954			828		712	893	950	950

General comments: Only minimum numbers are presented here.
Germany: The number of hours is based on 188/208 school days a year (the average for all *Länder*), 6 (5) days a week (the tendency towards a regular week of 5 days or one of 6 days without lessons on one or other Saturday in the month continuing in all the *Länder*), 24 lessons a week (estimated average for all the *Länder*), each lesson lasting 45 minutes.

NUMBER OF PUPILS LEARNING ENGLISH, FRENCH OR ANOTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL, 1992/93,
(GRAPHS D8, D9, D10)

	Number of pupils learning English	Number of pupils learning French	Number of pupils learning a foreign language	Number of pupils enrolled in primary education
B (fr)				302 393
B (nl)	0	140 769		398 229
DK	112 756	0	112 756	325 157
D	109 323	73 630	194 369	3582 582
GR	323 250	31 511	354 761	791 000
E	515 682	31 355	551 184	2 581 000
F	386 968	-	501 336	4 060 000
IRL	not applicable	0	0	402 226
I	426 240	11 840	438 080	2 960 000
L	0	21 000	46 800	25 800
NL	354 000	0	354 000	1 489 000
AT	185 434	405	186 146	383 000
P	243 300	85 400	328 700	941 000
FI	233 593	2 279	267 659	392 537
SE	290 000	0	290 000	594 891
UK	-			

Greece: Number of pupils enrolled in primary education 1991/92.
Portugal: Estimated number of pupils enrolled in primary education 1991/92.
Sweden: This is an estimate.

AVERAGE DURATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1992/93
(Graph D11)

BELGIUM

Age	Pupils French Community	Pupils Flemish Community	Pupils German-speaking Community	Pupils Belgium	Population
Under 5 years					
5 years	1 164	617		1 794	119 000
6 years	48 885	64 121		113 778	119 000
7 years	49 291	64 776		114 845	116 000
8 years	49 387	66 121		116 295	117 000
9 years	48 439	68 251		117 482	119 000
10 years	50 060	69 702		120 576	122 000
11 years	49 470	71 100		121 388	125 000
12 years	14 579	12 632		27 402	125 000
13 years	3 309	1 464		4 808	124 000
14 years	287	224		515	123 000
15 years and over	37				

DENMARK

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years		57 048
6 years		56 446
7 years	54 475	55 173
8 years	52 720	53 205
9 years	51 879	52 215
10 years	53 327	54 088
11 years	53 914	54 404
12 years	58 842	58 565
13 years		60 454
14 years		63 241
15 years and over		

GERMANY

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years		
6 years	359 589	865 425
7 years	826 849	831 154
8 years	823 647	827 303
9 years	828 544	834 838
10 years	521 544	858 146
11 years	65 243	855 628
12 years	6 294	860 837
13 years		
14 years		
15 years and over		

SPAIN

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years		
6 years	445 673	431 000
7 years	465 471	449 000
8 years	487 168	465 000
9 years	503 237	476 000
10 years	533 651	506 000
11 years	94 064	522 000
12 years	21 278	564 000
13 years	2 455	584 000
14 years	744	614 000
15 years and over	342	

FRANCE

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years	12 927	764 000
6 years	772 852	775 000
7 years	766 878	765 000
8 years	755 891	755 000
9 years	743 566	745 000
10 years	766 478	796 000
11 years	203 101	803 000
12 years	34 270	807 000
13 years	4 445	764 000
14 years		
15 years and over		

IRELAND

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years	60	58 000
6 years	26 865	60 000
7 years	59 112	61 000
8 years	62 176	62 000
9 years	64 869	64 000
10 years	68 280	67 000
11 years	69 722	69 000
12 years	45 874	72 000
13 years	4 834	72 000
14 years	434	69 000
15 years and over		

NETHERLANDS

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years	185 094	189 000
6 years	181 698	188 000
7 years	171 933	182 000
8 years	167 684	179 000
9 years	161 332	174 000
10 years	162 210	176 000
11 years	165 428	182 000
12 years	33 161	186 000
13 years	2 552	180 000
14 years	194	182 000
15 years and over		

AUSTRIA

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years		
6 years	56 628	92 000
7 years	90 355	92 000
8 years	92 836	93 000
9 years	93 374	93 000
10 years	42 463	97 000
11 years	5 318	98 000
12 years	889	95 000
13 years	319	88 000
14 years	206	88 000
15 years and over	275	89 000

FINLAND

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years		
6 years		
7 years	63 837	63 000
8 years	66 348	66 000
9 years	67 428	68 000
10 years	66 778	67 000
11 years	64 424	65 000
12 years	63 722	64 000
13 years		
14 years		
15 years and over		

SWEDEN

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years		
5 years		
6 years	3 598	106 000
7 years	101 788	102 000
8 years	99 063	98 000
9 years	96 059	96 000
10 years	96 810	97 000
11 years	97 566	98 000
12 years	100 007	101 000
13 years		
14 years		
15 years and over		

UNITED KINGDOM

Age	Pupils	Population
Under 5 years	650 700	784 800
5 years	754 300	765 500
6 years	738 900	752 300
7 years	735 700	752 600
8 years	709 000	724 500
9 years	669 900	726 300
10 years	659 700	720 700
11 years	103 900	736 100
12 years	1 000	744 700
13 years		
14 years		
15 years and over		

E

SECONDARY EDUCATION

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS IN GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1992/93
(Graph E3)

	Number of pupils — general	Number of pupils — vocational	Total second cycle	% pupils — general	% pupils — vocational
B	231 560	267 403	498 963	46.41	53.59
DK	99 876	122 421	222 297	44.93	55.07
D	599 150	2 299 144	2 898 294	20.67	79.33
GR	278 909	157 811	436 720	63.86	36.14
E	1 664 716	1 168 010	2 832 726	58.77	41.23
F metropolitan	1 121 248	1 385 838	2 507 086	44.72	55.28
IRL	130 958	42 768	173 726	75.38	24.62
I	790 730	2 029 833	2 820 563	28.03	71.97
L	4 104	6 920	11 024	37.23	62.77
NL	225 504	537 813	763 317	29.54	70.46
AT	85 963	309 165	395 128	21.76	78.24
P	382 588	88 797	471 385	81.16	18.84
FI	118 819	124 857	243 676	48.76	51.24
SE	88 861	221 408	310 269	28.64	71.36
UK	1 860 335	2 313 400	4 173 735	44.57	55.43
Average EU	7 683 321	11 075 588	18 758 909	40.96	59.04

Belgium: The figures presented here are estimates.
United Kingdom: There is no separate secondary vocational education. This is post-obligatory vocational education.

PROPORTIONS OF PUPILS IN GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93 (Map E1)

	General	Technical/vocational	Total	% — General
BELGIQUE-BELGIE				
VLAAMS GEWESTT	109 007	163 558	272 565	40
REGION WALLONNE				
BRUXELLES-BRUSSEL				
DANMARK	99 876	122 421	222 297	45
DEUTSCHLAND	599 150	2 299 144	2 898 294	21
BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	68 103	337 525	405 628	17
BAYERN	72 774	336 771	409 545	18
BERLIN	28 638	71 684	100 322	29
BRANDENBURG	14 424	52 612	67 036	22
BREMEN	6 872	27 006	33 878	20
HAMBURG	17 809	54 423	72 232	25
HESSEN	49 961	164 209	214 170	23
MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	11 815	48 165	59 980	20
NIEDERSACHSEN	61 764	245 530	307 294	20
NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	158 918	509 374	668 292	24
RHEINLAND-PFALZ	29 195	104 424	133 619	22
SAARLAND	7 230	31 220	38 450	19
SACHSEN	23 371	109 299	132 670	18
SACHSEN-ANHALT	15 584	60 411	75 995	21
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	19 248	85 119	104 367	18
THÜRINGEN	13 444	61 372	74 816	18
ELLáDA				
VOREIA ELLáDA				
KENTRIKI ELLáDA				
ATTIKI				
NISIA				
ESPAÑA	1 664 716	1 160 212	2 824 928	59
NOROESTE	186 953	135 785	322 738	58
NORESTE	188 174	138 830	327 004	58
MADRID	266 300	130 114	396 414	67
CENTRO	207 259	148 936	356 195	58
ESTE	407 631	324 176	731 807	56
SUR	347 329	226 004	573 333	61
CANARIAS	61 070	56 367	117 437	52
FRANCE	1 149 303	1 433 646	2 582 949	44
ÎLE DE FRANCE	217 795	221 523	439 318	50
BASSIN PARISIEN	199 051	269 898	468 949	42
NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	79 935	120 384	200 319	40
EST	93 146	130 844	223 990	42
OUEST	161 819	211 287	373 106	43
SUD-OUEST	110 725	136 281	247 006	45
CENTRE-EST	135 474	158 964	294 438	46
MEDITERRANEE	123 683	136 277	259 960	48
DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	27 675	48 188	75 863	36
IRELAND	130 958	42 768	173 726	75

Italia	755 262	2 065 310	2 820 572	27
Nord Ovest	69 965	186 586	256 551	27
Lombardia	101 486	292 835	394 321	26
Nord Est	74 356	223 605	297 961	25
Emilia-Romagna	39 906	131 348	171 254	23
Centro	72 922	208 626	281 548	26
Lazio	94 220	187 190	281 410	33
Campania	82 897	230 795	313 692	26
Abruzzi-Molise	22 247	64 430	86 677	26
Sud	101 233	276 362	377 595	27
Sicilia	69 542	183 938	253 480	27
Sardegna	26 488	79 595	106 083	25
Luxembourg	4 104	6 920	11 024	37
Nederland	226 000	533 000	759 000	30
Noord-NederlanD	23 000	63 000	86 000	27
Oost-Nederland	44 000	116 000	160 000	28
West-Nederland	108 000	240 000	348 000	31
Zuid-Nederland	51 000	114 000	165 000	31
Österreich	85 963	309 165	395 128	22
Ostösterreich	34 621	114 299	148 920	23
Südösterreich	19 759	74 116	93 875	21
Westösterreich	31 583	120 750	152 333	21
Portugal	382 588	88 797	471 385	81
Continente	361 631	86 309	447 940	81
Açores	7 980	818	8 798	91
Madeira	12 977	1 670	14 647	88
Suomi/Finland	118 819	124 857	243 676	49
Continental Finland	118 478	124 178	242 656	49
Åland Islands	341	679	1 020	33
Sverige	88 861	221 408	310 269	29
United Kingdom	1 855 950	2 313 434	4 169 384	45
North	94 029	121 611	215 640	44
Yorkshire & Humberside	152 225	261 498	413 723	37
East Midlands	126 654	164 712	291 366	43
East Anglia	65 935	66 873	132 808	50
South East	558 901	640 758	1 199 659	47
South West	169 135	254 689	423 824	40
West Midlands	146 110	187 791	333 901	44
North West	198 320	313 592	511 912	39
Wales	90 381	95 934	186 315	49
Scotland	186 211	125 753	311 964	60
Northern Ireland	68 049	80 223	148 272	46

United Kingdom: There is no separate secondary vocational education. This is post-obligatory vocational education.

CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1975-90
(Graph E4)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
1975/76	97	78	78	77	82	96	102	80		65	72	86	115	99	77
1980/81	102	87	81	85	97	100	98	94		81	77	117	118	106	97
1985/86	101	91	85	92	107	102	103	99		87	81	117	126	103	106
1990/91	101	96	86	93	108	99	104	100	93	82	83	119	133	105	110

CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1985-91
(Graph E5)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
1985/86	111	136	99	123	114	139	109	117			90	118	153		97
1986/87	112	134	98	123	114	138	111	128			90	113	150		97
1987/88	112	136	99	124	113	136	110	116			90	109	146		97
1988/89	112	137	100	125	115	135	111	115		117	92	110	144		99
1989/90	113	138	102	125	117	133	109	128	115	116	92	112	144		97
1990/91	112	137	103	125	117	131	108	123	113	116	95	111	146	194	97
1991/92	114	135	106	125	114	131	107	124	116	115	98	107	147	192	97

CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION (ISCED 3), 1985-91
(Graph E6)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
1985/86	95	70	83	41	84	82	80	95			78	59	106		116
1986/87	96	73	83	42	85	81	89	92			78	59	109		117
1987/88	95	74	83	43	88	79	90	94			79	60	112		120
1988/89	96	73	84	43	84	77	92	93		71	82	64	111		120
1989/90	96	75	84	47	94	77	93	93	81	70	80	64	118		123
1990/91	96	73	82	49	97	77	90	93	84	69	81	64	123	85	124
1991/92	96	77	81	52	105	77	83	92	83	78	80	71	123	84	129

United Kingdom: There is no separate secondary vocational education. This is post-obligatory vocational education.

NUMBER OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION, 1992/93
(Graph E7)

	Number of girls	Number of boys	Total
B	122 124	109 436	231 560
B (fr)			
B (nl)	61 373	52 335	113 708
DK	57 379	42 497	99 876
D	317 072	282 078	599 150
GR	153 786	125 123	278 909
E	888 407	776 309	1 664 716
F metropolitan	640 123	481 505	1 121 628
IRL	67 210	63 748	130 958
I	419 458	335 804	755 262
L	2 223	1 881	4 104
NL			
AT	42 787	43 176	85 963
P	210 262	172 326	382 588
FI	70 520	48 299	118 819
SE	56 801	32 060	88 861
UK	916 097	939 853	1 855 950

United Kingdom: There is no separate secondary vocational education. This is post-obligatory vocational education.

NUMBER OF GIRLS PER 100 BOYS IN UPPER SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1992/93
(Graph E8)

	Number of girls	Number of boys	Total
B	124 734	142 669	267 403
B (fr)			
B (nl)	77 990	89 610	167 600
DK	54 029	68 392	122 421
D	1 003 068	1 296 076	2 299 144
GR	57 343	100 468	157 811
E	603 746	556 466	1 160 212
F metropolitan	599 869	785 589	1 385 458
IRL	20 351	22 417	42 768
I	988 794	1 076 516	2 065 310
L	3 136	3 784	6 920
NL			
AT	137 557	171 608	309 165
P	39 323	49 474	88 797
FI	67 920	56 937	124 857
SE	96 952	124 456	221 408
UK	1 293 628	1 019 806	2 313 434

United Kingdom: There is no separate secondary vocational education. This is post-obligatory vocational education.

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION LEARNING ENGLISH, FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH, OR ONE OR MORE FOREIGN LANGUAGES, 1992/93

(Graphs E15, E16, E17, E18 and E19)

	Pupils learning English	Pupils learning French	Pupils learning German	Pupils learning Spanish	Pupils learning one or more foreign languages	Pupils enrolled in general secondary education
B fr						
B nl	184 147	256 246	57 880	1 138	499 411	260 627
DK	285 319	50 740	202 134	21 219	563 839	301 690
D	5 158 342	1 258 780	-	46 941	7 061 268	5 633 798
GR	456 442	316 058	10 774	0	783 274	717 000
E	3 344 591	297 447	6 335	-	3 655 470	3583 992
F	4 667 687	-	1 350 684	1 446 147	7 705 444	4542 000
IRL	-	228 275	84 494	10 627		338 862
I	1 855 067	971 039	97 912	17 028	2 957 127	2 805 158
L	15 915	24 114	24 114	112	64 255	24 114
NL	654 000	391 000	477 000	2 000	1 514 300	779 000
AT	409 652	39 887	-	3 253	467 847	459 000
P	378 500	321 400	not available		699 900	728 000
FI	284 839	27 843	95 649	859	699 156	324 000
SE	383 548	55 044	160 829	13 349	625 252	381 000
UK	-					

NUMBER OF GIRLS OBTAINING AN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION QUALIFICATION, 1991/92

(Graph E21)

	B fr	B nl	DK 1991/92	D 1992/93	GR	E 1991/92	F 1991/92	IRL 1992/93	I 1991/92	L	NL 1991/92	AT 1991/92	P	FI 1991/92	SE 1992/93	UK
Total		54 611	64 206	881 926	125 298	490 144	868 834	57 230	589 511	1 133	145 515	94 009	91 670	75 777	91 751	
Girls		28 792	33 686	435 344	61 850	261 834	438 393	29 253	308 763	536	71 204	41 945	50 926	44 399	45 097	

NUMBER OF GIRLS (PER 100 BOYS) OBTAINING GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATES, 1991/92

(Graph E22)

	B fr	B nl	DK 1991/92	D 1991/92	GR	E 1991/92	F 1991/92	IRL 1992/93	I 1991/92	L	NL 1991/92	AT 1991/92	P	FI 1991/92	SE 1992/93	UK
Total		23 596		182 337	86 720	285 818	272 366	57 230	128 668	634	68 515	14 317	71 480	26 169	31 960	
Girls		13 042		95 262	47 369	157 960	155 793	29 253	71 156	339	36 204	7 869	41 261	15 582	20 933	
Boys		10 554		87 075	39 351	127 858	116 573	27 977	57 512	295	32 311	6 448	30 219	10 587	11 027	

NUMBER OF GIRLS (PER 100 BOYS) OBTAINING VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATES, 1991/92

(Graph E23)

	B fr	B nl	DK 1991/92	D 1991/92	GR	E 1991/92	F 1991/92	IRL	I 1991/92	L	NL 1991/92	AT 1991/92	P	FI 1991/92	SE 1992/93	UK
Total		31 015		699 589	38 578	204 326	596 468		460 843	499	77 000	79 692	20 190	49 608	59 791	
Girls		15 750		340 082	14 481	103 874	282 600		237 607	197	35 000	34 121	9 665	28 817	24 164	
Boys		15 265		359 507	24 097	100 452	313 868		223 236	302	42 000	45 571	10 525	20 791	35 627	

F

HIGHER EDUCATION

INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION (ISCED 5, 6, 7), IN THOUSANDS, 1975-90
(Graph F1)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
1975/76	176	97	1 043	117	548	1 053	46	977	1	291	97	87	77		733
1980/81	217	115	1 223	121	698	1 176	55	1 126	1	364	125	92	113		828
1985/86	248	127	1 550	182	934	1 358	70	1 192	1	405	173	118	128	183	1 033
1990/91	276	151	1 799	195	1 222	1 698	90	1 452	1	479	206	184	166	193	1 258

MOVEMENT IN THE NUMBER OF WOMEN PER 100 MEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION (ISCED 5, 6, 7), 1975-90
(Graph F3)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
1975/76	64	88	62	58	57	90	53	64		48	62	87	82		56
1980/81	75	96	70	70	78	102	67	75		65	74	89	89		58
1985/86	84	97	72	96	96	109	75	86		69	83	117	95	111	83
1990/91	93	108	68	101	104	113	85	98		80	84	124	109	116	93

NUMBERS OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION PER 100 MEN (ISCED 5, 6, 7), BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93
(Graph F4)

	Total higher education	Girls in higher education	Boys in higher education
B	270 763	134 736	136 027
B fr			
B nl	160 196	78 698	81 498
DK	157 006	82 224	74 782
D	2 112 642	886 737	1 225 905
GR	165 517	86 695	78 822
E	1 370 689	708 791	661 898
F	1 951 995	1 058 884	893 111
IRL	108 394	52 182	56 212
I	1 615 000	816 632	798 368
L	1 000		
NL	533 725	251 577	282 148
AT	221 389	103 030	118 359
P	247 523	138 823	108 700
FI	188 000	99 791	88 209
SE	226 827	121 722	105 105
UK	1 528 389	757 937	770 452

HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS AND STUDENTS, BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93
(Map F1)

	Total of pupils/students	Total of students in higher education		Total of pupils/students	Total of students in higher education
BELGIQUE-BELGIE			IRELAND	896 124	108 394
VLAAMS GEWEST					
REGION WALLONNE			ITALIA		
BRUXELLES-BRUSSEL			NORD OVEST	802 352	138 039
			LOMBARDIA	1 299 608	232 974
DANMARK	937 840	157 006	NORD EST	936 068	151 013
			EMILIA-ROMAGNA	553 164	139 035
DEUTSCHLAND			CENTRO	886 196	189 635
BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	1 702 821	261 921	LAZIO	964 090	233 634
BAYERN	1 900 358	308 303	CAMPANIA	1 161 404	171 792
BERLIN	620 479	162 872	ABRUZZI-MOLISE	276 851	43 633
BRANDENBURG	449 727	19 000	SUD	1 255 765	133 322
BREMEN	121 168	26 375	SICILIA	953 560	131 369
HAMBURG	288 478	76 639	SARDEGNA	325 979	44 184
HESSEN	953 226	174 510			
MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	359 682	17 396	LUXEMBOURG		
NIEDERSACHSEN	1 252 170	186 774			
NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	3 077 113	577 634	NEDERLAND		
RHEINLAND-PFALZ	614 157	95 437	NOORD-NEDERLAND		
SAARLAND	170 849	30 526	OOST-NEDERLAND		
SACHSEN	793 798	66 183	WEST-NEDERLAND		
SACHSEN-ANHALT	469 149	27 914	ZUID-NEDERLAND		
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	413 279	55 313			
THÜRINGEN	441 712	25 845	ÖSTERREICH		
			OSTÖSTERREICH	569 157	132 562
ELLADA			SÜDÖSTERREICH	311 164	46 146
VOREIA ELLADA			WESTÖSTERREICH	501 831	52 605
KENTRIKI ELLADA					
ATTIKI			PORTUGAL		
NISIA			CONTINENTE	1 992 545	243 728
			AÇORES	53 261	2 149
ESPAÑA			MADEIRA	59 238	1 646
NOROESTE	917 274	128 663			
NORESTE	863 244	143 047	FINLAND		
MADRID	1 205 541	257 171	CONTINENTAL FINLAND	1 025 644	188 077
CENTRO	1 071 446	137 601	ÅLAND ISLANDS	3 671	85
ESTE	2 208 796	321 882			
SUR	1 939 643	245 185	SVERIGE	1 424 424	226 830
CANARIAS	367 802	41 910			
			UNITED KINGDOM		
FRANCE (EXCLUDING DOM/TOM))			NORTH	678 736	63 616
ÎLE DE FRANCE	2 365 960	535 751	YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE	1 169 323	129 462
BASSIN PARISIEN	2 148 099	245 555	EAST MIDLANDS	877 405	85 113
NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	934 841	127 531	EAST ANGLIA	412 528	30 328
EST	1 073 808	165 017	SOUTH EAST	3 733 851	419 781
OUEST	1 606 534	223 383	SOUTH WEST	1 228 206	115 783
SUD-OUEST	1 147 928	208 846	WEST MIDLANDS	982 571	86 630
CENTRE-EST	1 419 145	236 095	NORTH WEST	1 513 484	152 740
MEDITERRANEE	1 300 303	209 816	WALES	626 385	66 197
DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	384 707	20 247	SCOTLAND	1 065 317	154 389
			NORTHERN IRELAND	453 521	34 838

RATES OF PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION, BY AGE AND BY SEX, AND MEMBER STATE, 1992/93
(Graphs F2 and F5)

BELGIUM FLEMISH COMMUNITY

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16						
16	4		4			
17	260	141	119			
18	23 587	13 604	9 983			
19	29 190	15 791	13 399			
20	30 178	16 172	14 006			
21	24 359	11 825	12 534			
22	16 543	7 344	9 199			
23	9 894	4 065	5 829			
24	5 895	2 304	3 591			
25	3 609	1 395	2 214			
26	2 573	949	1 624			
27	2 050	737	1 313			
28 and over	12 058	4 371	7 687			
29						

DENMARK

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16						
16	2	2	0	67 000	32 000	34 000
17	13	9	4	73 000	36 000	37 000
18	244	141	103	73 000	36 000	37 000
19	3 394	1 565	1 829	72 000	35 000	37 000
20	9 722	4 975	4 747	76 000	37 000	39 000
21	14 725	7 847	6 878	76 000	37 000	39 000
22	15 920	8 532	7 388	73 000	36 000	37 000
23	16 024	8 569	7 455	73 000	35 000	37 000
24	15 478	8 295	7 183	76 000	37 000	39 000
25	13 909	7 367	6 542	82 000	40 000	42 000
26	11 346	5 897	5 449	89 000	43 000	46 000
27	8 692	4 401	4 291	86 000	42000	44 000
28	6 737	3 303	3 434	84 000	41 000	43 000
29	5 374	2 578	2 796	83 000	40 000	42 000

GERMANY

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16	20	12	8	836 019	405 897	430 122
16	24	17	7	817 679	401 884	425 795
17	7 488	6 913	575	807 674	390 779	416 895
18	24 653	20 390	4 263	831 452	404 012	427 440
19	67 122	49 667	17 455	858 098	418 011	440 087
20	123 448	75 512	47 936	965 478	469 538	495 940
21	167 774	86 934	80 840	1 090 833	530 206	560 627
22	185 116	83 261	101 855	1 155 667	559 528	596 139
23	209 187	84 097	125 090	1 261 877	609 730	652 147
24	216 945	79 048	137 897	1 335 258	644 133	691 125
25	204 568	69 844	134 724	1 379 675	665 412	714 263
26	177 787	59 425	118 362	1 423 865	685 238	738 627
27	154 040	53 073	100 967	1 437 922	688 848	749 074
28	114 490	38 885	75 605	1 466 266	703 609	762 657
29	118 462	46 296	72 166	1 458 035	700 134	757 901

GREECE

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16						
16			0			
17	2 463	1 561	902	154 000	75 000	79 000
18	16 926	10 529	6 397	155 000	75 000	79 000
19	27 605	16 468	11 137	155 000	75 000	79 000
20	43 185	25 820	17 365	156 000	76 000	80 000
21	28 569	12 138	16 431	157 000	76 000	80 000
22	20 434	7 990	12 444	158 000	77 000	81 000
23	11 371	4 866	6 505	159 000	78 000	81 000
24	4 309	2 125	2 184	160 000	79 000	81 000
25	2 668	1 318	1 350	159 000	79 000	80 000
26	1 906	908	998	157 000	78 000	79 000
27	1 265	612	653	154 000	77 000	77 000
28	1 032	485	547	150 000	75 000	75 000
29	1 158	612	546	148 000	74 000	74 000

SPAIN

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16						
16			0			
17	273	174	99	651 000	317 000	334 000
18	116 533	68 266	48 267	656 000	319 000	336 000
19	157 006	88 455	68 551	655 000	319 000	336 000
20	176 444	97 810	78 634	653 000	319 000	335 000
21	157 644	86 269	71 375	650 000	318 000	333 000
22	142 262	76 649	65 613	649 000	317 000	331 000
23	111 158	56 527	54 631	649 000	318 000	331 000
24	83 675	40 963	42 712	653 000	320 000	333 000
25	64 190	30 465	33 725	655 000	321 000	333 000
26	52 265	24 632	27 633	661 000	325 000	336 000
27	38 464	17 665	20 799	662 000	326 000	336 000
28	31 480	14 455	17 025	655 000	323 000	332 000
29	24 761	11 230	13 531	644 000	318 000	326 000

FRANCE

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16	44	25	19			
16	268	132	136	736 000	360 000	376 000
17	16 707	9 918	6 789	764 000	374 000	391 000
18	186 193	108 837	77 356	816 000	399 000	417 000
19	290 915	164 221	126 694	867 000	425 000	443 000
20	328 230	181 536	146 694	888 000	436 000	452 000
21	280 842	153 072	127 770	889 000	439 000	450 000
22	207 965	111 066	96 899	867 000	429 000	438 000
23	139 734	73 557	66 177	856 000	424 000	432 000
24	89 361	49 562	39 799	842 000	418 000	424 000
25	65 928	34 616	31 312	839 000	417 000	422 000
26	48 986	25 038	23 948	862 000	430 000	432 000
27	39 572	19 981	19 591	870 000	433 000	437 000
28	32 924	16 100	16 824	884 000	442 000	443 000
29	27 571	13 101	14 470	880 000	440 000	440 000

IRELAND

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16			0			
16	26	12	14	66 000	32 000	34 000
17	4 850	2 540	2 310	66 000	32 000	34 000
18	17 116	8 593	8 523	63 000	30 000	32 000
19	19 796	9 870	9 926	59 000	29 000	30 000
20	16 726	8 146	8 580	62 000	30 000	31 000
21	11 718	5 605	6 113	62 000	30 000	31 000
22	7 235	3 161	4 074	59 000	29 000	30 000
23	4 564	2 003	2 561	56 000	27 000	29 000
24	3 226	1 368	1 858	51 000	25 000	26 000
25	2 463			49 000	24 000	25 000
26	2 098			49 000	25 000	25 000
27	1 824			49 000	25 000	24 000
28	1 550			50 000	25 000	24 000
29	1 186			49 000	25 000	24 000

NETHERLANDS

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16	1	1	0			
16	14	12	2	184 000	89 000	95 000
17	3 144	2 044	1 100	187 000	91 000	95 000
18	22 833	12 714	10 119	197 000	97 000	101 000
19	45 961	24 653	21 308	208 000	102 000	105 000
20	58 038	28 973	29 065	228 000	113 000	116 000
21	62 625	29 400	33 225	243 000	119 000	124 000
22	58 288	26 023	32 265	256 000	126 000	130 000
23	47 881	20 377	27 504	265 000	130 000	135 000
24	35 685	14 465	21 220	254 000	125 000	130 000
25	25 571	10 271	15 300	254 000	124 000	130 000
26	18 438	7 302	11 136	257 000	125 000	132 000
27	14 532	5 980	8 552	263 000	127 000	135 000
28	11 400	4 659	6 741	269 000	131 000	138 000
29	9 589	3 991	5 598	266 000	129 000	136 000

AUSTRIA

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16			0			
16			0			
17	177	92	85			
18	5 310	3 226	2 084	102 000	50 000	52 000
19	11 906	6 600	5 306	105 000	51 000	53 000
20	16 167	8 038	8 129	113 000	56 000	57 000
21	17 604	8 283	9 321	121 000	60 000	61 000
22	17 803	8 156	9 647	126 000	61 000	64 000
23	18 177	8 162	10 015	134 000	66 000	69 000
24	18 154	8 085	10 069	142 000	68 000	74 000
25	16 798	7 316	9 482	144 000	69 000	75 000
26	14 495	6 202	8 293	145 000	70 000	75 000
27	11 958	4 749	7 209	146 000	70 000	76 000
28	9 918	3 975	5 943	148 000	71 000	77 000
29	8 283	3 284	4 999	147 000	71 000	76 000

PORTUGAL

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16						
16	55			170 200		
17	1 466			173 700		
18	22 941			170 500		
19	29 548			166 300		
20	32 241			167 400		
21	31 741			162 900		
22	27 328			159 500		
23	20 719			153 500		
24	15 028			151 300		
25	11 255			148 900		
26	9 151			147 600		
27	6 962			146 600		
28	5 835			147 200		
29	4 646			144 100		

FINLAND

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16			0			
16			0			
17	4	1	3	65 000	32 000	34 000
18	103	65	38	62 000	31 000	32 000
19	4 354	2 189	2 165	57 000	28 000	29 000
20	7 326	4 149	3 177	59 000	29 000	30 000
21	9 418	5 154	4 264	61 000	30 000	31 000
22	9 989	5 469	4 520	64 000	31 000	32 000
23	10 250	5 322	4 928	65 000	32 000	33 000
24	10 442	5 395	5 047	71 000	35 000	36 000
25	9 573	4 813	4 760	73 000	36 000	37 000
26	8 272	4 118	4 154	74 000	36 000	38 000
27	6 625	3 211	3 414	74 000	36 000	38 000
28	5 674	2 748	2 926	76 000	37 000	39 000
29	4 946	2 371	2 575	77 000	38 000	39 000

SWEDEN

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16			0			
16	3	1	2	102 000	50 000	52 000
17	5	0	5	107 000	52 000	55 000
18	1 225	828	397	114 000	56 000	58 000
19	15 933	7 322	8 611	113 000	55 000	58 000
20	18 929	10 632	8 297	116 000	57 000	59 000
21	20 165	11 206	8 959	117 000	58 000	60 000
22	18 481	9 913	8 568	114 000	56 000	58 000
23	17 158	8 722	8 436	114 000	56 000	58 000
24	16 372	7 928	8 444	121 000	59 000	61 000
25	14 928	6 820	8 108	129 000	63 000	66 000
26	12 404	5 619	6 785	131 000	64 000	68 000
27	9 905	4 568	5 337	132 000	64 000	68 000
28	8 309	3 810	4 499	133 000	65 000	68 000
29	6 572	3 119	3 453	124 000	60 000	64 000

UNITED KINGDOM

Age	Number of students	Number of women	Number of men	Population	Population women	Population men
Under 16	100	31	69			
16	989	482	507	676 600	328 100	348 600
17	11 804	6 085	5 719	701 500	340 500	360 900
18	137 103	67 595	69 508	731 600	355 500	376 100
19	189 924	91 481	98 443	776 900	377 400	399 500
20	189 234	89 662	99 572	828 900	402 800	426 000
21	146 554	67 772	78 782	881 900	430 400	451 600
22	90 869	39 529	51 340	874 500	426 100	448 400
23	66 024	27 932	38 092	902 300	441 500	460 800
24	52 512	22 702	29 810	916 000	449 400	466 600
25	44 604	19 664	24 940	932 200	457 300	474 900
26	39 734	17 602	22 132	952 900	467 800	485 100
27	36 640	16 316	20 324	973 800	478 000	495 900
28	33 341	14 780	18 561	978 700	480 300	498 400
29	30 673	13 521	17 152	958 200	470 800	487 400

HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS BY FIELD OF STUDY AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93
(Graphs F6 and F7)

	Humanities, religion, theology, fine arts	Social sciences	Law	Natural sciences	Mathematics, computer sciences	Medical sciences	Engineering, architecture	Other
B								
DK	30 598	39 806	5 505	5 738	6 700	17 089	25 284	26 286
D	312 679	420 176	100 220	144 003	114 515	218 990	440 791	361 267
GR	24 057	34 537	7 218	7 665	7 270	19 239	35 768	29 763
E	139 513	347 546	262 226	82 751	65 807	107 730	216 871	148 245
F metro-politan								
IRL	22 062	31 669	1 904	15 087	4 925	4 859	19 584	8 304
I	245 505	436 270	263 413	102 513	47 140	174 593	274 673	71 043
L								
NL	46534	171484	29333	16707	8742	52799	59262	86183
AT	44133	76218	25001	15656	16852	19984	35940	28738
P	22578	73540	20540	8667	9271	15048	44357	53522
FI	25409	29222	3932	9912	12407	34539	42526	30215
SE	39792	55145	10917	10255	14950	32583	41835	40567
UK	163901	395135	x	105983	76430	180107	219078	387755
Total EU (12 countries)	1 115 406	2 104 752	730 209	524 041	382 639	877 560	1 452 015	1 286 460

NUMBER OF WOMEN STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION, BY AREA OF STUDY AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1992/93
(Graph F8)

HUMANITIES, RELIGION, THEOLOGY, FINE ARTS

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		30 598	312 679	24 057	139 513		22 062	245 505		46 534	44 133	22 578	25 409	39 792	163 901
Women		21 024	190 973	18 284	88 991		14 602	193 499		29 252	26 951	15 971	17 898	24 736	97 604

SOCIAL SCIENCES

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		39 806	420 176	34 537	347 546		31 669	436 270		171 484	76 218	73 540	29 222	55 145	395 135
Women		16 774	173 616	19 944	187 774		17 429	211 463		77 732	35 776	40 831	16 202	29 673	199 159

LAW

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		5 505	100 220	7 218	262 226		1 904	263 413		29 333	25 001	20 540	3 932	10 917	x
Women		2 937	42 713	4 665	148 465		992	144 454		14 225	10 124	11 986	1 949	5 678	x

NATURAL SCIENCES

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		5 738	144 003	7 665	8 2751		15 087	102 513		16 707	15 656	8 667	9 912	10 255	105 983
Women		2 418	46 698	3 115	3 9319		7 520	52 485		5 225	6 070	5 288	4 900	4 659	45 463

MATHEMATICS, COMPUTER SCIENCES

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		6 700	114 515	7 270	65 807		4 925	47 140		8 742	16 852	9 271	12 407	14 950	76 430
Women		1 812	28 534	2 755	21 637		1 411	20 646		928	3 715	4 213	2 514	3 042	19 358

MEDICAL SCIENCES

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		17 089	218 990	19 239	107 730		4 859	174 593		52 799	19 984	15 048	34 539	32 583	180 107
Women		14 087	136 882	11 603	72 286		2 746	86 096		35 305	11 398	10 924	28 895	23 834	137 960

ENGINEERING, ARCHITECTURE

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		25 284	440 791	35 768	216 871		19 584	274 673		59 262	35 940	44 357	42 526	41 835	219 078
Women		5 775	57 881	8 491	48 951		2 216	63 818		6 809	5 847	12 281	6 387	8 409	29 292

OTHER

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		26 286	361 267	29 763	148 245		8 304	71 043		86 183	28 738	53 522	30 215	40 567	387 755
Women		17 397	209 460	17 838	101 363		5 266	44 171		50 047	17 779	37 329	21 046	30 487	229 101

NUMBER OF HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS STUDYING IN ANOTHER MEMBER STATE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION, BY NATIONALITY, 1992/93
(Graph F9)

	B fr	B nl	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FI 1992	SE	UK
Belgian			12	110	4	202	1 369	39	220		774	38		9		1 152
Danish		16		557	1	28	366	32	30		79	50		27		731
German		219	573		42	1 073	5 563	329	1 416		1 756	5 048		135		7 079
Greek		111	17	7 572		44	2 726	21	5 399		134	368		12		5 943
Spanish		125	26	3 410	1		3 040	119	143		346	107		17		2 763
French		92	78	4 929	4	1 145		163	634		236	182		24		6 338
Irish		17	21	440	0	54	465		20		27	19		5		6 767
Italian		217	42	4 822	10	450	2 657	41			344	4 785		33		2 122
Luxembourgish		12	1	1 196	0	7	1 048	8	47		18	271		0		202
Dutch		2 316	78	2 433	6	159	835	29	98			72		17		1 371
Austrian		10	22	6 253	1	119	289	18	83		85			11		247
Portuguese		38	11	1 082	2	295	3 438	9	34		92	29		6		741
Finnish		20	52	925	6	10	232	5	73		73	84				356
Swedish		14	265	789	3	68	651	18	90		99	138		193		599
British		114	314	2 880	17	507	3 663	1217	384		612	143		53		

NUMBERS OF NON-NATIONAL STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION, BY NUTS 1 REGION, 1992/93
(Map F2)

BELGIQUE-BELGIE	
VLAAMS GEWEST	
REGION WALLONNE	
BRUXELLES-BRUSSEL	
DANMARK	7 637
DEUTSCHLAND	
BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG	19 059
BAYERN	15 868
BERLIN	16 120
BRANDENBURG	339
BREMEN	1 754
HAMBURG	4 900
HESSEN	13 424
MECKLENBURG-VORPOMMERN	464
NIEDERSACHSEN	8 556
NORDRHEIN-WESTFALEN	39 555
RHEINLAND-PFALZ	5 891
SAARLAND	2 342
SACHSEN	2 847
SACHSEN-ANHALT	760
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN	2 282
THÜRINGEN	728
ELLADA	
VOREIA ELLADA	
KENTRIKI ELLADA	
ATTIKI	
NISIA	
ESPAÑA	
NOROESTE	1 823
NORESTE	539
MADRID	2 690
CENTRO	845
ESTE	2 050
SUR	1 872
CANARIAS	331
FRANCE (EXCLUDING DOM/TOM)	
ÎLE DE FRANCE	71 404
BASSIN PARISIEN	15 838
NORD-PAS-DE-CALAIS	6 602
EST	15 340
OUEST	9 167
SUD-OUEST	13 245
CENTRE-EST	16 858
MEDITERRANEE	18 041
DEPARTEMENTS D'OUTRE-MER	1 134
IRELAND	4 160
ITALIA	
NORD OVEST	1 246
LOMBARDIA	2 101
NORD EST	3 013
EMILIA-ROMAGNA	1 918
CENTRO	3 713
LAZIO	6 119
CAMPANIA	529
ABRUZZI-MOLISE	472
SUD	700
SICILIA	846
SARDEGNA	155
LUXEMBOURG	
NEDERLAND	
NOORD-NEDERLAND	
OOST-NEDERLAND	
WEST-NEDERLAND	
ZUID-NEDERLAND	
ÖSTERREICH	
OSTÖSTERREICH	13 288
SÜDÖSTERREICH	2 550
WESTÖSTERREICH	6 754
PORTUGAL	
CONTINENTE	
AÇORES	
MADEIRA	
SUOMI/FINLAND	
CONTINENTAL FINLAND	2 182
ALAND ISLANDS	
SVERIGE	
UNITED KINGDOM	
NORTH	4 068
YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE	10 393
EAST MIDLANDS	5 296
EAST ANGLIA	3 896
SOUTH EAST	41 894
SOUTH WEST	8 321
WEST MIDLANDS	4 654
NORTH WEST	9 739
WALES	6 196
SCOTLAND	12 229
NORTHERN IRELAND	3 612

WOMEN HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES, BY MEMBER STATE, 1991/92
(Graph F11)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F metro-politan	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK
Total		22 840	298 846	27 721	138 889	348 510	25 852	112 092		71 180	17 270	21 449	28 502	38 522	400 559
Women		12 265	131 080	14 965	78 336	188 241	12 230	56 588		33 145	8 624		16 666	22 043	194 222
Men		10 575	167 766	12 756	60 553	160 269	13 622	55 504		38 035	8 646		11 836	16 479	206 337

HIGHER EDUCATION GRADUATES, BY FIELD OF STUDY AND BY MEMBER STATE, 1991/92
(Graphs F12 and F13)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F metro-politan	IRL	I	L	NL	AT	P	FI	SE	UK	Total EU (13 countries)
Humanities, religion, theology, fine arts		2 049	25 427	4 302	16 776	55 046	4 874	17 049		7 444	2 334	2 868	1 584	1 089	44 755	185 597
Social sciences		4 901	40 303	5 071	27 309	129 685	7 747	23 050		19 381	3 561	4 836	2 599	5 444	121 423	395 310
Law		312	10 083	1 400	22 172		411	14 520		3 335	1 303	1 654	509	890		56 589
Natural sciences		267	17 028	1 469	7 506	60 599	3 115	7 162		1 854	837	590	744	696	28 405	130 272
Mathematics, computer sciences		276	11 753	1 241	4 872		1 657	3 364		363	594	562	1 682	1 377	20 254	47 995
Medical sciences		3 656	56 393	4 436	16 766	10 314	948	27 963		10 609	1 941	804	9 127	9 163	45 274	197 394
Engineering, architecture		5 147	68 420	4 555	14 569	49 670	4 707	12 740		12 899	2 762	3 380	5 885	9 580	59 126	253 440
Other		6 232	69 439	5 247	28 919	43 196	2 393	6 244		15 295	3 938	6 755	6 372	10 462	81 322	285 814

I

STATUS AND POPULATION

SOURCES: *(Graphs I2, I3, I4, I7, I8, I9 and I10)*

B fr: *Services des Statistiques*, 1993, *Ministère de l'Education, de la Recherche et de la Formation.*

B nl: For the ratio: *Tijdschrift onderwijsrecht-onderwijsbeleid, jaargang 1993-1994.*

DK: Data Kontorets Statistik- og Analysefunktion.

D: Federal Statistical Office.
Data for 1985 on the *Kindergärten* are taken from the *Jugendhilfestatistik 1986.*

GR: Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, European Union Directorate, Section C Eurydice.
Data for 1970, 1980 and 1985 are taken from the Statistical Yearbooks for 1989 and 1991, Unesco, Paris, as are the data on secondary technical and higher education.

E: *Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa,* Ministry of Education and Science.
Instituto Nacional de Estadistica.
Data for 1975, 1980, 1985 and 1990 on feminization at higher education level (university and non-university) are taken from the Statistical Yearbooks for 1989 and 1991, Unesco, Paris.

F: *Ministère de l'Education nationale, de l'enseignement supérieur et de l'insertion professionnelle.*

IRL: Statistical Reports 1992 and 1993, Department of Education.

I: Ministry of Education, *Servizio Statistico.*

L: Ministry of Education.
Service des Statistiques et des Etudes Economiques (STATEC).
Ministry for the Civil Service.

NL: *Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Divisie Sociaal-Economische Statistieken.*

AT: *Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.*

P: *Estatisticas da Educação do INE.*
The 1990 data on the primary level are taken from the Eurostat publication *Education in the European Union, Statistics and Indicators*, Luxembourg, 1995.
The 1980 data on higher education are taken from the Statistical Yearbooks for 1989 and 1990, Unesco, Paris.

FI: *Statistics Finland*, OECD.
Eurydice Finland, National Board of Education.

SE: Ministry of Education and *Statistics Sweden.*

UK (E/W): Department for Education, *Teachers in Service*, vols 1966 to 1992.

UK (SC): The Scottish Office Education and Industry Department.

PUPILS AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION, 1992/93
(TABLE I2)

	Pupils	Population	%
B	1 531.9	10 068.3	15,2
DK	833.9	5 180.6	16
D	11 132.6	80 974.6	13,7
GR	1 602	10 350.3*	15,4
E	7 345.6	39 048.0	18,8
F	9 955	57 529.7	17,3
IRL	n/a	3 560.0	n/a
I	9 393.6	56 960.3*	16,4
L	53.3	395.2	13,4
NL	2 693	15 239.2	17,6
A	1 150.8	7 962.0	14,4
P	1 746.6	9 864.6*	17,7
FI	.718.6	5 055.0	14,2
SE	1 193.4	8 692.0	13,7
UK	11 403.1	58 098.9*	19,6

Source: Eurostat.

* Provisional data.

MOVEMENT IN PUPIL:TEACHER RATIOS (FULL-TIME EQUIVALENTS) BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR (1965-93)
(Graph I2)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993
B fr							
Pre-school + primary				19.7		15,3	15,1
Secondary general, technical and vocational				8,1		7,9	7,7
B nl							
Pre-school + primary						16	
Secondary general, technical and vocational						8	
DK							
Pre-school							
Primary (*folkeskole*)					11,3	10,1	10,4
Upper secondary general (*HHX* and *HTX* not included)					10,3	9,5	8,5
D							
Pre-school							
Primary				23,7	20,1	20,4	20,4
Lower secondary Upper secondary				19,9 12,8	16,1 11,2	14,9 10,6	15,6 11
Gr							
Pre-school			26,3	22,1	20,8	15,9	16,3
Primary			30,8	24,2	23,4	18,4	18,5
General secondary			28,3	19,8	16,6	14,1	14,7
E							
Pre-school			36,2	31,7	27,4	22,9	18,8
Primary			34,9	29	25,9	19,7	17,6
Secondary general			20,1	20,8	19,2	17	
F							
Pre-school					27,9	26,2	24,7
Primary					19,6	20,1	19,5
Secondary general					14,4	13,8	13,6
IRL							
Preschool							
Primary							
Secondary general							
I							
Pre-school				13,1		10,8	10,1
Primary				15,7		10,5	10,2
Secondary general				10,3		8,8	9,5

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993
L							
Pre-school	29,5	24,6	21,5	17,8	17,6		
Primary	24,9	19,6	18,2	14,9	14,1	11,9	11,6
Secondary general	14	14,2	7,9	11,3	9,5		8,5
NL							
Pre-school							
Primary	32	30	27	23	20	21	20
Secondary general			19	17	19	16	16
AT							
Pre-school							
Primary	23,7	21,4	19,7	16,3	12,5	12,7	14
Secondary general	22,9	22,3	21,9	13,3	10	8,3	8,6
P							
Pre-school			16	18	19	15	17
Primary	33	32	21	18	17	13	
Secondary general	22	19	20	12	11	9	
FI							
Pre-school							
Primary	20,8	19,9		15,6	14,5	14	14,5
Secondary general	19,1	18,5		16,2	17,2	16,3	18,8
SE							
Pre-school							
Primary		14,2	12,9	10,5	10,1	9,5	10,4
Secondary general		10	11,4	9,1	9,4	10,5	11,2
UK (EW)							
Pre-school	25,7	19,2	21,6	19,8	19,7	19,4	19,2
Primary	28,6	27,5	24,2	22,7	22,2	22	22,4
Secondary general	18,7	17,7	17,2	16,6	16,1	15,3	16,1
UK (SC)							
Pre-school			24,5	25,2	25,8	25,7	25,5
Primary		27,8	22,4	20,3	20,4	19,5	19,3
Secondary general		15,8	15,1	14,3	13,7	12,2	12,6

Source: Eurydice.

Germany: All types of schools at secondary level.

MOVEMENT IN PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN TEACHERS IN NURSERY, PRIMARY, SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE COMBINED, 1965-93

(GRAPHS I3 AND I4)

	1965		1970		1975		1980		1985		1990		1993	
	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
B fr														
Pre-school + primary					8 623	22 322	7 032	22 688	6 701	24 255	6 497	25 823	6 313	27 430
Secondary general, technical and vocational					19 163	19 823	21 646	24 457	22 882	26 698	21 832	26 703	21 071	26 932
Higher non-university					3 714	2 263	3 957	2 712	3 480	2 741	3 532	2 899	3 594	3 139
University											2 513	309	2 762	389
B nl														
Pre-school + primary											9 844	28 880	9 260	29 759
Secondary general, technical and vocational											27 802	25 880	27 015	26 502
Higher non-university											4 751	2 992	4 950	3 207
University											3 251	890		
DK														
Pre-school (estimates)									1 500	15 000	1 500	16 000	1 500	17 300
Primary									13 200	19 700	12 600	18 900	13 800	19 100
Lower and upper secondary									20 800	23 500	21 600	24 100	25 600	27 400
Higher non-university + university									6 200	3 800	6 200	3 800	5 600	3 400
D														
Pre-school									1 773	78 494	2 284	89 168	4 547	133 010
Primary									28 179	105 292	37 452	111 823	33 711	191 365
Secondary general									198 870	159 998	168 564	168 724	216 702	191 849
Seconary technical									71 266	33 098	68 973	31 220	73 734	39 025
Higher non-university									29 713	13 803	28 186	17 555	32 584	23 257
University									102 564	36 230	131 155	31 985		
GR														
Pre-school					0 *	4 137 *	0 *	6 514 *	0 *	7 617 *	97	8 277	75	8 104
Primary					19 077	17 748	19 470	17 845	19 400	18 549	20 837	22 762	19 181	22 864
Secondary general					8 766	9 953	14 190	17 547	18 330	23 452	21 460	28 342	20 450	27 363
Secondary technical	Gymnasio + Lykeo						5 952 *	1 882 *	5 396 *	2 742 *	6 086 *	3 348 *	8 513	6 029
Higher non-university + university							7 170 *	3 372 *	8 315 *	3 563 *	9 612 *	4 595 *	7 809	3 053
E														
Pre-school					334	24 287	1 202	34 386	2 850	36 723	1 879	38 172	2 906	51 863
Primary					33 264	72 025	35 730	80 417	35 163	88 506	34 935	93 091	35 989	92 570
Secondary general					76 055	66 182	73 732	75 076	72 342	87 702	64 019	112 222	146 285	150 645
Secondary technical					22 224	8 430	27 927	12 557	36 926	19 304	42 843	32 547		
Higher non-university + university					24 063 *	5 638 *	33 834 *	8 997 *	34 952 *	12 552 *	46 418 *	19 318 *	54 926	25 716
F														
Pre-school									21 961	68 539	22 788	74 691	23 638	79 191
Primary									52 143	161 547	48 096	157 878	47 237	161 365
Secondary general									177 485	227 486	184 110	245 160	185 648	251 352
Secondary technical														
Higher non-university									47 336	20 056	65 013	29 777	79 870	37 499
University														
IRL														
Pre-school														
Primary					4 928	12 376	5 057	14 408	5 120	16 024	4 830	15 600	4 828	15 933
Secondary general									9 658	9 620	9 213	9 631	9 313	10 494
Secondary technical														
Higher non-university														
University														
I														
Pre-school					0	19 936	81	53 131	135	65 271	437	75 922	333	74 376
Primary					73 811	202 808	61 857	214 982	33 677	248 018	25 211	245 859	23 527	254 227
Secondary general	Scuola media + Ist. sec. Art.				191 079	110 796	199 816	254 833	198 965	295 816	209 621	335 941	190 470	312 158
Secondary technical														
Higher non-university														
University					16 952	6 502	21 773	4 485	30 391	10 290				

	1965		1970		1975		1980		1985		1990		1993	
	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
L														
Pre-school	0	190	0	317	0	401	4	424	7	133	16	187	17	240
Primary	708	750	869	930	906	1 001	983	946	918	891	944	1 057	981	1 235
Secondary general	338	88	422	120	640	259	1929		566	202	659	332	638	358
Secondary technical					566	190			732	333	1 052	506	1 056	533
Higher non-university	45	6	42	12	49	8	49	10	58	6	56	7	57	9
NL														
Pre-school			0	16 676	0	18 677	0	21 312	0	22 028	0	20 913	0	22 153
Primary			25 639	24 152	28 490	27 995	31 418	31 709	38 855	63 561	37 042	62 370	36 907	68 757
Secondary general			29 819	8 588	36 131	11 802	40 256	13 953	38 829	14 342	29 038	14 659	37 409	16 336
Secondary technical					28 702	14 227	34 617	15 479	39 068	16 751	29 275	11 774	23 728	10 643
Higher non-university														
University					31 204	5620	31 302	6 653	31 663	8 997	33 241	11 164	36 598	11 587
AT														
Pre-school					56	5 522	39	7 030	46	8 113	34	9 295	20	10 285
Primary	10 076	13 559	9 106	15 709	7 766	18 608	6 749	20 776	5 868	22 437	5 324	24 080	4 987	25 820
Secondary general	10 478	8 255	14 199	12 540	15 661	13 104	21 980	25 861	22 273	29 158	21 734	30 777	21 992	32 830
Secondary technical	10 149	4 581	8 903	4 374	9 530	5 412	12 515	7 690	13 045	9 756	13 139	10 655	13 489	11 265
Higher non-university	107	68	464	158	651	232	1 056	440	1 348	596	1 184	686	1 266	882
University	4 615	630	6 905	955	7 070	1 231	7 373	1 335	8 398	1 854	9 886	2 812	11 298	3 846
P														
Pre-school					61	1 842	73	4 974	85	6 323	101	9 916		
Primary	3 609	24 176	7033	32103	11 421	48 074	11 871	56 875	12 357	58 135	13 300 *	58 800 *		
Secondary general	2 586	3 679	3293	4143	6 077	8 816	14 868	20 698	51 551		27 612	54 933		
Secondary technical	3 850	3 136	3819	3283	6 511	7 009			1 174	1 156	1 801	1 835		
Higher non-university University	1 677	240	2215	511	5 008	1 557	7 331 *	3 364 *	6 523	2 370	7 423	4 784		
FI													*1992*	
Pre-school			4	1 828	27	2 790	196	4 993	380	8 066	491	10 988		
peruskoulu/grundskola		59%		59,5%				61,2%		64%		65,5%		66.1%
Upper secondary general		58%		61,5%				59,9%		59,2%		59,4%		60.1%
Upper secondary technical					6 859	6 609					10 182	13 777		
Higher non-university														
University			2 601	703	3 622	1 532	3 970	1 856	4 570	2 408	6 099	3 131		
SE														
Pre-school							1 581	43 241	2 167	56 876	2 352	76 477	2 041	75 369
grundskola			23 089	45 139	27 101	52 263	32 713	65 206	30 122	63 079	28 880	63 913	25 411	60 376
Upper secondary general + upper secondary technical			13 650	9 608	11 398	7 915	14 541	11 010	15 461	11 959	15 269	12 583	15 327	12 634
Higher non-university														
University											13 215	6 093	13 673	6 481
UK (E/W)														
Pre-school + primary	36 639	104 327	41 024	122 303	46 236	155 082	45 092	152 135	37 583	133 778	34 619	144 119	33 254	146 825
Secondary general	87 078	60 585	95 832	69 055	122 262	94 474	136 048	111 623	127 840	109 010	107 424	99 015	99 166	97 466
Secondary technical														
Higher non-university	31 745	5 259	42 428	7 162	51 945	11 249	63 326	16 676	61 900	19 936	55 618	23 831	50 540	25 328
University														
UK (SC)														
Pre-school							0	661	8	691	10	808	18	865
Primary							2 859	22 029	2 388	18 441	1 847	19 399	1 691	19 581
Secondary general							16 512	12 559	14 875	11 932	12 446	10 240	12 448	10 470
Secondary technical														
Higher non-university														
University	Public only; Full-time only						5 560	845	5 371	996	11 685	4 047	11 665	4 546

Source: Eurydice.

Greece, Spain and **Portugal**: Figures marked with an asterisk are taken from the Unesco or Eurostat publications (See Sources for individual references.)

WOMEN HAVE FAR FEWER HEADSHIPS
(Graphs I5 and I6)

PRIMARY EDUCATION							SECONDARY EDUCATION					
1985			1993				1985			1993		
Men and women	Women	%	Men and women	Women	%		Men and women	Women	%	Men and women	Women	%
2 168	864	40	1 639	607	37	**B fr**	770	239	31	803	215	27
2 943	1 169	40	2 472	858	35	**B nl**	1 594	441	28	1 308	221	17
		20			25	**DK**			7			11
						D						
						GR						
						E						
						F	6 849	1 601	23	12 305 [1]		29
			3 345	1 477	44	**IRL**				550	233	42
4 814	1 616	34	4 616	2 122	46	**I**	9 254	2 536	27	9 567	2 754	29
-	-	-	-	-	-	**L**	24	2	8	29	4	14
8 794	1 103	12.5	8 287	1 080	13	**NL**[2]						
			3 333	1 609	48	**AT**						
						P						
1 220	200	16	1 234	282	23	**FI**	499	80	16	500	92	18
1 416	138	10	2 704	1 257	46	**SE**	410	64	16	552	149	27
22.323	9 918	44	21 202	10 661	50	**UK (E/W)**	4 967	780	16	4 716	1 027	22
						UK (NI)						
2 310	1 407	61	2 278	1 622	71	**UK (SC)**	424	15	3	404	11	3

Source: Eurydice.

([1]) Direction de l'Evaluation et de la Prospective.
([2]) Integrale Personeelstelling Onderwijs (IPTO).

MOVEMENT IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY AGE BAND, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS COMBINED, 1965-93
(Graphs I7, I8, I9 and I10)

Primary education								Secondary education						
1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993		1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993
							B fr							
		8 666	6 684	7 558	7 333	7 122	< 29			10 830	11 826	9 664	5 573	5 227
		11 912	12 506	10 569	9 273	10 837	30-39			13 926	16 785	18 358	16 542	14 312
		4 921	7 199	10 307	11 829	10 813	40-49			8 065	11 368	13 997	16 274	16 851
		5 446	3 331	2 522	3 885	4 971	>50			6 165	6 124	7 561	10 146	11 613
							B nl							
					9 793	8 517	< 30						4 942	4 809
					11 116	12 186	30-40						18 097	15 295
					13 284	13 137	40-50						18 642	18 824
					4 529	5 180	>50						12 001	14 589
							DK (*)					(*)1988		
				6 300	3 200	2 500	< 30					130	138	335
				26 100	18 500	14 000	30-40					2 334	2 015	1 979
				18 600	24 000	25 200	40-50					4 060	4 439	4 450
				9 900	13 700	14 600	>50					4 080	1 810	2 202
							D							
				6 667	4 929	13 098	< 30					14 750	6 040	11 539
				61 675	44 210	50 519	30-40					160 800	103 030	94 672
				45 159	68 750	95 788	40-50					126 045	150 588	184 669
				19 317	31 066	65 658	>50					55 946	76 349	117 604
							GR							
		9 080	8 443	10 777	16 167		< 30			5 253	9 559	7 615	6 370	
		10 975	11 204	10 974	12 521		30-40			7 648	13 015	21 517	24 245	
		9 984	11 517	9 688	9 848		40-50			4 126	7 005	9 188	14 412	
		6 786	6 151	6 555	5 063		>50			1 692	2 158	3 462	4 775	
							E							
							< 30							
							30-40							
							40-50							
							>50							
							F							
						37 339	< 30							49 310
						96 709	30-39							106 512
						119 336	40-49							184 897
						53 857	>50							94 117
							IRL							
1 503	3 036	6 408	7 437	7 284	5 122	4 272	< 30							
1 084	2 722	4 323	4 876	6 218	6 954	7 185	30-40							
1 035	1 380	2 581	3 886	4 372	4 677	5 239	40-50							
1 292	2 650	3 823	2 761	3 057	3 709	4 220	>50							
							I							
							< 30							
							30-40							
							40-50							
							>50							

Primary education								Secondary education						
1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993		1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993
							L							
		619	502	220	279	367	< 30	95	157	391		34	159	131
		677	777	722	582	494	30-40	152	168	261		326	230	196
		278	375	637	780	818	40-50	99	98	132		248	406	434
		333	275	230	360	537	> 50	125	119	115		160	196	235
							NL							
	26 170	28 570	28 350	20 672	10 568	8 897	< 30		9 062	12 326	10 472	6 509	3 378	3 081
	9 988	13 996	20 298	26 614	25 197	23 077	30-40		12 470	16 633	21 463	21 300	15 760	13 556
	5 399	7 470	9 781	13 470	20 179	25 018	40-50		7 875	10 917	13 763	16 718	14 158	22 791
	8 434	6 449	4 697	5 315	6 813	9 464	> 50		9 000	8 057	8 511	8 744	10 401	14 317
							AT							
6 203			9 930	8 365	7 056	6 329	< 30	3 725			22 206	18 208	10 559	8 258
6 206			7 216	10 888	11 630	11 231	30-40	5 075			14 783	20 443	25 017	25 040
5 118			3 763	4 540	7 689	9 928	40-50	4 340			5 064	8 300	13 136	16 331
6 111			6 516	4 512	3 029	3 319	> 50	5 593			5 788	4 480	3 799	5 194
							P							
12 235	13 246	25 634		14 541			< 30	1 357	1 361	6 985			24 418	
7 759	13 320	17 687		27 854			30-40	2 129	2 448	4 029			32 535	
3 476	6 947	9 920		16 453			40-50	1 818	1 783	2 019			16 269	
4 315	5 623	6 254		11 644			>50	1 661	1 844	1 860			9 323	
(1967)							**FI**	(1967)						
7 598	7 232	6 943			6 413		< 34	6 150	6 873	8 111			4 738	
7 853	8 198	6 735			5 212		35-44	4 066	4 333	7 478			8 312	
3 671	4 032	5 174			4 510		45-54	1 669	1 589	3 263			8 396	
3 252	2 276	1 458			3 043		> 55	2 058	1 346	1 001			3 321	
							SE							
			14 514	5 592	5 803	5 148	< 29				1 479	943	688	1 245
			37 979	28 813	17 808	14 742	30-39				7 649	5 879	3 932	4 194
			25 120	32 648	37 780	35 268	40 -49				8 140	10 711	11 066	10 319
			20 306	26 068	31 452	30 629	> 50				7 953	9 892	1 266	12 203
							UK (E/W)							
		70 947	47 407	22 088	24 446	28 931	< 30			88 479	79 148	47 488	24 390	22 490
		42 359	52 435	56 648	47 713	38 638	30-40			52 931	77 173	92 566	70 706	55 074
		48 828	54 127	52 402	67 430	77 075	40-50			40 776	52 698	61 729	76 335	84 172
		39 184	42 323	40 140	39 149	35 435	> 50			34 550	36 987	34 923	35 008	34 896
							UK (SC)							
			7 447	3 816	2 744	2 865	< 30				8 706	5 865	2 138	1 875
			5 915	6 236	6 155	5 369	30-40				9 134	10 436	7 995	6 924
			5 817	5 810	7 448	8 568	40-50				5 857	6 569	8 754	9 792
			5 709	4 967	4 899	4 470	> 50				5 374	3 937	3 799	4 327

Source: Eurydice.

TEACHERS' CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

CONTACTUAL WORKING TIME AND ANNUAL NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1992/93 (GRAPH J1)

	Annual number of school days	Annual number of school days divided by weekly number of school days	Number of school weeks according to calendar of holidays (calculation)		Number of pubic holidays included in the annual total of school days	Number of teaching weeks, excluding public holidays
			including public holidays	excluding public holidays		
B	182	36.4	approx. 37	approx. 36	0	182/5 = 36.4
DK	200	40		approx. 40		40
D						40
GR	175	35		35	0	175/5 = 35
E (primary)	185	37	>37	36	7	178/5 = 35.6
E (secondary)	180	36	>36	35	7	173/5 = 34.6
F	180	36	36	35	5	170/5 = 35
IRL (primary)	184	36.8	37	36	0	184/5 = 36.8
IRL (secondary)	180	36			0	180/5 = 36
I	200	33.3	35	34	5	34
L	212	35.3	36	<36	0	212/6 = 35.33
NL	200	40		40	36	200/5 = 40
AT	180	36	37		0	180/5 = 36
P	175	35		35	0	175/5 = 35
FI	190	38	39	38	0	190/5 = 38
SE	178	35.6	37	36	0	178/5 = 35.6
UK (E/W, NI)	190	38	39	38	1	189/5 = 37.8
UK (SC)	190	38	39	38	0	190/5 = 38

Source: Eurydice.

CONTRACTUAL WORKING TIME AND ANNUAL NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1992/93
(Graph J1)

	A. Primary schools		B. Lower secondary schools		C. Upper secondary schools (general)		D. Upper secondary schools (vocational)	
	Working time	Teaching time	Working time	Teaching time	Working time	Teaching time	Working time	Teaching time
B fr	946 h 24' (26 h x 36.4 w)	849 h 20' (23 h 20' x 36.4 w)	= teaching time	Max 728 h (24 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w) Min. 667 h 20' (22 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w)	= teaching time	Max 667 h 20' (22 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w) Min 606 h 40' (20 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w)	= teaching time	Max 1 001 h (33 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w) Min 606 h 40' (20 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w)
B nl	946 h 24' (26 h x 36.4 w)	849 h 20' (23 h 20' x 36.4 w)	= teaching time	Max 728 h (24 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w) Min 667 h 20' (22 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w	= teaching time	Max 667 h 20' (22 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w) Min 606 h 40' (20 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w)	= teaching time	Max 1 001 h (33 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w) Min 940 h 20' (31 h x 50/60' x 36.4 w)
DK	1 680 h	750 h (25 h x 45/60' x 40 w)	1 680 h	750 h (25 h x 45/60' x 40 w)	1680 h	750 h (25 h x 45/60' x 40 w)	1680 h	750 h (25 h x 45/60' x 40 w)
D		Max 840 h (28 h x 45/60'x 40 w) Min 780 h (26 x 45/60'x 40 w)		Max 840 h (28 h x 45/60' x 40 w) Min 690 h (23 h x 45/60' x 40 w)		Max 810 h (27 h x 45/60' x 40 w) Min 690 h (23 h x 45/60' x 40 w)		Max 840 h (28 h x 45/60' x 40 w) Min 690 h (23 h x 45/60' x 40 w)
GR	1 045 h (27 h 30 x 38 w)	656 h 15' (18 h 45 x 35 w)	Max 1 170 h (30 h x 39 w) Min 721 h 30' (18 h 30 x 39 w)	Max 551 h 15' (15 h 45 x 35 w) Min 472 h 30 (13 h 30 x 35 w)	Max 1 170 h (30 h x 39 w) Min 721 h 30' (18 h 30 x 39 w)	Max 551 h 15' (15 h 45 x 35 w) Min 472 h 30 (13 h 30 x 35 w)	Max 1 170 h (30 h x 39 w) Min 721 h 30' (18 h 30 x 39 w)	Max 551 h 15' (15 h 45 x 35 w) Min 472 h 30 (13 h 30 x 35 w)
E	Max 1 537 h 30' (37 h 30' x 41 w) Min 1 230 h (30 h x 41 w)	890 h (25 h x 35.6 w)	Max 1 537 h 30' (37 h 30' x 41 w) Min 1 230 h (30 h x 41 w)	623 h (18 h x 34.6 w)	Max 1 537 h 30' (37 h 30' x 41 w) Min 1230 h (30 h x 41 w)	623 h (18 h x 34.6 w)	Max 1 537 h 30' (37 h 30' x 41 w) Min 1230 h (30 h x 41 w)	623 h (18 h x 34.6 w)
F	972 h (27 h x 36 w)	910 h (26 h x 35 w)	= teaching time	630 h (18 h x 35 w)	= teaching time	Max 630 h (18 h x 35 w) Min 525 h (15 h x 35 w)	= teaching time	Max 1 365 h (39 h x 35 w) Min 630 h (18 h x 35 w)
IRL	846 h (23 h x 36.8 w)		= teaching time	Max 792 h (22 h x 36 w) Min 648 h (18 h x 36 w)	= teaching time	Max 792 h (22 h x 36 w) Min 648 h (18 h x 36 w)	= teaching time	Max 828 h (23 h x 36 w) Min 756 (21 h x 36 w)
I	1 132 h ((22 h x 46 w) + 120 h)	748 h (22 h x 34 w)	946 h (18 h x 46 w) + 120 h	612 h (18 h x 34 w)	946 h (18 h x 46 w) + 120 h	612 h (18 h x 34 w)	946 h (18 h x 46 w) + 120 h	612 h (18 h x 34 w)
L	Max 900 h 40' ((18 h x 55/60') + (6 h x 50/60') x 35.33 w) + 141 h supervision) Min 677 h ((12 h x 50/60') + (10 h x 55/60') x 35.33 w))	Max 730 h 13' ((18 h x 55/60') + (5 x 50/60') x 35.33 w)) Min 644 h 50' ((12 h x 50/60') + (9 x 55/60') x 35.33 w))	Max 647 h 47' (22 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w) Min 530 h (18 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w)	Max 618 h 20' (21 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w) Min 500 h 33' (17 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w)	Max 647 h 47' (22 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w) Min 530 h (18 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w)	Max 618 h 20' (21 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w) Min 500 h 33' (17 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w)	Max 647 h 47' (22 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w) Min 530 h (18 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w)	Max 618 h 20' (21 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w) Min 500 h 33' (17 h x 50/60' x 35.33 w)
NL	1 520 h (38 h x 40 w)	988 h 65% of 1 520 h	1 520 h (38 h x 40 w)	912 h 60% of 1520 h	1 520 h (38 h x 40 w)	912 h 60% of 1520 h	1 520 h (38 h x 40 w)	912 h 60% of 1520 h

	A. Primary schools		B. Lower secondary schools		C. Upper secondary schools (general)		D. Upper secondary schools (vocational)	
	Working time	Teaching time	Working time	Teaching time	Working time	Teaching time	Working time	Teaching time
AT	1 520 h (40 h x 38 w)	828 h (23 h x 36 w)	1 520 h (40 h x 38 w)	*Hauptschule* 828 h *Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule* 720 h (23/20 h x 36 w)	1 520 h (40 h x 38 w)	720 h (20 h x 36 w)	1 520 h (40 h x 38 w)	*Berufsschule* 828 h *Berufsbildende mittlere und höhere Schulen* 720 h (23/20 h x 36 w)
P	1 820 h (35 h x 52 w)	875 h (25 h x 35 w)	1 820 h (35 h x 52 w)	Max 770 h (22 h x 35 w) Min 490 h (14 h x 35 w)	1 820 h (35 h x 52 w)	Max 700 h (20 h x 35 w) Min 420 h (12 h x 35 w)	1 820 h (35 h x 52 w)	Max 1 000 (25 h x 40 w) Min 880 h (22 h x 40 w)
FI	968 h (874 h + 94 h)	874 h (23 h x 38 w)	892 h (798 h + 94 h)	798 h (21 h x 38 w)	854 h (760 h + 94 h)	760 h (20 h x 386 w)	Max 1 950 h Min 1650 h	855 h
SE	897 h (617 h + 280 h)	Max 617 h 04' (26 x 40/60' x 35.6 w) Min 569 h 36' (24 h x 40/60' x 35.6 w)	897 h (617 h + 280 h)	Max 617 h 04' (26 h x 40/60' x 35.6 w) Min 569 h 36' (24 h x 40/60' x 35.6 w)	920 h (640 h + 280 h)	Max 640 h 04' (27 x 40/60' x 35.6 w) Min 498 h 24' (21 x 40/60' x 35.6 w)	920 h (640 h + 280 h)	Max 640 h 04' (27 x 40/60' x 35.6 w) Min 498 h 24' (21 x 40/60' x 35.6 w)
UK (E/W, NI)	1 265 h 195 days	As directed by the headteacher	1 265 h 195 days	As directed by the headteacher	1 265 h 195 days	As directed by the headteacher		
UK (SC)	1 070 h (950 h + 120 h)	Max 950 h (25 x 38), age 9 Min 855 h (22.5 x 38), age 6	1 070 h (950 h + 120 h)	Max 950 h (25 x 38)	1 070 h (950 h + 120 h)	Max 950 h (25 x 38)		

Source: Eurydice.

NB: Min = minimum; Max = maximum; w = week(s); h = hour(s).

RETAIL PRICE INDEX (1985 = 100)

(Graph J4)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
B	28.2	35.1	52.3	71.2	100	120.6
DK	19.4	26.7	41.6	68.3	100	128.3
D	44.7	50.3	67.8	82.5	100	119.9
GR	9.1	10.3	18.4	39.1	100	352.6
E	10.7	13.7	24.2	56.7	100	160.6
F	20.4	25.3	38.5	63.3	100	125.6
IRL	12.0	15.6	29.0	56.1	100	126.9
I	12.3	14.2	24.4	52.5	100	153.8
L	31.9	37.0	52.4	70.3	100	120.1
NL	31.4	40.0	60.6	81.8	100	114.6
AT	36.5	42.8	61.0	78.8	100	124.0
P	4.7	6.4	12.9	35.2	100	220.0
FI	18.2	22.7	40.1	66.5	100	139.7
SE	21.6	26.9	39.5	65.0	100	158.2
UK	15.7	19.6	36.1	70.7	100	148.7

Source: Eurostat, Consumer price index, Theme 2, Economy and Finance, Series B, Short-term statistics, 1996 edition.

GDP AT CURRENT PRICES IN NATIONAL CURRENCIES

(Graphs J5, J6 and J7)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
B	842 133	1 280 924	2 313 136	3500920	4 745 838	7 285 204
DK	70 320	118 627	216 256	373786	666 496	873 238
D	459 170	675 300	1 026 510	1481360	1 925 290	2 853 700
GR	179 765	298 917	672 158	1710107	4 617 816	16 760 352
E	1 398,9	2 576,2	6 018,3	15154,5	28 200,9	60 904,3
F	4834 88	782 560	1 452 319	2758655	4 700 143	7 088 604
IRL	958,9	1 620,2	3 728	8719	18 710,9	32 289,9
I	39 124	62 883	125 378	339680	810 580	1 560 114
L	35 142	54 043	86 631	135200	223 500	432 578
NL	67 802	114 573	209 420	336740	425 350	574 300
AT	246 320	375 880	656 120	998970	1 348 425	2 117 841
P	107 485	177 793	377 204	1231501	4 006 624	13 625 623
FI	28 071	44 858	101 882	186846	331 628	480 470
SE	112 112	170 836	299 821	522049	866 601	1 442 181
UK	35 541	50 930	104 490	225539	356 172	627 701

Source: OECD, National Accounts, detailed tables: 1964-81 (1983 ed.); 1981-93 (1995 ed.).

GDP is expressed in millions except for Spain and Italy where it is in billions (thousands of millions).

POPULATION (THOUSANDS)

(Graphs J5, J6 and J7)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
B	9 428	9 660	9 788	9 855	9 858	10 068
DK	4 741	4 907	5 054	5 122	5 111	5 181
D	75 591	78 269	78 882	78 180	77 709	80 975
GR	8 529	8 780	8 986	9 588	9 920	10 349
E	31 889	33 588	35 338	37 242	38 345	39 048
F	48 562	50 528	52 600	53 731	55 157	57 530
IRL	2 873	2 943	3 164	3 393	3 544	3 560
I	51 907	53 685	55 293	56 388	56 602	56 960
L	330	339	357	363	366	395
NL	12 212	12 958	13 599	14 091	14 454	15 239
AT	7 248	7 455	7 592	7 546	7 556	7 962
P	9 029	8 698	8 879	9 714	10 009	9 865
FI	4 558	4 614	4 702	4 771	4 894	5 055
SE	7 695	8 004	8 177	8 303	8 343	8 692
UK	54 170	55 546	56 231	56 285	56 596	58 099

Source: Eurostat.

MOVEMENT OF MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES IN NATIONAL CURRENCIES BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

(Graphs J4-5-6-7)

B fr	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993		E	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
							Minimum salary							
	108 932	143 708	310 588	445 303	566 065	760 509	Primary			115 710	301 800	726 778	1 470 166	2 776 312
	130 940	173 020	313 055	456 865	588 046	780 921	Lower secondary			159 600	404 400	843 813	1 756 200	3 244 938
	172 740	217 216	394 186	573 278	729 957	962 861	Upper sec. general			159 600	404 400	843 813	1 756 200	3 244 938
	172 740	217 216	394 186	573 278	729 957	962 861	Upper sec. vocational			159 600	404 400	843 813	1 756 200	3 244 938
							Maximum salary							
	195 862	255 786	510 705	735 371	950 215	1 211 539	Primary			212 906	460 560	1 164 442	1 961 230	3 592 624
	237 376	304 012	559 091	809 879	1 078 385	1 335 945	Lower secondary			293 664	584 400	1 381 677	2 369 904	4 244 202
	313 916	396 832	716 493	1 035 736	1 293 713	1 692 102	Upper sec. general			293 664	584 400	1 381 677	2 369 904	4 244 202
	313 916	396 832	716 493	1 035 736	1 293 713	1 692 102	Upper sec. vocational			293 664	584 400	1 381 677	2 369 904	4 244 202
	89 323	132 601	236 324	355 243	481 420	723 600	Per capita GDP		43 868	76 700	170 307	406 920	735 452	1 559 729
B nl	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**F**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
	108 932	143 708	310 588	445 303	566 065	694 980	Primary		10 678	14 876	26 010	45 526	79 317	101 993
	130 940	173 020	313 055	456 865	588 046	712 284	Lower secondary		13 309	18 294	30 274	55 007	88 570	106 658
	172 740	217 216	394 186	573 278	729 957	897 924	Upper sec. general		15 321	20 907	34 332	60 097	96 767	116 298
	172 740	217 216	394 186	573 278	729 957	787 312	Upper sec. vocational		12 636	17 289	28 714	52 544	84 605	106 658
							Maximum salary							
	195 862	255 786	510 705	735 371	950 215	1 145 124	Primary		19 603	26 134	43 488	73 070	120 297	159 210
	237 376	304 012	559 091	809 879	1 078 385	1 257 648	Lower secondary		30 798	40 676	65 024	106 239	171 060	227 309
	313 916	396 832	716 493	1 035 736	1 293 713	1 601 028	Upper sec. general		39 206	51 599	81 982	133 004	214 156	254 362
	313 916	396 832	716 493	1 035 736	1 293 713	1 385 252	Upper sec. vocational		24 916	33 036	53 580	88 505	142 506	227 309
	89 323	132 601	236 324	355 243	481 420	723 600	Per capita GDP		9 956	15 488	27 611	51 342	85 214	123 216
DK	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**IRL**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
			72 814	102 205	141 515	184 977	Primary			865	2 017	4 287	7 922	12 482
			72 814	102 205	141 515	184 977	Lower secondary			865	2 017	4 287	7 922	12 482
			73 830	108 287	152 919	194 334	Upper sec. general			865	2 017	4 287	7 922	12 482
			73 830	108 287	152 919	194 334	Upper sec. vocational							
							Maximum salary							
			103 348	138 070	187 704	244 259	Primary			1 515	3 346	6 980	14 978	24 262
			103 348	138 070	187 704	244 259	Lower secondary			1 515	3 346	6 980	14 978	24 262
			132 050	174 508	229 032	291 753	Upper sec. general			1 515	3 346	6 980	14 978	24 262
			132 050	174 508	229 032	291 753	Upper sec. vocational							
	14 832	24 175	42 789	72 977	130 404	168 546	Per capita GDP		334	551	1 178	2 570	5 280	9 070
D	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**I**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
			28 944	37 275	39 234	56 104	Primary		1 100 267	1 425 242	2 494 612	7 015 000	14 800 000	19 769 000
			32 508	41 941	42 359	63 004	Lower secondary		1 285 300	1 659 133	2 887 400	7 639 060	15 650 000	21 251 600
			33 898	43 241	43 659	64 500	Upper sec. general		1 510 308	1 936 467	3 166 087	7 369 060	15 650 000	21 782 900
			33 898	43 241	43 659	64 500	Upper sec. vocationa		1 510 308	1 936 467	3 166 087	7 369 060	15 650 000	21 782 900
							Maximum salary							
			38 685	49 713	56 504	74 491	Primary		1 884 600	2 396 767	4 080 284	1 1627 845	2 1127 800	28 678 800
			43 113	55 370	62 939	82 859	Lower secondary		2 404 167	3 036 475	5 037 912	1 2751 421	2 2905 150	30 829 700
			44 413	56 670	64 239	84 355	Upper sec. general		2 656 692	3 347 067	5 404 187	1 2751 421	2 3177 800	31 600 400
			44 413	56 670	64 239	84 355	Upper sec. vocational		2 656 692	3 347 067	5 404 187	1 2751 421	2 3177 800	31 600 400
	6 074	8 628	13 013	18 948	24 776	35 242	Per capita GDP		753 733	1 171 333	2 267 520	6 023 977	14 320 695	27 389 642
GR	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**L**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
			91000	219604	693840	1988213	Primary		134 414	161 934	340 957	499 718	675 402	1 194 347
			112800	238000	693840	2064135	Lower secondary		194 779	234 659	530 570	678 188	916 617	1 413 742
			112800	238000	693840	2064135	Upper sec. general		194 779	246 295	530 570	678 188	916 617	1 640 520
			112800	238000	693840	2064135	Upper sec. vocational		204 438	246 295	530 570	777 622	1 051 008	1 640 520
							Maximum salary							
			203600	636852	1300065	2988922	Primary		262 389	316 112	654 080	1 019 832	1 378 371	2 246 210
			245000	692160	1300065	3064000	Lower secondary		317 925	383 019	895 882	1 154 960	1 561 006	2 492 288
			245000	692160	1300065	3064000	Upper sec. general		342 071	412 100	895 882	1 313 034	1 774 653	2 850 477
			245000	692160	1300065	3064000	Upper sec. vocational		342 071	412 100	895 882	1 313 034	1 774 653	2 850 477
	21077	34045	74801	178359	465506	1619514	Per capita GDP		106 491	159 419	242 664	372 452	610 656	1 095 134

NL	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993		SE	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
							Minimum salary							
					31 716	36 132	Primary		25 786	29 094	32 952	62 267	89 229	147 980
					36 469	41 544	Lower secondary		37 007	39 004	40 915	73 206	97 424	164 897
					38 352	43 692	Upper sec. general		41 050	43 206	40 915	81 511	102 263	164 897
					38 352	43 692	Upper sec. vocational		33 393	35 256	46 121	68 882	92 879	155 648
							Maximum salary							
					56 460	64 452	Primary		31 703	33 491	44 345	81 622	128 049	220 377
					62 652	71 724	Lower secondary		45 509	47 898	57 575	95 133	141 634	220 377
					82 248	95 952	Upper sec. general		50 458	53 104	63 210	101 234	141 634	221 835
					82 248	95 952	Upper sec. vocational		41 050	43 206	52 430	89 584	130 891	220 377
	5552	8842	15400	23898	29428	37686	Per capita GDP		14 569	21 344	36 666	62 875	103 872	165 921
AT	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**UK (E/W)**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
	32 970	51 436	96 264	139 076	178 682	265 356	Primary		730	980	2 253	3 519	5 817	11 244
	34 650	54 390	104 076	150 080	192 514	265 356	Lower secondary		730	980	2 253	3 519	5 817	11 244
	42 966	68 012	115 248	165 676	212 282	293 048	Upper sec. general		730	980	2 253	3 519	5 817	11 244
	34 342	55 321	94 031	137 077	177 331	246 071	Upper sec. vocational							
							Maximum salary							
	77 896	115 416	195 342	290 073	374 563	575 645	Primary		1 400	1 720	3 744	5 514	9 147	19 062
	93 912	139 006	228 627	337 043	432 761	575 645	Lower secondary		1 400	1 720	3 744	5 514	9 147	19 062
	121 086	177 226	293 160	424 389	537 257	711 900	Upper sec. general		1 400	1 720	3 744	5 514	9 147	19 062
	85 645	129 171	211 641	312 168	396 319	528 115	Upper sec. vocational							
	33 985	50 420	86 423	132 384	178 458	265 994	Per capita GDP		656	917	1 858	4 007	6 293	10 804
P	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**UK (NI)**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
						1 794 854	Primary		725	980	2 253	3 519	5 817	11 184
						2 555 711	Lower secondary		725	980	2 253	3 519	5 817	11 184
						2 555 711	Upper sec. general		725	980	2 253	3 519	5 817	11 184
							Upper sec. vocational							
							Maximum salary							
						4 669 204	Primary		1 425	1 740	3 744	5 514	9 147	18 837
						5 345 521	Lower secondary		1 425	1 740	3 744	5 514	9 147	18 837
						5 345 521	Upper sec. general		1 425	1 740	3 744	5 514	9 147	18 837
							Upper sec. vocational							
	11 904	20 441	42 483	126 776	400 302	1 381 209	Per capita GDP		656	917	1 858	4 007	6 293	10 804
FI	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**		**UK (SC)**	**1965**	**1970**	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1993**
							Minimum salary							
	7 525	13 125	18 750	35 250	55 000	91 875	Primary		675	980	1 446	3 903	6 006	12 387
		13 125	18 750	35 250	55 000	91 875	Lower secondary		820	1 175	1 683	4 104	6 291	12 387
		15 875	24 000	36 125	62 875	96 500	Upper sec. general		900	1 300	1 869	4 263	6 537	12 387
		16 625	23 000	40 125	52 625	78 000	Upper sec. vocational							
							Maximum salary							
		24 500	36 125	66 375	101 250	165 375	Primary		1 275	1 720	2 304	5 760	9 378	18 933
	18 500	24 500	36 125	66 375	101 250	165 375	Lower secondary		1 470	2 080	2 739	6 378	9 885	18 933
		41 875	45 000	72 000	110 000	173 125	Upper sec. general		1 750	2 375	3 096	6 378	9 885	18 933
		23 375	45 000	76 000	110 000	173 125	Upper sec. vocational							
	6 159	9 722	21 668	39 163	67 762	95 048	Per capita GDP		656	917	1 858	4 007	6 293	10 804

Source: Eurydice.

Gross annual salary is defined as the amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases, and allowances such as those for the cost of living, 13th month (where applicable), and holidays etc., minus the employer's social security and pension contributions. Salary figures are based on the case of a teacher who is (a) single, with no children, and (b) living in the capital.

Minimum salary is the salary received by teachers with the above characteristics at the start of their career, after completing their education, initial training and period of probation.

Maximum salary is the salary received by teachers with the above characteristics at the end of their career, i.e. in their last year before retirement.

CHANGES IN THE NUMBERS OF YEARS NEEDED TO REACH MAXIMUM SALARY FROM STARTING SALARY BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

(Graph J8)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
B						
Primary	30	30	27	27	27	27
Lower secondary			27	27	27	27
Upper secondary (general)			25	25	25	25
Upper secondary (vocational)			25	25	25	25
DK						
Primary					20	20
Lower secondary					20	20
Upper secondary (general)					16	16
Upper secondary (vocational)					16	16
D						
Primary	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22
Lower secondary	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22
Upper secondary (general)	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22
Upper secondary (vocational)	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22	18-22
GR						
Primary	35	35	35	35	32	32
Lower secondary	35	35	35	35	32	32
Upper secondary (general)	35	35	35	35	32	32
Upper secondary (vocational)	35	35	35	35	32	32
E						
Primary		40	40	40	40	40
Lower secondary		40	40	40	40	40
Upper secondary (general)		40	40	40	40	40
Upper secondary (vocational)		40	40	40	40	40
F						
Primary					18-28	20-30
Lower secondary					20-30	20-30
Upper secondary (general)					19-30	20-30
Upper secondary (vocational)					19-30	20-30
IRL						
Primary						25
Lower secondary						24
Upper secondary (general)						24
Upper secondary (vocational)						
I						
Primary	40	40	40	40	40	40
Lower secondary	40	40	40	40	40	40
Upper secondary (general)	40	40	40	40	40	40
Upper secondary (vocational)	40	40	40	40	40	40

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1993
L						
Primary	29	29	29	29	29	29
Lower secondary	29	29	29	29	29	29
Upper secondary (general)	29	29	29	29	29	29
Upper secondary (vocational)	29	29	29	29	29	29
NL						
Primary					26	26
Lower secondary					23-21	24
Upper secondary (general)					27	24
Upper secondary (vocational)					25	24
AT						
Primary	40	40	40	40	40	40
Lower secondary	40	40	40	40	40	40
Upper secondary (general)	40	40	40	40	40	40
Upper secondary (vocational)	40	40	40	40	40	40
P						
Primary						29
Lower secondary						29
Upper secondary (general)						29
Upper secondary (vocational)						
FI						
Primary	15	15	15	15	20	20
Lower secondary	15	15	15	15	20	20
Upper secondary (general)	15	15	15	15	20	20
Upper secondary (vocational)	15	15	15	15	20	20
SE						
Primary				15	15	23
Lower secondary				15	15	20
Upper secondary (general)				15	15	20
Upper secondary (vocational)				15	15	20
UK (E/W, NI)						
Primary	14	14	13	13	13	9
Lower secondary	14	14	13	13	13	9
Upper secondary (general)	14	14	13	13	13	9
Upper secondary (vocational)						
UK (SC)						
Primary	15	15	15	13	12	8
Lower secondary	15	15	15	10	11	8
Upper secondary (general)	15	15	15	9	10	8
Upper secondary (vocational)						

Source: Eurydice.

SOURCES

Data from Eurostat labour force survey for Graphs C5, E20 and F10.

Austria: Austrian Central Statistics Office.

Finland: Statistics Finland, The supplementary labour force survey, autumn 1993.

Sweden: Swedish Eurydice unit.

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GLOSSARY

B fr	Belgium French Community
B de	Belgium German-speaking Community
B nl	Belgium Flemish Community
DK	Denmark
D	Germany
GR	Greece
E	Spain
F	France
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
AT	Austria
PO	Portugal
FI	Finland
SE	Sweden
UK (E/W)	United Kingdom, England and Wales
UK (NI)	United Kingdom, Northern Ireland
UK (SC)	United Kingdom, Scotland
ISCED	International Standard Classification for Education
ILO	International Labour Office
GDP	Gross domestic product
HF	Højere Forberedelseseksamen (higher preparatory examination)
EUD	Erhvervsuddannelser (vocational education)
HHX	Højere Handelseksamen (higher commercial examination)
HTX	Højere Teknisk Eksamen (higher technical examination)
TES	Techniki Epaggelmatiki Skoli (technical-vocational school)
AEI	Panepistimio/Anotati Skoli (higher university education)
TEI	Technologiko Ekpedeutiko Idryma (higher technological education)
BUP	Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente (general education at upper secondary level)
COU	Curso de Orientación Universitaria (one-year university orientation course)
CPGE	Classes préparatoires aux grandes écoles (preparatory classes for the *grandes écoles*)
STS	Sections de techniciens supérieurs (higher technical sections)
BEP	Brevet d'études professionnelles (vocational studies certificate)
CAP	Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle (vocational aptitude certificate)
BAC	*Baccalauréat*
IST	Institut supérieur de technologie (higher technological institute)
ISERP	Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques (institute of higher education for teacher training)
IEES	Institut d'études éducatives et sociales
BTS	Brevet de technicien supérieur (higher technician's certificate)
VWO	Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (pre-university education)
WO	Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (university education)
HAVO	Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs (senior general secondary education)
HBO	Hoger Beroepsonserwijs (higher professional education)
MAVO	Middelbaar Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs (junior secondary education)
MBO	Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (senior secondary vocational education)
VBO	Voorbereidend Beroepsonderwijs (pre-vocational education)
CSPOPE	Cursos Secundários Predominantemente Orientados para o Prosseguimento de Estudos (general courses)
CT	Cursos Technológicos (technological courses)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This second edition of the report
'Key data on education in the European Union, 1995'
has been produced thanks to the contribution of the following persons:

At the European Unit of EURYDICE
Scientific coordination of the document

Arlette Delhaxhe

Drafting of the dossier on teachers

Arlette Delhaxhe
Maria Luisa Garcia
Anne Godenir
Pierre Largy

Preparation of graphics and layout

Patrice Brel

Translation and revision of English version

Anne O'Brien

Coordination of printing

Gisèle De Lel

The following provided support in the preparation of the first part

Hans Luyten, University of Twente, Netherlands
Annick Sacré, University of Liège, Belgium

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